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# Converging paths: Autistic traits, body image concerns, and disordered eating symptoms in women

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## ABSTRACT

Autistic traits, such as sensory sensitivities and rigid routines, have been linked to body dissatisfaction (BD) and eating disorders (EDs). However, the interplay between autistic traits, female and muscularity-related BD, and disordered eating remains underexplored.

This cross-sectional study examined the relationships between autistic traits, BD, and disordered eating in 298 women. Correlations and mediation analyses, alongside bootstrapping techniques, were used to evaluate relationships between variables.

Autistic traits were positively associated with “traditional” disordered eating symptoms including food avoidance and selective eating as well as appearance-related aspects of muscle dysmorphia. Autistic traits were positively associated with avoidant-restrictive food intake disorder (ARFID) symptoms. BD was elevated with increasing autistic traits, only in relation to body fat, not muscularity. Only body fat-related BD (BD-F), but not muscularity-related BD (BD-M) mediated the effect of autistic traits on disordered eating symptoms, predicting increases in both ED and body dysmorphic symptoms, as well as reductions in ARFID symptoms.

Our findings suggest that women with autistic traits may be more susceptible to internalizing socially perpetuated body ideals or to social feedback towards their appearance, especially stereotypically “female-typed” BD-F, but not “male-typed” dissatisfaction with muscularity (BD-M) mediated the link between autistic traits and disordered eating. Implications are discussed.

## 1. Introduction

Eating disorders (EDs) involve significant concerns about body image, abnormal eating, and weight control behaviors. The most common EDs include anorexia nervosa (AN), bulimia nervosa, binge-eating disorder, avoidant-restrictive food intake disorder (ARFID), and other specified feeding or eating disorders (APA, 2013; Galmiche et al., 2019). Body dissatisfaction (BD), described as negative evaluation of one's body (Talbot et al., 2019), depicts an established risk factor for the development of EDs in women (McLean and Paxton, 2019). BD can originate from perceiving discrepancies when comparing one's own body with often unrealistic-body ideals, e.g., ideals of thinness or muscularity (Grossbard et al., 2011; Strahan et al., 2006). Related to the drive for muscularity in its more extreme manifestations, muscle dysmorphia (MD) describes an obsessive preoccupation with muscularity

and leanness, accompanied by high levels of BD, excessive exercise routines, and rigid dietary regimens, including the intake of anabolic steroids (APA, 2013; Zaiser et al., 2024).

In recent years, sociocultural and neurobiological factors involved in the development and maintenance of EDs have received increasing attention, including possible links between EDs and autism (Carpita et al., 2022). In 1985, Gillberg suggested a link between autism spectrum disorders (ASDs) and EDs, noting some autistic traits in boys who were also present in girl siblings with AN (Gillberg, 1985). While the global lifetime prevalence of ASDs is 1% (Roy and Strate, 2023; Taylor et al., 2020), estimates suggest that 5%–23% of patients with EDs receive an ASD diagnosis (Huke et al., 2013; Nickel et al., 2019). On the other side, up to 70% of children with ASDs show typical and disturbed eating behaviors, ranging from feeding problems, such as picky eating and food avoidance, to severe EDs (Baraskewich et al., 2021; Brzóska

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et al., 2021; Mayes and Zickgraf, 2019).

Next to challenges in social interaction, ASDs also present with restrictive, rigid, and repetitive behaviors and sensory sensitivities (Lord et al., 2020). In fact, the unique sensory perceptions of individuals with ASDs may potentially impact eating behaviors and body image (Krumm et al., 2017). Misperceiving one's body size may increase social comparisons with beauty ideals (Healy et al., 2021), and interoceptive difficulties may lead to increased preoccupation with internal senses such as hunger and satiation (Trevisan et al., 2021), which could, in turn, be accompanied by behaviors aiming at avoiding or controlling body size and sensations (Longhurst, 2023), thus leading to BD. A recent scoping review by Longhurst (2023) identified four studies that found quantitative links between autistic traits and BD; however, only two of the identified studies investigated BD and disordered eating simultaneously (Galvin et al., 2022; Mansour et al., 2016). Mansour et al. found a positive relationship between BD and autistic traits (Mansour et al., 2016). Specifically, autistic traits were found to predict disordered eating behaviors through body fat-related body dissatisfaction (BD-F), as measured by the Body Shape Questionnaire (BSQ; Evans & Dolan, 1993), which mostly addresses concerns related to body size and feelings of being overweight. Galvin et al. (2022) focused on another antecedent of BD, the drive for muscularity, which is also associated with MD. The authors found parallel associations between autistic traits and symptoms of MD and EDs, suggesting that muscularity-related BD (BD-M) may also serve as a link between elevated autistic traits and disordered eating. BD-M has often been overlooked in the field of EDs, and given the existing importance of rigid routines in both MD and autistic traits, exploring potential links is crucial. To the best of our knowledge, the simultaneous influence of BD-F and BD-M on disordered eating via autistic traits remains unexplored.

