ED 188 087

CG .014 484

AUTHOR

Jackson, Linda J.: Hawkins, Raymond C.
Stress Felated Overeating Among College Students:
Development of a Mood Eating Scale.

PUB DATE NOTE

37p.: Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Southwestern Fsychological Association (26th, Oklahoma City, OK, April 10-12, 1980). For related documents see CG 014 451 and CG 014 479.

EDES PRICE DESCRIPTORS ### MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.

*Affective Behavior: Behavior Patterns: Behavior Rating Scales: *Body Weight: College Students: *Fating Habits: Life Style: Self Control: *Self Esteem: *Sex Differences: *Stress Variables: Test Construction

IDENTIFIERS.

*Mood Eating Scale

ABSTRACT

The hypothesis that negative emotional life states accompanying life stresses are associated with overeating and weight gain cannot be adequately tested solely by laboratory analogue studies. Naturalistic, short-term longitudinal designs are needed in which individuals susceptible to mood eating can be identified prior to a stressful event and followed up to determine weight changes. College students in two samples completed questionnaires on height, weight, restraint, eating habits, self-image, and life events. Mood eating tendencies, which were more frequently reported by both cverweight and normal-weight females than males, were associated with self-monitored dysphoric moods and negative self-evaluations. Subjects with high scores on the Mood Fating Scale were likely to be restrictive dieters reporting bingereating tendencies and dissatisfaction with weight-related appearance. Results suggest that the Mood Fating Scale is a viable measure of a mediating variable, a cognitive appraisal process intervening between life and weight changes. (Author/HLM)

Stress related overeating among college students:

Development of a Mood Eating Scale

Linda J. Jackson

University of Houston

Raymond, C. Hawkins II

University of Texas at Austin

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH EDUCATION & WELFARE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO-DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINA ATING IT POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRE-SENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY "PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Inda . Jackson

2

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."



Stress related overeating among college students: Development of a Mood Eating Scale

According to the psychosomatic theory of obesity (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1957), obese individuals overeat in response to emotional states (e.g., anxiety, boredom, anger; depression) and this eating alleviates the dysphoric mood. This pattern of "mood eating" has been viewed as a learned coping response usually established in childhood (Bruch, 1961). Clinical reports of mood eating are abundant (Atkinson & Ringuete, 1967; Bruch, 1964; Clancy, 1965; Holland, Masling, & Copley, 1970; Leckie & Withers, 1967; Leon & Chamberlain, 1973; Silverstone, 1968; Sjoberg & Persson, 1979; Stunkard, 1976; Weintraub & Aronson, 1969), but experimental tests of the theory have yielded contradictory. findings (Abramson & Stinson, 1977; Abramson & Wunderlich, 1972; Antelman & Rowland, 1976; Herman & Polivy, 1975; Leon & Chamberlain, 1973a, 1973b; McKenna. 1972; Meyer & Pudel, 1972; Schacter, Goldman, & Gordon, 1968; Slochower, 1976). In general, overweight and normal weight subjects not exhibiting "restraint" (i.e., restrictive dieting efforts) eat less when rendered anxious through threat of electric shock or unfavorable social comparisons, while overweight and restrained subjects tend to eat more (e.g., Herman & Polivy, 1975). Abramson and Stinson.(1977) found boredom to increase consumption for both obese and normals. Although Ely, Goolkasian, Frost, & Blanchard (1979) have reported that "restrained" female subjects in the "depressed" mood induction. condition ate more candy but reported less depression than their unrestrained counterparts, there is no conclusive experimental evidence that overeating in response to life stress ameliorates dysphoric moods (cf., Rodin, 1977).

Jáckson & Hawkins

The mixed and inconclusive findings of these laboratory studies should be viewed within the context of recent systematic clinical investigations of the relapse patterns of participants of we int control programs. Leon & Chamberlain (1973a & b) found that regainers reported a greater number of emotional arougal states eliciting eating. Rosenthal, Marx, & Adams (1979), following Marlatt & Gordon's (1980) relapse model for addictive behaviors, noted that regainers experienced more guilt during an initial dietary "slip". One third of all slips were categorized as due to "copying with negative emotional states." Setty & Hawkins (Note 1.) found that regainers reported higher angerhostility scale scores on the SCL-90 at pretreatment; while binge eaters were more likely to drop out of treatment.

The hypothesis that negative emotional states accompanying life stresses are associated with overeating and weight gain cannot be adequately tested solely by laboratory analogue studies. Naturalistic, short-term longitudinal designs are needed in which individuals susceptible to mood eating can be identified prior to a stressful event (e.g., exams, divorce) and then followed up subsequently to determine weight changes. Preliminary correlational studies have suggested that arousable persons are particularly susceptable to psychosomatic and psychological dysfunctions following life stress (Mehrabian & Ross, 1979).

In the present study we propose an alternative version of the psychosomatic hypothesis to describe stress related eating in college students of varying body weights. Furthermore, we describe the development of a self-report measure of emotional eating tendencies (the "Mood Eating Scale") and examine the relationship between mood eating, restrictive dieting tendencies, binge eating, and weight fluctuation during one academic semester.

