

Conceptualizing Body Dissatisfaction in Eating Disorders within a Self-Discrepancy Framework: A  
Review of Evidence

Elin L. Lantz, MS,<sup>1</sup> Monika E. Gaspar, MS,<sup>1,2</sup> Rebecca DiTore, MPH,<sup>1</sup> Amani D. Piers, BS,<sup>1</sup> Katherine  
Schaumberg, PhD<sup>1,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Psychology, Drexel University, 3141 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, PA 19104

<sup>2</sup> Department of Psychological Sciences, Texas Tech University, Box 42051 Lubbock, TX 79409-2051

<sup>3</sup> Department of Psychiatry, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, 10618 Neurosciences Hospital  
CB #7160, Chapel Hill, NC 27599

Corresponding author:

Elin L. Lantz

[elinlouiselantz@gmail.com](mailto:elinlouiselantz@gmail.com)

(952) 380-7243

### Abstract

Body dissatisfaction, the negative subjective evaluation of one's body, is associated with many negative psychological and physical health consequences. One conceptualization of body dissatisfaction includes an experience of discrepancy between perceived actual and ideal body shapes. This paper reviews literature on three facets of body dissatisfaction from the framework of self-discrepancy theory: perceptions of current weight, ideal body weight, and the relative importance of conforming to ideals. We review components of body dissatisfaction among healthy individuals and eating disordered individuals. We also address the conceptualization's relationship among body dissatisfaction, weight history, and dieting to expand the impact of body dissatisfaction research and to provide more information on the nature and treatment of eating disorders.

*Keywords:* Body Dissatisfaction, Self-Discrepancy Theory, Eating Disorders, Weight History

### Introduction

Body dissatisfaction, the negative subjective evaluation of one's body, is associated with a wide variety of negative psychological states and behaviors [1-4]. Body dissatisfaction is common in the general population and prevalent across all age cohorts, highlighting the ubiquity of this negative form of self-evaluation [5]. Individuals who have greater body dissatisfaction may have difficulty with other health-related behaviors, as body dissatisfaction is associated with decreased cancer screening self-exams [6], decreased success in smoking cessation [7], lower health-related quality of life [8], decreased mental health and sexual functioning [9], and higher Body Mass Index (BMI) [10,11]. Further, body dissatisfaction relates to poor mental health markers, including depression [12], anxiety [13], self-esteem [14], and overall quality of life [15]. In contrast to literature highlighting negative effects of body dissatisfaction, a few studies suggest that dissatisfaction may serve to motivate initiation of weight loss and physical activity in middle age adults [16,17]. Thus, some level of discrepancy between perceived self and ideal self may be useful in some circumstances.

For some individuals, however, body dissatisfaction is also strongly associated with the development and maintenance of eating disorders [3,18,19]. Evidence-based theoretical models of eating disorders, including the cognitive behavioral and dual-pathway models, implicate body dissatisfaction as a key risk and maintenance factor [19,20]. Identifying factors that contribute to severe body dissatisfaction could provide insight into how to reduce or prevent it. Self-discrepancy theory, which has recently been applied to models of disordered eating and treatment (e.g., Integrative Cognitive-Affective Therapy, or ICAT, for bulimia nervosa), offers a framework to conceptualize how life experiences and temperamental predispositions can lead to psychological difficulties [21], including body dissatisfaction. The theory posits three domains of the self: the actual self (i.e., what individuals perceive themselves to be), the ought self (i.e., what individuals believe they should achieve), and the ideal self (i.e., what individuals wish to be) [22,23]. Discrepancy between the actual and ideal selves may lead to negative affect and motivate maladaptive behaviors to attempt to rectify this discrepancy. The level of importance placed on the discrepancy is an additional component that influences an individual's level of

dissatisfaction. Within ICAT, self-discrepancy is applied to both interpersonal beliefs and cognitions about the self, as well as to the body. Investigations have supported the idea that individuals with bulimia nervosa (BN) have greater actual-ideal and actual-ought discrepancies than healthy individuals, and that these discrepancies relate to negative mood, body dissatisfaction, and bulimic symptoms [24,25]. Other research supports the presence of body-related self-discrepancy in anorexia nervosa (AN) and binge eating disorder (BED) and its relation to symptom severity [26], suggesting body dissatisfaction as a key transdiagnostic concept in eating disorders.

There is strong support for the hypothesis that body dissatisfaction plays a role in eating disorders, and self-discrepancy theory provides a clear framework for conceptualizing the different facets of body dissatisfaction that contribute to these disorders. However, literature on each component of an actual-ideal discrepancy for the body has not been examined collectively. Moreover, this literature has not been integrated directly with dieting and weight history literature, two closely related key factors in eating disorders.

The current study's first aim, therefore, is to clarify the nature of body dissatisfaction among those with eating disorders while using a self-discrepancy framework. To our knowledge, no studies have reviewed the literature on the self-discrepancy in perceived, actual, and desired body size across eating disorders. Therefore, this review provides novel insight into the nature of this discrepancy among different eating disorders and offers information relevant to the treatment of these conditions. For example, the discrepancy between perceived and desired sizes can influence a patient's willingness to cope with weight fluctuations or to gain weight, and may therefore be an important treatment target. The current review first focuses on the difference between an individual's perception of their own body and "ideal body". Although self-discrepancy theory recognizes that "ought" and "ideal" selves may diverge, the current review collapses research on the "ought" and "ideal" phenomena into an overall "ideal body" construct as they have not been consistently differentiated in prior literature. As a secondary part of this first aim, we also consider how the judgement of importance one places on this discrepancy influences an individual's risk of eating pathology.

A second aim of the study is to place this conceptualization of body dissatisfaction in the context of actual weight history, as previous studies of body dissatisfaction do not consistently consider relevant weight history variables. We place our conceptualization of body dissatisfaction within the framework of the weight suppression and dieting literature, with the goal of integrating how one feels about their body with objective measures of weight history and behaviors that cause actual weight loss. By connecting this psychological construct to its physical and behavioral partners, we aim to cultivate a greater understanding of the full influence and scope of body dissatisfaction on the development and maintenance of eating pathology.

### **Methods**

The current study offers a narrative review of body image and ideal body size among those without and with eating disorders. The comprehensive literature search of perceptions of the body and body ideals followed the methods detailed below. Additional articles not captured in the initial literature search, particularly regarding the discussion of weight history, were included based on their relevance to the theory-based narrative of this paper.

#### **Literature Search**

The current review used the search engines Pubmed, PsychInfo, and Google Scholar. For collecting studies on perception of the body or body image, the “body schema”, “body image”, “body image distortion”, “actual body size”, and “body size estimation” were searched alongside each of the terms “eating disorders”, “anorexia nervosa”, “bulimia nervosa”, “binge eating disorder”, and “normal weight healthy control”. For gathering articles on body ideals, the terms “ideal weight,” “ideal body size,” “desired weight” were searched alone and alongside the terms “eating disorders,” “anorexia nervosa,” “bulimia nervosa,” and “binge eating disorder.” In total, we performed 40 searches, replicated across three databases. Additional articles not returned in these searches were identified by searching references of relevant studies.