Despite the clinical overlap between ASDs and EDs, more research is needed to fully understand their interconnection. Autistic traits are not limited to those with formal diagnosis and can also manifest subclinically (Constantino and Todd, 2003). Interconnections between autistic traits and disordered eating are increasingly investigated in non-clinical populations (Christensen et al., 2019). This could help to identify trait patterns related to EDs, and potentially improve our understanding of ED development and assessment. Even though disordered eating affects diverse populations (Halbeisen et al., 2022), here, we chose women as the target population given their increased risk for developing EDs and the overrepresentation of women with autistic traits among those with the most severe forms of EDs (i.e., among those in treatment for AN) (Brede et al., 2020). Other studies have also shown that autistic traits and disordered eating correlate more strongly in women compared to men (Barnett et al., 2021). At the same time, sexual orientation, a key aspect of diversity, has shown strong associations with disordered eating, e.g., in studies among sexual minority populations (Parker and Harriger, 2020). Autistic individuals are also more likely to identify as non-heteronormative, and this may shape their risk for EDs through distinct social pressures and body image concerns (George and Stokes, 2018; Pecora et al., 2020). We therefore considered sexual orientation across our analyses.

The present study aimed to extend our knowledge of the links between autistic traits, BD, and disordered eating. Specifically, our primary objective was to explore the associations of autistic traits and various disordered eating symptoms, MD, and different aspects of BD (body fat- and muscularity-related). We expected autistic traits to be associated with pronounced BD as well as with pronounced ED and MD symptoms, and autistic traits and BD jointly increase ED and MD symptoms. Our secondary objective was to explore whether different aspects of BD could be linked to different ED and MD symptoms, though we did not formulate a priori hypothesis.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Participants and procedure

The present study used data from a cross-sectional online survey on disordered eating in adult women ( $\geq 18$  years). The recruitment process involved two methods to ensure a diverse sample. On May 31<sup>st</sup>, 2024, we recruited two-thirds of our sample through Prolific (<https://www.prolific.com/>), an online participant recruitment platform known for its diverse and reliable participant pool. The remaining third of the sample was recruited through advertisements posted on our website, university mailing lists, and through personal networks (May 8 to June 27, 2024). The study participants were recruited from the German adult general population.

Based on previous power calculations in similar study endeavors by our research group (Eschrich et al., 2024), the study targeted 300 participants. The study protocol received ethics approval on March 15, 2024 (AZ, 2022-910\_1) and was re-registered on the Open Science Framework (OSF, <https://osf.io/efn4v>). The study was conducted following the ethical principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki, and informed consent was obtained from all participants before their involvement.

The online study was conducted using jsPsych (de Leeuw et al., 2023). Participants accessed the study's website, reviewed the study information and consent forms, and were informed that the study focused on disordered eating in women. Participants recruited via Prolific were compensated £4.50 for their participation. Participants from the convenience sample did not receive any monetary compensation; however, eligible university students received compensation in form of research participation credits. All data and materials related to this research are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

### 2.2. Measures

The questionnaire did not assess whether a diagnosis of ASD and/or another mental disorder was present. Nonetheless, in addition to the sociodemographic variables, several instruments were used to assess symptoms of mental disorders, which are described below.

### 2.3. Sociodemographic variables

Participants were asked to self-report various demographic and health-related information as part of the survey. This included their gender (man, woman, diverse/intersex; no answer), age, weight, height, and sexual orientation (coded non-heterosexual vs. heterosexual). Additionally, participants reported whether they had migration background (yes/no) with the question "Were you or at least one of your parents born abroad?" referring to the revised definition of the German Federal Statistical Office (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2017), and also reported their years of education ( $< 12 / > 12$  years). Marital status was also recorded (single, married, divorced, or widowed), as well as their living circumstances (living alone or sharing household with others). Additionally, participants provided open-ended responses regarding their history of EDs and whether they were receiving ongoing treatment for an ED. Finally, participants were asked if they had previously participated in the present study (yes/no). We further included an attention check question (random position in the survey ("Please mark the word giraffe" from a series of options) (Oppenheimer et al., 2009)). These questions were crucial for identifying and excluding datasets from repeated participation in this study and/or inattentive participants to ensure the integrity of the data.

