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### Paper:

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1 Title: Self-reported eating traits: underlying components of food responsiveness and dietary  
2 restriction are positively related to BMI

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21 *Abstract*

22 Background: Self-report measures of dietary restraint, disinhibited eating, food reward  
23 sensitivity and ‘food addiction’ have been related to overeating, overweight and obesity.  
24 Impulsivity has emerged as a potential moderator in this relationship. However, the exact  
25 relationship between these measures and obesity is poorly defined.

26 Design and Method: Self-report data was collected from a representative sample (N=496) of  
27 males (N=104) and females, with a wide age (18-73yrs; M=27.41) and BMI (15.3-43.6;  
28 M=24.2) range. Principle component analysis was used to explore the underlying structure of  
29 the sub-scales from a variety of eating behaviour questionnaires. An emergent model for BMI  
30 was tested using PROCESS.

31 Results: Two emergent components relating to ‘dietary restriction’ and ‘food reward  
32 responsivity’ were supported in the analysis. Food reward responsivity component scores  
33 positively predicted food addiction and BMI, but this relationship was moderated by  
34 impulsivity scores. Dietary restriction component scores positively predicted BMI.

35 Conclusions: Frequently used eating behaviour measures can be reduced to two underlying  
36 components: a tendency to eat in response to environmental or emotional stimuli, and; a  
37 tendency to restrict food intake to control weight. A model is proposed in which high food  
38 reward sensitivity predicts overweight through increasing food addiction scores, particularly  
39 when individuals are also high in (motor) impulsivity. Dietary restriction is an independent,  
40 positive predictor of BMI and is likely to be reflecting unsuccessful attempts at dietary  
41 control.

42 *Keywords:* impulsivity, obesity, disinhibition, restraint, addiction, PROCESS

43

44 *Introduction:*

45 A variety of self-report measures of eating behaviour have been developed to quantify the  
46 extent to which an individual is ‘drawn’ to food in the environment and finds consumption of  
47 food rewarding. Several dimensions of eating motivation have been identified across the  
48 most commonly used self-report questionnaires (The Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire  
49 (DEBQ; van Strein, Frijter, Bergers and Defares, 1986); the Three Factor Eating  
50 Questionnaire (TFEQ: Short version, Karlsson, Persson, Sjostrom, and Sullivan, 2000); The  
51 Power of Food Scale (PFS; Lowe, Butryn, Didie, Annunziato, Thomas, Crerand et al., 2009);  
52 and, the Emotional Eating Scale (EES; Arnow, Kenardy and Agras, 1995) such as:  
53 disinhibited eating, emotional eating, external eating, hunger, dietary restraint and food  
54 reward. However, the exact nature of these dimensions is unclear and there is overlap  
55 between the concepts (Vainik, Dagher, Dube and Fellows, 2013; Vainik, Neseliler,  
56 Konstabel, Fellows and Dagher, 2015). In addition, there is a lack of consistency in the  
57 literature on the association between these measures and obesity and overweight (e.g.  
58 Westenhoefer, Broeckmann, Munch, & Pudel, 1994; Haynes, Lee & Yeomans, 2003;  
59 Ouwens, van Strein and van der Staak, 2003; Burton, Smit and Lightowler, 2007; Forman,  
60 Hoffman, McGrath, Herbert, Brandsma and Lowe, 2007; Yeomans & Coughlan, 2009;  
61 Burger and Stice, 2011; Fay and Finlayson, 2011; French, Epstein, Jeffery, Blundell and  
62 Wardle, 2012; Snoek, Engels, van Strien and Otten, 2013; Vainik et al., 2013).

63 Inconsistencies in the literature may be the result of a failure to consider the role of more  
64 general personality traits, in particular impulsivity (Gerlach, Herpetz and Loeber, 2015; van  
65 der Laan and Smeets, 2015). Indeed, research has found that the relationship between self-  
66 reported eating behaviour measures and overweight is often moderated by personality traits  
67 such as impulsivity (Jansen, Nederkoorn, van Baak, Kierse, Guerrieri and Havermans, 2009).  
68 Food reward responsive individuals, as measured by the Power of Food scale (PFS; Lowe,

