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1	RUNNING HEAD: SHAME, GUILT AND EATING DISORDERS
2 3	
4	Experiences of Shame and Guilt in Anorexia and Bulimia Nervosa: A Systematic
5	Review
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1	
2 3	Abstract Objectives: Emotional states may play an important role in the development and
4	maintenance of Anorexia (AN) and Bulimia Nervosa (BN). This systematic review aimed to
5	examine the evidence regarding the relationship that shame and guilt have with two eating
6	disorders, AN and BN. Methods: Four major databases (Pubmed, PsychINFO, Web of
7	Science, Medline) were searched (up until April 2018) for studies measuring guilt or shame
8	in clinically diagnosed AN and BN groups. Included papers were evaluated for risk of bias.
9	Results: Twenty-four papers met the inclusion criteria. Several methodological issues were
10	noted within the reviewed studies, including a lack of longitudinal data and unaccounted
11	confounding variables. Nonetheless shame was typically more common in those with AN and
12	BN than controls, was positively related to the severity of symptoms, and associated with the
13	onset of eating disorder-related difficulties (e.g. binging or purging). Effect sizes were
14	typically moderate to large. The role of guilt was less clear, with few studies and mixed
15	results. Discussion: There is preliminary evidence that shame is implicated in the aetiology
16	of AN and BN presentations, whilst there is currently insufficient evidence of such a role for
17	guilt. It remains unclear whether shame is a risk factor for the development of AN and BN or
18	a consequence of these difficulties.

19 Keywords: Shame; guilt; bulimia nervosa; anorexia nervosa; eating disorder.

1 2		Practitioner Points
3	•	Elevated shame appears to be a feature of Anorexia (AN) and Bulimia Nervosa (BN).
4	•	Shame appears to fluctuate with the occurrence of eating disordered behaviours like
5		binging, purging or restricted eating.
6	•	Guilt is less consistently linked to AN and BN presentations.
7	٠	Interventions directed at shame may be helpful for these populations
8	•	A lack of longitudinal data means the direction of these relationships is still unclear
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1	Experiences of Shame and Guilt in Anorexia and Bulimia Nervosa: A Systematic
2 3	Review Eating disorders (EDs) are characterised by disturbed eating behaviours and affect 1.6
4	million people within the United Kingdom (UK; Beating Eating Disorders, 2012) and 30
5	million in the United States (Wade, Keski-Rahkonen & Hudson, 2011). EDs have the highest
6	mortality rates of all mental health difficulties (Beating Eating Disorders, 2012; Arcelus et al,
7	2011). Anorexia nervosa (AN) and Bulimia nervosa (BN) are two common ED
8	presentations. Whilst advances in the provision of psychological interventions for AN and
9	BN have been made, outcomes are variable and many continue to present with difficulties
10	following treatment (Fichter, Quadflieg, Crosby & Koch, 2017; Wilson, Grilo, & Vitousek,
11	2007). Relapse rates for both AN and BN are reportedly high (Carter, Blackmore, Sutandar-
12	Pinnock, & Woodside, 2004; Grilo et al., 2012). A comprehensive understanding of the
13	mechanisms underlying and maintaining these presentations is essential to best support and
14	intervene with AN and BN (Cooper, 2012). Cognitive models have dominated contemporary
15	psychological explanations of AN and BN (Waller & Kennerley, 2003). However, emotional
16	states may also play an important role in explaining and predicting the onset and maintenance
17	of AN and BN (Goss & Gilbert, 2002). The current review focuses on the association of two
18	specific emotional states, shame and guilt, with AN and BN.
19	Shame and guilt demonstrate strong associations with psychological difficulties,
20	including depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, and psychosis (e.g. Andrews, Qian &
21	Valentine, 2002; Kim, Thibodeau, & Jorgensen, 2011; Pugh et al., 2015; Taylor et al.,
22	2015a). Shame is a complex, painful emotion, which involves global self-devaluation and
23	concern for negative evaluations of the self by others (Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tangney,

- 24 Stuewig & Mashek, 2007). Guilt is commonly associated with shame (Tangney & Dearing,
- 25 2002; Hooge, Zeelenberg & Breugelmans, 2007), but unlike shame, does not impact upon the
- 26 global sense of self and is instead associated with negative evaluations of specific behaviours

and their effect on others (Tangney & Dearing, 2002, Hooge, Zeelenberg & Breugelmans,
 2007).

3 Whilst shame concerns the way a person sees themselves, a separate tradition has 4 focused on how a person imagines that others see them, sometimes labelled as "external shame" (as opposed to internal shame; Matos, Pinto-Gouveia, Gilbert, Duarte & Figueiredo, 5 6 2015; Taylor, Pyle, Schwannauer, Hutton & Morrison, 2015a). Notably, this internal/external distinction has not been applied to guilt, though there have been attempts to distinguish 7 8 adaptive or reasonable guilt from a more pathological, maladaptive guilt (Pugh, Taylor & 9 Berry, 2015). There has also been a distinction in the literature between measures of the actual level of shame or guilt experienced in a particular time period (e.g. Experiences of 10 11 Shame Scale; Andrews, Qian & Valentine, 2002), and measures of trait-like proneness to 12 experience shame or guilt, usually relying on respondents making judgements regarding hypothetical scenarios (e.g. Test of Self-Conscious Affect-TOSCA; Luyton, Fontaine & 13 Corveleyn 2002). 14

15 The way in which shame and guilt concern how one is judged or evaluated suggests they may be particularly important in understanding AN and BN, where social interaction and 16 the way one is perceived by others appears critical (Treasure, Corfield & Cardi, 2012). Both 17 emotions have been implicated in the aetiology of EDs but there has been particular emphasis 18 on shame (Burney & Irwin, 2000; Doran & Lewis, 2012). It has been suggested that early 19 20 adversity may contribute to a sensitivity to shame and that ED behaviours (i.e. attempts to control eating) may represent means of defending against shame, for example by exercising 21 control and signalling status (Goss & Gilbert, 2002; Treasure et al., 2012). Both AN and BN 22 23 are characterised by attempts to control diet, weight or eating (Stice, Rizvit & Telch, 2000). As shame is an aversive state and drives attempts to hide perceived inferiority from others, it 24 may be that experiences of shame provoke the attempts at control seen in AN and BN and 25

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thus contribute to these disorders. In contrast to shame, as guilt only concerns specific
behaviours, it is arguably less likely to drive ED behaviours in the same way. Unlike shame,
guilt may also be resolved through reparative action regarding a specific behaviour (Tangney
& Dearing, 2002). We might therefore hypothesize that shame is more strongly associated
with the onset and maintenance of AN and BN than guilt. This would mirror what is seen for
depression and PTSD (shame appears more important; Kim, Thibodeau, & Jorgensen, 2011;
Pugh et al., 2015).

