

1 **Horváth, Z., Román, N., Elekes, Z., Griffiths, M.D., Demetrovics, Z. & Urbán, R. (2020).**
2 **Alcohol consumption and eating disorders in adolescence: The mediating role of drinking**
3 **motives. *Addictive Behaviors*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2020.106431>**

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17 Authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

18

19 **Abstract**

20 **Background.** A complex and bidirectional association has been assumed between feeding and
21 eating disorders (FEDs) and alcohol consumption. Previous research has demonstrated that alcohol
22 use among individuals with different forms of FEDs is more frequently motivated by two subtypes
23 of internal drinking motives: coping and enhancement motives. Namely, these individuals might
24 use alcohol primarily to regulate internal states, such as to mitigate negative emotions or enhance
25 positive emotions.

26 **Objectives.** The present study investigated the mediating role of internal drinking motives on the
27 association between risk for FEDs and alcohol consumption over the effects of relevant covariates,
28 such as depressive symptoms or body mass index (BMI).

29 **Methods.** Hungarian data of the European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs
30 (ESPAD) from 2015 were used. The final sample included responses from 5457 adolescents (50%
31 males; mean age: 16.62 years). Validated self-report psychometric instruments assessed the level
32 of alcohol use, depressive symptoms and risk for FEDs, and drinking motives.

33 **Results.** Risk for FEDs presented a significant positive relationship with internal drinking motives
34 and alcohol use. In the mediation analysis, a significant indirect effect was identified between risk
35 for FEDs and alcohol use via internal drinking motives among females.

36 **Conclusions.** Results demonstrated that risk for FEDs was positively associated with internal
37 drinking motives and alcohol use. An indirect effect of risk for FEDs on alcohol consumption via
38 internal drinking motives was discriminated over the impact of depressive symptoms. However,
39 the latter relationship was only found among females which may underline the gender differences
40 in FEDs.

- 41 **Keywords:** feeding and eating disorders; drinking motives; gender differences; adolescents;
- 42 alcohol consumption; alcohol comorbidity

43 **1. Introduction**

44 According to the fifth edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-
45 5), the category of feeding and eating disorders (FEDs) is a heterogenous group of disorders defined
46 by psychological and physiological difficulties related to eating behavior or appetite. The
47 diagnostic category of FEDs includes various distinct disorders, such as anorexia nervosa,
48 avoidant/restrictive food intake disorder, binge eating disorder, bulimia nervosa, pica, and
49 rumination disorder (APA, 2013). Pre-adolescence and adolescence are considered as crucial
50 developmental phases due to the progression of various risk behaviors, such as development of
51 clinical and sub-clinical forms of FEDs (Pearson, Riley, Davis, & Smith, 2014). Approximately
52 3.7% of adolescents are affected with any form of clinical level FED (Flament et al., 2015).
53 However, an even higher proportion of adolescents show sub-threshold or sub-clinical types of
54 FEDs (e.g., 6.1% for bulimia nervosa, 4.6% for binge eating disorder) (Stice, Marti, Shaw, &
55 Jaconis, 2009). Females generally show higher prevalence rates for various forms of FEDs during
56 adolescence (Croll, Neumarksztainer, Story, & Ireland, 2002; Kjelsås, Bjørnstrøm, & Götestam,
57 2004), while it has also been reported that incidence rates of any forms of FEDs might increase
58 until around the age of 16-17 years during adolescence (Javaras et al., 2015). Among adolescents,
59 various symptom of FEDs (e.g., drive for thinness, bulimic symptoms) are associated with higher
60 rates of body mass index (BMI) (Fan et al., 2010). Sub-threshold forms of different FEDs during
61 adolescence constitute a risk for experiencing increased symptom severity or clinical forms of
62 different FEDs later in adulthood (Neumark-Sztainer, Wall, Larson, Eisenberg, & Loth, 2011).
63 Furthermore, subclinical forms of FEDs are also associated with higher rates of co-occurring
64 psychopathological symptoms, such as symptoms of depression or anxiety (Herpertz-Dahlmann et
65 al., 2015; Touchette et al., 2011). In the present study, the term of “risk for feeding and eating

66 disorders (FEDs)” is applied to reflect general and non-specific FED-related symptom severity
67 which might indicate a higher risk for having some forms of FED in absence of formal clinical
68 diagnosis (Richter, Strauss, Braehler, Adametz, & Berger, 2017).