69 Butryn, Didie, Annunziato, Thomas, Crerand et al., 2009) are reported to overeat only when  
70 they are also score highly on impulsivity assessed by a delay discounting task (e.g.  
71 Appelhans, Woolfe, Pagoto, Schneider, Whited and Leiberan, 2011). Emery, King, Fischer  
72 and Davis (2013) found that high levels of dietary restraint predicted higher binge eating  
73 tendencies in college students, but that impulsivity moderated the effect of restraint, such that  
74 high levels of ‘urgency’ impulsivity (acting without thinking when in a negative mood:  
75 UPPS; Whiteside and Lynam, 2001) predicted high binge eating tendencies across all levels  
76 of restraint. Furthermore, Nasser, Gluck & Geliebter (2004) reported that scores on the motor  
77 impulsivity (‘acting without thinking’) sub-scale of the Barratt Impulsiveness Scale (BIS 11;  
78 Patton, Stanford and Barratt, 1995) were significantly higher in patients with binge-eating  
79 disorder compared to controls. Therefore, impulsivity may play a crucial role in moderating  
80 the relationship between restraint, disinhibited eating, food reward sensitivity and over eating  
81 tendencies, but also be an independent contributor. French and colleagues (2012) reviewed  
82 much of the literature concerned with eating behaviour and impulsivity and conclude that it is  
83 essential to clarify whether impulsivity confers its own risk for obesity or whether this risk is  
84 limited to those who are highly motivated by food.

85 Murphy, Stojek and Mackillop (2014) have recently shown that certain sub-types of  
86 impulsivity (in particular ‘acting without thinking’) predict BMI through the mediating  
87 influence of scores on the Yale Food Addiction Scale (YFAS; Gearhardt, Corbin and  
88 Brownell, 2009). The YFAS includes items adapted from the DSM-IV criteria (APA, 2000)  
89 for substance dependence and can return a continuous variable score for food addiction  
90 tendencies, or a diagnostic dichotomous outcome that defines an individual as a ‘food addict’  
91 or not. Davis, Curtis, Levitan, Carter, Kaplan and Kennedy (2011) found that those  
92 participants who met the diagnostic criteria for ‘food addiction’ were more impulsive,  
93 experienced greater food cravings, and were more inclined to ‘self-soothe’ with food in

94 response to negative moods than did controls. Burton and colleagues (2007) found that food  
95 craving mediated the relationship between external eating and BMI. YFAS scores have also  
96 been found to predict a variety of body composition measures directly (including BMI) in a  
97 large sample of men and women (Pedram, Wadden, Amini, Gulliver, Randell, Cahill et al.,  
98 2013). This suggests that the YFAS is a useful tool for identifying a distinct group of people  
99 with tendencies to experience cravings and ‘lose control’ around food and become  
100 overweight. Combined, these studies suggest that the YFAS may be measuring psychological  
101 tendencies important in determining overweight and obesity and may act as a *mediating*  
102 mechanism between food reward responsivity and BMI.

103 A better understanding of the relationship between psychological variables and obesity is  
104 vital if more effective behavioural interventions are to be developed. As yet, there has been  
105 no examination of eating behaviour, food addiction and impulsivity measures in a single  
106 model leaving a significant gap in current knowledge. Therefore the aim of the current study  
107 was to collect self-report data from a student and community based sample of men and  
108 women across a wide age and BMI range. The most commonly used eating behaviour  
109 measures (EES, TFEQ, DEBQ, PFS) were included, as well as a measure of impulsivity (BIS  
110 11) and the YFAS, to clarify the relationship between these measures and BMI. Given that  
111 eating behaviour measures are often highly correlated (e.g. Elfhag and Morey, 2008), we  
112 suggest that they may be tapping into the same underlying trait behaviours. Therefore, our  
113 first aim was to conduct a principal components analysis to examine the underlying  
114 component structure of the eating behaviour questionnaires. Our second aim was to examine  
115 the moderating and mediating influences of impulsivity and YFAS scores in the relationship  
116 between these eating behaviour factors and BMI within one model. It was predicted that food  
117 reward responsivity and dietary restriction measures would predict food addiction and BMI,  
118 but that this relationship would be moderated by impulsivity.

119 *Method*

120 *Participants and procedures*

121 Participants were recruited from the student populations at Swansea University, and the  
122 University of Birmingham, as well as from the wider community (N=496). This study was  
123 granted departmental ethical approval by the Swansea University, Department of Psychology  
124 Research Ethics Committee. The demographic and questionnaire items were presented to  
125 participants online using SurveyMonkey (Palo Alto, California, USA) Participants either  
126 attended the lab to fill in the questionnaires (if they were students receiving course credit) or  
127 accessed the questionnaires remotely (in response to a call for community volunteers).  
128 Demographic information including gender, age, height and weight were recorded in the lab  
129 where relevant, but was otherwise self-reported. BMI for each participant was calculated  
130 using the standard formula ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ). BMI data was not available for 24 participants, therefore  
131 any analysis including BMI, N=471. See Table 1 for sample characteristics.