#### 2.3.1. Disordered eating symptoms

We used the German version (Hilbert et al., 2007) of the Eating Disorder Examination-Questionnaire (EDE-Q; Fairburn and Beglin,

2008). The EDE-Q assesses cognitive and behavioral ED symptoms within the last 28 days, using 22itudinal items rated on a 7-point scale (0 = never to 6 = every day). Six additional items assess over-eating episodes, binge episodes, binge days, and purging behaviors, such as vomiting, laxative use, and driven exercise. Previous investigations did not support the proposed factor structure of the EDE-Q (Laskowski et al., 2023a, 2023b); therefore, we did not consider subscales and only report the global score (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .957$ ).

The Eating Disorders in Youth-Questionnaire (EDY-Q; van Dyck and Hilbert, 2016), adapted for adults, was used to assess ARFID symptoms, with 14 questions covering food avoidance (FA), selective eating (SE), functional dysphagia (FD), and problems with underweight. Additional questions assessing rca, rumination, and weight/shape concerns (ARFID exclusion criteria) are not routinely used for scale construction. All items were rated on a 7-point scale (0 = never to 6 = always). We report the EDY-Q subscales and total mean score. The total score showed moderate internal consistency with Cronbach's  $\alpha = .608$ , due to low internal consistency for the FA subscale (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .356$ ). The subscales SE (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .728$ ) and FD (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .771$ ) demonstrated acceptable to good internal consistency in our sample.

We also included the validated German version of the Muscle Dysmorphic Disorder Inventory (MDDI; Zeeck et al., 2018). This instrument comprises 13 items on muscularity-related body image disturbances and behaviors rated on a 5-point scale (1 = never to 5 = always). The MDDI has three subscales: drive for size (DS), appearance intolerance (AI), and functional impairment (FI). The subscales displayed high internal consistency (DS: Cronbach's  $\alpha = .803$ ; AI: Cronbach's  $\alpha = .836$ ; FI: Cronbach's  $\alpha = .845$ ). We report the subscales and MDDI total mean score (good internal consistency with Cronbach's  $\alpha = .776$ ).

### 2.3.2. Body dissatisfaction

We used the Female Body Scale (FBS) and Female Fit Body Scale (FFITBS) to assess two aspects of BD in women (Ralph-Nearman and Filik, 2020). The FBS depicts a series of nine female bodies ranging from emaciated to obese, and the FFITBS depicts a series of nine female bodies ranging from emaciated to very muscular. For each series of bodies, women were asked to indicate which body figure best represented their current body shape and then to indicate their ideal body shape. Responses were coded from 0 (most emaciated body) to 8 (most obese or muscular, respectively). BD-F and BD-M were inferred from the discrepancies between actual and ideal body images, with positive scores representing increased BD (Talbot et al., 2019).

### 2.3.3. Autistic traits

We used the short version of the Autism Spectrum Quotient (AQ-10; Allison et al., 2012), which comprises 10 items designed for rapid autism spectrum screening. Participants responded using a 4-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree to 4 = strongly disagree). The AQ-10 demonstrated low to moderate internal consistency (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .597$ ) in the present sample. A cut-off of 6 indicates risk; in addition to this cut-off, we calculated the sum score.

### 2.3.4. Additional questions

Further measures assessed help-seeking motivation regarding ED treatment, stereotypical perceptions of EDs in men and individuals with EDs in general, perceived socio-economic status, menstruation status, self-ascribed gender roles, orthorexic eating behavior, and ED risk (Jürgensen et al., Lehe et al., manuscripts in preparation). Given the specific interest in the association between ASD and EDs, these further constructs have not been included in the present analyses.

## 2.4. Data analysis

Data analysis was performed using Python version 3.12.4 (Python Software Foundation, 2001) within a Jupyter Notebook version 7.2.1 environment (Jupyter Team, 2015). The Python packages used included

NumPy version 2.0.0 (Harris et al., 2020), Pandas version 2.2.2 (Pandas development team, 2024), statsmodels version 0.14.2 (Seabold and Perktold, 2010), SciPy version 1.14.0 (Virtanen et al., 2020), matplotlib (Hunter, 2007), and networkX (Hagberg et al., 2008).

