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**A New Cognitive Bias Modification Technique to Influence Risk Factors for Eating**

11

**Disorders**

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27

**Abstract**

28 **Objective:** Eating disorder psychopathology is associated with a propensity to interpret  
29 ambiguous stimuli to be negatively related to one's appearance and self-worth. The relative  
30 impact of modifying interpretation bias for these respective stimuli is unknown. Hence the  
31 main aim of the current study was to compare two cognitive bias modification protocols  
32 targeting interpretation bias (CBM-I), one focused on appearance and the other on self-worth,  
33 in terms of impacting interpretation bias, body dissatisfaction and negative affect. The  
34 appearance-based CBM-I protocol was developed for the current study. **Method:** Female  
35 university students (N=123) were randomised into one of three CBM-I conditions:  
36 appearance, self-worth or control. Immediately following a negative induction that  
37 significantly increased body dissatisfaction and negative affect, participants underwent their  
38 respective CBM-I training. **Results:** the CBM-I for appearance produced significant changes  
39 in the targeted bias, as well as significant improvements (moderate effect sizes) in appearance  
40 satisfaction, relative to the CBM-I for self-worth and control conditions. **Discussion:** The  
41 results support the usefulness of the CBM-I for appearance protocol, and suggests that this  
42 technique warrants further investigation with respect to modifying interpretation bias and risk  
43 factors associated with eating disorder psychopathology. Null effects of CBM-I for self-worth  
44 should be interpreted in light of study limitations, including the potential unsuitability of  
45 training material for young women. CBM-I for both types of interpretation bias should be  
46 evaluated in future research.

47

48 **Keywords:** cognitive bias modification; interpretation bias; body dissatisfaction; appearance

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52 Cognitive theories propose that the development and maintenance of various  
53 psychopathologies can be partially attributed to the tendency to preferentially process  
54 disorder-salient stimuli above all other information types, resulting in an interpretation bias.  
55 Research consistently shows that eating disorder risk is associated with the perception of  
56 ambiguous stimuli to be negatively related to one's appearance (Brockmeyer et al., 2018;  
57 Rodgers & Dubois, 2016) and self-worth (e.g., Cooper, 2005; Cooper & Cowen, 2009;  
58 Pringle, Harmer, & Cooper 2010). For instance, a friend stating they joined a gym would be  
59 interpreted by the person at risk as evidence that they too should exercise and improve their  
60 weight and shape (interpretation bias related to appearance), or that they are lazy for not  
61 doing so (interpretation bias related to self-worth), rather than considering a more adaptive  
62 resolution (e.g., a friend's pride in their new found motivation).

63 The use of cognitive bias modification targeting interpretation bias (CBM-I) for  
64 therapeutic purposes aims to train individuals to adopt adaptive explanations for ambiguity.  
65 Techniques typically involve presenting individuals with a series of ambiguous scenarios that  
66 consistently yield an adaptive resolution once disambiguated. In consistently constraining  
67 individuals' interpretations to one theme, a new "production rule" is formed (Hoppitt,  
68 Mathews, Yiend &, Mackintosh, 2010; Mackintosh, Mathews, Yiend, Ridgeway, & Cook,  
69 2006). Subsequently, CBM-I efficacy is determined by individuals' ability to apply this  
70 newly formed rule to new ambiguous information, as well as the degree to which targeted  
71 symptomatology is impacted.

72 Given that individuals with greater psychopathology are likely to have more difficulty  
73 in generating positive interpretations, standardized CBM-I paradigms have proven more  
74 effective relative to self-generated CBM-I (Rohrbacher, Blackwell, Holmes, & Reinecke,  
75 2014). Four studies utilizing such standardized paradigms relevant to eating disorders exist.  
76 The first study trained a subclinical eating disorder sample to interpret emotionally

77 ambiguous scenarios that were consistent with either a positive/neutral, or negative self-worth  
78 (Yiend, Parnes, Shepherd, Roche, & Cooper, 2014). Both forms of CBM-I produced  
79 significant bias change congruent with the training valence. The negative CBM-I training had  
80 a significant impact on eating disorder symptomatology, with participants demonstrating a  
81 significant increase in depression and intrusive thoughts, related to weight and shape, during  
82 a mirror exposure task, as well as food restriction. Conversely, the positive/neutral form of  
83 CBM-I significantly reduced anxiety, depression and intrusive thoughts during two  
84 behavioural tasks (i.e., mirror exposure and weighing).