132 *Measures*

133 *The Power of Food Scale (PFS: Short version: Lowe et al., 2009)*

134 The PFS is a widely used questionnaire with 15 items pertaining to a participants' appetite for  
135 palatable food. Each item is rated on a scale of 1-5, ranging from 'don't agree' at all to  
136 'strongly agree'. This questionnaire was distributed to participants in order to measure  
137 appetite at three levels; where food is 1) available; 2) present; or, 3) tasted.

138 *The Emotional Eating Scale (EES; Arnow et al., 1995)*

139 The EES is used to measure overeating in response to emotional stimuli. It is a 25 item  
140 adjective checklist that asks participants to rate, on a 5 point scale, the degree to which each

141 mood state generates a desire to overeat, has no effect, or a desire to under eat. It has three  
 142 sub-scales; anger/frustration, anxiety and depression.

143 Table 1: *Sample Characteristics*

Characteristic/Measure	Mean (SD); Range
Gender	M:F 105:366
Age (Yrs)	27.41 (10.16); 18-73
BMI <sup>a</sup>	24.19 (4.77); 15.3-43.6
DEBQ <sup>b</sup> Dietary Restraint	2.82 (.98); 1-5
DEBQ <sup>b</sup> External Eating	3.11 (.68); 1-5
DEBQ <sup>b</sup> Emotional Eating	2.49 (.84); 1-5
TFEQ <sup>c</sup> Cognitive Restraint	2.55 (.76); 1-4.5
TFEQ <sup>c</sup> Uncontrolled Eating	2.31 (.59); 1-4
TFEQ <sup>c</sup> Emotional Eating	2.32 (.74); 1-4
PFS <sup>d</sup> Available	2.48 (1.08); 1-5
PFS <sup>d</sup> Present	3.14 (1.04); 1-5
PFS <sup>d</sup> Tasted	2.88 (.89); 1-5
EES <sup>e</sup> Anger/frustration	21.19 (7.88); 11-50
EES <sup>e</sup> Anxiety	17.85 (6.07); 9-40
EES <sup>e</sup> Depression	14.80 (4.47); 5-25
YFAS <sup>f</sup> Symptom Count	1.96 (1.46); 0-7
BIS <sup>g</sup> Motor	15.82 (4.0); 7-28
BIS <sup>g</sup> Attention	10.88 (2.68); 5-19
BIS <sup>g</sup> Cognitive Complexity	11.64 (2.62); 5-20
BIS <sup>g</sup> Self-control	13.32 (3.40); 6-23
BIS <sup>g</sup> Perseverance	7.72 (1.91); 4-15
BIS <sup>g</sup> Cognitive Instability	6.68 (1.88); 3-12

144 <sup>a</sup>BMI (body Mass Index); <sup>b</sup>DEBQ (Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire); <sup>c</sup>TFEQ (Three  
 145 Factor Eating Questionnaire – Short form); <sup>d</sup>PFS (Power of Food Scale); <sup>e</sup>EES (Emotional  
 146 Eating Scale); <sup>f</sup>YFAS (Yale Food Addiction Scale); <sup>g</sup>BIS (Barratt Impulsiveness Scale – First  
 147 order Sub-scales).

148



149 *The Three Factor Eating questionnaire (TFEQ short version; Karlsson, Persson, Sjostrom,*  
150 *and Sullivan, 2000) and the Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire (DEBQ; Van Strein et*  
151 *al., 1986)*

152 The TFEQ and the DEBQ are self-report measures used to assess disinhibited eating  
153 behaviours (emotional and external) and the level of restraint in participants. The short  
154 version of the TFEQ was employed and sub-scale scores were recorded for cognitive  
155 restraint, uncontrolled eating, and emotional eating. The DEBQ also has three sub-scales  
156 matching those of the TFEQ, labelled dietary restraint, external eating and emotional eating.