#### **Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria**

Articles were retained if they met one of the following inclusion criteria: a) included patients with AN, BN, or BED; b) included recovered eating disorder patients; c) studied body ideal or specifically included an objective or self-report measure of body perception or body weight; d) discussed the nature of body dissatisfaction. Articles were excluded if they focused only on individuals with obesity without an eating disorder, or if participants exhibited mild eating disorder symptoms (i.e., if participants did not experience any frequency of threshold symptoms such as severe restriction, binge eating, or purging), unless the study was specifically focused on healthy samples.

### **Article Extraction**

Initial searches produced a vast multitude of articles given the broad search parameters. As such, the first 100 hits from each of the searches described above were further examined to determine whether they met criteria for our review. Additionally, we included in our review other articles and authors who 1) were cited in this initial group of relevant articles and/or 2) cited this initial group of articles, if appropriate per our criteria. After screening these articles for relevance to the current study, 52 articles that met our inclusion criteria were retained and reviewed. Due to the variability in methodology and sample size, sample characteristics from the articles are presented in Table 1.

### **Actual Self: Body Schema and Body Image**

Both individuals' body schema (i.e., neural representation of their own body in space) [27] and their body image (i.e., overall perception of their body on a conscious level) [28] contribute to their perception of their physical 'actual' selves. The following section reviews inaccuracies in body representation among healthy individuals and eating-disordered individuals.

### **Body Image Among Individuals Without an Eating Disorder**

Varying levels of body image distortion exist among healthy individuals. One study found that 18% of normal-weight participants inaccurately identified as being overweight [29]. Likewise, a study investigating misperceptions of body shape in university students from Germany and Lithuania showed that 27% of the sample perceived themselves to be normal or even overweight despite being medically underweight [30]. Further, one study found that although less than 10% of their undergraduate sample

was overweight, more than half of participants self-identified as slightly or significantly overweight, a phenomenon that was more pronounced among women [31]. This misclassification of weight status does appear to depend somewhat on gender, as several large epidemiologic studies have shown that women tend to overestimate their weight status and men tend to underestimate their weight status [32,33]. This misperception also appears to extend to individuals' views of others' bodies, as one study found that young women incorrectly classified pictures of bodies as larger than their actual representation [34]. These results support the notion that healthy females' perception of 'normal weight' has become more consistent with a thinner or smaller body. In sum, it is clear that many individuals without an eating disorder experience some body image distortion, both of their own and others' bodies.

### **Body Image Among Individuals with AN and BN**

Distortions in body shape evaluations have also been observed in individuals with AN and BN. Several studies have documented the overestimation of body size (e.g., body figure rating scale or weight estimates) in AN and BN patients [35-40], although a few studies have failed to replicate these findings suggesting that more information is required to make firm claims about body size estimation [41,42].

One factor that may contribute to this overestimation among individuals with eating disorders is their flawed sensory perception, including deficits in tactile perception, of their bodies. Research has shown that individuals with AN have a lower threshold for sensing pressure on their abdomen and perceive two-point tactile stimuli on their body to have a larger gap than actually exists. This effect is particularly pronounced for the abdominal area, a region of the body that many eating disorder patients perceive as being too large [43-45]. Some of these tactile differences also appear to relate to greater body dissatisfaction [45]. More recently, research suggests that individuals with AN also exhibit abnormal proprioception; that is, they inaccurately perceive their bodies' relationship to objects in space [46-50]. For example, a study that investigated the way in which individuals with AN walked through doorway-like entries showed that these patients oriented themselves as if they were physically wider than they actually were [47]. These results suggest that eating disordered individuals often believe themselves to be larger than their objective bodies, a belief that leads to unconscious processing of this misrepresentation

(i.e., body schema) that affects motor movement. The findings imply that body schema and body image distortion impact both conscious cognitions as well as unconscious actions, which may make these distortions more difficult to target in treatment.

Relatedly, the integration of sensory information appears to be distinctly impaired among individuals with AN. For example, a study using a size-weight illusion task concluded that individuals with AN may have reduced integration of proprioceptive and visual information, providing a possible explanation for the observation that looking in a mirror does not improve these individuals' accuracy in perceiving their body size [51]. A study that used a rubber hand illusion paradigm similarly found that participants with AN exhibited greater proprioceptive drift and embodiment than healthy controls, providing more evidence of a deficit in the integration of visuo-tactile-proprioceptive information among individuals with AN [52]. These differences in the perceptual experiences of tactile stimulation may help explain inaccuracies in perceived body size among individuals with AN.

Body image distortion also exists in individuals with BN, with some studies positing that body image distortion is more pronounced in patients with BN than with AN, although findings are inconsistent [53,54]. For example, in a study using a photo distortion technique and a motion distortion device to measure body image distortion, individuals with BN overestimated their own body dimensions and believed their motion patterns reflected a higher BMI more so than controls [55]. Another study used a computer program that allowed participants to morph the fatness or muscularity of their bodies [35]. Overestimation of body fat was found among individuals with AN and BN, although individuals with AN showed a significantly greater overestimation of body fat than individuals with BN or healthy controls. These findings may have important treatment implications, as an accurate appraisal of current body shape is often a precursor to successful change, meaning that a greater body distortion may make behavioral change during treatment challenging.

Although limited in scope and diverse in methodology, recent neuroimaging research has provided corroborating evidence that individuals with eating disorders exhibit body image distortion to a greater degree than healthy individuals. These studies have demonstrated aberrant functionality,

connectivity, and grey matter volume in regions and networks associated both with the representation of bodies generally and within an individual's body schema [56]. Various theories have attempted to explain trends in these unique activation patterns, such as the possibility that there are deficits in visuospatial processing that could contribute to body image disturbance [48,50,57] or that general differences in body-image processing brain circuits are problematic among those with eating disorders [58]. These differential activation patterns have been identified in regions associated with the cognitive, motivational, and emotional components of body image among both those with AN and BN compared to healthy controls. For example, two studies found that the lateral fusiform gyrus and parietal cortex, regions associated with body image processing, were less activated in patients with AN and BN compared to healthy controls [58,59]. Initial findings suggest that different eating disorders may have activation patterns that reflect distinctive processing of their bodies [60-62]. Given the novelty of this type of work as well as the frequent small sample sizes and differing methodologies, more research is needed to replicate and clarify the differences in activation patterns in these relevant brain regions. Thus far, however, preliminary neuroimaging research indicates that these differences may contribute to the overestimation of body size and provides further evidence of body distortion among individuals with an eating disorder.

Overall, research indicates that individuals with certain eating disorders, particularly AN, show abnormal activity in regions associated with lower-order visual perception of bodies and in higher-order regions involved in the affective and cognitive regulation of body image.

### **Body Image Among Individuals with BED**

A small number of studies have investigated the misperception of one's own body in BED. One study assessed body image perception among individuals with obesity with and without BED using silhouette body drawings, and, after controlling for BMI, the groups did not differ in distortion [63]. Another study, conducted among women with obesity, asked participants to distort photographs of themselves using a photo distortion technique to investigate body image distortion among women with obesity [64]. Individuals with obesity and BED reported that their body size was larger than it actually was and that they felt larger than they really were in comparison to individuals with obesity without BED.

Similarly, a recent study that also used a photo distortion technique found that obese individuals with BED exhibited greater body image disturbance (cognitive-affective and behavioral) than obese persons without an eating disorder [65]. This finding may be a reflection of a greater self-discrepancy among individuals with an eating disorder partially due to a misinterpretation of their body size as being larger than it is.

