

Does cosmetic surgery improve psychosocial wellbeing?

David J Castle, Roberta J Honigman and Katharine A Phillips

COSMETIC ENHANCEMENT is on the rise. More and more people report being unhappy with their appearance. In a 1997 US survey, 56% of women and 43% of men reported dissatisfaction with their overall appearance.¹ Paralleling this trend, an increasing number of both men and women are resorting to cosmetic procedures. Figures provided by the American Society for Aesthetic Plastic Surgery reveal that cosmetic procedures (surgical and non-surgical) performed by plastic surgeons, dermatologists and otolaryngologists increased 119% between 1997 and 1999.² In 1999, more than 4.6 million such procedures were performed, with the top five being chemical peels (18.3% of the total), botulinum toxin A injection (10.8%), laser hair removal (10.5%), collagen injection (10.3%), and sclerotherapy (9.0%). Rhinoplasties were performed on 102 943 people (2.2% of the total number of procedures), and there were 100 203 facelifts (2.2%), 191 583 breast augmentation procedures (4.2%) and 89 769 breast reductions (1.9%).² Systematic Australian data are not readily available, as there is no central registry or reporting requirements. Furthermore, such procedures are performed by a variety of different practitioners, including cosmetic physicians, dermatologists, and plastic surgeons.

As people generally seek cosmetic interventions to feel better about themselves, one would anticipate that cosmetically successful procedures would lead to enhanced self-esteem, mood, and social confidence. While studies spanning four decades have reported that most people undergoing cosmetic interventions are satisfied with the result,^{3,4} what has been less studied is the outcome in psychosocial terms. Clinicians and researchers have attempted over the years to evaluate whether improvement in psychosocial wellbeing following cosmetic enhancement can be objectively verified, but few methodologically robust studies have been done.

We reviewed the literature on psychosocial outcomes following cosmetic surgery, using *MEDLINE*, *PsychLit*, *PubMed*, *PsychINFO*, *Sociological Abstracts*, *Social Work*

ABSTRACT

- Both men and women are becoming increasingly concerned about their physical appearance and are seeking cosmetic enhancement.
- Most studies report that people are generally happy with the outcome of cosmetic procedures, but little rigorous evaluation has been done.
- More extensive ("type change") procedures (eg, rhinoplasty) appear to require greater psychological adjustment by the patient than "restorative" procedures (eg, face-lift).
- Patients who have unrealistic expectations of outcome are more likely to be dissatisfied with cosmetic procedures.
- Some people are never satisfied with cosmetic interventions, despite good procedural outcomes. Some of these have a psychiatric disorder called "body dysmorphic disorder".

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Abstracts, Proquest 5000, Web of Science and CINAHL. Using the search terms "cosmetic surgery", "plastic surgery", "patient assessment", "body awareness", "body image" and "body dysmorphic disorder", we identified 36 studies of varying design and quality. Most were investigations of patients undergoing a specific procedure, including rhinoplasty (12 studies), breast augmentation (7 studies), breast reduction (5 studies) and face-lift (3 studies), while other studies encompassed a variety of interventions. Follow-up intervals for testing of psychosocial outcomes ranged from immediately postoperative to 10 years after the procedure (in one study). Only 11 studies formally included a control group⁵⁻¹⁵ — these are shown in the Box. Other studies have used normative data from general population samples, which may not be appropriate as reference data.

Positive effects

Overall, the studies suggest that most patients were pleased with the outcome and felt better about themselves. This was particularly the case for women undergoing reduction mammoplasty. Domains of functioning showing improvement included "self worth", "self esteem", "distress and shyness" and "quality of life". However, many of these studies have methodological limitations, including small sample sizes and potentially biased ascertainment. Arguably, patients who agree to participate in such research, and oblige with pre- and post-intervention interviews, represent a biased group, but none of the studies estimated the extent of such potential bias. Furthermore, clinical interviews are poten-

See also pages 569, 576 and 597

Mental Health Research Institute, and University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC.

David J Castle, MSc, MD, FRANZCP, Professorial Fellow.

School of Social Work, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, VIC.

Roberta J Honigman, BComm, BSocWork, Grad Dip Conflict Resolution, Social Worker.

Body Dysmorphic Disorder Program, Brown University School of Medicine, and Butler Hospital, Providence, RI, USA.

Katharine A Phillips, MD, Director.