157 *The Barrett Impulsiveness Scale (BIS 11; Patton et al., 1995)*

158 The BIS11 is a 30 item questionnaire that is widely used to measure impulsivity and is  
159 structured to assess long-term patterns of behaviour. It is used as a measure of trait  
160 impulsivity and is comprised of six first order (attention, cognitive complexity, motor,  
161 perseverance, self-control and cognitive instability) or three second order (attention, motor  
162 and non-planning impulsivity) sub-scales to measure different facets of impulsiveness.  
163 Stanford, Mathias, Dougherty, Lake, Anderson and Patton (2009) advocate the use of the first  
164 order sub-scales to discern the exact sub-types of impulsivity which relate to a variety of  
165 behaviours related to impulse control and Meule (2013) argued that the analysis of sub-scales  
166 is advocated in larger samples to detect the exact types of impulsivity related to over eating  
167 behaviour and obesity.

168 *The Yale Food Addiction Scale (YFAS; Gearhardt et al. (2009))*

169 The YFAS is a 25 item self-report measure of food addiction. It attempts to distinguish  
170 between those who simply indulge in unhealthy food and those who have *truly lost control*

171 over their eating behaviour. Participants receive a continuous score relative to the number of  
172 addiction criteria that have been met, with a maximum score of 7.

### 173 *Data Analysis*

174 Principle component analysis (PCA) was performed in order to identify underlying eating  
175 behaviour components. Oblique (Promax) rotation was employed, as previous research  
176 suggests that the components were likely to be related. The number of components was left  
177 undefined, with identification of components by scree plot observation and set to eigenvalues  
178  $\geq 1$  (Kaiser, 1960). Component scores were produced based on regression method, and used  
179 in subsequent analysis.

180 First order sub-scales of the BIS 11 were checked for internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha)  
181 and then entered simultaneously in to a regression model to identify any sub-scale  
182 significantly predicting BMI to be subsequently be tested in the model.

183 Modelling the mediating and moderating factors that may explain the relationship between  
184 predictor and outcome variables is becoming a prominent analytical approach used in  
185 psychological research. A useful statistical tool for incorporating many factors into a single  
186 model of both moderating and mediating variables has been provided by Hayes (2012)  
187 PROCESS macro for SPSS. Given the complexity of the behavioural variables outlined here,  
188 that are likely to contribute to overweight and obesity, the macro was chosen to test the  
189 current predictors of BMI. The macro allows for the variables of interest to be placed in the  
190 relevant model that best represents the expected relationships, and these are then tested for  
191 significance using robust bootstrapping techniques. The PROCESS pathway mediating and  
192 moderating macro (Hayes, 2012) was employed to test a model (driven by data and theory) of  
193 the inter-relationships between the predictor variables, with BMI as the dependent variable.

194 All calculations were performed in SPSS 20.0 and effect sizes were calculated using  
195 G\*Power software (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang and Buchner, 2007).

## 196 *Results*

### 197 *Principle Component Analysis*

198 Principle components analysis (PCA) for the eating behaviour measures supported both a two  
199 and three-component outcome: When eigenvalues above 1 were considered then three  
200 components emerged (reflecting emotional eating, external eating and restraint). However,  
201 the scree-plot inflection point favoured two components (Stevens, 2002). Consequently fixing  
202 the number of components as two resulted in the sub-scales loading convincingly either on to:  
203 1) food reward sensitivity, and over eating in response to external food cues and internal  
204 emotional states (*'Food Reward Responsivity' (FRR)*); or 2) the tendency to restrain eating  
205 (*'Dietary Restriction' (DR)*) (see Table 2). Given that previous research suggests that  
206 emotional and external eating are highly related, the two component outcome was considered  
207 parsimonious and subsequently used to test the model (to be thorough, the model was also  
208 run with separate emotional and external component scores in place of the single FRR  
209 component, but the outcome did not vary significantly, supporting the use of the single  
210 component score).

211 *Note:* The PCA was also conducted with YFAS in the analysis and it had the lowest factor  
212 loading onto the 'food motivation' component and reduced the communality average to  
213 below the cut-off threshold of .6 recommended for samples of more than N=250 (Field,  
214 2009), therefore justifying the independent status of YFAS.

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217 *Reliability*

218 Internal reliability was calculated for all sub-scales of the eating behaviour questionnaires,  
 219 and were all deemed satisfactory (Cronbach’s alpha ranged between .734-.933). Given that  
 220 this is the first study to investigate the first order sub-scales of the BIS11 in relation to  
 221 obesity, the Cronbach alpha values are reported in Table 3, showing that satisfactory  
 222 reliability was attained for the motor and self-control sub-scales only.