8 Whilst shame and guilt may be causal factors in the development and maintenance of 9 AN and BN, it is also possible, considering the stigma and taboo that surrounds these 10 disorders, that shame and guilt are consequences of AN and BN (Burney & Irwin, 2000; 11 Oluyori, 2013; Sanftner et al., 1995). Interactions with friends and family concerning ED 12 behaviours may produce feelings of shame or guilt, however, which maintain the problem by 13 triggering further attempts to control or manage weight and appearance as a way of regulating 14 these feelings (Treasure et al., 2008).

15 A recognition of the role of emotion in AN and BN is now evident in cognitive approaches (e.g. Cooper, 2012; Cooper, Wells, & Todd, 2004). If shame or guilt play a 16 substantive role in the development and maintenance of AN and BN then there may be a 17 value to adapting existing interventions such as CBT to better account for the presence of 18 shame or guilt. For example, this may include incorporating treatments developed from 19 20 compassion focussed approaches, which focus on the role of such emotions (Goss & Allan, 2009). There are also implications for broader public health initiatives, looking at ways 21 shame and guilt related to AN and BN might be reduced through altering public perceptions 22 and insights. 23

Oluyori (2013) compiled evidence from five qualitative research papers in a recent
systematic review and concluded that shame is implicated in both the onset and maintenance

of ED presentations. However, the conclusions did not shed light on the specific role of these
emotions within AN and BN. A systematic review of the quantitative evidence-base is timely,
enabling a triangulation of results with the qualitative literature. To date no review of this
nature has been completed.

This review aims to synthesise the extant quantitative literature regarding the 5 6 association that shame and guilt have with AN and BN clinical presentations and with ED symptoms within these groups. By clinical presentations we refer to those meeting criteria for 7 a diagnosis of these disorders. It was predicted that both shame and guilt will be associated 8 9 with these presentations, due to the commonalities shared by the emotions (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). However, it is expected that only shame will be independently associated 10 with ED symptoms. Furthermore, it is hypothesised that the role of shame will be more 11 12 pronounced than that of guilt.

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Search Strategy

Method

A literature review was completed to identify quantitative studies which measured 15 experiences of guilt and/or shame, in those with clinical presentations of AN or BN. Four 16 databases were utilised (PubMed.gov; PsycINFO; Medline; Web of Science). Searches were 17 completed from inception to December 2016. The search was then updated to April 2018. 18 The search strategy used the following terms (a) terms related to ED presentations: "eating 19 disorder*" OR anorexia OR bulimia OR binge* OR binge-eating OR "eating disorder not 20 otherwise specified" OR EDNOS; (b) terms associated with the feelings guilt and shame: 21 shame* OR guilt* OR anger OR hostil*. Search terms from each group were combined using 22 the Boolean operator "AND". The terms "anger" and "hostil*" were included to account for 23 the possibility that shame might be labelled as anger or hostility directed towards the self 24 (during screening the researchers checked if such instances could be classified as shame or 25

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1 guilt). Whilst the focus of the review was on AN and BN, search terms related to EDNOS 2 and binge-eating were also included as studies focussing on these groups may still include samples or sub-samples of participants with AN or BN. We did not include terms related to 3 4 cognitive processes associated with shame and guilt, such as blame, social comparison or self-criticism, as our focus was specifically on emotions. Identified articles were initially 5 6 screened by title and abstract. The full texts of remaining articles were then read to check eligibility with inclusion criteria. Both stages of screening (titles & abstracts; full text) were 7 8 completed in parallel by two independent researchers for the original search up till December 9 2016, and discrepancies were resolved via discussion. The follow-up search was screened by single researcher (VM). The reference lists of eligible papers were also hand-searched to 10 identify additional eligible articles. The review protocol was not pre-registered. 11

12 Inclusion Criteria

Studies included in the review met the following criteria: (a) were peer-reviewed 13 original research papers; (b) full-text articles available in English; (c) utilised a quantitative 14 15 methodology; (d) featured a group of individuals with AN and/or BN presentations (defined as having a diagnosis of these disorders, whether self-reported or clinically verified) 16 accounted for \geq 50% of the ED sample; (e) either measured ED relevant symptoms, compared 17 a clinical AN and/or BN sample with a control group, or made AN and BN sub-type 18 comparisons; (f) guilt and/or shame was measured independently (rather than an aggregate 19 20 scale). We adopted the inclusive approach of including papers with self-reported diagnoses or chart diagnoses (i.e. determined via medical notes or psychiatric service) as opposed to only 21 including studies where diagnoses were independently verified by researchers or clinicians, 22 23 but then assessed this as part of the risk of bias assessment. We did not include papers that (a) focused on the quality of shame memories (e.g. Matos, Ferreira, Duarte & Pinto-Gouveia, 24 2014) as this is distinct to shame as a currently felt emotion; (b) assessed guilt or shame 25

related schema or cognitive constructs as opposed to emotions; (c) employed experimental
manipulations, or (d) focused on evaluating treatments. In the latter two cases this was
because the focus here was on the naturally-occurring (not manipulated or modified) link
between these emotions and ED. Papers were excluded if they did not meet the inclusion
criteria or insufficient information was available to establish eligibility. Authors were
contacted in cases where eligibility was uncertain.