85         Two studies sought to modify interpretation bias associated with interpersonal  
86 difficulties in women with anorexia nervosa that can damage self-worth. The first study  
87 explored multiple sessions of CBM, targeting attentional (CBM-A) and interpretation bias for  
88 negative social stimuli (Cardi et al., 2015). Over a two-week period the women completed  
89 five sessions of CBM-A (direct attention toward positive social cues and away from negative  
90 cues) and CBM-I (beginning interpretation training of social-relevant scenarios). At post-  
91 intervention, the multi-session training significantly modified attentional and interpretation  
92 bias, as well as ameliorated anxiety and self-compassion. There was no impact on eating  
93 disorder symptoms. A more recent study found a single session of CBM-I to be comparably  
94 effective to a CBM-I control condition, with respects to modifying interpretation biases.  
95 Furthermore, the training had no impact on eating disorder behaviour or stress levels (Turton,  
96 Cardi, Treasurer, & Hirsch, 2018).

97         A final study successfully used an appearance-based CBM-I to modify social- and  
98 appearance-related interpretation bias in those with heightened body dysmorphia  
99 symptomatology (Summers & Cogle, 2016). CBM-I significantly reduced self-reported  
100 bulimia symptoms in those with high pre-treatment symptomatology; however there was no  
101 impact on drive for thinness (Summers & Cogle, 2018). No study has directly investigated

102 the effects of an appearance-based CBM-I on eating disorder psychopathology. An important  
103 and novel contribution of the current study is the development of a new appearance-based  
104 CBM-I protocol, which is the first approach to both *assess* and *modify* appearance-related  
105 interpretations biases.

106 In a review of CBM procedures, MacLeod (2012) noted that the effectiveness of  
107 CBM-I procedures beyond anxiety and depression was largely uncertain. The small body of  
108 literature summarized above, emerging since this review, suggests that CBM-I shows  
109 therapeutic potential in eating disorders. Direct comparisons of CBM-I for appearance and  
110 self-worth stimuli may indicate which protocol shows most promise, or whether both are  
111 worth pursuing, thus helping to efficiently shape future evaluations in the field. Therefore, the  
112 primary objective of the current study was to examine the effects of two CBM-I protocols,  
113 one targeting bias related to appearance and the other targeting bias related to self-worth,  
114 with respect to modifying disorder-salient bias and improving two risk factors for eating  
115 disorder psychopathology, body dissatisfaction and negative affect (Jacobi & Fittig, 2011).  
116 The cognitive-behavioural model would suggest that self-worth is a central maintaining  
117 factor of appearance concern and disordered eating (Fairburn, 2007), so we hypothesised that  
118 CBM-I for self-worth would be more effective at modifying the targeted interpretation bias,  
119 as well as improving risk factors (body dissatisfaction and negative affect), than CBM-I for  
120 appearance and control.

121

## 122 **Method**

### 123 **Participants**

124 One hundred and forty-five university students were recruited from a volunteer  
125 research pool, where participation earned course credit. To have a homogenous sample and  
126 thus increase power, the inclusion criteria required participants to be female, aged between 17

127 and 25, and have a body mass index (BMI) between 18.5 and 29.9 (i.e., not underweight nor  
128 obese; World Health Organisation, 2017). Of the 145 participants recruited, the data of 123  
129 participants were included in the analyses;  $n = 3$  were excluded for falling outside the age  
130 range, and  $n = 19$  were excluded for not meeting weight criteria ( $n = 10$  were underweight  
131 and  $n = 9$  were obese). Prior to commencement, ethics approval for the study was obtained  
132 from the Human Research Ethics Committee and informed consent was obtained from each  
133 participant.

## 134 **Materials**

### 135 **Body dissatisfaction induction**

136 To induce body dissatisfaction and negative affect participants viewed 16 sequential  
137 images of thin women from contemporary fashion advertisements. Using a modified version  
138 of the Consumer Response Questionnaire (Mills, Polivy, Herman, & Tiggemann, 2002) to  
139 enhance comparisons, participants were instructed to compare their own appearance to that of  
140 the women they viewed on the computer screen. Using a 100-pixel VAS, participants rated  
141 their agreeability (0 being '*strongly disagree*' and 100 being '*strongly agree*') with the  
142 following statements: '*I would like my body to look like this woman's body*'; '*This woman is*  
143 *thinner than me*'; '*In a busy clothes shop, I would not like to try on bathing suits if this*  
144 *woman was also trying on bathing suits in the same change room*'. Inductions are routinely  
145 used in unselected samples to reduce variation in mood state levels (Segal & Ingram, 1994)  
146 and thus increase effect sizes for any subsequent improvements. The current induction has  
147 been shown to reliably induce body dissatisfaction and negative affect in unselected samples  
148 (Atkinson & Wade, 2012).