223 Table 2: *Component Matrix*

Sub-scale	Component 1: Food Reward Responsivity	Component 2: Dietary Restriction
EES anger/frustration	.776	
EES anxiety	.730	
EES depression	.801	
PFS available	.802	
PFS present	.779	
PFS tasted	.660	
TFEQ cognitive restraint		.941
TFEQ uncontrolled eating	.626	
TFEQ emotional eating	.623	
DEBQ dietary restraint		.929
DEBQ external eating	.755	
DEBQ emotional eating	.844	

224 Component matrix for eating behaviour questionnaire sub-scales. Extraction method used  
 225 was Principle Component Analysis with 2 components extracted.

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230 Table 3: *Cronbachs Alpha*

BIS11 sub-scale	Attention	Motor	Cognitive Complexity	Self-control	Perseverance	Cognitive Instability
Cronbach's alpha	.637	.778	.470	.737	.279	.582

231 Cronbach's alpha values for the Barratt Impulsiveness Scale version 11 (BIS11). First order  
 232 sub-scales.

233 All six first order sub-scales of the BIS 11 were entered simultaneously into a linear  
 234 regression model of BMI. The 'motor impulsivity' sub-scale was the only significant  
 235 predictor of BMI ( $\beta=.207$ ;  $t=3.931$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ), and was therefore selected for the proposed  
 236 model.

237 *Regression analysis:*

238 To investigate whether the two component scores predicted BMI, they were entered into a  
 239 hierarchical regression analysis. Motor impulsivity and YFAS scores were entered in the  
 240 latter two stages of the model to assess any potential mediating effects. Gender and age were  
 241 entered into the model as potential covariates (see Table 4). The mediating role of YFAS  
 242 scores is immediately apparent in the regression output - FRR becomes insignificant when  
 243 YFAS is added to the model. Motor impulsivity, however, makes an independent  
 244 contribution and does not appear to mediate or be mediated by any other variable (i.e. it  
 245 remains significant when YFAS is added to the model, and other variables remain significant  
 246 when motor impulsivity is added to the model).

247 *Model testing:*

248 Based on the results of the PCA and the regression analysis it was predicted that FRR  
 249 component scores would predict BMI, but would be mediated by YFAS symptom count.

250 Previous research (Appelhans et al., 2011; Emery et al., 2013; Nasser et al., 2004) suggests  
251 that impulsivity plays a moderating role and so it was entered as a potential moderator for  
252 each of the variables of interest (FRR, YFAS and DR), as well as a direct predictor, in order  
253 to identify the exact role motor impulsivity plays in predicting BMI.

254 The proposed model was tested using PROCESS pathway modelling for moderated  
255 mediations (Model 71). Cases were excluded case wise for any missing data with N=453 for  
256 the final model including all relevant variables. Given that age and gender significantly  
257 predicted BMI, where older participants and males were more likely to have a higher BMI  
258 ( $p > .05$ ), they were included in the model as covariates. Bootstrap sampling was set to 5000  
259 and confidence intervals to 95 per cent. Moderating variables were mean centred prior to  
260 analysis as recommended by Howell (2013). The overall model was a significant predictor of  
261 BMI ( $F(13, 439) = 8.42$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ; Adj  $R^2 = .20$ ;  $f^2 = .087$ ). Figure 1 shows the significant  
262 pathways and interactions.

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	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4	
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB
Age	.136	.021	.289***	.145	.021	.309***	.140	.020	.297***	.135	.020
Gender	-1.263	.504	-.110*	-1.470	.501	-.128**	-1.807	.504	-.158***	-1.895	.501
FRR				.738	.210	.155***	.706	.208	.148**	.549	.214
DR							.753	.208	.158***	.697	.208
MotorImp										.148	.053
YFAS											
R <sup>2</sup>	.097			.119			.141			.153	
F	26.31***			22.08***			20.25***			17.97***	
$\Delta F$ for change in R <sup>2</sup>				12.337***			13.07***			7.688**	

Table 4: Hierarchical regression model output for predictors of BMI. FRR (Food Reward Responsivity); DR (BIS 11 Motor Impulsivity); YFAS (Yale Food Addiction Scale). Gender and age include in the model as covariates.