To assess the reliability of the measures used in this study, we calculated Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) for multi-item scales and Kuder-Richardson's (KR-20) coefficient for binary (yes/no) items. Generally, Cronbach's  $\alpha$  values above .70 are considered acceptable, with values above .80 preferred for research instruments requiring a high degree of internal consistency (Taber, 2018). To assess the relationships between various assessments, non-parametric Kendall's Tau correlation coefficients were calculated. Kendall's Tau accounts for ties and provides a more robust measure in the presence of non-normal distributions.

Mediation analyses were used to examine the mediating roles of BD-M and BD-F in the relationship between autistic traits and two outcomes, with sexual orientation included as a control variable (covariate): 1) disordered eating behavior and 2) MD. Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regressions were employed to model both direct and indirect effects. The analysis was conducted through three distinct regression models, each controlling for sexual orientation: 1) The initial model assessed the direct relationship between autistic traits and BD-M, 2) the second model evaluated the relationship between autistic traits and BD-F, and 3) the third model examined the effects of both BD-M and BD-F on the outcomes of disordered eating behavior and MD. Direct effects were estimated from the respective regression models. For the mediation analysis, indirect effects were computed by examining how autistic traits influenced the mediators (BD-F and BD-M), and how these mediators, in turn, affected the outcomes. Specifically, the indirect effects were derived by multiplying the path coefficients from autistic traits to each mediator by the coefficients from each mediator to the respective outcomes. For this analysis, sexual orientation was dichotomized (heterosexual vs. non-heterosexual).

To ensure the robustness of the estimates and to address potential sampling variability, bootstrapping procedure was employed. We generated 5000 bootstrap samples from the dataset, refitted the regression models for each sample, and computed the indirect effects for each bootstrap sample. The 95% confidence intervals for these indirect effects were obtained by determining the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of the bootstrap distributions. Regression model summaries, including coefficients, and  $p$ -values, were examined to assess statistical significance (at  $\alpha = .05$  level) and interpret the magnitude of both direct and indirect effects.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Sample description

A total of 304 women took part in the survey. After excluding self-reported duplicate participations, 298 were included in the analysis. The sample had a mean age of 28 years and a mean body mass index (BMI) of 23 kg/m<sup>2</sup>. Most participants (67.2%) identified as sexually oriented towards the opposite gender, while 30.2% reported having a migration background. A majority had more than 12 years of school education (84.2%). In terms of family situation, most were single (77.5%). Household size varied, with the majority living with others (73.4%). As shown in Table 1, some assessments, including the AQ-10, indicated higher risk levels for specific conditions. A small but notable percentage of participants were at risk for relevant autistic spectrum disorder traits (15.1%). Detailed sample characteristics are provided in Table 1.

### 3.2. Correlation matrix

The Kendall's-Tau correlation matrix involving the AQ-10 sum score showed several significant correlations. The AQ-10 sum score correlated weakly but significantly with the MDDI subscale AI, indicating a slight

**Table 1**  
Sample characteristics.

Variable	N (%) / Mean (SD, Range)
Mean age (SD, Range)	28.43 (9.50, 18–64)
Mean body mass index (SD, Range)	23.47 (5.20, 16.00–47.84)
Sexual Orientation	N (%)
To opposite gender	193 (67.2)
To men and women	68 (23.7)
To same gender	24 (8.4)
To other gender	2 (0.7)
Migration background	N (%)
No	208 (69.8)
Yes	90 (30.2)
School years	N (%)
>12	251 (84.2)
<12	47 (15.8)
Marital status	N (%)
Single	231 (77.5)
Married/With partner	58 (19.5)
divorced	9 (3.0)
Household size	N (%)
>1 persons	218 (73.4)
1 person	79 (26.6)
Diagnosis of Eating Disorder	N (%)
No	264 (88.6)
Yes	34 (11.4)
Anorexia nervosa	21 (56.8)
Bulimia Nervosa	3 (8.1)
Binge Eating Disorder	6 (16.2)
Other	7 (18.9)
If yes, treatment for eating disorder	
Yes	20 (58.8)
No	14 (41.2)
Eating Disorder Examination-Questionnaire (EDE-Q; Hilbert et al., 2007) mean global score (SD, Range)	1.77 (1.34, 0–5.57)
Eating Disorders in Youth-Questionnaire (EDY-Q; van Dyck and Hilbert, 2016)	Mean (SD, Range)
Mean score	1.28 (0.73, 0–4.50)
Mean score subscale Food Avoidance	1.48 (1.00, 0–5.00)
Mean score subscale Selective Eating	1.90 (1.50, 0–6.00)
Mean score subscale Functional Dysphagia	0.39 (0.87, 0–5.00)
Muscle Dysmorphic Disorder Inventory (MDDI; Zeeck et al., 2018)	Mean (SD, Range)
Mean score	1.00 (0.55, 0–3.00)
Mean score subscale Drive for Size	0.81 (0.76, 0–3.60)
Mean score subscale Appearance Intolerance	1.57 (1.0, 0–4.00)
Mean score subscale Functional Impairment	0.70 (0.79, 0–3.50)
Body Fat-Related Body Dissatisfaction, Mean (SD, Range)	1.08 (1.10, –1.00 – 5.00)
Muscularity-Related Body Dissatisfaction, Mean (SD, Range)	–0.33 (1.24, –4.00 – 3.00)
Autism Spectrum Quotient (AQ-10; Allison et al., 2012)	
Mean sum score (SD, Range)	3.24 (1.90, 0–10)
High risk (sum ≥6), n (%)	45 (15.1)