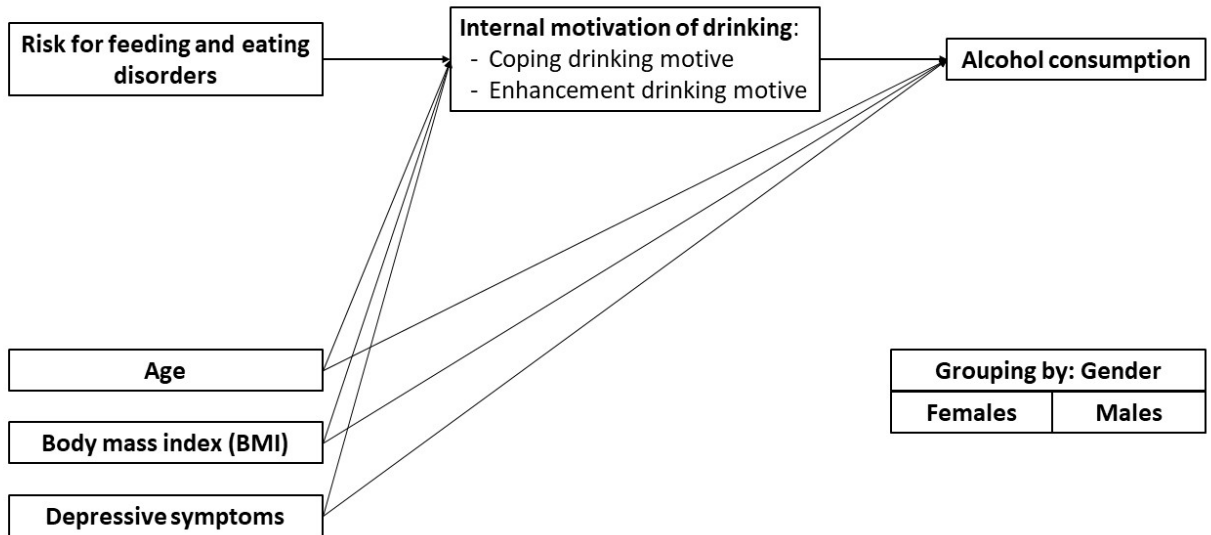
69 Co-occurrence of different forms of FEDs and substance misuse has been consistently reported in
70 previous studies. Symptoms of different types FEDs are associated with alcohol use among
71 treatment-seeking and non-treatment-seeking adolescents (Arias, Hawke, Arias, & Kaminer, 2009;
72 Baker et al., 2018). More specifically, a higher severity of anorexia nervosa or bulimia nervosa
73 symptoms among adolescents has been associated with more severe patterns of alcohol
74 consumption (e.g. more frequent intoxication), more adverse social and psychological
75 consequences (e.g. higher level of alcohol-related physical symptoms) (Arias et al., 2009; Castro-
76 Fornieles et al., 2010). Within the cluster of FEDs, bulimic characteristics, such as binge eating or
77 purging, have shown a more robust association with alcohol use compared to restrictive FED
78 features such as anorexia nervosa (Baker et al., 2017; Gregorowski, Seedat, & Jordaan, 2013).
79 Longitudinal findings have suggested that symptoms of alcohol misuse develop subsequently with
80 the onset of FEDs rather than the other way around (Baker, Mitchell, Neale, & Kendler, 2010;
81 Franko et al., 2005).

82 One explanation concerning the co-occurrence of different forms of FEDs and elevated levels of
83 alcohol use is that they share underlying emotional risk mechanisms, such as elevated reward
84 sensitivity and negative affect dysregulation (Schulte, Grilo, & Gearhardt, 2016; Stewart, Brown,
85 Devoulyte, Theakston, & Larsen, 2006). In the cases of reward-seeking behaviors, individuals seek
86 reinforcing activities, such as using alcohol or binge eating in order to enhance positive emotions,
87 and they perceive these behaviors as highly pleasant (Birch, Stewart, & Brown, 2007; Dawe &
88 Loxton, 2004; Schulte et al., 2016). Related to the ‘self-medication’ concept, it has been assumed

89 that different forms of FEDs (e.g. binge eating disorder) and alcohol consumption occur as a coping
90 response with the aim of mitigating negative affect (Birch et al., 2007; Cook, Wonderlich, &
91 Lavender, 2014; Stewart et al., 2006). Alternatively, the impulsivity facet of negative urgency
92 might also play an important role, which is the tendency to act rashly when experiencing negative
93 affective states. Individuals with high level of negative urgency are likely to engage in the
94 aforementioned risk behaviors impulsively when experiencing negative emotions (Fischer,
95 Anderson, & Smith, 2004).

96 The aforementioned positive and negative reinforcement mechanisms are also represented in
97 interrelated motives for FEDs (e.g. binge eating disorder) and alcohol use (Luce, Engler, &
98 Crowther, 2007). Due to the aforementioned similar risk characteristics of emotion regulation,
99 individuals who show risk for FEDs might be more likely consume alcohol because of positive and
100 negative reinforcement mechanisms in terms of affective states. Within the framework of the
101 motivational model of alcohol use (Cooper, 1994), it is expected that alcohol consumption is more
102 likely to be motivated by internal motives for those who show a risk for FEDs. Namely, these
103 individuals might use alcohol more frequently in order to regulate their internal or affective states,
104 such as to mitigate negative affect (coping motives) or enhance positive emotions (enhancement
105 motives). To date, only a few studies have investigated the relationship between different forms of
106 FEDs and drinking motives (Anderson, Simmons, Martens, Ferrier, & Sheehy, 2006; Luce et al.,
107 2007; Mikheeva & Tragesser, 2016). Based on these findings, individuals with different forms of
108 FEDs, such as bulimia nervosa or binge eating disorder, have shown higher levels of coping
109 motives for drinking.