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.001 \*\*\*p<0.0001

265 YFAS scores significantly mediated the relationship between FRR scores and BMI (lower  
266 and upper confidence intervals: .23-1.23). The only pathway to be significantly moderated by  
267 motor impulsivity was between FRR scores and YFAS scores. The Johnson-Neyman  
268 technique (Johnson and Fay, 1950) was used to probe the nature of the interaction and  
269 showed that BIS11 motor impulsivity scores significantly moderated the relationship between  
270 FRR and YFAS, but only at high levels of FRR (at the 75<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentile  
271 ( $f(1,452)=4.35; p<0.0001$  and  $f(1,452)=5.02; p<0.0001; f^2=.062$  respectively). This was in a  
272 positive direction, where high motor impulsivity resulted in significantly higher YFAS scores  
273 than low impulsivity (see Figure 2). In real terms, high FRR in combination with high motor  
274 impulsivity predicted the occurrence of one more symptom on the YFAS, than high food  
275 motivation and low motor impulsivity (2.3 symptoms versus 3.3 symptoms). Motor  
276 impulsivity and DR showed significant direct pathways in predicting BMI.

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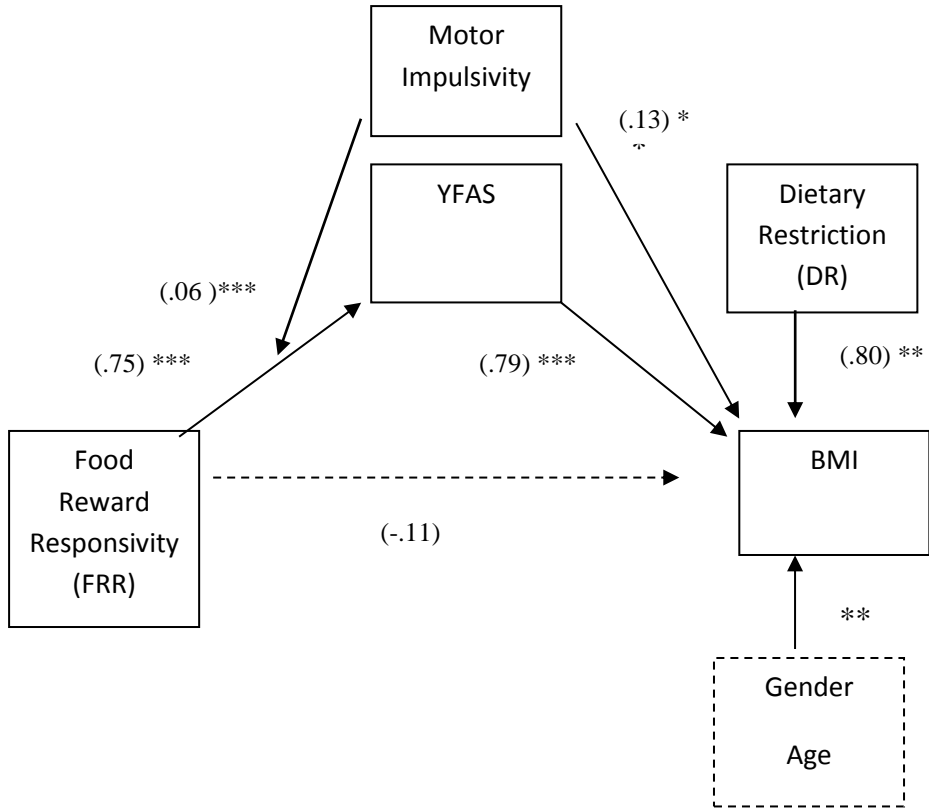
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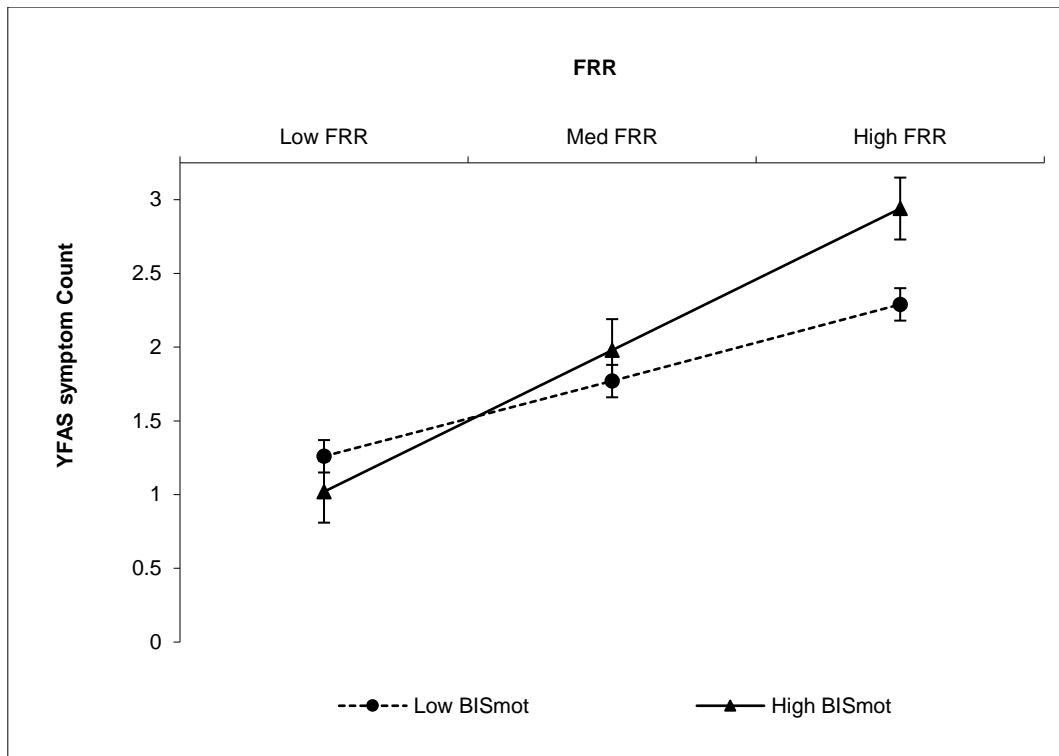
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Figure 1: PROCESS moderated mediation model (Hayes, 2012; model 71). Solid arrows indicate significant positive pathways and interactions (coefficient ( $\beta$ ) output in parentheses). The dotted arrow indicates a loss of significance for the pathway after mediation analysis. Absence of arrows indicates non-significant pathways. Gender (coded Male=1 Female=2) and age were included as covariates. FRR is a component score including DEBQ external eating; emotional eating; TFEQ uncontrolled eating; emotional eating; PFS available; present; tasted. DR is a component score including DEBQ dietary restraint; TFEQ cognitive restraint. Motor impulsivity is a first order sub-scale of the BIS11 ('acting without thinking'). YFAS is the number of addiction criteria met (symptom count). BMI (Body Mass Index: kg/m<sup>2</sup>).