Notes. The body mass index was calculated from the weight and height data.

association between autistic traits and concerns about appearance. The AQ-10 also correlated with the EDY-Q mean score and all the subscales, suggesting a link between autistic traits and food avoidance, selective eating, and food sickness. Additionally, the AQ-10 sum score showed significant correlations with the EDE-Q global score. There was also a small but significant correlation with BD-F. Notably, the AQ-10 sum score did not show a significant correlation with the MDDI (including its subscales, except AI) and BD-M. Detailed correlations between the used measures and subscales are displayed in Table 2.

### 3.3. Mediation analyses

The analyses revealed that sexual orientation significantly affects BD-F and the EDY-Q mean score, indicating that sexual orientation plays a role in DEB through BD-F, which is why we controlled for this variable in our analyses. However, sexual orientation did not significantly impact

BD-M or MDDI mean score.

Mediation analyses, as shown in Fig. 1, revealed a significant positive relationship between AQ-10 sum scores and BD-F. BD-F, in turn, had a significant positive effect on the EDE-Q global score. The bootstrapped analysis confirmed the indirect effect was significant (see Table 3), and there was no direct effect of the AQ-10 on the EDE-Q global score after controlling for this indirect effect. However, although BD-M showed a significant negative effect on the EDE-Q global score, AQ-10 did not predict BD-M, and there was no indirect effect of the AQ-10 on EDE-Q scores through changes in BD-M. Thus, in summary, AQ-10 sum scores demonstrated an indirect effect on the EDE-Q global score only through BD-F.

The AQ-10 sum scores did not have a significant direct effect on the MDDI mean score. Additionally, BD-M had no effect on the MDDI mean score, and there was no indirect effect of AQ-10 through BD-M. However, BD-F had a significant positive effect on the MDDI mean score, although the indirect effect of AQ-10 on the MDDI through changes in BD-F was not significant (see Table 3). In summary, AQ-10 sum scores did not demonstrate a significant indirect effect on the MDDI mean score through BD-F (see Fig. 1).

There was a significant positive direct effect of the AQ-10 sum score on the EDY-Q mean score. However, because BD-F had a significant negative effect on the EDY-Q mean score, there was also a negative indirect (i.e., mediated) effect of the AQ-10 on the EDY-Q (see Table 3). BD-M had no significant effect on the EDY-Q mean score. In summary, the AQ-10 sum scores directly influenced the EDY-Q mean score and demonstrated a negative indirect effect on the EDY-Q through BD-F (see Fig. 1).

The analyses with reverted variable order showed no indirect effects.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Main findings

This study investigated the link between autistic traits, BD, and disordered eating symptoms in adult women from the general population. Consistent with previous findings, autistic traits showed positive associations with cognitive and behavioral ED symptoms assessed by the EDE-Q (Barnett et al., 2021) and some appearance-related aspects of MD (Galvin et al., 2022). Expectedly, autistic traits were also positively associated with ARFID symptomatology (Sanchez-Cerezo et al., 2023). BD was further positively associated with autistic traits, but only in relation to body fat (BD-F) and not muscularity (BD-M).

