Look @ Me 2.0: Self-Sexualization in Facebook

Photographs, Self-Objectification, and Body Image

By Lindsay M. Ruckel

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts in Psychology

The Department of Psychology

The State University of New York at New Paltz

New Paltz, New York

December 2012

Notice: Signature Page Not Included

This thesis has been signed and approved by the appropriate parties.

The signature page has been removed from this digital version for privacy reasons.

The signature page is maintained as part of the official version of the thesis in print that is kept in Special Collections of Sojourner Truth Library at SUNY New Paltz.

Abstract

Growing attention has been paid to examining people's self-presentation on Social Networking Sites (SNSs). To date, one study has explored the extent to which women present themselves in a sexualized way in their profile photographs on SNSs. SNSs provide a unique opportunity for self-sexualization, or the presentation of one's body in a sexually objectifying way for others' evaluation. The current study tested the relationship between women's self-objectification and their self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs. This work also investigated how self-sexualization relates to body image satisfaction, internalization of the "thin ideal", and how contingent self-worth is on appearance. Facebook profile photographs of 100 women, ranging from 18-49 years old were coded for self-sexualization. Results suggested that women who reported higher levels of self-objectification and who identified more strongly with the appearance-contingency of self-worth were more likely to self-sexualize in their Facebook profile photographs. However, no relationship was found between self-sexualization and internalization of the "thin ideal" or body image satisfaction. Potential implications and directions for future research are explored.

Keywords: objectification, sexualization, social networking, body image, Facebook

Look @ Me 2.0: Self-Sexualization in Facebook

Photographs, Self-Objectification and Body Image

In Western society, women are often treated as sexual objects to be valued for the

pleasure of others without regard to their inner persons (see Moradi & Huang, 2008 for a

review). Objectification Theory (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997) proposes that sexual

objectification occurs when a woman's body and/or body parts are separated from her person and

are primarily viewed as a physical object for the male's gaze and sexual desires. Sexual

objectification is communicated through many sources of media (e.g., television, magazines) as

well as everyday interpersonal interactions via cat-calls and harassing comments (e.g., Kilbourne

& Jhally, 2000; Swim, Hyers, Cohen, & Ferguson, 2001). Empirical evidence has supported

Objectification Theory's assertions and has revealed that women are sexually objectified in the

Western media to a greater extent than men (e.g., Fredrickson, Roberts, Noll, Quinn, & Twenge,

1998; Hatton & Trautner, 2011; Lanis, & Covell, 1995; McKinley & Hyde, 1996; Noll &

Frederickson, 1998; Plous & Neptune, 1997; Reichert, 2003; Reichert, Lambiase, Morgan,

Carstarphen, & Zavoina, 1999; Soley & Kurzbard, 1986; Stankiewicz & Rosselli, 2008).

In addition, Objectification Theory has been used to explain the development of body

image dissatisfaction in women. Fredrickson and Robertson (1997) propose that continuously

being sexually objectified can lead women to self-objectify, causing them to internalize an

outsider's perspective on their own bodies and to view it as an object for others' physical

pleasure. Self-objectification is related to an increased state of self-consciousness regarding the

appearance of one's body (i.e., body monitoring) (Greenleaf, 2005; McKinley, 1999). Body

monitoring and self-objectification have been linked to several negative outcomes such as body

image dissatisfaction, eating disorders, depression, and sexual dysfunction (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Fredrickson et al., 1998; McKinley & Hyde, 1996; Noll & Frederickson, 1998).

Self-objectification can lead females to purposefully put their own bodies on display for others' evaluation (i.e., self-sexualization). According to the American Psychological Association's (APA) Task Force on the Sexualization of Young Girls, self-sexualization occurs when one of the following is present: 1) a female considers her self-worth as dependent on her sexuality, 2) a female judges her sexual attractiveness through a narrowly -defined and socially-constructed beauty ideal (e.g., the thin ideal body type), or 3) a female views herself an object to be used and evaluated by others' (i.e., self-objectification).