314

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.001 \*\*\*p<0.0001

315



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317 Figure 2: Mean (SE) YFAS Symptom Count for the interaction between BIS11 Motor  
 318 Impulsivity (BISmot) and Food Reward Responsivity (FRR) component scores ( +/- 1 SD).

319 *Discussion*

320 In an attempt to understand the complex relationship between self-reported eating behaviour  
 321 and BMI, we conducted a study in which a student and community based sample of males  
 322 and females with a wide age and BMI range, completed a broad selection of eating behaviour  
 323 questionnaires. The scores were first entered into a dimension reduction procedure using  
 324 Principle Components Analysis (PCA). Two underlying components of ‘food reward  
 325 responsivity’ (FRR) and ‘dietary restriction’ (DR) emerged, demonstrating for the first time  
 326 that an array of standard eating behaviour measures are tapping into similar constructs.  
 327 Vainik and colleagues (2015) have very recently shown that a single underlying factor of  
 328 ‘uncontrolled eating’, which varies in severity, underlies several self-report questionnaires of  
 329 eating behaviour and predicted BMI in two female samples. However, the authors noted that

330 the construct of food addiction was not included, and in addition, the study did not include  
331 measures of dietary restraint. We therefore confirm the previous finding that a single factor  
332 underlies many self-report measures of eating behaviour but extend them to a wider array of  
333 eating behaviour questionnaires with responses from both males and females with a broad  
334 age and BMI range. In addition, we add food addiction (YFAS), impulsiveness and dietary  
335 restraint measures to the analysis.

336 When the emergent eating components scores were entered into an hierarchical regression  
337 model along with motor impulsivity and YFAS scores, the FRR component score failed to  
338 remain significant when YFAS scores were added, suggesting a mediating role. Previous  
339 research indicates a moderating role for motor impulsivity (Appelhans et al., 2011; Emery et  
340 al., 2013; Nasser et al., 2004) and so a PROCESS modelling technique for assessing the  
341 mediating effects of YFAS scores and the moderating effects of motor impulsivity on the  
342 relationship between FRR, DR, YFAS and BMI within one model was employed. Analysis  
343 supported an indirect pathway between FRR and BMI through YFAS scores, particularly in  
344 those with high motor impulsivity scores. In other words, within the population tested, those  
345 who scored highly on a variety of eating behaviour questionnaires were more at risk of  
346 increased scores on the YFAS (and increased BMI), if they were also high in motor  
347 impulsivity. Interestingly, the interaction analysis confirmed that the number of symptoms  
348 met on the YFAS increases from two to three when high motor impulsivity accompanies high  
349 FRR scores. This increase is the difference between a diagnosis of food addiction or not  
350 (when accompanied by clinical distress). The findings support those from Murphy and  
351 colleagues (2014) who found that impulsivity was mediated by YFAS scores in predicting  
352 BMI, but in addition, suggest the contribution of FRR in this relationship. Motor impulsivity  
353 and FRR interact to predict YFAS scores as a mediator in predicting BMI.