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Figure 1. *Hypothesized conceptual model related to the association between risk for FEDs and alcohol consumption*

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The present study aimed to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the interrelations

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between risk for FEDs, drinking motives, and alcohol use. A conceptual model was hypothesized

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and tested (Figure 1) where the association between risk for FEDs and alcohol consumption would

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be mediated by internal drinking motives. It was assumed that alcohol use among adolescents who

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show higher risk for FEDs would be driven by coping (e.g., drinking to forget about problems) and

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enhancement motives (e.g., drinking because it is exciting) to a greater extent, which subsequently

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contribute to more severe forms of alcohol consumption (Anderson et al., 2006; Birch et al., 2007;

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Luce et al., 2007). Therefore, based on the aforementioned theoretical considerations (i.e., shared,

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positive and negative affective reinforcement mechanisms which might explain the co-occurrence

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of different forms of FEDs and elevated levels of alcohol use, and their implications for the

125 motivational background of alcohol use), the present study primarily assessed the mediating role
126 of internal motives (i.e., using alcohol to regulate internal or affective states) between risk for FEDs
127 and alcohol use. Due to this, the indirect effects of risk for FEDs on alcohol consumption via
128 external motives (i.e., social and conformity motives) were only investigated as supplementary
129 analyses. It was expected that the effect of risk for FEDs on alcohol consumption would be
130 separately demonstrable among males and females over the co-occurring effect of depressive
131 symptoms (Herpertz-Dahlmann et al., 2015; Touchette et al., 2011) as well as after considering the
132 possible covariance between age, BMI, and risk for FEDs (Javaras et al., 2015, Fan et al., 2010).
133 To the best of the authors' knowledge, no previous study has examined the potential mediating role
134 of drinking motives between risk for FEDs and alcohol consumption.

135 **2. Methods**

136 *2.1. Participants and procedure*

137 The present study's data derived from the Hungarian data of the European School Survey Project
138 on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD) from 2015. The aim of the ESPAD study is to collect data
139 on adolescents' tobacco, alcohol, and other substance use to facilitate temporal and cross-national
140 comparisons (Elekes, 2016). The target population of this study consisted of ninth- and tenth-grade
141 students in general and vocational secondary schools (i.e., 16 year old students born in 1999).
142 Stratified cluster sampling was applied to assure representativeness of the sample in terms of
143 geographic region, grade, and school type. In total, 7% of the selected schools declined to
144 participate in the study. The study of the ESPAD 2015 Hungary comprised data from 6,664
145 students. Data from 443 students were excluded from the analyses due to an invalid questionnaire
146 or inconsistent response patterns. Only data were considered for the final analyses from those
147 adolescents who reported alcohol consumption in their lifetime. Consequently, data from further

148 764 participants were excluded from the analyses because of lifetime abstinence of alcohol
149 consumption. Therefore, the final sample included responses from 5,457 participants (proportion
150 of males: 50.0% [n=2731]; mean age=16.62 [SD=0.94]; mean BMI=21.66 [SD=3.78]).

151 **2.2. Measures**

152 *2.2.1. Alcohol consumption.* Six alcohol consumption-related items were selected for the analyses
153 to reflect frequency of alcohol use (ESPAD Group, 2016). Frequency of alcohol use and
154 drunkenness were assessed during the past 12 months and 30 days using a seven-point frequency
155 scale (*1=0 times, 7=40 or more times*). The level of binge drinking was also taken into account:
156 individuals had to assess how frequently they consumed at least five drinks in one occasion during
157 the past 30 days on a six-point scale (*1=0 times, 6=10 or more times*). Finally, participants
158 estimated on a ten-point scale the level of self-reported drunkenness on the last occasion when they
159 consumed alcohol (*1=Alcohol did not have an effect; 10=I was very drunk, I did not remember*
160 *what happened to me*). The level of alcohol consumption was represented by a composite
161 continuous latent variable which was defined by the aforementioned observed alcohol use
162 indicators ($\omega=0.89$). Illustration of the construction of the continuous one-factor latent variable
163 assessing alcohol use and factor loadings related to the observed indicators are presented in
164 Supplementary Figure 1. Previous studies have also applied similar approach and assessed the level
165 of alcohol consumption by a continuous unidimensional latent factor based on various observed
166 indicators of alcohol use (Källmén., Berman, Jayaram-Lindström, Hammarberg, & Elgán, 2019;
167 LaBrie, Lac, Kenney, & Mirza, 2011; Sher, Wood, Wood, & Raskin, 1996).

168 *2.2.2. Center of Epidemiological Studies Depression-Scale (CES-D).* Depressive symptomatology
169 was assessed using the short form of the CES-D-Scale (Original version: Kokkevi & Fotiou, 2009;
170 Hungarian version: Demetrovics, 2007). It comprises six items reflecting various symptoms of

171 depression during the past seven days, such as concentration issues and mood disturbances.
172 Adolescents had to provide responses for each question on a four-point scale (1 =nearly never;
173 4 =nearly always). The scale presented a good level of internal consistency in the present sample
174 ($\alpha=0.84$). Depressive symptoms were specified as one-factor latent variable in the present analyses
175 ($\omega=0.89$).

176 *2.2.3. Drinking Motives Questionnaire – Short Form (DMQ-SF)*. Participants' reasons for using
177 alcohol was assessed using the 12-item shortened version of the DMQ (Original version: Kuntsche
178 & Kuntsche, 2009; Hungarian version: Németh, Kuntsche, Urbán, Farkas, & Demetrovics, 2011).
179 The instrument originally assessed four types of drinking motives: (i) coping, (ii) conformity, (iii)
180 enhancement, and (iv) social motives. Students answered each item on a five-point scale (1 =never;
181 5 =always). Based on predominantly theoretical considerations, only internal (i.e., coping and
182 enhancement) motives were involved in the current analyses related to the hypothesized conceptual
183 model. A good level of internal consistency was demonstrated related to the two selected subscales
184 of the DMQ in the present sample (enhancement: $\alpha=0.82$; coping: $\alpha=0.89$).