### **Conclusions About Body Image**

Findings from the current literature suggest that there is some body image distortion among healthy individuals without eating disorders but that individuals with eating disorders likely have particularly inaccurate perceptions of their bodies. Taken in the discrepancy framework, the findings support the possibility that these individuals have a greater distortion in their perceived body size. In turn, this could contribute to a greater discrepancy between actual and ideal self and perpetuate the development and maintenance of eating pathology.

### **Ideal Self: Different Perceptions of the Ideal Body**

In attempts to discern whether one's perceived self meets an acceptable standard, individuals must compare themselves to a standard of attractiveness that they endorse. Thus, a second component of body self-discrepancy is the size or weight that an individual considers the ideal. Below, we review literature focused on the ideal body among individuals without and with an eating disorder.

### **Ideal Body Among Individuals Without an Eating Disorder**

Some researchers have long assumed that a common standard of attractiveness in the Western world is the thin ideal, a socially constructed phenomenon that presents ideal beauty as an extremely thin figure for women [66]. Both children and adults have been shown to rate the ideal body as being smaller than their ratings of what is "normal," suggesting that the desire to achieve a smaller-than-normal size persists throughout life for individuals in Western culture [67]. Some theories suggest that popular media plays a large role in creating and spreading the impact of the thin ideal. However, recent research demonstrates that media images of the thin ideal have minimal effects on the majority of viewers, with larger effects among a minority who already exhibit higher levels of body dissatisfaction [68,69], and that

overestimation of the effect of the media may stem from an artificial inflation of effect size due to publication bias [69]. In addition, experimental studies that address previous confounds, such as by masking the purpose of the study to participants, support the idea that the media may not play a major role in body dissatisfaction [70]. Therefore, it is likely that media images have a more limited influence in defining body ideals than previously thought. Overall, these results point to the complexity of body dissatisfaction, and indicate that media presentations of the thin ideal should not be considered a direct cause of body dissatisfaction.

Moreover, the concept of the “thin ideal” may be more complicated than initially thought. For example, recent research argues for the existence of an “athletic” ideal, an ideal more focused on a muscular body that is distinct from the thin ideal, and some initial research suggests that it does not contribute to body dissatisfaction [71]. Relatedly, both adult men and women believe that others are attracted to a body type that is thinner than what they selected as their preferred body size [72,73]. This finding indicates a general population misperception in the nature of a societal thin ideal; specifically, individuals perceive a societal body ideal as smaller than what they believe to be attractive. These results suggest the complexity of the “thin ideal” and that the actual preferred body size among the general population is diverse and may not be as consistently thin as sometimes believed. Simultaneously, this belief that society prefers a thinner body than what the individual prefers may translate into an individual’s artificially small personal body size ideal based on a misperception of others’ preferences.

### **Ideal Body Among Individuals with Eating Disorders**

Some research suggests that eating disordered individuals’ desired weight or figure is substantially smaller than that of healthy individuals, and that a lower desired weight is a precursor to more severe symptoms [18,74,75]. In support of self-discrepancy theory, differences between current and ideal figures have been shown to be greater in groups that also exhibit higher levels of dieting, eating pathology attitudes, bulimic behaviors, and food preoccupation [74]. Furthermore, among healthy girls ages 6 to 14, a larger perceived body size and a smaller idealized body size predicted increases in eating disorder symptom levels [18]. Similarly, eating pathology and AN and BN attitudes and beliefs

significantly predicted a lower ideal body mass, demonstrating a relationship between idealized body size/mass and maladaptive eating attitudes [76].

Ideal body size also seems to be abnormally small for those currently suffering from AN or BN. The thin ideal may be particularly salient to individuals with eating disorders, such that their perception of the thin ideal becomes increasingly inaccurate yet more powerful as they develop a disorder. Chernyak and Lowe determined that, compared to both unrestrained and restrained eaters, individuals with BN had a stronger drive for *objective* thinness, desiring a weight 15% below a medically ideal body weight [75]. In line with such results, another study found that women with AN or BN preferred a smaller amount of ideal body fat (15.80%; 16.00%, respectively), compared to healthy controls (19.30%) [35]. Interestingly, women with either AN or BN acknowledged that men's perception of the ideal body fat percentage in terms of heterosexual attractiveness ideals was higher than their ideal (19.10% and 17.16%, respectively), indicating that attractiveness to potential sexual partners is not a primary motivator of their internalized ideals. It is important to note, however, that there are a few inconsistencies in the findings that all individuals with eating disorders have lower ideals, such as one study that found that individuals with BN may desire a low-healthy BMI like healthy adults and that those with AN desire an underweight or emaciated BMI [77]. These inconsistencies suggest the need for further research on potential moderators that may distinguish which individuals may develop particular body ideals. Although these inconsistencies prevent a firm conclusion on ideals across eating disorder types, it is possible that, in general, individuals with eating disorders' initial subscription to the thin ideal will lead to a misinterpretation of the societal value that thinner is better. Ultimately, their pathological perception of the thin ideal may extend so far beyond societal values that it is no longer related to or motivated by these factors, but by an independent, personal desire to be thin. While eating disorder models have focused on an increased pressure to be thin or the internalization of the thin ideal as primary contributors to eating disorder predisposition [19,78], research on *distortions* of societal ideals has rarely been applied to actual eating disorder models and therefore deserves more attention [3,19,20].

To our knowledge, few studies have specifically examined desired or ideal weights among those with BED, and therefore this area deserves further exploration. However, one study using a photo distortion technique found no significant differences in ideal body images between a group of individuals with both BED and obesity and a group with obesity but not BED [64]. This finding provides initial evidence that individuals with BED may not have smaller body ideals than others at a similar weight.

### **Role of Low Ideal in Self-Ideal Discrepancy**

In studying these low, personal weight ideals, it is also important to consider the self-ideal discrepancy. Interestingly, Benninghoven and colleagues found that individuals with BN exhibited the greatest discrepancies between the perception of their own body and the ideal compared to healthy controls and individuals with AN [35]. Conversely, while individuals with BN believed they had more body fat than they did in reality, individuals with AN in this study perceived their body to be roughly equivalent to or smaller than their ideal, indicating that they may be obtaining psychologically-based reward by maintaining low weight. Within the self-discrepancy framework, this conclusion may indicate that some individuals with AN are either satisfied with their bodies but intensely fear weight gain or that they will soon develop increasingly thinner ideals. This framework may explain the proneness to body dissatisfaction that individuals with AN experience: their over-estimation of their own body size, in combination with an abnormally small ideal, makes them vulnerable to body dissatisfaction after any weight gain.

Although there is no current evidence that individuals with BED have smaller body ideals compared to others, they may still experience excessive body dissatisfaction [64]. Paired with the distortion in their perception of their weight (i.e., believing their size is larger than it is), it is possible that even these “normal” ideals would produce above-average self-ideal discrepancies for individuals with BED.

Although variability regarding the precise ideals for individuals with eating disorders exists, collectively the research suggests that those with certain eating disorders, particularly AN, strive for ideal weights that are abnormally low. Moreover, a large discrepancy between current and ideal sizes for

individuals with BN may cause distress, particularly when self-evaluation hinges primarily on shape and weight [20]. Similarly, those with BED may exhibit large self-ideal discrepancies due to a perception that their bodies are larger than they are [64]. Individuals with eating disorders who lose weight are likely to place a great importance on their weight given their efforts and the reinforcement experienced from the successful weight loss. As a result, they may intensely fear returning to a greater discrepancy as well as seek the reward associated with the achievement of their body weight ideal.