### 149 **Cognitive bias modification targeting interpretation (CBM-I) training**

150 The CBM-I training took the previously reported (e.g. Yiend et al., 2014) form of  
151 word completion and question tasks. Word completion tasks, first described by Matthews and

152 Mackintosh (2000), have shown to be effective at modifying biases in subclinical levels of  
153 anxiety and depression (Bowler et al., 2012) and eating disorders (Yiend et al., 2014). The  
154 training material used in the CBM-I for self-worth and CBM-I control conditions, was  
155 sourced from Yiend and colleagues (2014). To our knowledge, there has not been a CBM-I  
156 training specifically designed to modify appearance-related interpretation bias using the word  
157 completion task.

158 Therefore, using the framework described in the aforementioned studies, the authors  
159 developed the training task ‘CBM-I for appearance’. Training stimuli were informed by  
160 appearance-based feedback and rejection sensitivity scales (Altabe et al., 2004; Park, 2013;  
161 Park, Calogero, Young, & DiRaddo, 2010; Tantleff-Dunn, Thompson &, Dunn, 1995), as  
162 well as a pilot study conducted with 21 women aged between 21-27 years ( $M = 24.35$ ,  $SD =$   
163  $1.33$ ). The women were asked to rate appearance-related terms (e.g., fit) on two 9-point  
164 Likert scales, which assessed relatedness to appearance (1 being ‘*completely unrelated*’ and 9  
165 being ‘*completely related*’) and affective valence (1 being ‘*completely unpleasant*’ and 9  
166 being ‘*completely pleasant*’). Based on these ratings, target words were chosen according to  
167 the degree to which they related to appearance and were positively endorsed.

168 The CBM-I training comprised 67 trials, each consisting of two consecutive  
169 components: an ambiguous scenario (including word completion) and a comprehension  
170 question. First, participants were presented with a 3-line ambiguous scenario, where the last  
171 word was purposely incomplete. Scenarios retained their emotional ambiguity until the final  
172 word was formed, which then disambiguated the meaning in a positive direction towards  
173 either one’s appearance or self-worth. Lastly, to reinforce the positive meaning of the  
174 disambiguated passage, participants were presented with a comprehension question that  
175 required the completion of the words ‘*Yes*’ or ‘*No*’. Control scenarios related to imperative  
176 (e.g., making a cup of tea) and declarative (e.g., facts about butterflies) knowledge and



177 retained neutrality when disambiguated. Training was delivered through an online survey  
178 program, and incorporated 4 initial practice trials. Both CBM-I for appearance (Matheson,  
179 Yiend, & Wade, 2018) and self-worth (Houlihan, Yiend, & Cooper, 2017) training materials  
180 are available via Open Science Framework. A sample training item from the three CBM-I  
181 conditions follow:

182           Appearance: “*Your friend is a very keen hiker and persuades you to join her and a*  
183 *group of friends on their next hike. You are apprehensive, given how far the hike was going*  
184 *to be. During the hike you realise that you are f-t*” (fit). The trained interpretation is  
185 reinforced by the comprehension question (with feedback given reflecting whether  
186 participants have responded ‘correctly’ or not ) here: “*Are you surprised by your level of*  
187 *fitness?* ‘Correct’ answer: *No*. There are an equal number of randomly distributed ‘yes and  
188 ‘no’ responses required.

189           Self-worth: “*Your partner has been acting distant. You seek to reassure yourself that*  
190 *they are not annoyed with you for doing something wrong. You call them twice in quick*  
191 *succession. In your view you are being l-v-ng*” (loving). Comprehension question: *Are you*  
192 *too dependent on your partner?* *No*.

193           Control: “*You turn the kettle on and wait for the water to boil. You get a teabag out of the*  
194 *tin, which you put into a mug, and pour the boiling water onto the teabag. Next, you add the m- - k*”  
195 (milk). Comprehension question: *Have you made a cup of tea?* *Yes*.

### 196 **Similarity Rating Task**

197           The similarity ratings task (SRT) assessed modification of interpretation bias between  
198 pre- and post-training (Eysenck, Mogg, May, Richards, & Mathews, 1991; Mathews &  
199 Mackintosh, 2000). Similarly, the SRT assessing self-worth related bias was sourced from  
200 Yiend and colleagues (2014). Meanwhile, the authors developed corresponding tasks for the  
201 newly developed CBM-I for appearance condition. The SRTs comprised of two consecutive

202 subtasks: 1) a word completion task and 2) a recognition test. Together, the two SRTs  
203 consisted of 40 word completion scenarios (20 appearance-relevant and 20 self-worth  
204 relevant), which were separated into two parallel sets and their presentation counterbalanced  
205 between pre- and post-training.