185 However, due to the extremely high level of correlation between coping and enhancement motives
186 ($r=0.86$), it was not possible to include both factors of internal drinking motives separately in the
187 analysis. Therefore, in the mediation analysis, a latent factor of 'internal drinking motives' was
188 specified which incorporated items of the coping and enhancement subscales ($\omega=0.94$).
189 Consequently, this factor represented motives of general affect regulation for alcohol consumption
190 irrespective of their valence. In line with this, previous studies have also underlined that
191 enhancement and coping drinking motives are not distinct but rather more combined constructs,
192 and it is hard to separate them at within-person level (Goldstein & Flett, 2009). Similarly, other

193 studies have suggested the existence of a broad and non-specific construct of drinking motives (Lac
194 & Donaldson, 2017; Urbán, Kökönyei, & Demetrovics, 2008).

195 *2.2.4. SCOFF Questionnaire.* In order to assess the risk for FEDs among respondents, the SCOFF
196 questionnaire was used (original version: Morgan, Reid, & Lacey, 1999; Hungarian version:
197 Dukay-Szabó et al., 2016). The scale was originally designed to screen for FEDs. It contains five
198 items which reflect on the core symptoms of anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa. The name of
199 the questionnaire is an acronym reflecting on the content of the symptoms included in the scale
200 (e.g., letter ‘C’– for ‘control’– denotes worrying about losing control over eating). Participants had
201 to decide in the case of each item if it was true for themselves or not (*0=no; 1=yes*). Traditional
202 measure of reliability presented inadequate degree of internal consistency in the present sample
203 ($\alpha=0.55$). Previous studies also reported inadequate α levels for the SCOFF because it contains
204 small number of items and its items represent symptoms of disparate disorders (Burton, Abbott,
205 Modini, & Touyz, 2015; Garcia et al., 2010). In order to overcome this problem, risk for FEDs was
206 defined as a one-factor latent variable in the present analysis ($\omega=0.78$). Previous studies using
207 confirmatory factor analysis and item response theory analysis have also supported the
208 unidimensional latent structure of the questionnaire (Bean, 2019; Richter et al., 2017).

209 **2.3. Data analysis**

210 Structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed to examine the indirect effect of risk for FEDs
211 on alcohol use via internal drinking motives. The analysis was performed separately for males and
212 females in order to control the possible gender-related differences in terms of FEDs (Croll et al.,
213 2002). The effects of age, BMI, and depressive symptoms were also taken into account during the
214 analyses. Because comorbidity might be present between different forms of FEDs and depressive
215 symptoms among adolescents (Santos, Richards, & Bleckley, 2007), it was necessary to distinguish

216 the effects of risk for FEDs on drinking motives and alcohol use outcomes from those of depressive
217 symptoms. In the mediation analysis, risk for FEDs and depressive symptoms, internal drinking
218 motives, and level of alcohol consumption were specified as a continuous one-factor latent
219 variables. Total, direct, and indirect effects of risk for FEDs on alcohol use via internal drinking
220 motives were assessed.

221 Supplementary analyses were also conducted to separately test the mediating effect of each
222 drinking motive between risk for FEDs and alcohol consumption. Although due to theoretical
223 considerations the present study did not aim to examine the mediating role of external drinking
224 (i.e., conformity and social) motives between risk for FEDs and alcohol use, interested readers can
225 investigate these findings in Supplementary Figure 2A-D. Moreover, additional supplementary
226 analyses also demonstrated that if the effect of highly correlating drinking motives (e.g.,
227 relationship among social, enhancement, and coping motives: $r=0.70-0.88$) were simultaneously
228 included in the mediation model, conformity and enhancement motives presented negative
229 relationships with alcohol consumption which are considered as a statistical artefact (i.e., negative
230 suppressor effects). This was indicated because of the significant and positive associations which
231 were demonstrated between drinking motives and alcohol consumption in mediation models
232 separately containing each of the drinking motives. These latter results are in line with previous
233 literature findings and theoretical considerations indicating that higher levels of drinking motives
234 can predict higher rates of alcohol use (Crutzen, Kuntsche, & Schelleman-Offermans, 2013).
235 Previous studies have also reported similar negative suppressor effects due to the high level of
236 correlation between factors of drinking motives, especially in the case of conformity motives
237 (Németh et al., 2011).

238 Except for the variable assessing the level of drunkenness on the last occasion, all indicator
239 variables of the continuous latent variables were specified as categorical observed variables. The
240 model estimation was based on the Weighted Least Squares Mean and Variance (WLSMV)
241 technique. Degree of model fit was determined based on various model fit indices. Optimal level
242 of model fit was indicated by values of at least 0.90-0.95 in the case of the Comparative Fit Index
243 (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). A value below 0.05 of the of Root Mean Squared Error
244 of Approximation (RMSEA) index marks an adequate model fit. All analyses used weighted data
245 to ensure representativeness of the sample. Moreover, cluster effect due to class-based sampling
246 and possible non-independence of the observations within each cluster was also modeled. Analyses
247 were performed using MPlus 8.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) and IBM SPSS Statistics 23.0
248 software. For preliminary analyses conducted by using the latter software, missing data were
249 handled by listwise deletion, while for SEM analyses conducted by MPlus 8.0, pairwise deletion
250 was applied to handle missing data.