Jackson & Hawkins

A reformulation of the psychosomatic hypothesis for overeating:

There appears to be a subpopulation of individuals, both those ostensibly overweight and those of normal weight, who have the tendency to eat under stress or emotional arousal. "Mood eaters" who try to conform to ideal weight standards will exhibit strong dietary "restraint" in an effort to both compensate for mood eating and to lose weight if they believe that they are overweight. Despite daily emotional fluctuations, then, these persons will most likely be able to maintain their weight or even lose weight on a day-to-day basis. However, periods of substantial life stress should serve to disinhibit restrained eating as well as augment the intensity of their emotional states. Life stress may also increase the tendency for a dominant response such as eating to occur more frequently (Antelman & Rowland, 1976). At any rate, mood eating is predicted at such times to become more frequent and uncompensated by restrictive dieting efforts. The mood eater, in effect, overeats and gains weight until the stressful period is over:

Certain parts of this formulation require additional comments. First, we have maintained that most mood eaters will be restrained dieters. We predict this assuming that the majority of mood eaters wish to achieve and maintain . "ideal" weight standards. As a group, normal weight mood eaters are probably more likely to be restrained than they are to be unrestrained because they must compensate for minor "mood eating - overeating" tendencies. Overweight mood eaters should be even more characterized by restraint because they must restrain their intake enough to actually lose weight in addition to compensating for mood eating. However, we do not believe that all restrained individuals are mood eaters. Mood eating would have to be the sole determinant of overeating for this to be the case.

From this preliminary model several specific hypotheses were derived. First, individuals scoring high on the state measure of mood eating should report more frequent negative moods associated with self-monitored meals and snacks, as well as a greater frequency of negative self-evaluations. Mood eating tendencies were predicted to be more frequently reported by females than . by males. Mood eating scores were predicted to be positively correlated with restrictive dieting tendencies (although not isomorphic with this "restraint" measure) and positively correlated with each individual's percentage deviation from his/her "ideal" weight (i.e., as defined by the individual, not as defined by the desirable weights for given heights in insurance tables). Binge cating was hypothesized to be a more severe variant of mood eating, involving stress related eating and degree of dissatisfaction with weight-related physical appearance (i.e., with body image disturbance). High mood eaters were predicted to differ from non-mood-eaters in their self-reported age of onset of concern about being overweight. Finally, restrained mood eaters were expected to maintain a relatively stable body weight or even lose weight during the semester, unless they reported experiencing periods of life stress, which would disinhibit their restraint thereby triggering stress related eating and subsequent weight gain.

Method

Subjects

Two samples of college undergraduates of varying body weights participated in this study. The first sample comprised 145 females and 55 males from the second author's abnormal psychology class, who completed the questionnaires for extra credit. The second sample contained 188 females from several introductory psychology classes who completed the questionnaires to fulfill a course



Jackson & Hawkins 6

requirement for research participation. Body weight percentages were calculated as a deviation percentage from the desirable weight for males or females with a medium body frame (Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1959; Wollersheim, 1970). Five women and eight men in the second sample were at least 20% overweight, while 14 of the females in the second sample were overweight to this degree.

Procedure

Subjects in both samples received a packet of questionnaires which included a Height-Weight Survey (Hawkins, unpublished) eliciting information about current height and weight, desired "idea!" weight, age of onset of concern about being overweight (if applicable) and other demographic information. The packet also contained the 20-item Mood Eating Scale (Table 1) which was developed to assess the tendency to report eating in response to various emotions as well as the belief that eating under these circumstances offers comfort. Additional measures included the revised Restraint Scale (Herman, Pliner, Threlkeld & Munic, 1978), . which measures restrictive dieting tendencies, the Binge Scale (Hawkins & Clement, in press), the Negative Self-Image Scale (Hawkins & Clement, in press), which is a measure of dissatisfaction with weight related appearance, and a Life Events Scale (Price & Price, 1974). Both the Binge Scale and the Negative Self-Image Scale have been found to have adequate internal consistency reliability (Cronbach alphas of .68 and .96, respectively).

In addition to completing these questionnaires subjects in the first sample self-monitored their eating behavior for two week days and two weekend days (cf., Hawkins, 1979). Weight change during the month subsequent to filling the surveys was also obtained. The procedure was slightly different for the women in the second sample. During pretesting two months prior to their participation

Jackson & Hawkins 7

in this survey most of these subjects had completed the Height-Weight Questionnaire. Thus for the second sample the weight change measure was retrospective.

Results

Quantifying self-perceived stress related eating tendencies

The internal consistency of the 20-item Mood Eating Scale was satisfactory for a pilot instrument (Cronbach's alpha = .88, for the sample of 188 women). Examination of the relationship between the total score on the Mood Eating Scale and the emotional and attitudinal measures from the self-monitored food records kept by the male and female subjects in the first sample revealed significant positive correlations between mood eating and the percentage of negative self-evaluations associated with ingestions ($\underline{r}=.36$, p < .001), and a trend for mood eating to be correlated with the percentage of dysphoric moods during ingestions ($\underline{r}=.18$, p = .06). Mood eating was not significantly correlated with self-reported body weight percentage or with the percentage of positive self-statements.