7 Risk of Bias Assessment

8 The papers were assessed for risk of bias using an adapted version of a risk of bias 9 tool created by Williams, Plassman, Burke, Holsinger, and Benjamin (2010). This tool has previously been adapted and utilised in other reviews including Taylor, Hutton, and Wood 10 (2015b). The tool assesses risk of bias across multiple domains including the 11 12 representativeness and description of the cohort; the methods utilised to ascertain diagnoses and measure outcomes; and whether analyses were appropriate and included consideration of 13 confounding variables. Domains were rated using the terms yes, no, partial and unclear. Two 14 15 reviewers independently assessed risk of bias for all articles and discrepancies were discussed. In cases of disagreement, a third reviewer was consulted. The risk of bias 16 assessment is presented alongside the data synthesis to aid interpretation of the research 17 findings. 18

19 Data Synthesis

For each paper data were extracted pertaining to study characteristics (authors, year of publication, country), design, participant characteristics, measures used, associations between variables and statistical techniques used to estimate these associations via a data extraction spreadsheet. All data extraction was checked by a second member of the review team and discrepancies resolved through discussion. A narrative synthesis of studies was undertaken due to the variety of constructs and research methodologies being employed across studies

1	making a statistical aggregation of results impossible. A particular difficulty here is that
2	measures often identify specific subtypes of shame or guilt (e.g. body shame, external shame)
3	and it is currently unclear if these different constructs can be treated as comparable or not.
4	Following best practice we focus not only on the significance of reported relationships but
5	also the size, and where possible we consider effect size both in unstandardized and
6	standardized terms (Baguley, 2009). In particular unstandardized mean differences were
7	interpreted by converting scores in to the Proportion of Maximum Score (POMS = [observed-
8	minimum/[maximum=_minimum]; Moeller, 2015) before calculating the difference in POMS
9	between groups ($\Delta POMS$). Here we treat $\Delta POMS \ge 20\%$ as indicative of a substantive
10	difference. Standardized indices of effect included the standardized mean difference (d) ,
11	correlations (r) and standardized regression coefficients (β).
12	Results
13	Search Results
13 14	Search Results An adapted version of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews
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the included studies were cross-sectional. Of these, seven studies utilised a non-clinical

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control group, and three studies compared those with ED presentations with other clinical groups. Three included studies utilised an Experience Sampling Methodology (ESM; a method of collecting self-report data on a momentary basis), and two were longitudinal in nature. The most commonly employed measure of shame was the Experiences of Shame Scale (ESS; Andrews, Qian, & Valentine, 2002; k = 10), which assesses exposure to shame in several key domains (bodily, behavioural, characterological). The factor structure, concurrent and predictive validity of this measure has been supported (Andrews et al., 2002). The most widely used assessment of ED symptoms was the Eating Disorders Examination (EDE;

9 Cooper & Fairburn, 1987; k = 4), including the self-report adaptation, the EDE-Q (Fairburn
10 & Beglin, 1994; k = 2), both of which are widely used and demonstrate good psychometric
11 properties (Berg, Peterson, Frazier & Crow, 2012).

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TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

13 Risk of Bias

Results of the risk of bias assessment can be found in Table 2. Recurrent issues 14 included a lack of clarity around procedures for identifying potential participants (making it 15 difficult to judge the likelihood of selection bias) or a lack of clarity around how the clinical 16 status of participants was ascertained. Samples at times combined sub-clinical and clinical 17 groups or included "recovered" participants within clinical samples. This blurring of the 18 19 boundary between symptomatic individuals and controls is likely to limit what can be 20 concluded from comparisons. Collectively, the representativeness of these studies with regards to AN and BN clinical status is limited. The majority of the included studies were 21 cross-sectional, with only two utilising a longitudinal design and three utilising ESM. This 22 makes it difficult to make inferences regarding causality or direction of effect. For the few 23 longitudinal designs follow-up periods appeared suitable for tracking the phenomena of 24 25 interest.

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1 The potential impact of confounding variables was often overlooked (and relatedly matching of groups on demographic variables where relevant). No papers controlled for guilt 2 3 when measuring shame, or shame when measuring guilt. This is particularly important 4 because, as previously stated, they commonly co-occur and overlap conceptually (Tangney et al., 1992). Similarly, where group comparisons were made, these groups were rarely matched 5 6 on relevant variables (e.g. socio-demographics). The validity of parameter estimates may be affected by not taking into account possible confounding variables. Blinding or masking of 7 researchers to participant status or research question was rare, but this may have also 8 9 introduced detection bias, especially where interview-based measures were used (e.g. researchers may be more vigilant in asking about ED symptoms when they know shame is 10 11 present). Only two of the included papers reported having completed power calculations 12 (Keith Gillanders, & Simpson, 2009; Troop & Redshaw, 2012). Levels of missing data and how this was managed was often not clearly reported creating uncertainty about whether 13 missing data posed a problem or how it was managed. The studies largely used measures with 14 15 known and adequate psychometric properties.

16

TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

17 Shame

ED versus non-clinical controls. A summary of results and effect sizes is reported in 18 Table 3 for studies investigating shame using group comparison designs. Individuals with AN 19 20 or BN presentations reported greater shame compared to non-clinical control groups, with typically large effect sizes (Cardi, Di Matteo, Gilbert & Treasure, 2014; Cesare et al., 201; 21 Doran & Lewis, 2011; Ferreira et al., 2013; Kollei et al., 2012; Overton, Selway, Strongman 22 & Houston, 2005; Swan & Andrews, 2003). These differences were apparent across multiple 23 forms of shame (shame related to body/physical appearance; shame related to personal 24 attributes/character; shame related to behaviour; external shame; shame related to eating) 25

1 with the largest differences apparent for eating-related shame (k = 1; d = 2.77; $\Delta POMS =$ 70%) and the smallest differences apparent for shame proneness (k = 1; d = 0.88; $\Delta POMS =$ 2 3 15%). One study reported significant differences in groups on characterological, bodily and 4 eating-related shame, but not behavioural shame when co-varying for depression (Swan & Andrews, 2003). It is possible the analysis lacked power due to small group sizes, but it may 5 6 also be that co-occurring depression accounts for this difference. In summary shame appears to be substantially greater in AN and BN samples than non-clinical controls, but these data do 7 8 not provide any indication of whether shame is a cause or consequence of ED difficulties in 9 these studies.

10

TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

ED versus clinical controls. Individuals with AN or BN presentations typically 11 12 reported greater shame than those with depression or anxiety-related problems (See Table 3 for summary) though differences were smaller than when the comparison was with non-13 clinical controls. Findings were mixed with regards to subtypes of shame. Shame proneness 14 15 did not differ between AN/BN and depressed or anxious samples, whilst bodily shame (shame related to body/appearance) was greater in the AN and BN groups (Grabhorn et al., 16 2006; Rockenberger & Brauchle, 2011). For other clinical groups, findings were again mixed. 17 Rockenberger and Brauchle (2001) reported that shame was greater in their ED sample than 18 19 those with somatoform disorders (characterological, behavioural, and bodily shame) or 20 adjustment disorders (bodily shame only), but no differences were apparent when compared with a sample diagnosed with personality disorders. Shame proneness did not differentiate 21 any of these clinical groups. However, the concept of shame proneness is based on 22 hypothetical judgements about circumstances when one might feel shame and may differ to 23 actual experiences of shame. Shame (but not shame proneness) may be greater in AN and BN 24 samples than other certain clinical groups (e.g. anxiety, depression) but findings are 25

inconsistent and limited by these data belonging to only two studies (Grabhorn et al., 2006;
 Rockenberger & Brauchle, 2011).