206 The word completion task appeared in a similar format to that described in the CBM-  
207 I training; however the aim of the SRT was to assess, rather than to modify, biases. Thus,  
208 when the fragmented word was complete, each scenario and comprehension question retained  
209 emotional ambiguity, rather than reflecting and reinforcing positive interpretations,  
210 respectively. Further, each scenario was presented with a corresponding title, such as the  
211 “Family Christmas Card”: *Every year your mother organises a family portrait to use for*  
212 *Christmas cards. The photographer places you front and centre. You start to think about how*  
213 *many people will see the c-rd. (card). Is the card for celebrating Easter?” N- (No).*

214 In the recognition task, test sentences appeared beneath a title that corresponded with  
215 the previously encoded assessment scenarios. Participants were instructed to rate how similar  
216 in meaning the sentence was to the original passage on a scale between 1 (*very different*) and  
217 4 (*very similar*). Each scenario had four corresponding test sentences; two target sentences  
218 and two foils sentences. Target items reflected either a positive or negative interpretation of  
219 the scenario. While, foil sentences were unrelated to appearance or self-worth and assessed  
220 participants’ general response bias (i.e., the tendency to respond to ambiguity in a positive or  
221 negative manner). Thus, the inclusion of both target and foil items, allowed for the distinction  
222 between modifying interpretation bias and more general priming effects of training (Mathews  
223 & Mackintosh, 2000). Test sentences were programmed to appear individually and at  
224 random. A sample set of test sentences for the “*Family Christmas Card*” scenario follow:

225 *People will enjoy seeing your photo on the Christmas card* (positive target)

226 *People will dislike your appearance in the photo* (negative target)

227            *The photographer was kind (positive foil)*

228            *The photographer was rude (negative foil)*

## 229    **Measures**

230            **Interpretation bias** Similarity rating scores were used to assess the changes in  
231 interpretation and response bias, using target and foil items respectively (Yiend et al, 2014).  
232 Interpretation bias indices were calculated separately for appearance and self-worth, at pre-  
233 and post-training, by subtracting the mean negative target rating from the mean positive  
234 target rating. Meanwhile, general response bias indices (mean positive foil rating minus mean  
235 negative foil rating) captured participants' tendency to respond in a more positive or negative  
236 manner. Bias scores ranged between -4 and 4, with 0 indicating no bias, and positive and  
237 negative values indicating a positive or negative interpretation bias, respectively.

238            **Trait measures.** The 9-item Body Dissatisfaction subscale from the Eating Disorder  
239 Inventory (Garner, Olmsted, & Polivy, 1983) was used to measure body dissatisfaction.  
240 Participants were asked to indicate how often the statement was true for them on a 6-point  
241 Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 6 (*always*). Responses to item numbers 3, 5, 6, 7 and 9  
242 were reverse-coded and the total score on the nine items were converted to a mean score,  
243 with higher values indicating a greater level of body dissatisfaction. The internal reliability of  
244 the questionnaire in this population was .85, and the range of corrected item-total correlations  
245 was .4 to .78.

246            Depression and anxiety were assessed using the two relevant subscales from the  
247 Depression, Anxiety and Stress Survey (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995). Participants rated the  
248 applicability of statements as having occurred in the past week. Responses were scored on a  
249 4-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (*did not apply to me at all*) to 3 (*applied to me very much,*  
250 *or most of the time*), with higher scores indicating higher levels of depression and anxiety.  
251 Total mean subscale scores were multiplied by two for comparison to normative data, where

252 higher scores indicate a higher psychopathology. The internal reliability for the depression  
253 and anxiety subscales was .92 and .81, respectively, with corrected item-total correlations  
254 ranging from .55 to .83 and .3 to .65, respectively.

255 **State measures.** Visual analogue scales (VAS; Heinberg & Thompson, 1995) were  
256 used to assess participants' state level of appearance and weight satisfaction, by indicating a  
257 response to the following questions: (1) "*How satisfied do you feel about your appearance*  
258 *right now?*" (2) "*How satisfied do you feel about your weight right now?*" Participants  
259 indicated their level of satisfaction by dragging a slider along a 100-pixel VAS, which was  
260 fixed with two extreme values (0 indicating *extreme dissatisfaction* and 100 indicating  
261 *extreme satisfaction*). Lower scores indicated a lower level of satisfaction.

262 Negative affect was assessed using the Negative Affect subscale from the Positive  
263 Affect and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson, Clarke, & Tellegen, 1988). The measure was  
264 comprised of ten words relating to negative feelings (e.g., *distressed* or *jittery*) and required  
265 participants to indicate the level to which they were experiencing this feeling on a 5-point  
266 Likert scale ranging from 1 (*very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*). Internal consistency  
267 for the Negative Affect subscale for the present study was .91, and the range of corrected  
268 item-total correlations was .6 to .81.

## 269 **Procedure**

270 The procedure is depicted in **Figure 1**. Participants attended a single session with six  
271 sequential phases lasting a total of 90 minutes. After data collection, participants were  
272 formally debriefed about the study objectives and provided with referrals for any concerns  
273 regarding body dissatisfaction.