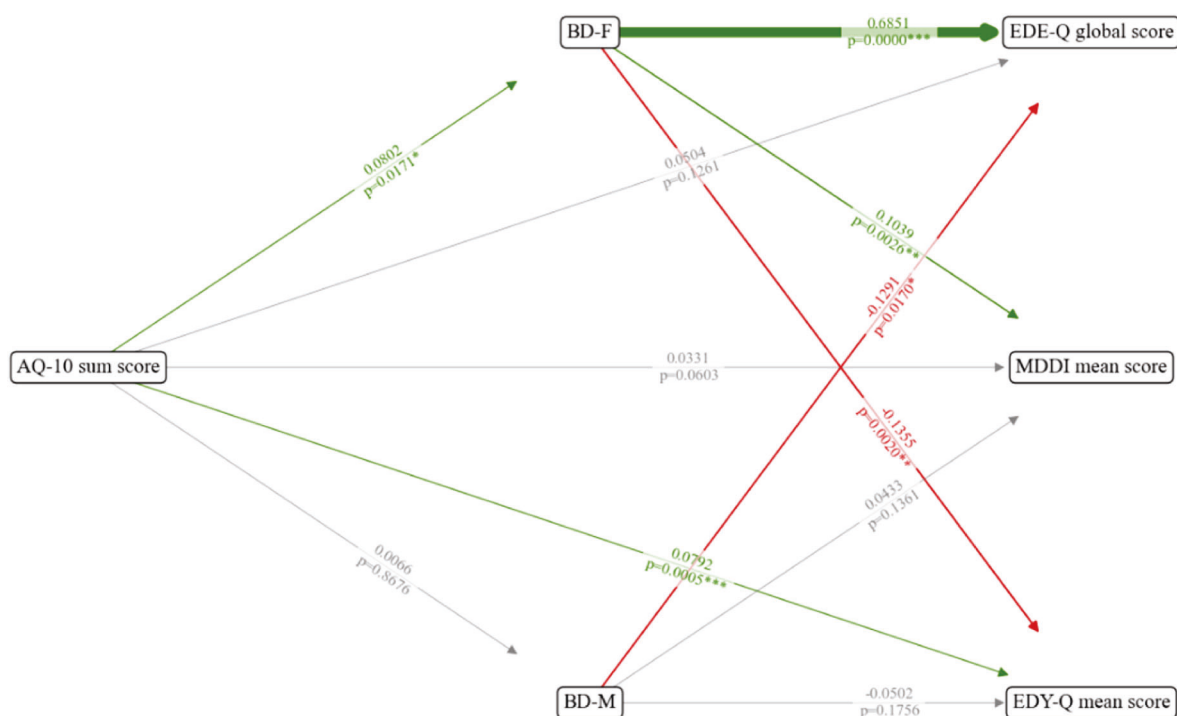
To understand the bivariate associations between autistic traits, body dissatisfaction, and disordered eating, we conducted several mediation analyses, controlling for influences of sexual orientation. Here, we found that only BD-F (and not BD-M) mediated the effect of autistic traits, predicting increased ED and decreased ARFID symptoms. This result could suggest that BD-F might act as a moderator for autistic traits or either lead to increased disordered eating symptoms related to self and weight concerns (in case of higher levels of BD-F) or to increased avoidant-restrictive forms of disordered eating unrelated to body image concerns (in case of lower levels of BD-F). We must note, however, that autistic traits were positively associated with ARFID even after controlling for BD-F (i.e., the direct effect was significant). This suggests that effects on disordered eating are not solely driven by whether autistic traits change BD-F, but possibly by other mediating processes not currently assessed. For example, there may be diagnostic overlaps, such as sensory sensitivity, which is commonly observed in both autism and ARFID and could contribute to selective eating behaviors (Keski-Rahkonen and Ruusunen, 2023).

It is further important to acknowledge the EDE-Q, which we used to assess disordered eating symptoms, is a self-report measure possibly more “female-centric” in terms of the pursuit of an ideal body image (Byrne et al., 2024). Indeed, the BD-M scores (dissatisfaction with muscle size) and the EDE-Q correlated negatively. The EDE-Q’s potential