3 *Comparisons between ED groups.* Five studies directly compared AN and BN 4 groups, but no significant differences were reported (See Table 3 for summary; Cella, Cipriano, Innaccone & Cotrufo, 2017; Duarte, Ferreira & Pinto-Gouveia, 2016; Franzoni et 5 6 al., 2013; Grabhorn et al., 2006; Kollei et al., 2012). Those in AN and BN samples also did not differ from individuals diagnosed with Body Dysmorphic Disorder (BDD; Kollei et al., 7 2012) or Binge Eating Disorder (Cella et al., 2017; Duarte et al., 2016). In one study those 8 9 with an EDNOS diagnosis reported greater shame than those diagnosed with AN (Franzoni et al., 2013). Those with current AN/ED symptoms reported greater shame (overall, 10 behavioural, characterological, external, and eating-related shame; no difference for bodily 11 12 shame), than a recovered ED sample (See Table 3; Cardi et al., 2014; Doran & Lewis, 2011; Swan & Andrews, 2003). 13

Correlations with ED symptoms. Nine studies reported a significant positive 14 relationship between shame and ED symptom severity. Seven of these used ESS (Andrews, 15 Qian, & Valentine, 2002), reporting moderate to large significant associations with ED 16 symptoms (large (r = .26 - .79; Doran & Lewis, 2011; Keith et al., 2009; Kelly & Carter, 17 2013; Kelly & Tasca, 2016), with similar effects across different subtypes of shame 18 (character, behaviour, body, eating). These relationships remained after controlling for self-19 20 esteem and perfectionism. Bodily shame was reported to be uniquely predictive of ED symptom severity in a mixed ED clinical sample ($\beta = .32$), when controlling for behavioural 21 and characterological shame (Doran & Lewis, 2011). 22

Body-related shame assessed with another measure was also related to the drive for thinness (r = .44). Effects were mixed in one study using a general measure of shame frequency, with a positive association emerging with drive for thinness (r = .34), but not the body dissatisfaction (r = .28) or bulimia (r = .16) subscales of the Eating Disorder Inventory
-2 (Garner, 1991). Cesare and colleagues (2016) found no significant association between
shame proneness and ED symptoms in either AN or BN subgroups, though a moderately
sized but non-significant correlation between drive for thinness and shame proneness was

5 reported in the AN group (r = .33).

A number of studies have tested whether shame mediates the effect of other variables
upon ED symptoms. Shame mediated the effect of self-objectification, experiences of
therapist self-disclosure, teasing, and self-criticism on ED related symptoms (Calogero et al.,
2005; Kelly et al., 2013; Simonds & Spokes, 2017; Sweetingham & Waller, 2008). However,
as all these studies were cross-sectional the order and direction of effects assumed in these
mediation analyses cannot be confirmed. These studies also largely relied on the outdated
Baron & Kenny (1986) approach to testing mediation (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

Longitudinal studies. One longitudinal study indicated that bodily shame (but not 13 general shame or external shame) predicted AN symptoms (but not BN symptoms) following 14 15 a 2.5-year period, adjusting for depressive symptoms and baseline AN symptoms ($\beta = .45$, p < .01; Troop & Redshaw, 2012). In a second longitudinal study in a general ED sample over 16 a 12-week period, increases in shame positively predicted ED symptoms (d = .47; average 17 levels of shame were also predictive of ED symptoms, d = 1.08; Kelly & Tasca, 2016). A unit 18 change in shame was related to a subsequent increase in ED symptoms of B = .72 (on the 19 20 EDE-Q), which suggests a substantial effect for this measure (a three-point difference distinguishes the general and ED population on the EDE-Q global score; Aardoom, 21 Dingemans, Slof Op't Landt, & Van Furth, 2012). 22

ESM studies. Three studies used ESM to map prospective relationships between
momentary assessments of shame in those with BN or AN and BN presentations (Berg et al.,
2013; De Young et al., 2013; Haynos et al., 2017). All of these studies used the positive and

1 negative affect (PANAS) guilt subscale, but item content suggests this actually measures shame (e.g. "ashamed", "disgusted at self"), and hence these results are discussed in this 2 3 section on shame. ESM is a methodology which captures self-report data on a momentary 4 basis. Participants are typically required to record their experiences at several, researcher defined time-points. The three studies suggest a common pattern of shame increasing prior to 5 6 ED related difficulties (restricted eating, binge, purge, and binge-purge events) and declining afterwards. Shame elevation and reduction pre and post binge/purge events were also 7 significant when controlling for fear, hostility and sadness (Berg et al. 2013). De Young et al. 8 9 (2013) reported that those with BN reported a significantly greater reduction in momentary shame post-binge episode than those with AN. Moreover, those who did not induce vomiting 10 reported a greater reduction in shame than those who did induce vomiting. 11

12

13 Guilt

ED versus non-clinical controls. Three studies reported significant differences 14 between AN or BN and non-clinic control groups in reported guilt (d = 0.70-2.42; $\Delta POMS =$ 15 11-13%; Berghold & Lock, 2002; Kollei, et al., 2012; Overton et al., 2005), including body-16 related guilt (d = 1.22 - 1.23; $\Delta POMS = 20 - 27\%$; Berghold & Lock, 2002; Kollei, et al., 2012). 17 For one study there was only an effect for "self-hate" guilt, but this construct appears to 18 conceptually overlap with shame. Differences were not apparent for other forms of guilt 19 20 (survivor, separation and omnipotent responsibility guilt; Berghold & Lock, 2002). In this study comparisons were made against sample data reported in previous papers, which also 21 raises uncertainty about the comparability of the samples. 22

23 *ED versus clinical controls and ED groups.* A single study reported no differences 24 between an AN and/or BN groups and various clinical groups in terms of guilt proneness (d =25 0-0.30; Δ POMS = 0-5%; Rockenberger & Brauchle, 2011). A single study found no differences in either general or body-related guilt between AN, BN and BDD samples (*d* =
0.03-0.29; ΔPOMS =1-6%; Kollei, et al., 2012). When comparing AN binge-purge and AN
restrictive groups, the former reportedly exhibited greater levels of guilt (Yellowlees, 1985). *Correlations with ED symptoms*. One study examined association between guilt and
ED symptoms but did not identify any significant associations (Overton et al., 2005), though
the small sample (*N* = 30) may have been a factor here.