### **Conclusions about Ideal Self**

The impact of a low ideal body size may be even more complex than research has previously considered. For example, individuals may have distinct preferences for body type or shape beyond a specific ideal weight (i.e., an individual may be focused more intensely on particular body parts or desire a specific silhouette). In addition, eating disorder patients often report a distinction between weights they ought to achieve in the short term and ultimate ideal weights. Similarly, body dissatisfaction may fluctuate throughout the course of an eating disorder due to weight change and length of time that individual has been at a particular weight. While these many distinctions require further research, overall it appears that having a particularly low ideal body weight, as is often observed in individuals with AN or BN, may put an individual at risk of experiencing a greater self-ideal discrepancy which could result in high body dissatisfaction.

### **Personal Importance of Body Image and Ideal Weight**

A final and necessary factor to consider in determining an individual's body dissatisfaction is the amount of importance an individual places on the discrepancy. The idea that the importance one places on the self-ideal discrepancy influences the level of body dissatisfaction is consistent with both the cognitive behavioral and dual-pathway models of eating disorders, which both describe body dissatisfaction and overvaluation of shape and weight as maintenance factors of eating pathology [19,20]. According to these viewpoints, the effect of the discrepancy may be particularly pronounced when body image is already a primary means of self-evaluation or a large component of identity. Cognitive behavioral therapy, for example, argues that "overvaluation" of the importance of shape and weight in judging the self is a

primary maintenance factor for AN and BN [20]. While there may be some individuals who place a large importance in their self-evaluation on shape and weight who do not exhibit eating disorder symptoms, the existence of an investment in shape and weight, when combined with a large discrepancy between perceived and ideal bodies, exacerbates body dissatisfaction, which may or may not lead to an eating disorder. A noteworthy caveat related to this “level of importance” component of body dissatisfaction is that there may be some individuals with a large discrepancy who do not exhibit high body dissatisfaction. Specifically, it is possible that these individuals have a large actual-ideal discrepancy but place little importance on the construct. In these cases, body dissatisfaction may not occur because the amount of energy spent thinking or caring about the discrepancy is low.

#### **Relevance to Eating Disorder Literature: Dieting and Weight Suppression**

Body dissatisfaction, as conceptualized above, is clearly relevant to eating disorders given its focus on an individual’s relationship with their weight. This relevance is reflected in research on body dissatisfaction and eating disorder models. However, an apparent missing piece to the conceptualization of body dissatisfaction is an individual’s actual efforts to lose weight and their objective weight history. It may be important to consider the role of body dissatisfaction in the context of the individual’s actual weight and behavioral efforts to lose weight, an approach that is rarely utilized. Specifically, an individual’s current weight in addition to their patterns of weight change over time should be considered synchronously with current body dissatisfaction.

Taken together, the two main body dissatisfaction components--an inaccurate perception of one’s own body and a distorted, hyper-thin ideal body--can lead to cognitive dissonance, particularly when self-evaluation is dependent on weight and shape. Efforts to control weight and shape may be employed to rectify this discrepancy, a hypothesis consistent with findings that eating disorders often begin with a period of notable weight loss [79]. Beyond the desire for or idealization of a lower weight, a behavioral attempt to lose weight may be a helpful variable in conceptualizing body dissatisfaction. For example, one study found that in children between third and sixth grade, 50% wanted to weigh less but only 16% had attempted to lose weight, indicating a distinction between a mere desire to lose weight and working

toward weight loss [80]. Additionally, studying patients' motivations for dieting may be useful, as research has found psychological distinctions between dieting to lose weight and to avoid weight gain [81].

Furthermore, it is possible that individuals who, even after losing a large amount of weight, believe that they are still much larger than their ideal body, are in greater danger of a more severe disorder. Therefore, self-discrepancy and its components should be considered in conjunction with an additional variable, weight suppression (WS), or the discrepancy between a person's highest past weight and current weight. WS has been shown to be prominent in eating disorder populations and is associated with eating disorder severity, duration, and treatment response, although there are some conflicting findings on the subject [82-85]. WS is also associated with weight gain and, in some cases, binge eating, suggesting that being in a state of WS predisposes eating disordered individuals to regain to a historical high weight [85-88]. In fact, this gradual weight gain seems to be a common weight trajectory in BN, with most individuals with BN eventually surpassing their elevated premorbid weight [79]. Individuals with BN are prone to weight gain, yet any weight gain that pulls them further from their low weight ideal could be particularly distressing and trigger increased symptoms. Given the findings that eating disordered individuals tend to have lower ideal weights, if highly weight suppressed individuals still maintain a large discrepancy between their current perceived weight and ideal weight, they may be at greater risk for more severe symptoms and longer eating disorder duration. All four constituents of WS and self-discrepancy (i.e., highest actual weight, current weight, perceived weight, and desired weight) could be considered together and in different combinations to examine more accurately and qualitatively the relationship that individuals with eating disorders have with their bodies. For example, an individual with an elevated highest-ever weight combined with a low ideal weight may be prone to eating disorder behaviors, particularly if she is highly weight suppressed. Therefore, the interaction between body dissatisfaction and WS should be examined more fully in future research and clinical practice.

#### **A Final Consideration: Genetic Influences on Body Dissatisfaction**

It is also important to consider the influence genetics play in producing body dissatisfaction. In one study with 4,667 Finnish twins, genetics were shown to account for roughly 59% of variance in body dissatisfaction when using the Eating Disorder Inventory Subscale, suggesting the notable role genetics plays in influencing this phenomenon [89]. In addition to genetic influence on body dissatisfaction, studies examining genetic effects also find consistent evidence for the role of genetics in thin-ideal internalization [90] and in body weight [91]. Finally, a recent genome-wide association study of AN found evidence for a negative genetic correlation between BMI and AN, indicating that genes relevant to low body weight may also influence risk for AN [92]. As evidence accumulates indicating that genetics influence susceptibility to body weight status, body dissatisfaction, and eating disorders, a conceptualization of how the construct of body discrepancy develops will naturally be influenced by such findings. Likewise, as research on genetic risk for eating pathology progresses, identifying patterns of risk specific to perception of body size and ideal body weight may be fruitful areas of future research to understand the degree to which these components of body discrepancy are genetically influenced. Of note, genetic studies on body dissatisfaction to date have not been able to detect the degree to which genes interact with environmental exposure. It is possible, for instance, that the genetic effects on body dissatisfaction primarily manifest in a culture or environment that places importance on specific body size standards, or that other types of gene by environment interactions inform the development of body discrepancy. While we anticipate that indicators of genetic risk will be useful in identifying at-risk individuals in the future, clinically predictive tools that identify risk for body discrepancy are not yet available.

### **Conclusion**

Current eating disorder models center either on an overvaluation of shape and weight or on high levels of body dissatisfaction, yet fail to address the complex and qualitative nature of individuals' perception of their bodies. This paper integrated literature on an individual's psychological relationship to his or her body and weight. There are a number of contradicting findings and a potential bias in the

publishing of significant rather than null findings, which suggests that the conclusions should be interpreted with caution. However, the literature above can be distilled into several main conclusions.