The Mood Eating Scale scores of 145 females in the first sample (\underline{M} = 33.99, \underline{SD} = 15.15) were significantly higher than those of the 55 males (\underline{M} = 26.59, \underline{SD} = 12.34), \underline{t} (208) = 3.44, p < .001). Subjects who were at least 20% in excess of their desirable weight percentage did not obtain significantly bigher mood eating scores relative to those of their normal weight counterparts, when gender and restrictive dieting tendencies were statistically controlled. Reported age of onset of overweight concern (childhood, adolescence) was not significantly correlated with mood eating scores for either the first or the second samples.

Psychological correlates of Mood Eating

The interrelationship among total scores on the Mood Eating Scale, the Restraint Scale, the Binge Scale, the Negative Self-Image Scale and the Life

- Jackson & Hawkins

Changes Scale, along with current body weight percentage, weight percentage change during the semester, and the percentage deviation between current weight and each individual's self-determined "ideal" weight are presented in Table 2 (for the first sample) and Table 3 (for the second sample). Degree of mood eating was significantly positively correlated with restrictive dieting tendencies, binge eating, dissatisfaction with weight related appearance and the degree to which body weight percentage exceeded self-determined ideal weight $(\underline{r}=.37,\ p<.01$ for the first sample, a trend for the second sample). The pattern of correlations was similar across the two samples, in most instances.

A double median split procedure was next carried out on the data from the 188 women in the second sample to investigate the relationship between mood eating and dieting "restraint". The median score for the Mood Eating Scale was 39, while that for the Restraint Scale was 15. Fifty-eight women's scores exceeded the medians on both scales. Sixty-four percent of the mood eaters were restrained dieters, while 67% of the restrained dieters were mood eaters. As predicted, most mood eaters were engaged in restrictive dieting efforts, and many---but not all---restrained dieters were mood eaters. All nine over-weight (+20%) mood eaters were restrained, as were the other 5 overweight women whose scores did not exceed the median on the Mood Eating Scale.

A series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses (Nie et al., 1975) was then performed to provide some preliminary tests for the hypotheses derived from our model of stress related eating. The results of each analysis are reported first for the sample of male and female students, and second, for the sample of college women.

With Mood Eating Scale scores as the dependent, or criterion, measure, the linear combination of the predictor variables "Restraint Scale score" and "per-

Jackson_& Hawkins 9

centage deviation from self-determined 'ideal' weight" was expected to account for significant amounts of variance, while the addition of current body weight was not expected to produce a significant increment in R². Table 4 provides descriptive statistics for the regression of mood eating scores on these predictor variables for each sample. Equations 1 and 2 summarize the regression analyses of the mood eating measure for the first and second samples, respectively. The "Beta" coefficients in these and subsequent equations have been computed for standardized variables; thus the magnitudes of the coefficients for the various significant effects are indicative of the relative strength of these predictor variables.

- (1) Mood Eating = +.42 Restraint + .11 Percentage discrepancy from ideal weight +.02 Body weight percentage
- (2) Mood Eating = +.13 Restraint +.15 Percentage discrepancy from ideal weight
 -.07 Body weight percentage

The R² values for Equations 1 and 2, adjusted for sample size and number of predictors, were .23 and .02. Of the predictor variables, dieting restraint showed the strongest association with mood eating, while body weight percentage did not add significantly to the explained variation in this criterion.

Binge eating was hypothesized to be a more severe variant of mood eating, involving both stress related eating and degree of dissatisfaction with weight related appearance. Table 5 provides descriptive statistics for the regression of binge eating scores on the predictor variables for each sample. Equations 3 and 4 summarize the regression analyses of this dependent measure for the first and second samples, respectively.

- (3) Binge eating = +.35 Mood eating +.29 Negative self-image
- (4) Binge eating = +.08 Mood eating +.80 Negative self-image

Jackson & Hawkins

The R² values for Equations 3 and 4, adjusted for sample size and number of predictors were .43 and .32. Both predictor variables, mood eating and negative self-image, separately accounted for significant proportions of variance in the criterion measure.

"Restrained mood eaters" were hypothesized to maintain a relatively stable body weight or even lose weight during the semester, unless they reported experiencing many major life changes. For the first sample of males and females the criterion measure was the difference between the body weights reported before and after the one month interval subsequent to the subjects' completion of the self-report questionnaires and their self-monitoring of meals and snacks. For the second sample, however, the dependent measure was the difference in body weights reported before and after the two month interval prior to completion of the self-report questionnaires. In this latter case, body weights had been obtained during pretesting, before the subjects participated in the survey. Table 6 provides descriptive statistics for the regression of this weight change measure on several predictor variables for the first sample. Equation 5 summarizes these regression analyses. A "dummy" variable to encode for gender classification was entered into the hierarchical multiple regression equation on_the first inclusion step, since women reported significantly greater weight loss during the subsequent one month period than did the men, $\underline{t}(24) = -2.60$, p = .01.