7

Discussion

8 The current review aimed to evaluate the relationship between shame, guilt and ED 9 symptomatology in those with clinical presentations of AN and BN. It was anticipated that 10 shame and guilt would be associated with AN and BN. It was also anticipated that this 11 association would be greater in relation to shame. Shame had received more research 12 attention, with a lack of studies looking at guilt and very few studies considering both 13 emotions together (k = 3).

The reviewed papers collectively indicated that those diagnosed with AN and BN 14 reported substantially higher levels of shame when compared to non-clinical groups, and also 15 experienced more modestly elevated shame levels compared to other clinical populations 16 (e.g. depression, anxiety) though these findings were more mixed and dependent on type of 17 shame measured. AN, BN and other ED populations were not consistently different on levels 18 of shame indicating that this emotion is not specific to a certain type of ED pathology. As 19 20 symptoms of AN and BN increased in severity, so did reported levels of shame. Whilst limited to two studies, longitudinal data does suggest that some forms of shame may account 21 for the subsequent severity of ED symptoms, increasing the plausibility that shame is a 22 23 mechanism leading to ED, as opposed to a consequence of being diagnosed with an ED. Moreover, prospective associations between changes in shame and ED-related behaviours 24 (binging, purging, restricted eating) were identified in ESM studies. Whilst these studies 25

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referred to "guilt", the item content of the measure better reflected feelings of shame (e.g.
"ashamed", "disgusted at self"). Within these studies, momentary feelings of shame appeared
to increase before and then decline after ED behaviours. This is consistent with the
suggestion that these ED behaviours have a function in regulating feelings of shame (HaedtMatt & Keel, 2011). However, inferences of causality cannot be made as yet. No such
longitudinal associations were apparent for BN symptoms (though the follow-up period was
long) and there is greater uncertainty about whether shame is simply a consequence or

8 epiphenomena of BN, rather than a driving factor.

9 Shame related to the body, appearance or eating was most strongly associated with ED, whilst a general proneness to experiencing shame demonstrated more inconsistent 10 11 associations. It may therefore be helpful clinically and theoretically to distinguish between 12 the focus or source of shame feelings. However, in doing this we emphasise the cognitiveevaluative aspect of shame. The observed prevalence of body related shame in AN and BN 13 groups is suggestive of the propensity to engage in global self-devaluations on the basis of 14 physical appearance (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). No significant differences in bodily shame 15 were found between those with current AN or BN diagnoses and those considered recovered. 16 This suggests that bodily shame is maintained upon recovery, though as only a single study 17 tested this further research is needed. 18

The current review is reflective of previous research which has identified greater levels of shame in those with other ED presentations (e.g. binge-eating disorder; BED) when compared to general population and other clinical groups (e.g. Masheb, Grilo, & Brondolo, 1999). The review also supports research reporting a positive correlation between ED symptom severity and shame in sub-clinical groups (e.g. Jankauskiene & Pajaujiene, 2012; Sanftner et al., 1995). Shame may be implicated in the onset of ED presentations, as the associated behaviours may be attempts to avoid such negative feelings towards the self (Goss

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1 & Gilbert, 2002; Polivy & Herman, 1993). The impossibility of maintaining attempts to 2 control dietary intake and weight may lead to further shame and in turn a maladaptive shame-ED cycle (Goss & Gilbert, 2002; Skårerud, 2007). The findings of the current review are 3 4 consistent with Oluyori's (2013) qualitative review, which concluded that shame was implicated in the onset and maintenance of general ED presentations. An alternative 5 6 explanation is that, as EDs are highly stigmatised (e.g. Zwickert & Rieger, 2013), shame is a product rather than cause of the ED. The lack of longitudinal data makes it impossible to 7 8 establish the direction of this relationship, and a reciprocal temporal relationship between 9 shame and ED is also plausible.

Findings were more varied for guilt, whilst three studies suggested greater guilt amongst AN and BN samples than non-clinical controls, one of these included measures of guilt that conceptually overlap with shame. There was no evidence of guilt proneness being greater in AN or BN samples versus other clinical groups, but other forms of guilt were not tested. Overall there was evidence that shame more consistently differentiated between AN or BN and other samples than guilt, as predicted. There was also no evidence of within-sample associations between guilt and ED symptoms.

The majority of papers included within the review were cross-sectional in nature and 17 utilised self-report measures. The results may therefore be subject to inherent bias due to 18 issues associated with retrospective measures. More recently, research has begun to employ 19 20 ESM designs to explore the aetiology of ED presentations. Continued research in this vein may be informative and help to diminish methodological issues identified in the existing 21 research. A further limitation was the lack of consideration of confounding variables within 22 23 the papers reviewed. Few papers considered the confounding influence of depression/low mood, and no papers were identified as accounting for guilt when measuring shame, and vice 24

versa. Future research should also consider the potential co-occurrence of guilt and shame
 and control for this, in addition to depression.

3 The current review focused on those diagnosed with AN or BN (though this could be 4 self-reported) as such diagnosis provides a standardised means of ensuring a high level of clinical severity within the sample. However, diagnosis in ED has been criticised, and these 5 6 experiences likely exist on a continuum (Dudek, Ostaszewski, & Malicki, 2014). Future reviews of these relationships in non-clinical samples are warranted. The current review did 7 not consider papers which were unavailable in English. This may therefore have resulted in a 8 9 biased selection of the literature and an incomplete account of the association between shame, guilt, and AN or BN clinical groups. This review focused on peer-reviewed articles and so 10 may have excluded relevant research findings within the grey literature. Whilst focussing on 11 12 peer-reviewed articles helps ensures all papers have a certain level of rigor, this may also introduce publication bias due to non-significant findings being less likely to be published. 13 The current review provides support for the role of shame in AN and BN 14 presentations. The evidence regarding guilt remains mixed and further research on this 15 emotion would be beneficial. It appears that affect regulation (especially regulation of 16 feelings of shame) may be implicated in the maintenance of these eating difficulties. 17 Therefore, it may be important to consider negative affect and more specifically shame when 18 developing interventions for these clinical groups. This may be particularly true, given that 19 20 there was evidence bodily shame, unlike other forms of shame, does not appear to remit once an individual is considered to be "recovered". Whilst current treatment approaches (e.g. 21 CBT) commonly target maladaptive cognitions and behaviours, there is an indication that 22 emotions such as shame may benefit from therapeutic attention. Compassion focused therapy 23 (CFT), an approach which focuses upon developing self-compassion, affect regulation and 24 distress tolerance, may be beneficial to those with AN and BN presentations. It has been 25