First, one's own perception of her weight status may not always be accurate and contribute to disordered eating. It appears that healthy women over-estimate their weight and may therefore show a propensity toward body dissatisfaction, and most of them do not develop an eating disorder. There is also evidence that individuals with eating disorders have a distorted perception of their own body size and that these distortions may be reflected in a neurological deficit in bodily awareness, particularly among those with AN. Additionally, some initial research has indicated that individuals with binge eating disorder perceive their bodies to be larger than they actually are, more so than among those with obesity without an eating disorder [64]. These individuals, however, appear to endorse ideals that are roughly equivalent to those with obesity without an eating disorder, suggesting that their self-ideal discrepancy may be larger than average, but not due to an abnormally low ideal. This phenomenon may offer one explanation as to why individuals with binge eating disorder appear to have greater body dissatisfaction than individuals with obesity who do not exhibit disordered eating [65].

Second, while some research argues that Western society posits only one "thin ideal," there is wide debate about the possibility of several different ideals. There appears to be a plethora of perceived ideal body sizes, with some of the smallest ideals belonging to women and to those with eating disorders. The abnormally low ideal observed among eating disordered individuals may lead to particularly high body dissatisfaction among individuals with BN who are at a normal or high weight. This discrepancy, whether developed before or during an eating disorder, may influence efforts to reduce or maintain low weight and therefore propagate eating disorder symptoms.

Another consideration in interpreting body discrepancy is that an individual's perceived importance of their body weight may contribute to their behaviors related to body weight (e.g., restrictive behaviors). Someone who does not place great importance on their body weight may not engage in maladaptive restrictive behaviors even if they have a large self-ideal discrepancy.

Finally, it is important to note that the self-discrepancy is not consistently studied in tandem with objective measures of weight and weight history. The proposed conceptualization of body dissatisfaction, including the misrepresentation of one's current weight or shape and an abnormal shape or weight ideal, takes into account both the construct's complexity and is more directly applicable to literature on weight trajectories in eating disorders.

### **Clinical Implications**

Integrating the components of body dissatisfaction—perceptions of current weight, ideal body weight, and the relative importance of conforming to ideals—both for the individual patient and in research, will allow for a better understanding of the motivations behind eating pathology. While traditional cognitive behavioral approaches aim to challenge the relative importance of achieving an ideal body weight as a measure of personal success, alternative approaches to body dissatisfaction also deserve note. For instance, within a self-discrepancy framework, self-directed styles may be important in determining the degree to which a particular experience of discrepancy then impacts mood and behavior [24]. Recent research, for example, highlights that a self-compassionate approach may be beneficial for addressing experiences of inadequacy [93,94]. Applied to body dissatisfaction, it is possible that engendering a self-compassionate response when faced with feelings of discrepancy between an actual and ideal self could mitigate negative influences of body dissatisfaction [95]. Limited research has explored this possibility empirically.

Overall, taking into account specific weight goals, as well as previous high weights, current weight, and current “actual self” could give greater insight into motivation behind weight loss behaviors, whether pathological or healthy. For those with eating disorders, therapy may involve the identification of abnormally high perception of the actual body or abnormally low ideals. Based on this information, therapy could encourage the rejection of the thin ideal as well as education on actual body size and healthy body size. Patients could receive psychoeducation on the research supporting the existence of a misperception of what people think others are attracted to (i.e., thinking that others are attracted to thinner figures than they actually are) as well as on the ranging preferences in body types. In addition, actual

body size, weight history, markers of health risk, and, in the future, biological and genetic data, can be taken into account when setting weight goals or discussing individual-level body ideals. Further, a key consideration in eating disorder treatment is when and whether patients are aware of their weight.

Outpatient cognitive behavioral protocols and family-based treatment generally prescribe once per week unblinded weigh-ins with a therapist, but this recommendation is not common across therapists and higher levels of care [20,96]. The experience of body or body weight discrepancy can provide an ideal opportunity for patients to practice in-vivo distress tolerance skills. Delay, distraction, and self-soothing strategies may assist individuals to cope with this perceived discrepancy between their current and ideal weights [20]. As mirror exposure has been supported as an intervention to improve body image [97,98], future intervention research may build upon this research and explore exposure and distress tolerance to body size perception and weight fluctuation more directly through photo and mirror distortions. Future research should explore these possible interventions. Given the potential information on eating problems and improvements in treatment, it is imperative that this more complex and comprehensive conceptualization of body evaluation and body dissatisfaction be studied and applied in eating pathology.

**Compliance with Ethical Standards**

On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there are no conflicts of interest. This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

### References

1. Rodríguez-Cano T, Beato-Fernández L, Llarío AB (2006) Body dissatisfaction as a predictor of self-reported suicide attempts in adolescents: a Spanish community prospective study. *J Adolesc Health* 38(6):684-688. doi: 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2005.08.003
2. Sutter C, Nishina A, Adams RE (2015) How you look versus how you feel: associations between BMI z-score, body dissatisfaction, peer victimization, and self-worth for African American and white adolescents. *J Adolesc* 43:20-28. doi: 10.1016/j.adolescence.2015.05.002
3. Stice E, Shaw HE (2002) Role of body dissatisfaction in the onset and maintenance of eating pathology: a synthesis of research findings. *J Psychosom Res* 53(5):985-993. doi: 10.1016/S0022-3999(02)00488-9
4. Puhl RM, Heuer CA (2010) Obesity stigma: important considerations for public health. *Am J Public Health* 100(6):1019-1028. doi: 10.2105/AJPH.2009.159491
5. Heatherton TF, Mahamedi F, Striepe M, Field AE, Keel P (1997) A 10-year longitudinal study of body weight, dieting, and eating disorder symptoms. *J Abnorm Psychol* 106(1):117-125. doi: 10.1037/0021-843X.106.1.117
6. Ridolfi DR, Crowther JH (2013) The link between women's body image disturbances and body-focused cancer screening behaviors: a critical review of the literature and a new integrated model for women. *Body image* 10(2):149-162. doi: 10.1016/j.bodyim.2012.11.003
7. King TK, Matacin M, White KS, Marcus BH (2005) A prospective examination of body image and smoking cessation in women. *Body Image* 2(1):19-28. doi:10.1016/j.bodyim.2005.01.003
8. Wilson RE, Latner JD, Hayashi K (2013) More than just body weight: the role of body image in psychological and physical functioning. *Body Image* 10(4):644-647. doi:10.1016/j.bodyim.2013.04.007
9. Davison TE, McCabe MP (2005) Relationships between men's and women's body image and their psychological, social, and sexual functioning. *Sex Roles* 52(7):463-475. doi:10.1007/s11199-005-3712-z
10. McLaren L, Hardy R, Kuh D (2003) Women's body satisfaction at midlife and lifetime body size: a prospective study. *Health Psychol* 22(4):370-377. doi: 10.1037/0278-6133.2