Reprints: Professor David J Castle, Mental Health Research Institute, 155 Oak Street, Parkville, VIC 3052.

dcastle@mhri.edu.au

Controlled studies of psychosocial outcomes from plastic surgical interventions

| Author(s) | Study objective | Procedure | Sex (mean age) | Study design | Control group | Scales used | Follow-up period | Outcome | Factors associated with poor outcomes |
|----------------------------------|--|---|--------------------------|---|---|---|---------------------------|--|---|
| Edgerton et al ⁵ | To survey patients requesting surgery to ageing face | Face-lift and blepharoplasty | 8 M, 64 F (48 years) | Cross-sectional | 7 patients age-matched to 7 of 8 patients selected to undergo psychological testing | Rorschach, JSC, TAT (only 8 patients had psychological testing) | 2 months to 10 years | 86% reported improved sense of wellbeing | Age under 40 |
| Wright and Wright ⁶ | To study personality characteristics of people seeking cosmetic surgery, and degree of change in personality traits after the procedure | Rhinoplasty | 90 M and F (30 years) | Longitudinal (only 25 patients followed up) | 25 non-cosmetic surgical patients | MMPI | 18-24 months | No major personality change; improved self-concept; socially more self-assured | Psychosis; neurosis; decisional discrepancies with partner; personality disorder (narcissism) |
| Shipley et al ⁷ | To examine the effect of breast augmentation on psychosocial functioning | Augmentation mammoplasty | 19 F (30.5 years) | Retrospective | 20 small-breasted women and 19 average-breasted women | CPI, ZSSET, DPAQ | 3 months | Improved body image; no effects on personality or self-concept. | |
| Marcus ⁸ | To examine the psychiatric status of patients having rhinoplasty | Rhinoplasty | 5 M, 15 F (23 years) | Longitudinal | 25 dental patients (18 M) | SJBOS, ADS, SES | 3 months | 90% pleased with surgical outcome; increased ability to enjoy life; increased social confidence | |
| Hueston et al ⁹ | To construct a psychological profile of cosmetic surgery patients and make a longitudinal evaluation of effects of surgery on psychosocial functioning | Augmentation and reduction mammoplasty, face lift, blepharoplasty, abdominoplasty | 169 M and F (35 years) | Longitudinal | 53 hand surgery patients | MHQ, LEQ, SAS, LCS, RSES | 3 months | Psychosocial functioning of patients in both groups (aesthetic procedures, hand surgery) improved | |
| Beale et al ¹⁰ | To determine whether it is possible to predict which women will benefit most from augmentation mammoplasty | Augmentation mammoplasty | 61 F (age unspecified) | Subsample (n = 39) followed longitudinally | 28 women from general population | CMPS | 12 months | Personality testing is useful in predicting which women will benefit from the operation; 78% were satisfied with outcome | Psychiatric problems; unrealistic expectations; patients using surgery to "save relationship" |
| Hollyman et al ¹¹ | To examine body perception before and after reduction mammoplasty | Reduction mammoplasty | 11 F (22.4 years) | Longitudinal | 19 women not seeking surgery | CCEI, body perception apparatus, visual analogue scales | At 2, 8, 16, and 26 weeks | Post-surgery relief of psychological distress; improved body image | |
| Meyer and Ringberg ¹² | To study preoperative personality, psychosocial and psychiatric characteristics | Augmentation mammoplasty | 38 F (38.4 years) | Longitudinal | 33 female surgical outpatients | CMPS, MNT | 1 year | 86% satisfied, and social and psychological expectations fulfilled | Unspecified personality characteristics |
| Robin et al ¹³ | To assess the psychological status of rhinoplasty patients | Rhinoplasty | 31 M and F (25.8 years) | Longitudinal | 31 matched controls | FAST, GHQ, RMFS | 6 months | Marked reduction in psychiatric symptom scores (controls showed no change) | |
| Klassen et al ¹⁴ | To assess health status before and after breast reduction surgery | Reduction mammoplasty | 166 F (30.5 years) | Longitudinal | General population sample | SF 36, RSES, GHQ 28 | 6 months | Improvement in psychological wellbeing post-operatively; 86% highly satisfied with outcome | |
| Klassen et al ¹⁵ | To assess health status after a variety of cosmetic interventions | Various cosmetic procedures | 198 M and F (32.6 years) | Longitudinal | General population sample | SF 36, GHQ 28, RSES | 6 months | Majority pleased with outcome; gains in psychological, social and physical function | |