(5) Prospective Wgt. = -.28 Sex (males=0, females=1) -.40 Mood eating+.36 Restraint

Change (%) -.10 Binge eating -.17 Life Change total score

+ 50 Life Change X Moodeating - .20 Percentage

discrepancy from ideal weight -.24 Preweight percentage

A negative (-) sign for the standardized regression coefficients indicates that the higher the score on the predictor variables the more weight was <u>lost</u> during the one month follow-up interval. The adjusted R^2 value for Equation 5 was .27.

Jackson & Hawkins . 1

The dummy variable, "sex", and the "percentage discrepancy from ideal weight" accounted for significant variance in the criterion (p < .01), while Life changes (during the past month) and the interaction between mood eating and life changes accounted for additional variance (p's < .10).

Subjects in the first sample who wanted to lose weight (i.e., for whom there was a deviation from self-determined ideal weight) lost more weight in the subsequent month, while subjects who reported many recent life changes along with more mood eating tended <u>not</u> to lose weight. To clarify this interaction between mood eating tendencies and reported life changes a discriminant function analysis (Nie et al., 1975) was performed for subjects grouped as follows: those losing at least 4 pounds (n=7), those gaining at least 4 pounds (n=5), and those in between (n=49). Table 7 presents the means $(\pm SD)$, the univariate $\pm F$ values, and the p'values for the several predictor variables as a function of this post-hoc grouping. A weight fluctuation of 4° pounds, was approximately equal to $\pm~1~\text{SD}$. (see Tables 2 and 3). Inspection of this table reveals the same pattern of relationships that obtained in the multiple regression analyses: subjects who lost the most weight had beforehand reported more mood eating, more restrictive dieting tendencies, more binge eating, more dissatisfaction with weight related appearance, had wanted to lose more weight, and had experienced more negative self-evaluations associated with meals and snacks than had the subjects who had subsequently gained weight. The first discriminant function enabled a significant separation of the group centroids (Wilk's Lambda = .43, Chi-Square (24) = 44.5, p < .01). The variables contributing most to the function (loading at least .5) were life changes, ideal weight discrepancy, percentage of negative self-evaluations and negative moods associated with eating and smacking percen-There were significant sex differences in the proportion of subjects



whose weight change exceeded four pounds, Chi-square (2) = 6.0, p < .05, with females more likely to have lost 4 pounds than were males:

- Table 8 provides the descriptive statistics for the regression of prior weight change upon the predictor variables in the second sample of women. Equation 6 summarizes the hierarchical multiple regression analysis:
 - (6) Retrospecitive = -.10 Mood eating -.03 Restraint +.18 Binge eating

 Weight change % +.32 Life changes -.25 Life changes X Mood eating

 +.29 Percentage deviation from ideal weight

 -.08 current body weight percentage

A positive (+) sign for the standardized regression coefficients indicates that the higher the score on the predictor variable the more weight gain had been reported during the preceding two months: The adjusted R^2 value for Equation 6 was .08. The predictor variables accounting for significant amounts of variance in the criterion measure included: dieting restraint (p < .01), binge eating tendencies (p < .05), and percentage deviation from ideal weight (p < .05).

A discriminant function analysis was also performed for subjects grouped into three categories: those who had lost at least 4 pounds (n=11), those who had gained at least 4 pounds (n=15), and those in between (n=112). Table 9 presents the means (\pm SD), the univariate \pm s, and the p values for several predictor variables as a function of this post-hoc grouping. Women who reported they had gained weight also reported more current binge eating behavior and more deviation from their ideal weight. The first and second discriminant functions enabled significant separation of the group centroids (Wilk's Lambda = .55, Chi-square (14) = 77.8, p < .001; Wilk's Lambda = .83, Chi-square (6) = 25, p < .001).

Jackson & Hawkins

The hypothesis that restrained mood eaters would lose weight except during periods of life stress, at which time disinhibition of mood eating would occur, implies the occurrence of an interaction between reported life changes and mood eating in jointly determining weight change. Regression Equation 5, for the first sample, revealed a trend for this interaction. Further 2 X 2 ANOVAs were conducted on the weight change dependent measures in both samples. Four groups of subjects were formed on the basis of median splits on mood eating scores and reported life changes. For the first sample, the interaction between life changes and mood eating attained statistical significance, F(1,66) = 6.13, p < .02. (The triple interaction, Life changes X Mood eating X Subject's sex, was found to be non-significant (p < .9) in a preliminary analysis). Similarly, for the second all female sample the life changes and mood eating interaction was also significant, F(1,146) = 4.10, p < .05. The cell means for weight change represented in these two-way interactions are presented, separately for the two samples, in Table 10. For the first sample, subjects reporting high mood eating tendencies and few life changes subsequently lost the most weight (Mean = 3.94 pounds). For the second sample, subjects who reported having experienced many major life changes, but little mood eating, gained the most weight (Mean'= 2.1 pounds).