251 **3. Results**

252 ***3.1. Preliminary analyses***

253 Table 1 presents the prevalence of alcohol use-related indicators and risk for FEDs in the total
254 sample, and among males and females. Except for alcohol consumption status in the past 12
255 months, males presented significantly higher odds for engaging in each alcohol consumption-
256 related outcomes compared to females. Females demonstrated approximately three times higher
257 odds for having a risk for FEDs compared with males.

258 Additional analyses revealed that those individuals who reported of having symptoms of making
259 themselves feeling uncomfortably full, recently losing more than one stone in weight, and believing

260 themselves to be fat when others say they are too thin consistently, showed significantly higher
 261 odds of engaging in various alcohol consumption-related outcomes, such as alcohol consumption,
 262 drunkenness and binge drinking in the past 30 days, and drunkenness in the past 12 months
 263 (Supplementary Table 1).

264

265 Table 1. *Prevalence of alcohol use-related indicators and risk for FEDs in the total sample, and*
 266 *among males and females*

	Total sample N (%)	Males N (%)	Females N (%)	χ^2 (p)	OR [95% CI]
Alcohol consumption in the past 12 months	5081 (93.75%)	2539 (93.76%)	2542 (93.73%)	<0.001 (0.966)	1.00 [0.81- 1.25]
Alcohol consumption in the past 30 days	3531 (65.08%)	1826 (67.36%)	1703 (62.75%)	12.66 (<0.001)	1.22 [1.10- 1.37]
Drunkenness in the past 12 months	2816 (52.46%)	1480 (55.35%)	1335 (49.55%)	18.06 (<0.001)	1.26 [1.13- 1.40]
Drunkenness in the past 30 days	1185 (22.05%)	635 (23.71%)	550 (20.40%)	8.57 (0.003)	1.21 [1.07- 1.38]
Binge drinking in the past 30 days	2613 (47.89%)	1426 (52.23%)	1187 (43.54%)	41.28 (<0.001)	1.42 [1.27- 1.58]
Risk for FEDs ¹	1384 (26.39%)	411 (15.79%)	973 (36.83%)	298.78 (<0.001)	0.32 [0.28- 0.37]

267 Note. χ^2 : Chi square statistics representing comparisons between males and females. OR: Odds
 268 Ratio. 95% CI: 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratios. Odds ratios in bold are significant at
 269 least p<0.05 level. In each comparison, females were specified as the reference category. ¹ Risk for
 270 FEDs was determined by using the threshold of the SCOFF questionnaire: at least two positive
 271 responses on the instrument was assessed as a case for having a risk for FEDs. Number of missing
 272 cases in the total sample in the order of the variables presented in the first column: N=37; N=31;
 273 N=89; N=83; N=1; N=212. Number of missing cases in gender-based comparisons in the order of
 274 variables presented in the first column: N=37; N=32; N=91; N=83; N=1; N=212.

275

276 **3.2. Testing the indirect effect of risk for FEDs on alcohol consumption via drinking motives**

277 SEM was conducted separately for males and females to test the indirect effect of risk for FEDs on
 278 alcohol consumption via internal drinking motives. Bivariate correlations between the variables are
 279 displayed in Table 2. For interested readers, Supplementary Figure 2 contains results of these
 280 analyses which were performed to test the mediating effect of each drinking motives separately
 281 between risk for FEDs and alcohol consumption.

282

283 Table 2. *Correlation coefficients between latent and observed study variables among males and*
 284 *females*

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Age	-	0.09	0.05	0.09	0.17	0.22
2. BMI	0.01	-	0.04	0.37	0.03	0.07
3. Depressive symptoms	-0.04	0.03	-	0.21	0.27	0.17
4. Risk for FEDs	-0.01	0.31	0.45	-	0.17	0.09
5. Internal drinking motives	0.09	0.02	0.37	0.35	-	0.66
6. Alcohol consumption	0.16	0.03	0.24	0.23	0.69	-