ADS = Anxiety and Depression Scale. CCEI = Crown-Crisp Experimental Index. CMPS = Cesarec-Marle Personality Schedule. CPI = California Psychological Inventory. DPAQ = Dress, Popularity and Activity Questionnaire. FAST = Facial Appearance Sorting Test. GHQ = General Health Questionnaire. JSC = Johns Sentence Completion. LCS = Locus of Control Scale. LEQ = Life Events Questionnaire. MHQ = Middlesex Hospital Questionnaire. MMPI = Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. MNT = Marke-Nyman Test. RMFS = Rochford Masculinity/Femininity Scale. RSES = Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. SAS = Social Adjustment Scale. SES = Self-Esteem Scale. SF 36 = Short Form 36 health survey. SJBOS = Second-Jourard Body Cathexis Scale. TAT = Thematic Apperception Test. ZSSET = Ziller Social Self-Esteem Test.

tially subject to bias on the part of both the respondent and the interviewer, and very few studies employed “blind” raters. Of particular concern is that not all studies used valid assessment instruments, which hampered the interpretation of results. Finally, most studies evaluated very specific procedures, and it is unclear how generalisable their results are to other types of cosmetic intervention.

Predicting poor psychosocial outcomes

What has been even less rigorously examined is the question of what factors are associated with an unsatisfactory psychosocial outcome after cosmetic procedures. Few of the studies we reviewed formally dealt with this issue. Factors identified with unsatisfactory outcomes included being male, being young, suffering from depression or anxiety, and having a personality disorder. However, such parameters have not been studied in a rigorous manner.² Other authors have suggested that the nature and degree of surgical change is an important predictor of outcome: more extensive (“type change”) procedures (eg, rhinoplasty, breast augmentation) are more likely to result in serious body-image disturbance than “restorative” procedures (eg, face-lift, botulinum toxin A injection).¹⁶ The extent of changes in sensation following the procedure (eg, a feeling of skin tightening after a face-lift, or loss of nipple sensation after breast augmentation) may also influence psychological outcome, with greater degrees of sensory disturbance making adjustment to the procedure more difficult.¹⁷

The patient’s expectation of the outcome of the procedure also appears to be important. It has been suggested that a distinction can usefully be made between expectations regarding the self (eg, to improve body image) and expectations relating to external factors (eg, enhancement of social network, establishing a relationship, getting a job).² Some evidence points to externally directed expectations being of more concern — if the person views the procedure as a panacea for his or her life problems, the outcome is more likely to be poor.¹⁸

Cosmetic surgery and body dysmorphic disorder

There is a particular subgroup of people who appear to respond poorly to cosmetic procedures. These are people with the psychiatric disorder known as “body dysmorphic disorder” (BDD). BDD is characterised by a preoccupation with an objectively absent or minimal deformity that causes clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other areas of functioning.² People with this disorder obsess about the perceived defect, usually for hours each day. The belief of imagined ugliness is often held with delusional conviction.¹⁹ In an attempt to alleviate their distress, sufferers may seek reassurance from others, check their appearance repeatedly in the mirror or other reflecting surfaces, pick their skin and try to conceal the “defect” through use of concealing clothing, wigs, makeup, hats, and so on.²⁰ These patients constitute 6%–15% of patients seen

in cosmetic surgery settings^{21,22} and about 12% of patients seen in dermatology settings.²³

For several reasons, it is important to recognise BDD in cosmetic surgery settings. Firstly, it appears that cosmetic procedures are rarely beneficial for these people. Most patients with BDD who have had a cosmetic procedure report that it was unsatisfactory and did not diminish concerns about their appearance.^{24,25} Some patients resort to legal redress or are even violent towards the treating physician.^{26,27} Secondly, BDD is a treatable disorder. Serotonin-reuptake inhibitors and cognitive behaviour therapy have been shown to be effective in about two-thirds of patients with BDD.²

Approach to the patient seeking cosmetic surgery

So, how is the cosmetic specialist to ascertain who will do poorly in psychosocial terms despite an objectively successful procedure? The literature is not terribly useful in guiding us, but certain commonsense assumptions can be made. First, the individual’s attitude towards the cosmetic problem, and the distress and disability associated with it, should be assessed. In particular, the cosmetic specialist needs to determine whether the patient has BDD.²⁸ This can be done by assessing whether the perceived defect is non-existent or slight and enquiring as to the amount of time spent each day worrying about the problem, how much distress thinking about it causes, and whether there is any resulting functional impairment (eg, social avoidance). If the patient reports being preoccupied with the perceived flaw (eg, thinking about it for at least an hour a day), and if the concern with the flaw causes marked distress or impaired functioning, BDD is likely to be present. Similarly, if the cosmetic specialist perceives the patient’s cosmetic problem to be much more trivial than the patient believes it to be, suspicion should be aroused. It is also illuminating to assess the patient’s expectations of the outcome of the proposed procedure in both cosmetic and psychosocial terms. Patients should be advised of what the cosmetic outcome is likely to be and fully informed of potential side effects and complications.