Discussion

These findings suggest that self-perceptions of mood eating may be reliably measured and demonstrably related to measures of eating behavior, other attitudes of interest, and to weight changes reported both retrospectively and prospectively. Mood eating tendencies, which were more frequently reported by college women (both overweight and normal weight) than by college men, were associated with self-monitored dysphoric moods and negative self-evaluations during daily ingestions

. 1/

in naturalistic settings. Subjects obtaining high scores on the Mood Eating
Scale were likely to be restrictive dieters reporting binge eating tendencies
and dissatisfaction with weight related appearance, but not all dieters or overweight subjects reported stress related eating.

A preliminary model of stress related eating among college students is proposed, which postulates that restrained mood eaters would be expected to maintain their weight or even lose weight on a day to day basis. During periods of substantial life stress, however, restrictive dieting efforts would ressen or cease and weight would be gained. Preliminary findings showing that mood eating and dieting tendencies were associated with subsequent weight loss during the semester, unless the individual reported many concurrent life stresses, were consistent with this formulation. The Mood Eating Scale thus shows promise as a measure of a mediating variable, a cognitive appraisal process intervening between life changes and weight changes. The predictive validity of the Mood Eating Scale needs replication and extension to longitudinal studies using both normative and clinical samples, in addition to experimental investigations using laboratory analogues of individual differences in arousal induced eating.

of immediate interest is verifying that the apparently different patterns of relationships between the self-report measures of stress related eating and weight change depends upon whether the weight fluctuation criterion is prospective or respective. The well-known reactive effects of self-monitoring have been found to have adaptive functions (cf., Hawkins, 1979; Doell & Hawkins, unpublished paper). Self-awareness and willingness to self-attribute loss of control of health habits may constitute a cognitive preparation for a change of phase in the alternating cycle of weight loss and regain. Awareness of weight gain, perhaps related to stressful life events, may increase self-attribution of feelings of

Jackson & Hawkins 15

loss of control over eating, yet the acknowledgment of these dissatisfactions with behavior and self may facilitate subsequent weight loss efforts, provided that alternative stress-coping resources are available to aid adjustment to major life changes.

Reference Notes

- 1. Doell, S. R., & Hawkins, R. C. II. Vulnerability to stress related overeating:

 An examination of the frequency and enjoyability of pleasant activities experienced by college students with weight concerns. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Southwestern Psychological Association, Oklahoma City, April, 1980.
- 2. Setty, R. M., & Hawkins, R. C. II. Relevance of mood eating patterns to maintenance of weight loss after treatment. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Southwestern Psychological Association, Oklahoma City, April, 1980.

References .

- Abramson, E. E., & Stinson, S. G. Boredom and eating in obese and non-obese individuals. Addictive Behaviors, 1977, 2, 181-185.
- Abramson, E. E., & Wunderlich, R. A. Anxiety, fear and eating. A test of the psychosomatic concept of obesity. <u>Journal of Abnormal Psychology</u>, 1972, 79, 317-321.
- Antelman, S., & Rowland, N. Stress-induced hyperphagia and obesity in rats:

 A possible model for understanding human obesity. Science, 1976, 191,

 310-311.
- Atkinson, R. M., & Ringuette, E. L. A survey of biographical and psychological features in extraordinary fatness. Psychosomatic Medicine, 1967, 29, 121-133.
- Bruch, H. Transformation of oral impulses in eating disorders: A conceptual approach. Psychiatric Quarterly, 1961, 35, 458-481.
- Bruch, H. Psychological aspects of overeating and obesity. <u>Psychosomatics</u>, 1964, 5, 269-274.
- Clancy, J. Other aspects of depressions. Geriatrics, 1965, 20, 92-98.
- Ely, R. J., Goolkasian, G., Frost, R. O., & Blanchard, F. A. Dieting, depression, and eating behavior. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, New York City, August, 1980.
- Hawkins, R. C. II. Meal/snack frequencies of college students: A normative study. Behavioral Psychotherapy, 1979, 7, 85-90.
- Hawkins, R. C. II, & Clement, P. F. Development and construct validation of a self-report measure of binge eating tendencies. Addictive Behaviors. in press.

A STATE OF THE PARTY OF THE PAR

- Herman, C. P., & Polivy, J. Anxiety, restraint, and eating behavior. <u>Journal of Abnormal Psychology</u>, 1975, <u>84</u>, 666-672.
- Herman, C. P., Pliner, P., Threlkeld, J., & Munic, D. Distractibility in dieters and non-dieters: An alternative view of "externality." <u>Journal</u> of Personality and Social Psychology, 1978, 36(5), 536-548.
- Holland, J., Masling, J., & Copley, D. Mental illness in lower classenormal, obese and hyper-obese women. Psychosomatic Medicine, 1970, 32, 351-357.
- Kaplan, H. I., & Kaplan, H. S. The psychosomatic concept of obesity. <u>Journal</u> of Nervous and Mental Disease, 1957, 125, 181-201.
- Leckie, E. V., & Withers, R. F. J. Obesity and depression. <u>Journal of Psycho-somatic Research</u>, 1967, <u>11</u>, 107-115.
- Leon, G. R., & Chamberlain, K. Emotional arousal, eating patterns, and body image as differential factors associated with varying success in maintaining a weight loss. <u>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</u>, 1973, 40, 474-480. (a)
- Leon, G. R., & Chamberlain, K. Comparison of daily eating habits and emotional states of overweight persons successful or unsuccessful in maintaining a weight loss. <u>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</u>, 1973, 41, 108-115. (b)
- Marlatt, G. A., & Gordon, J. R. Determinants of relapse: Implications for the maintenance of behavior change. In P. Davidson (Ed.), <u>Behavioral Medicine</u>:

 <u>Changing health lifestyles</u>, New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1979.
- McKenna, R. J. Some effects of anxiety level and food cues on the eating behavior of obese and normal subjects: A comparison of the Schacterian and psychosomatic conceptions. <u>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</u>, 1972, 22, 311-319.