354 The moderating role of impulsivity has also been shown previously to explain the  
355 relationship between dietary restraint and overweight (Emery et al., 2013). However, the  
356 significant relationship between BMI and dietary restriction (DR) was not moderated by  
357 motor impulsivity in our model. Previously, dietary restriction tendencies have been shown to  
358 be protective in low impulsive individuals, but unsuccessful in highly impulsive individuals  
359 (Jansen et al., 2009). In the present sample, the interaction between restraint and impulsivity  
360 did not reach significance and dietary restriction emerged as an independent predictor of  
361 BMI. Papiés, Stroebe and Aarts (2008) have shown that individuals who are overweight and  
362 are high dietary restrainers, exhibit unsuccessful dieting behaviour, where goals of hedonic  
363 food enjoyment frequently override weight loss goals in the presence of tasty food cues. This  
364 may explain the pattern of our findings. In addition, this study tested men and women from  
365 student and community populations with a wide range of age and BMI, whereas previous  
366 studies have primarily reported findings from narrow samples of mainly female participants,  
367 adolescents or children. It would therefore be useful now to explore the role of dietary  
368 restraint in different populations to investigate whether the interaction between impulsivity  
369 and restraint is limited to certain age or gender groups.

370 Interestingly, motor impulsivity scores remained a significant direct predictor of BMI, in  
371 addition to moderating FRR. The use of the first order sub-scales for the first time, in a  
372 representative sample provides new evidence that motor impulsivity specifically is key in  
373 predicting BMI. Motor impulsivity not only makes individuals high in FRR vulnerable to  
374 overeating, but also represents a general risk for overweight. It is possible that motor  
375 impulsivity is associated with other behaviours related to an increase in BMI, such as greater  
376 alcohol consumption, and poorer lifestyle choices not measured here. As such, it is a viable  
377 measure for identifying individuals vulnerable for overweight and obesity and answers some

378 of the questions posed by French and colleagues (2012) regarding the independent and  
379 moderating status of impulsivity.

380 A few limitations to the current study must be noted. First, the study is based on cross-  
381 sectional, self-report data and ideally the model would benefit from replication in  
382 experimentally controlled conditions of food intake and weight gain over time. However,  
383 self-report designs allow for larger samples and greater generalisation of findings and so were  
384 deemed appropriate for the aims of this study. Second, although the BMI range was relatively  
385 wide, it would be useful to include data from the more severe obesity classes to investigate  
386 how this pattern of behaviour applies to these groups. Third, although every effort was made  
387 to collect data from a representative group of male participants, the female to male ratio was  
388 still about 3:1 and any future research would benefit from applying this model to large male  
389 samples in order to test its generalizability to both men and women. Having said this, gender  
390 was controlled for in the analysis and the diverse age range of the sample allows for a model  
391 that may be applied to a larger section of the population than standard student based data.  
392 Last, the model was tested on the same sample on whom the PCA was conducted and so  
393 replication of the findings in a separate sample would confirm reliability.

#### 394 *Conclusions*

395 This is the first model to assess the relationships between several measures of eating  
396 behaviour, impulsivity, food addiction and BMI in a representative sample. These data  
397 suggest that a variety of questionnaires tap into an underlying tendency to find food  
398 rewarding, but that motor impulsivity is important in translating this into a perceived loss of  
399 control over eating (food addiction) and increased BMI. Cross-comparison of previous  
400 studies using any of these eating behaviour measures is therefore supported and motor  
401 impulsivity is a viable candidate for profiling those at risk from weight gain and a promising

402 target for intervention. Research now needs to look to finding ways of reducing impulsivity  
403 in those vulnerable to overweight. Indeed, interventions based on training of response  
404 inhibition (e.g. Houben and Jansen, 2011) and priming higher level construal thinking (Price,  
405 Higgs and Lee, under review) show promise in aiding reduced consumption and, as supported  
406 by this model, may be more effective than dietary restriction methods alone.

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