It is also useful to review past cosmetic interventions, including the number of previous procedures and their cosmetic and psychosocial outcome as perceived by the patient as well as family and friends. The cosmetic specialist should probably be most concerned about people who have had numerous procedures performed by many practitioners, and particularly those who report the outcome of such procedures to have been unsatisfactory. Any history of legal proceedings or threats or overt violence towards previous cosmetic specialists should obviously be considered very worrisome.

A patient’s psychiatric history and current mental state should also be examined. Merely having or having had a mental illness should not of itself preclude cosmetic procedures. However, the cosmetic specialist should be aware that certain psychiatric conditions can present with heightened concern about appearance, which might resolve with ade-

quate psychiatric treatment.² For example, cosmetic procedures should probably not be performed on people who are depressed or psychotic or who have BDD. Referral of such patients to a mental health professional is strongly recommended.

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book review

Be warned — this book may change your life

Decision making in health and medicine. Integrating evidence and values. M G Myriam Hunink, Paul P Glasziou, Joanna E Siegel et al. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001 (xvi + 388 pp, \$99). ISBN 0 521 77029 7.

LIKE THE PRACTICE of medicine itself, this book is not for the faint-hearted. Not because it is difficult to read or to understand, but because, unless you are already skilled in decision analysis, you will find it new, thought provoking and rigorous. The consequences of embracing its message are profound.

Its fundamental premiss is that medicine (defined in its broadest sense to cover clinical medicine, population research, policy development and health management) is about uncertainty and the need to make decisions despite this uncertainty. For example, you have just diagnosed a 58-year-old man with atrial fibrillation. If you prescribe warfarin you can reduce his risk of embolic stroke by 70%, but this benefit comes at the price of an increased risk of haemorrhage, and the need for regular blood tests and avoidance of activities that increase his risk of injury. How do you weigh up the probabilities and incorporate into the decision your patient's individual values about what is important to him?

This book presents an approach and a handful of tools for making complex, value-laden decisions such as this. The approach, PROACTIVE, is adapted from a generic approach to decision making. As the authors say, one of its greatest strengths is that it requires you to make the decision-making process transparent. By carefully outlining your decision, viewing it from other perspectives and considering what the important objectives are, the best decision may become readily apparent without having to go any further.

If you need to work quantitatively with probabilistic data, to make trade-offs between benefits and risks (or length of life versus quality of life, or costs versus benefits), and to incorporate people's values and preferences, the book provides detailed guidance on the tools that are available. It takes the novice from a definition of a probability and a proportion all the way to advanced microsimulation modelling.

Decision making in health and medicine updates the 1980 book *Clinical decision analysis*. It has a broader framework, and covers population health decision-making. It also includes more information on diagnostic testing, methods for measuring and incorporating quality-of-life measures and newer approaches to modelling. To support it, there is an accompanying CD-ROM with solutions to exercises, decision-analytic software, examples of decision-analytic models using the software, spreadsheets and references with abstracts. It is an extraordinarily ambitious book that achieves its aim.

Alexandra L Barratt

Epidemiologist, University of Sydney, NSW

Plastic surgery is a medical speciality which amongst others includes reconstructive surgery and cosmetic surgery. According to the American Society of Plastic Surgeons (ASPS), reconstructive surgery is generally performed to improve functions, but may also be done to approximate a normal appearance, whereas cosmetic surgery intends to reshape normal structures of the body in order to improve appearance. A key feature in any kind of plastic surgery is to achieve an optimal aesthetic result. Does bariatric surgery improve ovarian stimulation. characteristics, oocyte yield, or embryo quality? Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the ...
To construct a psychological profile of cosmetic surgery patients and make a longitudinal evaluation of effects of surgery on psychosocial functioning. To determine whether it is possible Augmentation to predict which women will benefit mammoplasty most from augmentation mammoplasty. Hueston et al9. {The popularity of cosmetic surgery is expanding more than ever before and as it booms consistently, a number of psychologists are anticipat...
For instance, they can assist cosmetic surgeons to distinguish patients who may find it difficult to make the necessary psychological or psychosocial adjustments after cosmetic surgery.} {Do patients who have undergone cosmetic surgery feel better after the procedure?|Many people do end up feeling good about themselves after seeing how much better they look after cosmetic surgery.|Does cosmetic surgery improve psychosocial well-being?|How do cosmetic surgery procedures affect patients psychologically?}