- Mehrabian, A., &.Ross, M. Illnesses, accidents, and alcohol use as functions of the arousing quality and pleasantness of life changes. <u>Psychological</u> Reports, 1979, 45, 31-43.
- Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. New weight standards for men and women.

 Statistical Bulletin, 1959, 40, 1-4.
- Meyer, J. E., & Pudel, V. Experimental studies on food intake in obese and normal weight subjects. <u>Journal of Psychosomatic Research</u>, 1972, <u>16</u>, 305-308.
- Nie, N. H., Hull, C. H., Jenkins, J. G., Steinbrenner, K., & Bent, D. H.

 Statistical package for the social sciences (2nd ed.). New York:

 McGraw-Hill, 1975.
- Rodin, J. Research on eating behavior and obesity: Where does it fit in personality and social psychology? Personality and Social Psychology

 Bulletin, 1977, 3, 333-355.
- Rosenthal, B. S., Marx, R. D., & Adams, C. Determinants of relapse for participants in a weight reduction program. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Oklahoma City, April, 1980.
- Schachter, S., Goldman, R., & Gordon, A. Effects of fear, food deprivation, and obesity on eating. <u>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</u>, 1968, ——
 10, 91-97.
- Silverstone, J. T. Obesity. <u>Proceedings of the Royal Society of Medicine</u>, 1968, 61, 37
- Sjoberg, L., & Persson, L. A study of altempts by obese patients to regulate eating. Addictive Behaviors, 1979, 4, 349-359.

1969, 21, 739-744.

Slochower, J. Emotional labeling and overeating in obese and normal weight individuals. Psychosomatic Medicine, 1976, 33, 131-139. Stunkard, A. J. The Pain of Obesity. California: Bull Publishing Co., 197 Weintraub, W., & Aronson, H. Application of verbal behavior analysis to the study of psychological defense mechanisms. Archives of General Psychiatry,

Wollersheim, J. Effectiveness of group therapy based upon learning principles in the treatment of overweight women. <u>Journal of Abnormal Psychology</u>, 1970, 76, 462-474.

21 '

Jackson & Hawkins

Pootnotes

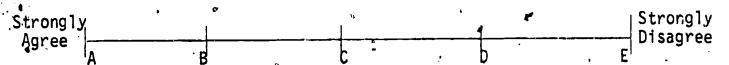
Reprint requests should be sent to Dr. Raymond C. Hawkins, Department of Psychology, the University of Texas, Austin, Texas, 78712.

Linda J. Jackson is currently working toward her Ph.D. in clinical psychology at the University of Houston.

Table 1

The E-Scale: A Measure of Moodeating Tendencies

Instructions: Indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by choosing the appropriate letter on the scale A, B, C, D, or E:



For example, if you strongly agree with a statement you would mark down choice A on your answer sheet. If you strongly disagree you would choose E, while if you agree somewhat you might choose C, and so forth. Blacken the letter A, B, c, D, or E on your answer sheet for each question, depending on your choice.

- 1. Eating can make me feel somewhat relieved when I am overwhelmed with things to do.
- 2. When I am nervous, eating something will not help calm me down. (R)
- 3. When someone important does something that clearly shows their dislike for me, I find myself eating after it happens.
- 4. Eating something does not help soothe me when I'm feeling frustrated (R)
- 5. When I am extremely happy, eating something seems to add to the good feeling.
- 6. If I eat a certain food and I feel very guilty about eating it, I continue to eat more of that food or other foods
- 7. I find myself eating more than usual during periods of great stress (e.g., breaking up with a lover, final exam week, starting college or a new job, getting married, etc.).

- .8. If I was upset because of an argument I had with someone special to me, eating would not help soothe me. (R)
- 9. I rarely find myself eating to pass the time when I am bored. (R)
- 10. When I feel inferior to someone, it makes me want to eat.
- 11. I seem to eat more than usual when I feel things are out of control.
- 12. When I am angry with someone, eating won't help calm me down. (R)
- 13. I feel like eating when I am disgusted with myself.
- 14. On days where everything seems to go wrong, I do not tend to eat any more than usual. (R)
- 15. I snack a lot while studying for an exam.
- 16. If someone makes fun of my physical appearance, I find myself eating after it happens.
- 17. When I keep my feelings to myself for so long that I feel like exploding,
 I sometimes eat to try to feel better
- 18. I do not tend to eat any more than usual after failing at something important to me. (R)
- 19. I feel like eating to make myself feel better after someone has clearly taken advantage of me.
- 20. When I am under pressure, I find myself eating more often,

Note. Score A = 0, B = 1, C = 2, D = 3, and E = 4. Items marked "(R)" are reverse-scored. Higher scores indicate more mood-eating tendencies than lower scores.