found to be useful in the treatment of other psychological presentations characterised by high levels of shame (e.g. Leaviss & Uttley, 2015). As high levels of shame have been identified in those with AN and BN presentations, they may withhold information pertaining to their presentation. Therefore, the development of an effective therapeutic relationship may be of particular importance in these clinical groups (Chakraborty & Basu, 2010). However, at present these findings are tentative due to the methodological limitations identified within the studies reviewed.

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Conflict of Interest

None

Table 1Characteristics of Included Studies

Authors, Year & Country	Design	ED Sample	Comparison Sample	ED Measure	Guilt/Shame Measure
Berg et al (2013), United States of America	Experience Sampling	BN sample (based on DSM-IV-TR) from clinical, community and campus settings; $N = 133$ (100% female; M age = 25.3)	NA	SCID-I/P Eating Disorder Checklist (Author created)	Shame: PANAS
Berghold & Lock (2002), United States of America	Cross-sectional	AN sample (DSM-IV) from an ED clinic; $N = 35$ (94% female; median age = 14 years)	Historic adolescent school sample; $N = 330$ (aged 12-18 years)	EDE	Guilt: IGQ-69 (adolescent) IGQ-67 (adult)
			Historic adult community organisation sample; N=224		
Calogero et al (2005), United States of America	Cross-sectional	General ED sample; <i>N</i> = 209 (100% female); AN = 96, BN = 70, EDNOS = 43	NA	EDI subscales ("drive for thinness")	Shame: Body shame questionnaire
Cardi et al (2014), United Kingdom	Cross-sectional	General ED sample with current symptoms; $N = 46$ (100% female; M age = 27.3, $SD = 10.2$)	University staff and students; $N = 50$ (100% female; M age = 25.3, $SD =$ 7.4)	NA	Shame: OAS, PFQ
		Recovered ED sample; $N = 22$ (100% female; M age = 29.5, $SD = 8.4$)	()		
Cella et al (2017), Italy	Cross-sectional	General ED sample; <i>N</i> = 80 (100% female, <i>M</i> age = 25.35, <i>SD</i> = 7.68); AN = 39, BN = 29, BED = 12	NA	EDRC (formed from EDI-3 scales)	Shame: ESS

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Cesare et al (2016), Italy	Cross-sectional	General ED sample; <i>N</i> = 66 (100% female, <i>M</i> age = 23.36, <i>SD</i> = 4.86); AN = 35, BN = 18, BED = 13	NA	EDI-3	Shame: TOSCA
De Young et al (2013), United States of America	Experience Sampling	BN Sample; $N = 121$ (100% female; M age = 25.21, $SD = 7.55$) AN Sample; $N = 47$ (100% female; M age = 25.68, $SD = 8.27$); $N = 27met diagnostic criteria (DSM-IV) andN = 20$ were sub-threshold Both AN and BN samples from clinical, community and educational settings	NA	EDE Eating Disorder Checklist (Author created)	Shame: PANAS (50% of items used)
Doran & Lewis (2011), United Kingdom	Cross-sectional	General ED sample with self- reported diagnosis; $N = 165$ (100% female; M age = 26); AN made up the majority of the sample (specific N unknown).	Non-clinical control sample from schools/colleges and the internet; $N = 1115$ (77% female; female M age = 23; Male M age= 22)	EAT-26 EDRC (formed from EDI-3 scales)	Shame: ESS
Duarte et al (2016), Portugal	Cross-sectional	General ED outpatient sample; $N =$ 119; (100% female); AN = 34, BN = 34, BED = 51	NA	EDE	Shame: OAS (Portuguese version)
Ferreira et al (2013), Portugal	Cross-sectional	General ED hospital patient sample; <i>N</i> = 102 (100% female; <i>M</i> age = 23.62, <i>SD</i> = 7.42); AN = 33, BN = 31, EDNOS = 38	Non-clinical sample from educational and corporate settings; $N = 123$ (100% female; M age = 23.54, SD = 6.89)	EDE EDI subscales ("drive for thinness"; "bulimia"; "body dissatisfaction"; p.208) Portuguese	Shame: OAS (Portuguese version)

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version

Franzoni et al (2013), Italy	Cross-sectional	General ED outpatient sample; $N =$ 143 (100% female; M age = 20.3,	NA	BUT	Shame: ESS	
nary		SD=30.2; AN = 67, BN = 52, EDNOS = 24				
Grabhorn et al (2006), Germany	Cross-sectional	AN sample; $N = 30$ (<i>M</i> age = 25.5) BN sample; $N = 30$ (<i>M</i> age = 24.9)	Depression sample; $N = 30$ (<i>M</i> age= 41.1)	NA	Shame: ISS (German version)	
		AN and BN sample both accessing inpatient treatment and	Anxiety sample; $N = 30$ (M age = 36.9)			
		psychotherapy	Depression and anxiety sample both accessing inpatient treatment and			
Haynos et al (2017), United States of America	Experience sampling	AN sample; $N = 118$ (100% female; M age = 25.33, $SD = 8.35$); $N = 59$ met diagnostic criteria (DSM-IV) and N = 59 were sub-threshold	psychotherapy NA	Restrictive eating (Author created)	Shame: PANAS	
Keith et al (2009), United Kingdom	Cross-sectional	General ED sample accessing outpatient services or registered with ED charity; $N = 52$ (100% female; M age = 33.0, $SD = 10.6$); 36.5% outpatients; 63.5% registered with charity); AN = 16; BN = 18; BED = 3; EDNOS = 16.	NA	EDDS	Shame: ESS modified	
Kelly & Carter (2013), Canada	Cross-sectional	General ED hospital sample; $N = 74$ (97% female; M age = 27.5, $SD =$ 9.3); 31% inpatient; 69% outpatient;	NA	EDE-Q	Shame: ESS	