**Table**  
Kendall's Tau correlation analysis.

	MDDI	MDDI DS	MDDI AI	MDDI FI	EDY-Q	EDY-Q FA	EDY-Q SE	EDY-Q FD	EDE-Q	BD-F	Muscularity-related BD (BD-M)
Autism Spectrum Quotient (AQ-10)	.07	.04	.10*	.02	.14**	.08	.13**	.10*	.10*	.11*	-.02
Muscle Dysmorphic Disorder Inventory (MDDI)	-	.45**	.50**	.51**	.19**	.12**	.09*	.27**	.42**	.21**	-.03
MDDI Drive for Size (DS)	-	-	-.02	.23**	.18**	-.04	.06	.25**	-.03	-.23**	.24**
MDDI Appearance Intolerance (AI)	-	-	-	.11**	.10*	.20**	.11*	.13**	.62**	.53**	-.23**
MDDI Functional Impairment (FI)	-	-	-	-	.10*	.03	.04	.18**	.21**	-.01	-.01
Eating Disorders in Youth-Questionnaire (EDY-Q)	-	-	-	-	-	.38**	.61**	.34**	.07	-.07	-.01
EDY-Q Food Avoidance (FA)	-	-	-	-	-	-	.09*	.10*	.19**	.14**	-.16**
EDY-Q Selective Eating (SE)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.18**	.07	.03	-.04
EDY-Q Functional Dysphagia (FD)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.10*	.03	-.06
Eating Disorder Examination-Questionnaire (EDE-Q)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.52**	-.28**
Body-fat related dissatisfaction (BD-F)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.36**

Notes. Two-sided; \*correlation is significant at the .05 level; \*\*correlation is significant at the .01 level.



**Fig. 1.** Path diagram of mediation analysis.

Notes. Analysis is controlled for sexual orientation (heterosexual vs. non-heterosexual). The nodes in the diagram represent the variables, while the arrows indicate the hypothesized directions of influence. The thickness of the arrows is proportional to the size of the effects, and the labels of the arrows indicate the weights of the direct effects and their significance levels. A significant effect is indicated by weighting with p-value of less than \* = .05, \*\* = .01 or \*\*\* < .001, which indicates statistically significant relationship. Green indicates positive effect, red indicates negative effect, and gray indicates non-significant effect. EDE-Q = Eating Disorder Examination-Questionnaire (Fairburn and Beglin, 2008; Hilbert et al., 2007); EDY-Q = Eating Disorders in Youth-Questionnaire (van Dyck and Hilbert, 2016), MDDI = Muscle Dysmorphic Disorder Inventory (Zeeck et al., 2018), AQ-10 = Autism Spectrum Quotient (Allison et al., 2012); BD-M = Body dissatisfaction related to muscularity; BD-F = Body dissatisfaction related to body fat.

bias could explain why BD-F fully mediated the association of autistic traits and disordered eating in our sample. Furthermore, it is conceivable that BD-F might similarly influence EDE-Q scores in women without autistic traits, given the questionnaire's focus on thin body ideals. This observation underscores the need for careful consideration of how specific measures, like the EDE-Q, may reflect gendered constructs. Thus, autistic traits may predict disordered eating symptoms beyond influences driven by BD-F when using other forms of disordered eating assessment.

Unrelated to autistic traits, we also observed that overall MDDI scores correlated positively with BD-F and not with BD-M. This may

appear surprising, given the close (and observed) associations between BD-M and the MDDI's drive for size subscale. However, the strongest correlations emerged between the MDDI's appearance intolerance subscale and BD-F. This difference in subscales largely explains the difference in the MDDI total score correlations with BD-F and BD-M. I further suggests that women in our sample were appearance intolerant due to body fat-related rather than muscularity dissatisfaction.

Overall, the observed patterns add to our understanding of how autistic traits might relate to disordered eating symptoms. Previous studies suggest interoceptive differences in the context of autism spectrum disorders may lead to aversive reactions to bodily experiences

**Table 3**  
Results of the mediation analysis.

Outcome	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect via Muscularity-Related Body Dissatisfaction (BD-M)	Indirect Effect via Body F-Related Body Dissatisfaction (BD-F)	Total Indirect Effect
EDE-Q global score	0.05, $p = .1261$	<-.01, 95% CI = [-0.01; 0.01]	0.06, 95% CI = [0.01; 0.10]	0.05, 95% CI = [0.01; 0.11]
EDY-Q mean score	<b>0.08</b> , $p < .001$	<-0.01, 95% CI = [-0.01; <0.01]	<b>-0.01</b> , 95% CI = [ <b>-0.02</b> ; <-0.01]	<b>-0.01</b> , 95% CI = [ <b>-0.03</b> ; <-0.01]
MDDI mean score	0.03, $p = .060$	<-0.01, 95% CI = [-0.01; <0.01]	0.01, 95% CI = [<-0.01; 0.02]	0.01, 95% CI = [<-0.01; 0.02]