Table 2

	Measure	11	2	3 '	4	5	6	7	.8	
Mood Scale		ŧ	. 51**	.48**	.52**	.26*	.17	24*	.37**	
Binge Scale			, I	.61**	.57**	.08	.06	14	.29*	
Restraint		• .			.62**	.26*	.27*	05	.55**	
Neg. Self-Imag	e				• •	.13	.17	01.	.48**	
Life Changes							.11	.20	.14	
Initial Wgt.	,	-						30*	.73**	•;3
Weight Chg	•				,, ·				36** -	
	65)	31.9 13.8			5.7	94.3 76.2	102.6 13.4	7 5.2	3.8 9.0	
** p < .01 * p < .05		•	/				•			

Table 3

Meas	sure .	1	2	3.	4	5	6	7	8 .
Mood Scale	i		.21**	.16%	.31**	.10	.08	06	.13
Binge Scale		•		.68**	.58**	.10	.42**	.26**	.55**
Restraint					.62**	.06	51**	.21**	.61**
Neg, Self-Image			•	•		.11	.49**	.12	.63**
Life Changes		1			٠	•	:18*	.10 ~	.12
Initial Wgt.	•	۰			•			.22**	.83**
Weight Chg. Ideal Wgt.	• • •	N *	iz.	,				•	.30**
Means (n=149 (SD+1)		-	5.9 16 5.2 5			6.0 8.4	100.3		6.9 8.0
** p <.01	•				•		•		

56				Table	4			, ,	ï
	# ndent Var	iable. <u>E</u>	MOTTS	Sample	* #1		"		•
				Summary	Table .		•		
STEP	VARI ENTERED	ABLE REMOVED	F TO ENTER OR REMOVE	SIGNIFICANCE	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	R SQUARE CHANGE	Beta	OVERALL F
1	RSTOT	•	28.73726	.000	· .49196	.24202	.24202	.42	28.73726
2 .	NID		1.29807	.258	.50291	.25292	.0109	11	15.06525
. 3	PREWGT		.02581	.873	.50313	.25314	.00022	.02	9.94227
•	Adjusted	$1 R^2 = .23$							·
	•	C.		Sample	#2		_		
Depe	ndent Var	iable <u>E</u>	MOTTS	Summary	Table				
-STEP	VARI ENTERED	ABLE REMOVED	F TO ENTER OR REMOVE	SIGNIFICANCE	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	R SQUARE CHANGE	Beta	OVERALL F
1	CRS		5.31331	.023	.18496	.03421	.03421	.13	5.31331
2	NID		.77744	.379	.19805	. 03922	. 00501	.15	3.14144
3	CWP		.25649	.613	.20220 '	.04089	.00166	07	2.10300
	Adjusted	$1 R^2 = .02$	•	•					

1	
N	

Dependent Variable. <u>BSTOT</u>			Table 5 Sample #1					
•			Summary 1	able				•
STEP	VARIABLE ENTERED REMOVED E	F TO NTER OR REMOVE	SIGNIF, I CANCE (*)	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	. SQUARE CHANGE	Beta	OVERALL F
1	EMOTTS	97.24241	.000	.57488	.33048	.33048	.35	97.24241
• 2	SITS	38/.52919	.000	.66368	.44047	.10999	.29	77.14831
3	SISEM (Interaction between SIS & EMO		.515	.66460	.44169	.00122	.12	51.42280
·	Adjusted $R^2 = .43$, ·			· · ·	
•	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		Sample	#2	•		.}	
Depe	ndent Variable. BS	· .,	Summary 1	able	. 1	ε ∴	,	
STEP		F TO NTER OR REMOVE	SIGNIFICANCE	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	R SQUARE, CHANGE	Beta	OVERALL F
1	EMOTTS	7.28379	.008	.21588	.04661	.04661	.08	7.28379
2	SIS [*]	63.38342	.000	.57661	.33248	.28588	.80	36.85839
3	SISEM	.31814	.574 °	. 5 7-7 86	.33392	.00144	26	24.565101
	Adjusted $R^2 = .32$		·	•	3			

ά

Table 6: Regression analysis: Prospective weight change.