11. Tiggemann M, Lynch JE (2001) Body image across the life span in adult women: the role of self-objectification. *Dev Psychol* 37(2):243-253. doi: 10.1037/0278-6133.22
12. Stice E, Hayward C, Cameron RP, Killen JD, Taylor CB (2000) Body-image and eating disturbances predict onset of depression among female adolescents: a longitudinal study. *J Abnorm Psychol* 109(3):438-444 doi: 10.1037/0021-843X.109.3.438
13. Bennett K, Stevens R (1996) Weight anxiety in older women. *Euro Eat Disord Rev* 4(1):32-39. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1099-0968(199603)4:1<32::AID-ERV113>3.0.CO;2-S
14. Grossbard JR, Lee CM, Neighbors C, Larimer ME (2009) Body image concerns and contingent self-esteem in male and female college students. *Sex Roles* 60(3):198-207. doi:10.1007/s11199-008-9535-y
15. Ganem PA, Heer HD, Morera OF (2009) Does body dissatisfaction predict mental health outcomes in a sample of predominantly Hispanic college students? *Personal Individ Differ* 46(4):557-561. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2008.12.014
16. Fallon EA, Harris BS, Johnson P (2014) Prevalence of body dissatisfaction among a United States adult sample. *Eat Behav* 15(1):151-158. doi:10.1016/j.eatbeh.2013.11.007
17. von Lengerke T, Mielck A (2012) Body weight dissatisfaction by socioeconomic status among obese, preobese and normal weight women and men: results of the cross-sectional KORA Augsburg S4 population survey. *BMC Pub Health* 12:342. doi:10.1186/1471-2458-12-342
18. Gardner RM, Stark K, Friedman BN, Jackson NA (2000) Predictors of eating disorder scores in children ages 6 through 14: a longitudinal study. *J Psychosom Res* 49(3):199-205. doi: 10.1016/S0022-3999(00)00172-0
19. Stice E (2001) A prospective test of the dual-pathway model of bulimic pathology: mediating effects of dieting and negative affect. *J Abnorm Psych* 110(1):124-135. doi: 10.1037/0021-843X.110.1.124
20. Fairburn CG (2008) *Cognitive Behavior Therapy and Eating Disorders*. Guilford Press, New York
21. Wonderlich SA, Peterson CB, Smith TL, Klein M, Mitchell JE, Crow SJ, Engel SG (2010) Integrative cognitive-affective therapy for bulimia nervosa. In: Grillo CM, Mitchell JE (eds) *The treatment of eating disorders: a clinical handbook*. Guilford Press, New York, pp 317-338

22. Higgins ET (1987) Self-discrepancy: a theory relating self and affect. *Psychol Rev* 94(3):319-340. doi: 10.1037/0033-295X.94.3.319
23. Higgins ET (1989) Self-discrepancy theory: what patterns of self-beliefs cause people to suffer? *Adv Exp Soc Psychol* 22:93-136. doi: 10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60306-8
24. Wonderlich SA, Engel SG, Peterson CB, Robinson MD, Crosby RD, Mitchell JE, Smith TL, Klein MH, Lysne CM, Crow SJ (2008) Examining the conceptual model of integrative cognitive-affective therapy for BN: two assessment studies. *Int J Eat Disord* 41(8) :748-754. doi: 10.1002/eat.20551
25. Strauman TJ, Vookles J, Berenstein V, Chaiken S, Higgins ET (1991) Self-discrepancies and vulnerability to body dissatisfaction and disordered eating. *J Pers Soc Psychol* 61(6):946-956. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.61.6.946
26. Mason TB, Lavender JM, Wonderlich SA, Crosby RD, Engel SG, Strauman TJ, Mitchell JE, Crow SJ, Le Grange D, Klein MH (2016) Self-discrepancy and eating disorder symptoms across eating disorder diagnostic groups. *Eur Eat Disord Rev* 24(6):541-545. doi: 10.1002/erv.2483
27. Holmes NP, Spence C (2004) The body schema and multisensory representation(s) of peripersonal space. *Cogn Process* 5(2):94-105. doi: 10.1007/s10339-004-0013-3
28. Paillard J (1999) Body schema and body image: a double dissociation in deafferented patients. In: Gantchev GN, Mori, S, Massion J (eds) *Motor control, today and tomorrow*. Academic Publishing House, Sohpie, pp 197-214
29. Paeratakul S, White MA, Williamson DA, Ryan DH, Bray GA (2002) Sex, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and BMI in relation to self-perception of overweight. *Obes Res* 10(5):345-350. doi: 10.1038/oby.2002.48
30. Stock C, Kūcūk N, Miseviciene I, Petkeviciene J, Krämer A (2004) Misperceptions of body shape among university students from Germany and Lithuania. *Health Educ* 104(2):113-121. doi: 10.1108/09654280410525559
31. Gluck ME, Geliebter A (2002) Racial/ethnic differences in body image and eating behaviors. *Eat Behav* 3(2):143-151. doi: 10.1016/S1471-0153(01)00052-6

32. Wardle J, Haase AM, Steptoe A (2006) Body image and weight control in young adults: international comparisons in university students from 22 countries. *Int J Obes* 30(4):644-651. doi: 10.1038/sj.ijo.0803050
33. Bellisle F, Monneuse M, Steptoe A, Wardle J (1995) Weight concerns and eating patterns: a survey of university students in Europe. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* 19(10):723-730. doi: 10.1038/sj.ijo.0803050
34. Ahern AL, Bennett KM, Hetherington MM (2008) Internalization of the ultra-thin ideal: positive implicit associations with underweight fashion models are associated with drive for thinness in young women. *Eat Disord* 16(4):294-307. doi: 10.1080/10640260802115852
35. Benninghoven D, Raykowski L, Solzbacher S, Kunzendorf S, Jantschek G (2007) Body images of patients with anorexia nervosa, bulimia nervosa and female control subjects: a comparison with male ideals of female attractiveness. *Body Image* 4(1):51-59. doi: 10.1016/j.bodyim.2006.12.002
36. Garner DM (2002) Measurement of eating disorder psychopathology. In: Fairburn CG, Brownell, KD (eds) *Eating disorders and obesity: a comprehensive handbook*. Guildford Press, New York, pp141-1466
37. Smeets MA, Kosslyn SM (2001) Hemispheric differences in body image in anorexia nervosa. *Int J Eat Disord* 29(4):409-416. doi: 10.1002/eat.1037
38. Gardner RM, Bokenkamp ED (1996) The role of sensory and nonsensory factors in body size estimations of eating disorder subjects. *J Clin Psychol* 52(1):3-15. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1097-4679(199601)52:1<3::AID-JCLP1>3.0.CO;2-X
39. Molinari E (1995) Body-size estimation in anorexia nervosa. *Percept Mot Skills* 81(1):23-31. doi: 10.2466/pms.1995.81.1.23
40. Bowden P, Touyz S, Rodriguez P, Hensley R, Beumont P (1989) Distorting patient or distorting instrument? Body shape disturbance in patients with anorexia nervosa and bulimia. *Br J Psychiatry* 155(2):196-201. doi: 10.1192/bjp.155.2.196
41. Cornelissen PL, Johns A, Tovée MJ (2013) Body size over-estimation in women with anorexia nervosa is not qualitatively different from female controls. *Body Image* 10(1):103-111. doi: 10.1016/j.bodyim.2012.09.003