274

## 275 **Results**

### 276 **Participant characteristics and baseline measures**

277 As shown in **Table 1** the three groups did not differ on any baseline variables.  
278 Negative affect was severely positively skewed, however results remained unchanged when  
279 inverse transformations were applied; thus original scores are reported.

### 280 **Body Dissatisfaction Induction**

281 A manipulation check was conducted using 3 (Training Group) x 2 (Time) mixed  
282 analysis of variance (ANOVA) to assess the changes in the three state variables between pre  
283 and post-induction. Across all three groups, the induction significantly exacerbated body  
284 dissatisfaction and negative affect as indicated by a main effect of Time (appearance  
285 satisfaction,  $F[1, 120] = 29.16, p < .001$ ; weight satisfaction,  $F[1, 120] = 19.61, p < .001$ ;  
286 negative affect  $F[1, 120] = 21.66, p < .001$ ). There were no significant main effects of  
287 Training Group for any of the three dependent variables; nor significant interactions between  
288 Training Group and Time. After the induction, there was no difference between the three  
289 groups on any of the three variables (appearance satisfaction  $F[2] = .94, p = .39$ ; weight  
290 satisfaction  $F[2] = .76, p = .47$ ; negative affect  $F[2] = .64, p = .53$ ). Hence all groups  
291 experienced commensurate changes on the outcome variables.

### 292 **The impact of CBM-I on state variables**

293 Changes in body dissatisfaction and negative affect between pre-training (i.e. post-  
294 induction) and post-training, across the three groups were assessed using 3 (Training Group)  
295  $\times$  2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA.

296 As shown in **Table 3**, appearance satisfaction was associated with a main effect of  
297 Time, with no main effect of Training Group and a significant interaction between Time and  
298 Training Group. A significant main effect of Time was observed for weight satisfaction and  
299 negative affect, no main effect of Training Group, nor was an interaction between Time and  
300 Training Group associated with either variable.

301 Post hoc analyses were conducted on the significant interaction between Time and  
302 Training Group for appearance satisfaction using Cohen's  $d$  within-group effect sizes and  
303 their 95% confidence intervals. Analyses revealed that CBM-I for appearance was associated  
304 with a significant medium sized improvement in appearance satisfaction,  $d = .61$  [.18:1.04];  
305 these effects were not mirrored in the CBM-I for self-worth ( $d = .31$  [-.15:.77]) or CBM-I  
306 control ( $d = .21$  [-.22:.64]) conditions.

### 307 **Impact of CBM-I on modifying bias**

308 Interpretation and response bias indices (calculated by collapsing the different  
309 directions of interpretation, see methods) were considered together in a three-way mixed  
310 ANOVA, to compare the specific interpretative consequences of CBM-I (indicated by  
311 responses to target items) to wider priming effects of training (indicated by responses to foil  
312 items), respectively. (Yiend et al., 2005; Yiend et al, 2014; Lee et al., 2016; Savulich et al.,  
313 2017). A mixed model ANOVA was conducted, with Training Group (CBM-I for appearance  
314 vs. CBM-I for self-worth vs. CBM-I control) as a between-subjects factor and Bias Type  
315 (target vs. foil) and Time (pre- vs. post-training) as within-subject factors.

316 As shown in **Table 3**, for self-worth bias indices, no main effects or three-way  
317 interaction were observed. Meanwhile, for appearance bias indices (see **Table 3**), significant  
318 main effects of Time, Bias Type and Training Group were observed. Accompanying the  
319 effects was a significant interaction between Training Group and Time. Post hoc analyses of  
320 the interaction were conducted using Cohen's  $d$  within-group effect sizes and their 95%  
321 confidence intervals. Analyses revealed a significant medium sized increase in positive bias  
322 in the CBM-I for appearance condition ( $d = .72$  [.29:1.15]); however the CBM-I for self-  
323 worth ( $d = .02$  [-.47:.44]) and CBM-I control ( $d = .10$  [-.32:.54]) conditions were not  
324 associated with such effects. No significant three-way interaction between Time, Training

325 Group and Bias Type was observed, indicating no significant difference in the trajectory of  
326 interpretation vs. response bias between the three training groups over time.