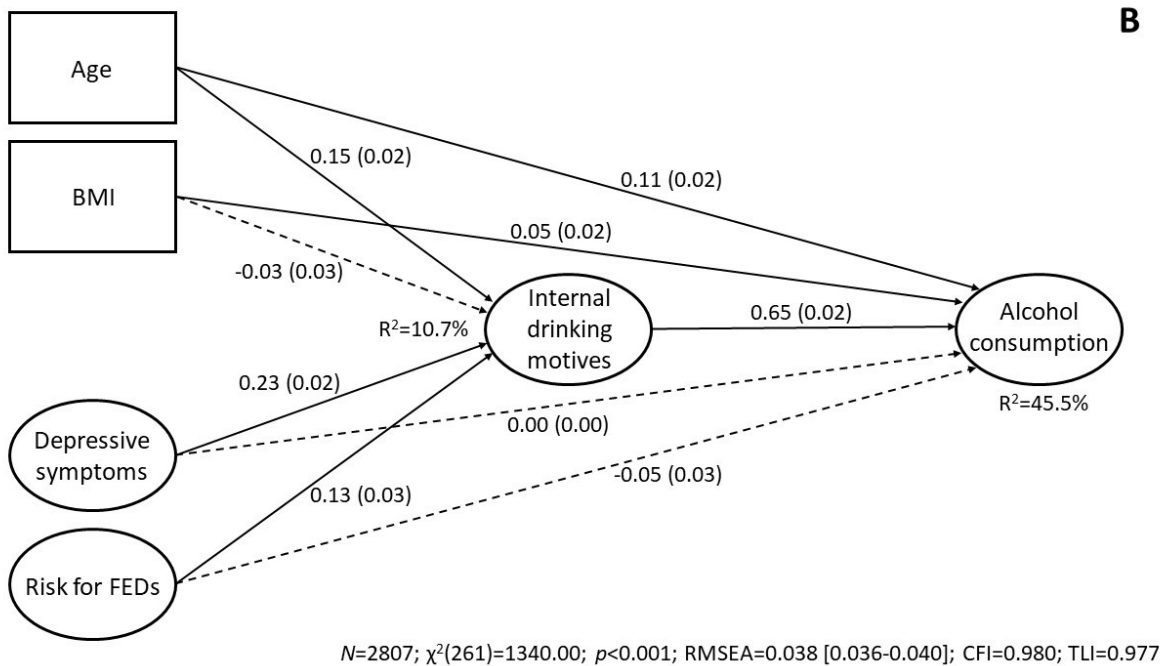
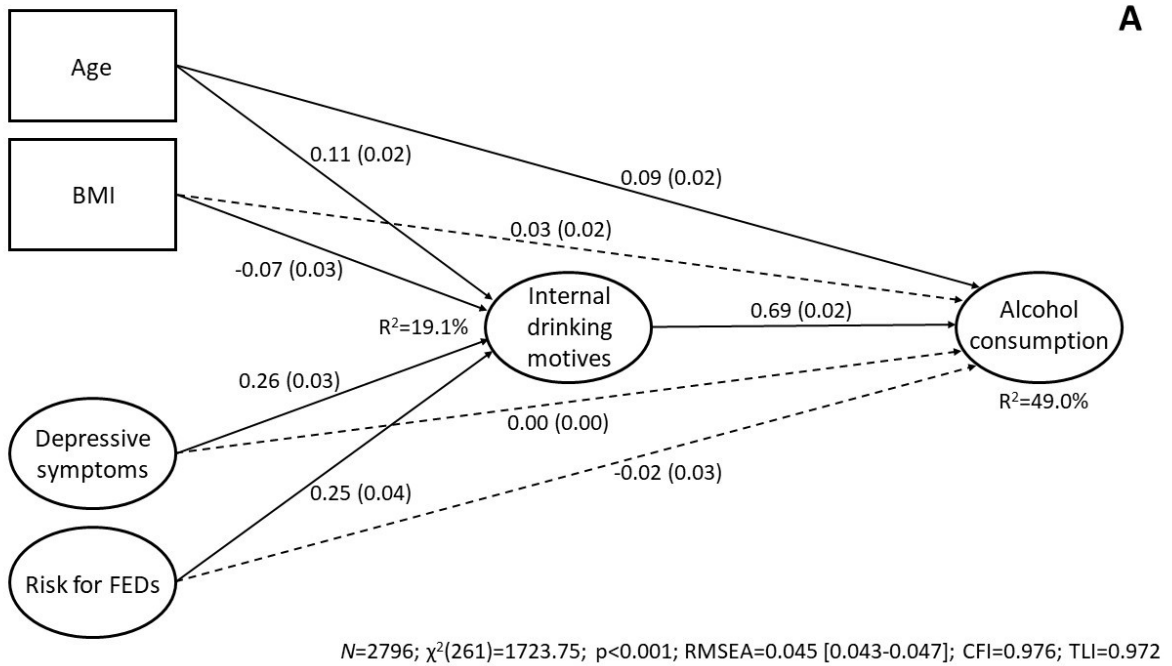
285 Note. Significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation coefficients are in bold. Correlation coefficients above the
 286 diagonal are assessed among males ($N=2807$), while correlation coefficients below diagonal are
 287 assessed among females ($N=2796$). Missing data statistics are equivalent to the data presented in
 288 Figure 2.

289

290 Regression path coefficients between the predictor and outcome variables are shown in Figure 1A
 291 for females and in Figure 1B for males. Optimal level of model fit was presented for males and
 292 females. For both gender groups, in the final model the regression path coefficient between
 293 depressive symptoms and alcohol use was fixed at 0 in order to avoid negative suppressor effects
 294 (unconstrained β for males=-0.06, $p=0.006$; unconstrained β for females=-0.11, $p=0.002$). Risk for
 295 FEDs and depressive symptoms presented a significant and positive predictive effect on internal
 296 drinking motives among males and females. The direct effect between risk for FEDs and alcohol

297 use was non-significant in both groups. The latent variable of internal drinking motives
298 demonstrated a significant, positive and strong relationship with alcohol consumption irrespective
299 of gender. Distal predictors partly explained the higher amount of the variance related to the latent
300 factor of internal drinking motives among females. It was assumed that this difference was due to
301 the slightly stronger relationship between ED symptoms and internal drinking motives among
302 females (B [95% CI] for males=0.13 [0.05-0.21], B [95% CI] for females=0.28 [0.18-0.38]). The
303 gender-based models explained 45.5-49.0% of the variance of alcohol consumption.

304



305
 306 Figure 2. Standardized regression coefficients representing the association between risk for
 307 FEDs, internal drinking motives and alcohol consumption among females (A) and males (B)
 308 Note. Figure 2A presents findings among females, while Figure 2B presents findings among males.
 309 Solid lines represent significant ($p<0.05$) standardized (β) regression coefficients. Dashed lines

310 represent non-significant ($p>0.05$) standardized (β) regression coefficients. Related to each
 311 regression coefficients, standard error (S.E.) values are presented in brackets. Regression
 312 coefficient between depressive symptoms and alcohol consumption was fixed at 0. Number of
 313 missing data patterns among females: $N=97$. Covariance coverage among females: mean
 314 covariance coverage=96.2% Range of covariance coverage=92.7%-100.0%. Number of missing
 315 data patterns among males: $N=107$. Covariance coverage among males: mean covariance
 316 coverage=94.9%. Range of covariance coverage=90.8%-99.9%.