		AN restricting subtype = 22, AN binge-purge subtype = 14, BN = 22, EDNOS = 17			
Kelly & Tasca (2016), Canada (follow-up of Kelly & Carter; 2013)	Longitudinal	General ED hospital sample; $N = 78$ (97% female; M age = 28.0, $SD =$ 9.6); 27.8% inpatient; 72.2% outpatient; AN restricting subtype = 21, AN binge-purge subtype = 14, BN = 23, EDNOS = 19	NA	EDE-Q	Shame: ESS
Kollei et al (2012), Germany	Cross-sectional	AN inpatient sample; $N = 32$ (93.8% female; M age = 26.94, $SD = 9.15$) BN inpatient sample; $N = 34$ (97.1% female; M age = 25.94, $SD = 8.25$)	BDD inpatient and internet self-help group sample; N = 31 (61.3% female; M age = 28.77, SD = 8.91) Healthy control sample; N = 33 (69.7% female; M age = 26.91; SD = 8.48)	SCID-I	Shame & Guilt: DES (German version)
Overton et al (2005), New Zealand	Cross-sectional	General ED hospital sample; $N = 30$ (100% female; M age = 28.10, $SD =$ 10.25)	Healthy control sample; N = 100 (100% female; M age = 23.80; SD = 8.48)	EDI-2	Shame & Guilt: DES- IV
Rockenberger & Brauchle (2011), Germany	Cross-sectional	General outpatient ED sample; $N = 27$; AN = 5, BN = 9, atypical BN = 2, over eating = 9, other ED = 1 ED unspecified = 1	General outpatient sample: Affective disorders; $N=72$; Phobic & other anxiety disorders $N=45$; Adjustment & stress disorders and mixed anxiety & depression $N=58$; Somatoform disorders N=24; personality disorders	NA	Guilt: TOSCA Shame: ESS and TOSCA

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N=37

Simonds & Spokes (2017), United Kingdom		General ED sample from ED charities: <i>N</i> = 120 (96% female; <i>M</i> age = 26.80, <i>SD</i> = 8.07). AN: <i>N</i> =48; BN: <i>N</i> =27; EDNOS: <i>N</i> =21; BED = 3	NA	EAT-26	Shame: ESS
Swan & Andrews (2003), United Kingdom	Cross-sectional	General ED sample from ED association; $N = 68$ (100% female; M age = 30.67, $SD = 10.17$); At peak of symptoms: AN = 51, BN = 4, EDNOS = 12, unclassified = 1	Non-clinical control sample (university students & staff): <i>N</i> =72 (<i>M</i> age=26.2, <i>SD</i> = 10.65)	Diagnostic questionnaire based on DSM-IV EAT-26	Shame: ESS modified
Sweetingham & Waller (2008), United Kingdom	Cross-sectional	General ED sample; <i>N</i> = 92 (100% female; <i>M</i> age= 28.50, <i>SD</i> = 8.17); AN = 19, BN = 32, EDNOS = 41	NA	EDI	Shame: ESS
Troop & Redshaw (2012), United Kingdom	Longitudinal	Self-reported general ED sample; <i>N</i> = 55 (100% female; <i>M</i> age=34.6, <i>SD</i> =9.6); AN restrictive = 7, AN binge-purge type = 24, BN = 11, EDNOS = 13	NA	SEED	Shame: BSS; OAS; PFQ
Yellowlees (1985), United Kingdom	Cross-sectional	AN non-binging sample; $N = 16$ (94.1% female; M age: 20.4) AN binging sample: $N = 15$ (100% female; M age = 25.8) All historic & current general ED hospital patients, categorised based on DSM-III.	NA	NA	Guilt: Author created questions

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Note: some frequencies estimated from percentages reported in papers and due to rounding they sum to a value greater than the total sample size. EDI: Eating Disorders Inventory (Garner, Olmsted & Policy, 1982); EDI-2: Eating Disorder Inventory – 2 (Garner, 1991); EDI-3; Eating Disorder Inventory – 3 (Giannini, Pannocchia, Dalle Grave, Muratori & Vigilione, 2008; DSM-IV-TR: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders (4th edition., text revision; APA, 2000); SCID-I/P: Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Axis I Disorders, Patient Edition (First, Spitzer, Gibbon, & Williams, 1995); PANAS: Positive and Negative Affect Scale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988); DSM-IV: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders (4th edition; APA, 1994); EDE: Eating Disorder Evaluation (Cooper & Fairburn, 1987); IGQ-69: Interpersonal Guilt Questionnaire, Adolescent Version (Mulherin, 1998); EAT-26: Eating Attitudes Test (Garner, Olmsted, Bohr, & Garfinkel, 1982); EDI: Eating Disorder Inventory (Garner, Olmsted, & Polivy, 1983; Portuguese version: Machado, Goncalves, Martins, & Soares, 2001); EDRC: Eating Disorder Risk Composite; EDI-3: Eating Disorder Inventory - 3 (Garner, 2004); OAS: Other as a Shamer Scale (Goss, Gilbert, & Allan, 1994; Portuguese version: Matos, Pinto-Gouveia, & Duarte, 2011); BUT: Body Uneasiness Test (Cuzzolaro, Vetrone, Marano, & Garfinkel, 2006); ESS: Experience of Shame Scale (Andrews, Qian, & Valentine, 2002); ISS: Internalised Shame Scale (Cook, 1994); BED: binge eating disorder; EDNOS: eating disorder not otherwise specified; EDDS: Eating Disorder Diagnostic Scale (Stice, Telch, & Rizvi, 2000); ESS modified: Experience of Shame Scale (modified; Swan & Andrews, 2003); EDE-Q: Eating Disorder Examination-Questionnaire (Fairburn & Beglin, 1994); BDD: Body dysmorphic disorder; DES: Differential Emotion Scale (Izard, Dougherty, Bloxom, Kotsch, 1974; German version: Merten & Krause, 1992; version IV: Blumberg & Izard, 1985); ICD-10: International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems: 10th Revision (World Health Organisation, 2010); TOSCA: The Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (Tangney, Dearing, Wagner, & Gramzow, 2000); SEED: Short Evaluation for Eating Disorders (Bauer, Winn, Schmidt, & Kordy, 2005): BSS: Bodily Shame Scale (Troop, Sotrilli, Serpell, & Treasure, 2006); PFQ: Personal Feelings Questionnaire (Harder & Zalma, 1990); DSM-III: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders (3rd edition; APA, 1980)