Dependent Variable. NFP (Weight change-prospectively)

Sample #1

Summary Table

STEP		F TO TER OR REMOVE	SIGNIFICANCE	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	R SQUARE CHANGE	Beta 	OVERALL F
. 1	D1(Dummy for "sex" O=females 1=males)	7.42482	.008	.32470	.10543	.10543	28	7.42402
2	EMOTTS	1.13007	292	.34849	.12144	.01601	40	4.28511
3	RSTOT	1.91698	.171)	.38498	.14821	.02677	.36	3.53798
4	BSTOT	.06417	.801	.38616	.14912	.00091	10	2.62882
5	LCU	3.29947	.074	44066	.19418	.04506	17	2.84355
6	LCUEM (LCU X Emotts)	2.64757	.109	.47892	.22936	.03518	.50	2.87706
7	NID	9.84569	.003	.58555	.34287	.11351	20	4.24868
8	PREWGT	1.69464	.198	.60181	.36217	.01930	24	3.97473
	Adjusted $R^2 = .27$	•						•

		Tabile 7	,
MEANS	Lost > 4 lbs.	,	Gained > 41
**************************************	Group 1 (n = 7)	Group 2 (n ₹ 49)	Group 3 (n = 5)
EMOTTS RSTOT BSTOT SITS LCU PREWGT NID SNACPERC NMOODPER NEGSSPER POSSSPER	43.85714 21.28571 8.85714 10.14286 79.00000 110.57143 13.57143 .34821 .33759 .26316 .55029	30.55102 14.63265 4.42857 5.42857 92.69388 102.53061 3.26531 .44889 .29943 .11512 .61636	34.00000 13.00000 3.00000 4.60000 163.60000 95.20000 -3.00000 .56718 .22756 .05087 .70225
STANDARD DEV	IATIONS		,
EMOTTS RSTOT BSTOT SITS LCU PREWGT NID SNACPERC NMOODPER NEGSSPER	GR9U 1 12.23967 6.84871 4.94734 4.05909 46.23130 13.48897 9.98093 .09432 .25324 .09275	GROUP 2 12.93906 6.09540 4.56435 4.29146 69.45298 13.24151 8.09263 .16618 .17443 .13691	GROUP 3 18.26198 4.30116 4.24264 1.94936 143.31888 11.38859 10.48809 .12749 .26806 .06318
POSSSPER	.19320	.33948	.16754
VARIABLE EMOTTS RSTOT BSTOT SITS LCU PREWGT NID SNACPERL NMOODPER NEGSSPER POSSSPER	WILKS LAMBDA .9033 .8774 .8982 .8729 .9279 .9334 .8209 .9112 .9835 .5838 .9886	(U-STATISTIC) AND UNIVA F (2,58 d 3.1039 4.0539 3.2872 4.2234 2.2518 2.0678 6.3286 2.8261 .4878 4.9668 .3332	•

Table 8: Regression analysis - Retrospective weight change - Sample 2

Dependent Variable. NWP (Retrospective weight change) Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Summary Table

STEP		F TO TER OR REMOVE	SIGNIFICANCE	MULTIPLE R	R_SQUARE	R SQUARE CHANGE	Beta	OVERALL F
1	EMOTTS (.55719	.457	.06145	.00378 `	.00378	-,10	.55719
2	CRS	7.66260	006*	.23120	.05345	.04968	03	4.12252
3	BS	5.08744	.025*	.29258	.08561	.03215	.18	4.52498
4	LCS	1.17119	.281	.30493、	.09298	.00738	.32	3.69054
5	LCUEM (LCS X Emotts	.39860	.529	:30904	.09550	.00252	25	3.01982
6	NID	4.64937	.033*	.35239	.12418	.02868	.29	3.35564
7	CWP.	.37814	.540	.35570	.12652	.00234	08	2.91768
	Adjusted $R^2 = 08$. 8	•	,	•	4		

Table 9

'MEANS	Lost > 4 lbs.		Gai	ned > 4 1bs.
• • •	Group 1 (n = 11)	Group 2 (n = 112)		oup 3 = 15)
EMOTTS CRS BS SIS LCS PWP NID	38.00000 17.09091 3.81818 6.18182 103.18182 112.18182 5.54545	40.00893 15.54464 5.56250 7.57143 81.05357 97.56250 5.57143	18. 8. 11. 127. 106.	40000 40000 60000 20000 93333 73333 60000
STANDARD D	EVIATIONS		·	1
5	GROUP 1	GROUP 2	GRO	OUP 3
EMOTTS CRS BS SIS LCS PWP NID	* 3.76829 6.62502 5.03623 4.87480 120.25624 11.17871 6.18650	5.98120 5.47704 4.91877 6.13910 84.51663 10.77600 7.23071	5. 6. 6. 100. 11.	94979 75450 43428 71033 35542 60337 29424
	WILKD LAMBDA (U-STATISTIC) AND UN	IVARIATE F-RAT	
VARIABLE	WILKS LAMBDA	F (2	.135)	
EMOTTS CRS BS SIS LCS PWP NID	.9908 .9718 .9547 .9605 .9713 .8438 .8508	1.956 3.200 2.774 1.994 12.499 11.839	1 1 5 0 9	

Table 10

Cell means for weight change as a joint function of moodeating and life changes

Sample #1 (Prospective weight change) males & females

Moodeating

High

+.400 lbs.

SD = 3.99

SD = 3.31 SD = 7.87' +.913 lbs. -3.94 lbs. n = 23 n = 17n = 16 n = 15

-.437 lbs. SD = 1.75

Low

Life Changes

High

Low

High

Sample #2
(Retrospective weight change)
females

Moodeating Low

SD = 4.74

Life Changes