317 Effect size indices relating to the total, direct, and indirect effects from risk for FEDs upon alcohol
 318 consumption are shown in Table 3. The total effect of risk for FEDs on alcohol use was significant
 319 among females, but it was non-significant for males. Therefore, for males, the indirect effect from
 320 risk for FEDs to alcohol consumption was not estimated. Among both genders, the direct effect of
 321 risk for FEDs did not remain significant after taking into account the effect of drinking motives.
 322 The indirect effect was significant via internal drinking motives among females. Therefore, higher
 323 risk for FEDs predicted higher level of internal drinking motives which subsequently contributed
 324 to elevated rates of alcohol consumption. This indirect effect was demonstrated over the influence
 325 of depressive symptoms.

326

327 *Table 3. Standardized and unstandardized effect size indices related to the total, direct and*
 328 *indirect effects from risk for FEDs to alcohol consumption among males and females*

	Males		Females	
	B (S.E.)	β (S.E.)	B (S.E.)	β (S.E.)
Total effect	0.05 (0.05)	0.03 (0.04)	0.22 (0.05)	0.16 (0.04)
Direct effect	-0.07 (0.05)	-0.05 (0.03)	-0.02 (0.05)	-0.02 (0.03)
Indirect effect through internal drinking motives	- ¹	- ¹	0.24 (0.04)	0.17 (0.03)

329 Note. Unstandardized (B) and standardized (β) effect size measures presented with bold figures are
330 significant at least $p < 0.05$ level. ¹Indirect effect from risk for FEDs to alcohol consumption was
331 not estimated among males due to non-significant total effect.

332

333 **4. Discussion**

334 The present study investigated the complex relationship between risk for FEDs, internal drinking
335 motives, and alcohol use. The main aim of the study was to investigate the mediating effect of
336 internal drinking motives in the association between risk for FEDs and alcohol use. To the best of
337 the authors' knowledge, this is the first time that the complex relationship between risk for FEDs,
338 drinking motives, and alcohol use has been examined among adolescents. According to the results
339 of the present study, the association between risk for FEDs and alcohol consumption was mediated
340 by internal drinking motives among females. Supporting the hypothesized conceptual model of the
341 study, the indirect effect including internal drinking motives demonstrated that more severe risk
342 for FEDs predicted higher level of drinking motives which enhanced positive or mitigated negative
343 emotions, which subsequently contributed to elevated rates of alcohol consumption. This indirect
344 effect was present while controlling for the effect of depressive symptoms.

345 This result is in line with previous research findings emphasizing the occurrence of high level of
346 coping drinking motives among participants with different forms of FEDs, such as bulimia nervosa
347 or binge eating disorder (Anderson et al., 2006; Luce et al., 2007; Mikheeva & Tragesser, 2016).

348 The present outcomes also fit the theoretical considerations which have attempted to identify
349 similar features of problematic alcohol use and different forms of FEDs. These studies assumed
350 that problematic forms of eating behavior (e.g. binge eating) and alcohol use might be motivated
351 by alleviating negative emotions (Cook et al., 2014; Stewart et al., 2006). Moreover, the
352 mediational model supported the assumption that adolescents with higher risk for FEDs might

353 engage in more heavy forms of alcohol consumption in order to experience more pleasant internal
354 states (Dawe & Loxton, 2004; Schulte et al., 2016). However, it is important to note that it was not
355 possible to assess the contribution of coping and enhancement motives separately due to their
356 strong correlation. Therefore, reasons which mitigated negative (e.g., using alcohol to cheer up
357 when an individual is in a bad mood) or enhanced positive emotions (e.g., using alcohol because it
358 is exciting) overlapped greatly among adolescents. Internal drinking motives represent general
359 affect regulation reasons for alcohol consumption (Goldstein & Flett, 2009). The strong positive
360 relationship between internal drinking motives and alcohol use is in accordance with previous
361 studies which suggested that higher levels of enhancement and coping motives are associated with
362 more harmful alcohol use outcomes (Kuntsche, Knibbe, Gmel, & Engels, 2005) The present
363 research focused primarily on drinking motives which emphasize the emotion regulation aspect of
364 alcohol use, therefore, external drinking motives, such as social and conformity motives, were not
365 included in the mediation model testing the hypothesized conceptual model. However, previous
366 research data presented evidence that, among treatment-seeking individuals with co-occurring
367 alcohol-related problems and binge eating, alcohol use might occur in a social context as well,
368 therefore it is not induced by motives of emotion control only (Birch et al., 2007). In line with this,
369 supplementary analyses showed that when the mediating effects of drinking motives were
370 examined separately, significant indirect effects of risk for FEDs on alcohol consumption via
371 conformity motives among males and females and via social motives among females were found.