42. Farrell C, Lee M, Shafran R (2005) Assessment of body size estimation: a review. *Eur Eat Disord Rev* 13(2):75-88. doi: 10.1002/erv.622
43. Guardia D, Carey A, Cottencin O, Thomas P, Luyat M (2013) Disruption of spatial task performance in anorexia nervosa. *PLoS One* 8(1):e54928. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0054928
44. Keizer A, Smeets MAM, Dijkerman HC, van Elburg A, Postma A (2012) Aberrant somatosensory perception in anorexia nervosa. *Psychiatry Res* 200(2):530-537. doi: 10.1016/j.psychres.2012.05.001
45. Keizer A, Smeets MAM, Dijkerman HC, Van den Hout M, Klugkist I, Van Elburg A, Postma A (2011) Tactile body image disturbance in anorexia nervosa. *Psychiatry Res* 190(1):115-120. doi: 10.1016/j.psychres.2011.04.031
46. Metral M, Guardia D, Bauwens I, Guerraz M, Lafargue G, Cottencin O, Luyat M (2014) Painfully thin but locked inside a fatter body: abnormalities in both anticipation and execution of action in anorexia nervosa. *BMC Res Notes* 7:707-717. doi: 10.1186/1756-0500-7-707
47. Keizer A, Smeets MA, Dijkerman HC, Uzunbajakau SA, van Elburg A, Postma A (2013) Too fat to fit through the door: first evidence for disturbed body-scaled action in anorexia nervosa during locomotion. *PLoS One* 8(5):e64602. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0064602
48. Guardia D, Cottencin O, Thomas P, Dodin V, Luyat M (2012) Spatial orientation constancy is impaired in anorexia nervosa. *Psychiatry Res* 195(1):56-59. doi: 10.1016/j.psychres.2011.08.003
49. Guardia D, Lafargue G, Thomas P, Dodin V, Cottencin O, Luyat M (2010) Anticipation of body-scaled action is modified in anorexia nervosa. *Neuropsychologia* 48(13):3961-3966. doi: 10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2010.09.004
50. Nico D, Daprati E, Nighoghossian N, Carrier E, Duhamel J-R, Sirigu A (2010) The role of the right parietal lobe in anorexia nervosa. *Psychol Med* 40(9):1531-1539. doi: 10.1017/S0033291709991851
51. Case LK, Wilson RC, Ramachandran VS (2012) Diminished size-weight illusion in anorexia nervosa: evidence for visuo-proprioceptive integration deficit. *Exp Brain Res* 217(1):79-87. doi: 10.1007/s00221-011-2974-7

52. Eshkevari E, Rieger E, Longo MR, Haggard P, Treasure J (2012) Increased plasticity of the bodily self in eating disorders. *Psychol Med* 42(4):819-828. doi: 10.1017/S0033291711002091
53. Cash TF, Deagle EA (1997) The nature and extent of body-image disturbances in anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa: a meta-analysis. *Int J Eat Disord* 22(2):107-126. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1098-108X(199709)22:2<107::AID-EAT1>3.0.CO;2-J
54. Sepulveda AR, Botella J, Leon JA (2002) Body image disturbance in eating disorders: a meta-analysis. *Psychol in Spain* 6:83-95
55. Vocks S, Legenbauer T, Rüdell H, Troje NF (2007) Static and dynamic body image in bulimia nervosa: mental representation of body dimensions and biological motion patterns. *Int J Eat Disord* 40(1):59-66. doi: 10.1002/eat.20336
56. Suchan B, Vocks S, Waldorf M (2015) Alterations in activity, volume, and connectivity of body-processing brain areas in anorexia nervosa. *Eur Psychol* 20:27-33. doi: 10.1027/1016-9040/a000213
57. Favaro A, Santonastaso P, Manara R, Bosello R, Bommarito G, Tenconi E, Di Salle F (2012) Disruption of visuospatial and somatosensory functional connectivity in anorexia nervosa. *Biol Psychiatry* 72(10):864-870. doi: 10.1016/j.biopsych.2012.04.025
58. Uher R, Murphy T, Friederich H-C, Dalglish T, Brammer MJ, Giampietro V, Phillips ML, Andrew CM, Ng VW, Williams SC (2005) Functional neuroanatomy of body shape perception in healthy and eating-disordered women. *Biol Psychiatry* 58(12):990-997. doi: 10.1016/j.biopsych.2005.06.001
59. Mohr HM, Zimmermann J, Röder C, Lenz C, Overbeck G, Grabhorn R (2010) Separating two components of body image in anorexia nervosa using fMRI. *Psychol Med* 40(9):1519-1529. doi: 10.1017/S0033291709991826
60. Beato-Fernández L, Rodríguez-Cano T, García-Vilches I, García-Vicente A, Poblete-García V, Castrejon AS, Toro J (2009) Changes in regional cerebral blood flow after body image exposure in eating disorders. *Psychiatry Res Neuroimaging* 171(2):129-137. doi: 10.1016/j.psychres.2008.01.001

61. Seeger G, Braus DF, Ruf M, Goldberger U, Schmidt MH (2002) Body image distortion reveals amygdala activation in patients with anorexia nervosa—a functional magnetic resonance imaging study. *Neurosci Lett* 326(1):25-28. doi: 10.1016/S0304-3940(02)00312-9
62. Miyake Y, Okamoto Y, Onoda K, Shirao N, Okamoto Y, Otagaki Y, Yamawaki S (2010) Neural processing of negative word stimuli concerning body image in patients with eating disorders: an fMRI study. *NeuroImage* 50(3):1333-1339. doi: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2009.12.095
63. Sorbara M, Geliebter A (2002) Body image disturbance in obese outpatients before and after weight loss in relation to race, gender, binge eating, and age of onset of obesity. *Int J Eat Disord* 31(4):416-423. doi: 10.1002/eat.10046
64. Legenbauer T, Vocks S, Betz S, Puigcerver MJB, Benecke A, Troje NF, Rüdell H (2011) Differences in the nature of body image disturbances between female obese individuals with versus without a comorbid binge eating disorder: an exploratory study including static and dynamic aspects of body image. *Behav Modif* 35(2):162-186. doi: 10.1177/0145445510393478
65. Lewer M, Nasrawi N, Schroeder D, Vocks S (2016) Body image disturbance in binge eating disorder: a comparison of obese patients with and without binge eating disorder regarding the cognitive, behavioral and perceptual component of body image. *Eat Weight Disord* 21(1):115-125. doi: 10.1007/s40519-015-0200-5
66. Myers TA, Crowther JH (2007) Sociocultural pressures, thin-ideal internalization, self-objectification, and body dissatisfaction: could feminist beliefs be a moderating factor? *Body Image* 4(3):296-308. doi: 10.1016/j.bodyim.2007.04.001
67. Brown FL, Slaughter V (2011) Normal body, beautiful body: discrepant perceptions reveal a pervasive ‘thin ideal’ from childhood to adulthood. *Body Image* 8(2):119-125. doi: 10.1016/j.bodyim.2011.02.002
68. Holmstrom AJ (2004) The effects of the media on body image: a meta-analysis. *J Broadcasting Electronic Media* 48(2):196-217. doi:10.1207/s15506878jobem4802\_3