Table 2

Overview of Assessment of Study Methodological Quality

Authors	Unbiased selection of cohort	Selection minimises baseline differences in demographi c factors*	Sample size calculati on*	Adequate description of the cohort	Validated method for ascertaining AN and/or BN status	Validated methods for assessing guilt and/or shame	Validated methods for assessing ED symptom severity* ¹	Outcome assessments blind to diagnostic status	Adequate follow- up ^{*2}	Missing data minimal	Analysis controls for confoun ders*	Analytic methods appropriate *
Berg et al. (2013) Berghold &	No	NA	No	Yes	Yes	Partial	NA	No	NA	Unclear	Partial	Yes
Lock (2002)	Unclear	No	No	Partial	Yes	Partial	NA	No	NA	Unclear	No	Yes
Cardi et al (2014)	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	NA	Yes	No	Yes
Calogero et al (2005)	Unclear	NA	No	Partial	Yes	No	Yes	No	NA	Yes	No	Partial
Cella et al (2017)	Unclear	NA	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	NA	Yes	Yes	Partial
Cesare et al (2016)	Unclear	NA	No	Partial	Partial	Yes	Yes	No	NA	Unclear	No	Yes
De Young et al (2013) Doran &	No	Yes	No	Yes	Partial	Partial	Yes	No	NA	Unclear	No	Yes
Lewis (2011)	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Partial	NA	NA	Unclear	No	Yes
Duarte et al (2016)	Unclear	NA	Partial	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	NA	Unclear	No	Yes
Ferreira et al (2013)	Partial	Partial	No	Partial	Partial	Yes	Yes	No	NA	Unclear	No	Yes
Franzoni et al (2013)	Yes	Unclear	No	Partial	Yes	Partial	Yes	No	NA	Unclear	Partial	Yes
Grabhorn et al (2006)	Unclear	No	No	Partial	Yes	Yes	NA	No	NA	Unclear	No	Yes
Haynos et al (2017)	Unclear	NA	No	Partial	Yes	Partial	Partial	No	NA	Unclear	Partial	Yes
Keith,	Unclear	NA	Yes	Partial	No	Yes	Yes	No	NA	Unclear	No	Yes

Gillanders, & Simpson (2009) Kelly &												
Carter (2013)	Yes	NA	No	Partial	Partial	Yes	Yes	No	NA	Unclear	Partial	Yes
Kelly & Tasca (2016)	Unclear	NA	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Partial	Partial	Yes
Kollei et al (2012)	Partial	No	No	Yes	Yes	Unclear	NA	No	NA	Unclear	No	Yes
Overton et al (2005)	Partial	No	No	Partial	Unclear	Yes	Yes	No	NA	Yes	No	Yes
Rockenber ger & Brauchle (2011)	Yes	Unclear	No	Partial	Partial	Partial	NA	No	NA	Yes	No	Yes
Simmonds & Spokes (2017)	No	NA	No	Yes	No	Yes	NC	NA	No	No	No	Yes
Swan & Andrews (2003)	No	No	No	Partial	Partial	Yes	NA	No	NA	Unclear	Partial	Yes
Sweetingha m & Waller (2008)	Yes	NA	No	Partial	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	NA	Unclear	No	Partial
Troop & Redshaw (2012)	No	NA	Yes	Partial	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Partial	Yes
Yellowlees (1985)	Unclear	No	No	No	Partial	Unclear	NA	No	NA	Unclear	No	Unclear

* Criteria only applicable to certain designs; ¹ Note that this criterion only applied to those studies which measured severity of ED symptoms ² Note that this criterion only applied to longitudinal studies.

Table 3

Summary of Differences and Effect Sizes for Studies Comparing Shame between Groups

Outcome	Predictor	# studies	<pre># significant associations / # associations tested</pre>	$\Delta POMS (\%)$	d
AN/BN vs. Non-clinical controls ^b	Shame ^a	4	6/6	15 - 44%	0.88 - 2.81
	Behavioural shame	1	0/1	35%	1.46
	Bodily shame	2	3/3	23 - 45%	1.20 - 1.76
	Characterological shame	1	1/1	52%	2.40
	Eating-related shame	1	1/1	70%	2.77
	External shame	2	2/2	21% - 33%	1.26 - 2.16
	Shame proneness	1	1/1	15%	0.88
AN/BN vs. anxiety/depression ^c	Shame ^a	2	5/6	13 - 29%	0.67 - 1.92
	Shame proneness	1	0/2	2 - 9%	0.12 - 0.49
	Behavioural shame	1	1/2	6 - 13%	0.22 - 0.51
	Bodily shame	1	2/2	31%	1.02 - 1.04
	Characterological shame	1	1/2	16 - 21%	0.65 - 0.83
AN/BN vs. other clinical groups ^b	Shame ^a	1	1/3	16 - 22%	0.61-1.05
	Shame proneness	1	0/3	-1 - 11%	-0.06 - 0.57
	Behavioural shame	1	1/3	-4 - 17%	-0.16 - 0.67
	Bodily shame	1	2/3		
	Characterological shame	1	1/3	6- 24%	0.23 - 1.10
AN vs. BN ^c	Shame ^a	4	0/4	-57%	-0.430.21
	Bodily shame	1	0/1	2%	0.07
	External shame	1	0/1	-7%	-0.34
AN/BN vs. other ED ^b	Shame ^a	3	1/6	-414%	-0.630.28
	Shame proneness	1	0/2	-3 - 4%	-0.17 - 0.30

	Bodily shame	1	0/2	-1011%	-0.500.45
	External shame	1	0/2	-310%	-0.460.16
Current AN/BN vs. recovered ^d	Shame ^a	2	2/2	12 - 28%	1.08 - 1.31
	Behavioural shame	1	0/1	19%	0.78
	Bodily shame	1	0/1	22%	0.92
	Characterological shame	1	1/1	31%	1.25
	Eating-related shame	1	1/1	32%	1.14
	External shame	1	1/1	20%	1.05

^a Refers to general measures of shame that do not focus on a specific or distinct subtype (we include the concept of internal shame under this heading); ^b Positive values denote greater shame in the AN/BN group; ^c Positive values denote greater shame in the AN/BN group; ^d Positive values denote greater shame in the current AN/BN group

Figure Legend

Figure 1. Flow of Information through the Systematic Information Review Process