372 It is important to highlight that a different pattern of findings was observed for males and females
373 in the mediation analyses. The total effect of risk for FEDs on alcohol consumption was only
374 significant among females, as well as the indirect effect via internal drinking motives, which was
375 also only significant among females. These findings suggest that the self-medicating role of alcohol

376 use among individuals with a higher risk for FEDs was only demonstrated among females. These
377 different patterns might be explained by gender-specific variations in FEDs. Previous studies have
378 reported that females show a higher symptom severity of some forms of FEDs (e.g. weight or shape
379 concerns, restraint), while males present a higher age of onset for FEDs, and different patterns of
380 symptomatology (e.g., higher tendencies for excessive exercise as a compensatory mechanism, or
381 muscular ideal of the body). In addition, females with different forms of FEDs might show elevated
382 rates of comorbid mood disorders, and experience higher levels of distress related to their
383 symptomatology (Kinasz, Accurso, Kass, & Le Grange, 2016; Murray et al., 2017). Also, different
384 pattern of findings between males and females might be explained by drinking motive-specific
385 differences among adolescents. During early adolescence, females are more likely to drink due to
386 coping motives, while it is also possible, that adolescent males with a risk for FEDs show a higher
387 tendency for motives with positive valence, such as social motives, which might play a more
388 important role in predicting alcohol use among them (Kuntsche et al., 2006).

389 ***4.1. Limitations and future directions***

390 The present results should be interpreted cautiously due to various limitations. First, because of the
391 cross-sectional nature of the study, it was not possible to explore causal relationships between the
392 variables examined. Because the mediational model was unable to control for bidirectional
393 relationships, future studies should use longitudinal or ecological momentary assessment (EMA)
394 design in order to obtain a more accurate picture of the interrelationship between the variables
395 (Pisetsky et al., 2016). Second, the present findings might not provide a comprehensive
396 representation of the associations between risk for FEDs and alcohol use, because important
397 predictor variables, such as negative urgency (Fischer, Settles, Collins, Gunn, & Smith, 2012),
398 were not included in the mediational model. Third, from a psychometric assessment perspective,

399 the SCOFF questionnaire provided a non-differentiated measurement of a risk for FEDs which may
400 have biased the present results. The broad diagnostic category of FEDs includes both
401 heterogeneous and distinct disorders which show disparate symptomatology, such as restricting
402 type of anorexia or binge eating disorder. By using the SCOFF questionnaire, the present study
403 was only able to superficially assess some core symptoms of anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa.
404 Furthermore, while multiple possible diagnostic categories might be simultaneously related to each
405 item of the questionnaire and some disorders (e.g., binge eating disorder) within the cluster of
406 FEDs, they are not covered entirely by the SCOFF. Although the study aimed to assess a general
407 and non-differentiated construct of a risk for FEDs, it is important to consider that FEDs are not a
408 single syndrome and in-depth exploration of symptomatology of divergent disorders within the
409 diagnostic category of FEDs. Furthermore, previous findings indicated that individuals in different
410 diagnostic categories within the cluster of FEDs show different motives for substance use (Baker
411 et al., 2010). Therefore, future studies need to examine (e.g., separately for individuals with
412 anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa) the mediating role of drinking motives between different
413 types of FEDs and alcohol use by specific diagnoses. Fourth, the present study only limitedly
414 assessed the unique contribution of each drinking motive. Future studies should explore the
415 relationship between risk for FEDs and alcohol use by simultaneously assessing indirect effects
416 related to each subscale of drinking motives. Finally, the present study assessed patterns of alcohol
417 consumption in an overall manner. Therefore it did not address investigating the varying effects of
418 risk for FEDs on different indicators of alcohol use (e.g., alcohol consumption in the past 12 months
419 or binge drinking), or membership of alcohol consumption-based subgroups (e.g., latent classes
420 characterized with frequent alcohol use with small quantities and high quantities).

421 **5. Conclusions**

422 The present study investigated the indirect effect of risk for FEDs on alcohol consumption via
423 drinking motives. Overall, the findings suggested that risk for FEDs were positively associated
424 with internal drinking motives and alcohol use among males and females. It was possible to
425 discriminate for females an indirect effect of risk for FEDs on alcohol consumption via internal
426 drinking motives over the impact of depressive symptoms. Consequently, these findings fit
427 previous data proposing a positive relationship between different symptoms of FEDs (e.g. purging,
428 bingeing) and problematic alcohol use among adolescents (Arias et al., 2009; Kirkpatrick et al.,
429 2019), and correspond with the assumption that individuals with a higher levels for restrained and
430 disinhibited FED-related behaviors show a greater tendency for preoccupation with alcohol-related
431 cognitions and prompts (Higgs & Eskenazi, 2007). Because individuals with co-occurring FEDs
432 and heavy alcohol use might be at risk to experience more severe consequences due to alcohol
433 consumption, treatment and prevention programs among treatment-seeking and non-treatment
434 seeking adolescents should take into account and explore the role of drinking motives. Drinking
435 motives are considered as important proximal predictors of alcohol use, therefore intervening at
436 the level of drinking motives might subsequently contribute to less severe levels of alcohol use.
437 Interventions working with adolescents showing a risk for FEDs might (i) provide personalized
438 feedback for these individuals in terms of their drinking motives, (ii) help to identify high-risk
439 situations of alcohol use when experiencing intense positive and negative emotions, (iii) introduce
440 alternative strategies to regulate their positive and negative affect states instead of alcohol use, and
441 (iv) train alcohol use-related protective or refusal skills for them when experiencing intense
442 positive and negative emotions (Carey, Scott-Sheldon, Carey, & DeMartini, 2007).

443

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