### 327 **Directions of change associated with CBM-I bias**

328 Using pre- and post-training interpretation bias indices for appearance and self-worth,  
329 we examined the direction of change and whether this was congruent with the training that  
330 participants received. Of the 44 participants in the CBM-I for appearance condition, 29 (66%)  
331 showed a change in the predicted direction (i.e., increased positive interpretations towards  
332 appearance), 12 (27%) showed a change in the adverse direction (i.e., reduced positive  
333 interpretations), and 3 (7%) showed no change in bias. After removing the data of  
334 unresponsive participants (i.e. those who showed no change in bias), the difference in  
335 proportions of congruent and incongruent bias change was significant,  $\chi^2(1, N = 41) = 7.05, p$   
336  $< .01$ . For the 37 participants in the CBM-I for self-worth condition, 15 (40.5%)  
337 demonstrated a bias change congruent with training (i.e., increased positive interpretations  
338 towards self-worth), while the scores of 21 (56.8%) participants were incongruent (i.e.,  
339 reduced positive interpretations) and 1 (2.7%) showed no change. The difference in  
340 proportions of congruent and incongruent bias change was not significant,  $\chi^2(1, N = 36) = 1,$   
341  $p < .32$ .

### 342 **Discussion**

343 The current research sought to comparatively examine two CBM-I approaches and  
344 their influence on modifying interpretation bias and two risk factors for eating disorder  
345 psychopathology. In contrast to the original hypothesis, results supported the newly  
346 developed CBM-I for appearance protocol, with the approach proving to be more effective at  
347 modifying the targeted bias and improving symptomatology than CBM-I for self-worth.  
348 Specifically, CBM-I increased positive-appearance related interpretations of ambiguity and  
349 produced significant medium sized improvements in appearance satisfaction. No significant

350 changes to bias or symptomatology were observed in those who completed CBM-I for self-  
351 worth.

352 Our results are inconsistent with those of Yiend and colleagues (2014) who found  
353 CBM-I for self-worth to be an effective approach for retraining disorder-salient bias, and  
354 reducing anxiety, depression and intrusive thoughts related to appearance. The  
355 inconsistencies may relate to differences in sample demographics, namely age and clinical  
356 severity. Specifically, the current study used an unselected sample with varying levels of  
357 psychopathology and a mean age of 19 years, relative to a subclinical sample with a mean  
358 age of 29 years. Subsequently, age and clinical severity may determine the suitability of  
359 training material and the degree of pre-existing bias, respectively. First, the content of the  
360 self-worth training material may have been somewhat unsuitable for the younger sample.  
361 Self-worth in younger female populations is likely to hinge on appearance, studies and  
362 dating, as opposed to marriage, children and a full time career, which were reoccurring  
363 themes in the existing self-worth training scenarios. Exposure to scenarios that one has yet to  
364 experience or achieve may foster negative self-worth bias and subsequently feelings of failure  
365 or discontent. In future studies of similar aged females to the present sample, researchers  
366 should review the CBM-I for self-worth material and modify training scenarios to be more  
367 reflective of younger female life domains. More generally, researchers using CBM should  
368 place close attention to the suitability of the training content and seek to match or adapt items  
369 to be as relevant as possible to the concerns of the sample. In the wider interpretation bias  
370 literature the importance of the content match with the concerns of the sample has been  
371 termed ‘content specificity’ and has been the subject of specific investigation in some  
372 vulnerable populations (e.g. Savulich, Freeman, Shergill & Yiend, 2015). Second, prior to the  
373 intervention, the current sample reported high levels of general response bias and positive  
374 self-worth bias, indicating a propensity to respond to ambiguity in an optimistic manner, both



375 generally and regarding self-worth. Therefore, modifying bias in a direction that is already  
376 congruent with participants' cognitions is likely to reduce the potency of the intervention.

377 An important contribution of the current research was the development of a CBM-I  
378 for appearance protocol. Although there was a specific effect of CBM-I on interpretation bias  
379 (target items), a similar pattern of results also emerged for general response bias (foil items).  
380 Matthews and Mackintosh (2000) propose that the current assessment of bias may be  
381 sensitive to experimental noise, resulting in target and foil items being equally encoded and  
382 considered similar in meaning to the original message. Specifically, the text method assesses  
383 bias on the assumption that the individual will consistently respond to ambiguity with one  
384 form of interpretation (e.g., positive target), therefore rejecting the three alternative  
385 interpretations (e.g., positive foil, negative target and negative foil). For example, an  
386 interpretation such as, "*People will enjoy seeing your photo on the Christmas card*" (positive  
387 target) leads to the correct rejection of the positive foil "*the photographer was kind*".  
388 However, when encoding the original passage, these specific interpretations are not visible to  
389 the individual. As such, more generic interpretations may have been generated and encoded  
390 into memory, such as "*the photographer found me appealing*", "*I felt accepted*" or "*the*  
391 *experience was enjoyable*". In this case, both the positive target and foil item would be  
392 considered as accurate representations of the outcome, thus leading the individual to rate both  
393 items as similar in meaning. We can conclude that we induced an interpretation bias as well  
394 as a more general positive bias and our ability to distinguish between these two effects  
395 represents a limitation of the current CBM-I protocol which may require further modification.