69. Ferguson CJ (2013) In the eye of the beholder: thin-ideal media affects some, but not most, viewers in a meta-analytic review of body dissatisfaction in women and men. *Psychol Pop Media Culture* 2(1):20-37. doi:10.1037/a0030766
70. Whyte CN, Leonard S, Voss D (2017) A confound-free test of the effects of thin-ideal media images on body satisfaction. *J Soc Clin Psychol* 35(10):822-839. doi:https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.2016.35.10.822
71. Homan K (2010) Athletic-ideal and thin-ideal internalization as prospective predictors of body dissatisfaction, dieting, and compulsive exercise. *Body Image* 7(3):240-245. doi:10.1016/j.bodyim.2010.02.004
72. Cohn LD, Adler NE (1992) Female and male perceptions of ideal body shapes: distorted views among Caucasian college students. *Psychol Women Q* 16(1):69-79. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-6402.1992.tb00240.x
73. Fallon AE, Rozin P (1985) Sex differences in perceptions of desirable body shape. *J Abnorm Psychol* 94(1):102-105. doi: 10.1037/0021-843X.94.1.102
74. Siever MD (1994) Sexual orientation and gender as factors in socioculturally acquired vulnerability to body dissatisfaction and eating disorders. *J Consult Clin Psychol* 62(2):252-260. doi: 10.1037/0022-006X.62.2.252
75. Chernyak Y, Lowe MR (2010) Motivations for dieting: drive for thinness is different from drive for objective thinness. *J Abnorm Psychol* 119(2):276-281. doi: 10.1037/a0018398
76. Furnham A, Badmin N, Sneade I (2002) Body image dissatisfaction: gender differences in eating attitudes, self-esteem, and reasons for exercise. *J Psychol* 136(6):581-596. doi: 10.1080/00223980209604820
77. Tovée MJ, Benson PJ, Emery JL, Mason SM, Cohen-Tovée EM (2003) Measurement of body size and shape perception in eating-disordered and control observers using body-shape software. *Br J Psychol* 94(4):501-516. doi: 10.1348/000712603322503060

78. Cattarin JA, Thompson JK (1994) A three-year longitudinal study of body image, eating disturbance, and general psychological functioning in adolescent females. *Eat Disord* 2(2):114-125. doi: 10.1080/10640269408249107
79. Shaw JA, Herzog DB, Clark VL, Berner LA, Eddy KT, Franko DL, Lowe MR (2012) Elevated pre-morbid weights in bulimic individuals are usually surpassed post-morbidly: implications for perpetuation of the disorder. *Int J Eat Disord* 45(4):512-523. doi: 10.1002/eat.20985
80. Schur EA, Sanders M, Steiner H (2000) Body dissatisfaction and dieting in young children. *Int J Eat Disord* 27(1):74-82. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1098-108X(200001)27:1<74::AID-EAT8>3.0.CO;2-K
81. Lowe MR, Levine AS (2005) Eating motives and the controversy over dieting: eating less than needed versus less than wanted. *Obes Res* 13(5):797-806. doi: 10.1038/oby.2005.90
82. Witt AA, Berkowitz SA, Gillberg C, Lowe MR, Råstam M, Wentz E (2014) Weight suppression and body mass index interact to predict long-term weight outcomes in adolescent-onset anorexia nervosa. *J Consult Clin Psychol* 82(6):1207-1211. doi: 10.1037/a0037484
83. Berner LA, Shaw JA, Witt AA, Lowe MR (2013) The relation of weight suppression and body mass index to symptomatology and treatment response in anorexia nervosa. *J Abnorm Psychol* 122(3):694-708. doi: 10.1037/a0033930
84. Butryn ML, Lowe MR, Safer DL, Agras WS (2006) Weight suppression is a robust predictor of outcome in the cognitive-behavioral treatment of bulimia nervosa. *J Abnorm Psychol* 115(1):62-75. doi: 10.1037/0021-843X.115.1.62
85. Carter FA, McIntosh VV, Joyce PR, Bulik CM (2008) Weight suppression predicts weight gain over treatment but not treatment completion or outcome in bulimia nervosa. *J Abnorm Psychol* 117(4):936-940. doi: 10.1037/a0013942
86. Lowe MR, Annunziato RA, Markowitz JT, Didie E, Bellace DL, Riddell L, Maille C, McKinney S, Stice E (2006) Multiple types of dieting prospectively predict weight gain during the freshman year of college. *Appetite* 47(1):83-90. doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2006.03.160

87. Herzog DB, Thomas JG, Kass AE, Eddy KT, Franko DL, Lowe MR (2010) Weight suppression predicts weight change over 5years in bulimia nervosa. *Psychiatry Res* 177(3):330-334. doi: 10.1016/j.psychres.2010.03.002
88. Lowe MR, Thomas JG, Safer DL, Butryn ML (2007) The relationship of weight suppression and dietary restraint to binge eating in bulimia nervosa. *Int J Eat Disord* 40(7):640-644. doi: 10.1002/eat.20405
89. Keski-Rahkonen A, Bulik CM, Neale BM, Rose RJ, Rissanen A, Kaprio J (2005) Body dissatisfaction and drive for thinness in young adult twins. *Int J of Eat Disord* 37 (3):188-199. doi:10.1002/eat.20138
90. Suisman JL, O'Connor SM, Sperry S, Thompson JK, Keel PK, Burt SA, Neale M, Boker S, Sisk C, Klump KL (2012) Genetic and environmental influences on thin-ideal internalization. *Int J Eat Disord* 45(8):942-948. doi:10.1002/eat.22056
91. Wardle J, Carnell S, Haworth CM, Plomin R (2008) Evidence for a strong genetic influence on childhood adiposity despite the force of the obesogenic environment. *Am J Clin Nutr* 87(2):398-404. doi: 10.3945/ajcn.115.122820
92. Duncan L, Yilmaz Z, Gaspar H, Walters R, Goldstein J, Anttila V, Bulik-Sullivan B, Ripke S, Thornton L, Hinney A, Daly M, Sullivan PF, Zeggini E, Breen G, Bulik CM (2017) Significant locus and metabolic genetic correlations revealed in genome-wide association study of anorexia nervosa. *Am J Psychiatry* 174(9):850-858. doi: 10.1176/appi.ajp.2017.16121402
93. Ferreira C, Pinto-Gouveia J, Duarte C (2013) Self-compassion in the face of shame and body image dissatisfaction: implications for eating disorders. *Eat Behav* 14(2):207-210. doi: 10.1016/j.eatbeh.2013.01.005
94. Mosewich AD, Kowalski KC, Sabiston CM, Sedgwick WA, Tracy JL (2011) Self-compassion: a potential resource for young women athletes. *J Sport Exerc Psychol* 33(1):103-123. doi: 10.1123/jsep.33.1.103

95. Albertson ER, Neff KD, Dill-Shackleford KE (2015) Self-compassion and body dissatisfaction in women: a randomized controlled trial of a brief meditation intervention. *Mindfulness* 6(3):444-454. doi: 10.1007/s12671-014-0277-3
96. Lock, J Le Grange, D (2013) *Treatment manual for anorexia nervosa: a family-based approach*, 2nd edn. The Guilford Press, New York
97. Delinsky SS, Wilson GT (2006) Mirror exposure for the treatment of body image disturbance. *Int J Eat Disord* 39(2):108-116. doi:10.1002/eat.20207
98. Key A, George CL, Beattie D, Stammers K, Lacey H, Waller G (2002) Body image treatment within an inpatient program for anorexia nervosa: the role of mirror exposure in the desensitization process. *Int J Eat Disord* 31(2):185-190. doi: 10.1002/eat.10027