Notes. Analysis is controlled for sexual orientation (heterosexual vs. non-heterosexual); results in bold are statistically significant; EDE-Q = Eating Disorder Examination-Questionnaire (Fairburn and Beglin, 2008; Hilbert et al., 2007); EDY-Q = Eating Disorders in Youth-Questionnaire (van Dyck and Hilbert, 2016), MDDI = Muscle Dysmorphic Disorder Inventory (Zeeck et al., 2018), AQ-10 = Autism Spectrum Quotient (Allison et al., 2012); CI = confidence interval.

nd us promote increased levels of BD (Trevisan et al., 2021). It is also possible that one’s body fat could be more noticeable in terms of bodily sensations, such as how clothes fit, which could also explain the stronger link to BD-F (compared to BD-M). Autistic traits have also been linked to externally-oriented thinking and emotion processing deficits (Oakley et al., 2022), which previous studies found to explain increased disordered eating symptoms (Moseley et al., 2023). The present findings suggest that women with autistic traits may also be more susceptible to internalizing socially perpetuated body ideals or to social feedback towards their appearance, especially stereotypically “female-typed” BD-F, but not “male-typed” dissatisfaction with muscularity (BD-M) mediated the link between autistic traits and disordered eating. In other words, the association with BD-F could indicate that autistic traits in women are more closely linked to concerns about overall body size rather than specific muscle definition. Although muscularity is becoming more emphasized in female beauty standards (Roberts et al., 2022), our findings indicate that societal pressures to be thin may still have a stronger impact on disordered eating behaviors in women with higher autistic traits.

Moreover, our findings may also be relevant for the treatment of EDs. Although autistic traits were generally predictive of increased disordered eating symptoms, specific symptoms emerged only in combination with BD-F. While high levels of BD-F were linked to increased disordered eating symptoms, avoidant-restrictive symptoms emerged in combination with low BD-F. Thus, clinicians may be advised to consider autistic traits in conjunction with body image to derive more precise clinical hypotheses about patient’s ED.

4.2. Limitations and future directions

The interpretation of our findings is subject to limitations. First, the cross-sectional nature of our study limits causal inferences about the direction of the observed effects. Whether autistic traits causally promote BD and, as a result, disordered eating needs to be investigated in future longitudinal studies. In addition, there may be biases due to self-reported data and the lack of assessment of whether an ASD diagnosis and/or other mental disorders were present. Recent studies also expressed concerns regarding the psychometric properties of the used screening instrument for autistic traits (the AQ-10) in non-clinical populations (Taylor et al., 2020), suggesting a need for replication using different assessments. Our study also does not account for

lower self-esteem may impact women with autistic traits, despite the fact that low self-esteem may be a significant issue in this population (Brede et al., 2020). Finally, the extent to which our findings could be generalized to further populations remains an empirical question. We thus far only included women. Even though women and girls comprise the majority of people with EDs, autistic traits and ASDs are more prevalent in boys (Piccini et al., 2018). The mediating role of different aspects of BD in explaining disordered eating symptoms in men with autistic traits therefore needs to be further explored in future studies. We must also note that people with clinically relevant, diagnosed ASDs, neurodevelopmental disorder (Kerr-Gaffney et al., 2020), often misperceive their body size (Asada et al., 2018) or may also exhibit a lack of concern about body image, which can act as a protective factor (Brede et al., 2020). Notably, BD-F appears to function as a moderating factor, shaping whether autistic traits are more likely to result in common EDs or in ARFID, a distinction that carries significant implications for clinical practice. Consequently, future research should prioritize examining these mechanisms within clinical populations to refine our understanding of the inferential pathway.

5. Conclusion

BD in individuals with autistic traits could be crucial for diverse disordered eating symptoms and potentially affect other areas of mental health (e.g., anxiety and depression) as well. Our findings highlight the complex relationship between autistic traits, body image concerns, and disordered eating in women, emphasizing the need for a nuanced understanding of disordered eating in this population.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Nora M. Laskowski: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Software, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation. Vanessa C. Jürgensen: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Data curation, Conceptualization. Martin S. Lehe: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. Georg Halbeisen: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Validation, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. Georgios Paslakis: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Validation, Supervision, Resources, Methodology, Conceptualization.

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have influenced the work reported in this paper.

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