396 Current findings should be interpreted in the context of limitations additional to those  
397 already mentioned. Firstly, the design did not include qualitative assessments at debriefing,  
398 thus participants' awareness of the study's intentions is unknown. The impact of participants'  
399 awareness of intervention intentions on CBM-I efficacy remains unclear, with some evidence

400 suggesting this knowledge enhances bias modification and symptom change (Mobini et al.,  
401 2014), while others found it to hinder treatment effects (Orchard, Apetroaia, Clarke, &  
402 Creswell, 2017). Future efforts should look to include quantitative and/or qualitative  
403 awareness checks to determine the relationship between awareness and CBM-I efficacy.  
404 Second, despite null effects of CBM-I for self-worth on bias and symptomatology (i.e.,  
405 weight satisfaction and negative affect), the approach should not be considered ineffective.  
406 Current findings are likely to be indicative of ceiling effects. The current unselected sample  
407 were positively biased at baseline, both generally and towards self-worth, and as such  
408 participants bias is likely to be less amenable to positive manipulation. These findings are  
409 consistent with previous studies, which found an adaptive interpretation bias in healthy  
410 populations prior to completing CBM-I training (e.g. Yiend, Savulich, Coughtrey, & Shafran,  
411 2011; Hirsch & Mathews, 2000). Applying CBM-I for self-worth to a subclinical or clinical  
412 sample, with maladaptive biases and higher levels of trait body dissatisfaction and negative  
413 affect, may elicit changes in a positive direction (Yiend et al., 2014). Therefore, future efforts  
414 should seek to compare the two CBM-I approaches in a subclinical or clinical sample to  
415 determine whether the current findings were due to varying degrees of psychopathology.

416 Overall, development of a CBM-I approach that assesses and modifies appearance-  
417 related interpretation bias is an important contribution to the currently limited understanding  
418 of the role of CBM-I in eating disorders. Given that state variables of an unselected sample  
419 were impacted after a single session of CBM-I for appearance, long term effects of the  
420 approach in a subclinical population should be explored. Specifically, it would be of value to  
421 investigate whether multi-session training generates a more pronounced improvement in bias  
422 and symptomatology, and whether these changes persist over time.

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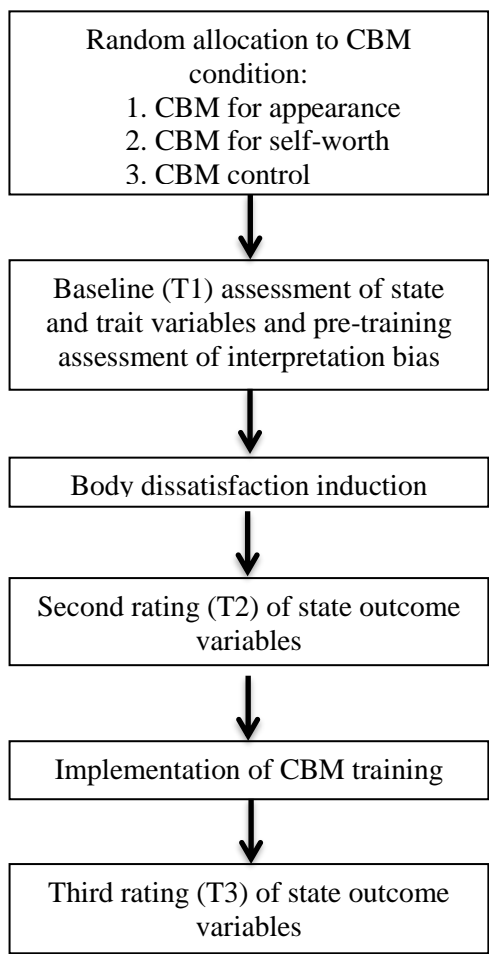


Figure 1. Study Design



COGNITIVE BIAS MODIFICATION EATING DISORDERS

567 Table 1

568 *Baseline demographics and dependent variables*

Variable	CBM-I Appearance ( <i>n</i> = 44)		CBM-I Self-Worth ( <i>n</i> = 37)		CBM-I Control ( <i>n</i> = 42)		<i>Main effect of Group</i>	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i> (2, 122)	<i>p</i>
Age	19.55	1.61	19.49	1.33	19.21	1.41	.62	.54
Body mass index	22.70	2.82	23.08	2.98	22.47	2.67	.46	.63
Body dissatisfaction	3.63	1.00	3.67	.92	3.52	.88	.26	.77
Anxiety	1.35	1.11	1.43	1.16	1.61	1.21	.57	.57
Depression	1.25	1.21	1.44	1.34	1.72	1.40	1.41	.25
Appearance satisfaction	49.41	23.95	45.43	25.14	52.88	26.17	.87	.42
Weight satisfaction	46.11	31.35	44.91	26.40	53.31	27.25	1.03	.36
Negative affect	1.33	.45	1.48	.53	1.49	.72	1.06	.35
Appearance interpretation bias	.15	.79	-.07	.69	-.12	.72	1.77	.17
Response bias (appearance-related foils)	.55	.43	.40	.42	.43	.52	1.20	.30
Self-worth interpretation bias	.48	.58	.43	.62	.25	.49	1.99	.14
Response bias (self-worth related foils)	.45	.58	.42	.47	.35	.48	.39	.68

569 *Note.* CBM-I = Cognitive bias modification targeting interpretation bias

COGNITIVE BIAS MODIFICATION EATING DISORDERS

570 Table 2

571

572 *Mean (standard deviation) state variables and raw target and foil scores across condition pre- and post CBM-I training*

	CBM-I Appearance		CBM-I Self-Worth		CBM-I Control	
	<i>Pre-Training M (SD)</i>	<i>Post-Training M (SD)</i>	<i>Pre-Training M (SD)</i>	<i>Post-Training M (SD)</i>	<i>Pre-Training M (SD)</i>	<i>Post-Training M (SD)</i>
Appearance satisfaction	39.84 (27.18)	55.75 (29.21)	37.05 (25.26)	45.14 (24.76)	44.95 (25.74)	50.36 (25.25)
Weight satisfaction	38.31 (30.90)	51.62 (32.59)	40.16 (26.19)	46.27 (24.66)	45.57 (27.00)	52.02 (25.04)
Negative affect	1.55(.12)	1.22 (.09)	1.74 (.13)	1.49 (.10)	1.61 (.12)	1.36 (.09)
Appearance Bias						
Positive target	2.58 (.45)	2.87 (.39)	2.47 (.38)	2.51 (.30)	2.46 (.35)	2.48 (.33)
Negative target	2.42 (.49)	2.17 (.51)	2.54 (.47)	2.53 (.50)	2.58 (.47)	2.36 (.56)
Positive foil	2.54 (.43)	2.64 (.39)	2.45 (.31)	2.45(.31)	2.38 (.38)	2.50 (.35)
Negative foil	1.99 (.32)	1.89 (.34)	2.05 (.36)	2.08 (.42)	1.95 (.45)	1.95 (.44)
Self-worth Bias						
Positive target	2.96 (.36)	3.0 (.35)	2.94 (.30)	2.86 (.41)	2.81 (.39)	2.85 (.34)
Negative target	2.49 (.38)	2.45 (.38)	2.51 (.50)	2.51 (.42)	2.56 (.48)	2.45 (.40)
Positive foil	2.52 (.41)	2.49 (.43)	2.47 (.28)	2.52 (.31)	2.38 (.38)	2.41 (.36)
Negative foil	2.07 (.35)	2.07 (.32)	2.06 (.40)	2.16 (.32)	2.02 (.36)	2.04 (.48)

573 *Note.* CBM-I = Cognitive bias modification targeting interpretation bias; Pre-training = post-induction assessment of outcome variables.

COGNITIVE BIAS MODIFICATION EATING DISORDERS

574 Table 3

575

576 *Two-way and Three-way ANOVA: Impact of CBM-I on State Variables and Bias between Pre- and Post-Training*

		<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<b>State variables</b>				
<i>Appearance satisfaction</i>				
	Time	1, 120	45.42	<.001
	CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	.90	.41
	Time × CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	4.95	.01
<i>Weight satisfaction</i>				
	Time	1, 120	35.10	<.001
	CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	.45	.64
	Time × CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	2.68	< .07
<i>Negative affect</i>				
	Time	1, 120	37.35	<.001
	CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	1.34	.27
	Time × CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	.42	.66
<b>Bias Change Variables</b>				
<i>Change in Bias for Appearance</i>				
	Time	1, 120	17.75	<.001
	Bias Type	1, 120	56.69	<.001
	CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	7.32	.001
	Time × Bias Type	1, 120	8.03	.01
	Time × CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	5.55	.01
	Bias Type × CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	2.69	.07
	Time × Bias Type × CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	1.79	.17
<i>Change in Bias for Self-Worth</i>				
	Time	1, 120	.05	.83
	Bias Type	1, 120	.18	.68
	CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	1.42	.25
	Time × Bias Type	1, 120	1.85	.18
	Time × CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	.75	.48
	Bias Type × CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	.75	.47
	Time × Bias Type × CBM-I Training Group	2, 120	.71	.50

577 *Note.* CBM-I = Cognitive bias modification targeting interpretation bias; Pre-training = post-induction assessment of outcome variables. Time =

578 Pre- and Post-training; Bias Type = Target and Foils; CBM-I Training Group = CBM-I for appearance, CBM-I for self-worth, CBM-I control