Along with self-objectification, greater media exposure to the thin and sexualized female body type, or the "thin ideal" plays a role in women's body image dissatisfaction (Grabe, Ward, & Hyde, 2008; Lin, & Reid, 2009; Monro, & Huon, 2005; Owen & Laurel-Seller, 2000; Tylka & Subich, 2004). However, exposure alone does not predict whether a woman will experience body image dissatisfaction. The extent to which one internalizes, or accepts the Western media's ideas regarding physical attractiveness plays a crucial role in whether a woman will experience body image dissatisfaction (Dittmar, Halliwell & Stirling, 2009; Engeln-Maddox, 2005; Heinberg, Thompson, & Stormer, 1995; Thompson, Roehrig, Guarda, & Heinberg, 2004; Thompson, & Stice, 2001). Women who internalize the thin ideal body type are more likely to report dieting to lose weight, disordered eating, and body image dissatisfaction (Dittmar & Howard, 2004; Grabe et al., 2008; Tiggemann, Polivy, & Hargreaves, 2009; Vartanian, 2009).

Staking self-worth on physical appearance, based on the Western media's unattainable thin body ideal could be detrimental. Introduced by Crocker and Wolfe (2001), contingencies of self-worth are domains in which self-worth can be externally or internally validated.

Understanding self-esteem from a contingencies of self-worth (CSW) perspective can provide a more accurate portrayal of self-esteem because it accounts for the different ways in which failures or successes can impact a person based on domain (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001). In a recent study, women whose self-worth was contingent on their appearance reported greater body surveillance (Overstreet & Quinn, 2012). Additionally, self-worth validated by physical appearance and/or body weight is associated with body weight/shape anxieties, depression, and lower life satisfaction (Clabaugh, Karpinksi, & Griffin, 2008; Grossbard, Lee, Neighbors, & Larimer, 2009).

Some researchers have been investigating the roles of appearance contingency of self-worth and self-sexualization in Social networking site (SNS) photo sharing behaviors (e.g., Hall, West, & McIntyre, 2012; Stefanone & Lackaff, 2009; Stefanone, Lackaff, & Rosen, 2011). SNSs have an estimated 100 million users between them, the bulk of which are adolescents and emerging adults (e.g., Boyd & Ellison, 2007; Lenhart, 2009; McAndrew & Jeong, 2012). Because SNSs allow individuals to carefully select personal photographs and information to share, these sites provide novel opportunities for self-presentation and the ability to easily manage the impressions made on others in their online social network (both concepts introduce by Goffman, 1959) (e.g., Dominick, 1999; Krämer & Winter, 2008). SNSs may also provide a space for individuals who are generally more inclined to view themselves as a sexual object to be evaluated by others (i.e., self-objectify) to display themselves in a more sexualized way (i.e., self-sexualization) in their online profile photographs. Similarly, it may present an opportunity for individuals whose self-worth is contingent on their appearance to share sexualized photographs of themselves in an attempt to validate the physical appearance contingency.

Two studies were conducted to investigate the relationships between gender and appearance contingency of self-worth and photo sharing, size of online networks, and maintenance of profile's appearance and data (Stefanone & Lackaff, 2009; Stefanone, Lackaff, & Rosen, 2011). Findings from both studies indicated that women shared more photographs online than men. Additionally, results of the 2011 study showed that compared to men, women spent more time updating their profiles and more often reported that their self-worth was contingent on their appearance. Regardless of gender, those individuals whose self-worth was more contingent on appearance took part in more online photo sharing (Stefanone et al., 2011).

Despite the research on SNSs, only one study examined self-sexualization in SNS personal profile photographs (Hall, West, & McIntyre, 2012). Hall et al. (2012) analyzed self-sexualization in the MySpace profile photographs of women. Three sexualization scales from gender and advertisement research were combined to create the scale used by Hall et al. (2012) (Goffman, 1979; Kang, 1997; Krassas, Blauwkamp, & Wesselink, 2003). From Goffman's (1979) scale, "ritualization of subordination" was included to reflect the extent to which the participant was displayed in a subordinate position (e.g., lying down, bent over, etc.). Secondly, the degree of nudity/coverage of the MySpace user was coded (e.g., swimsuit, revealing clothing, etc.) using Kang's (1997) classification of "body display". Originally employed in the Krassas et al. (2003) study, the third classification called "head/body exposure" was defined as the extent to which the head/face and/or body/body parts of the MySpace user in the photographs were exposed or covered. The more the body/body parts were a focus rather than the face in the photo, the more the body was viewed as a sexual object. Hall et al.'s (2012) primary purpose was exploratory in nature: to pinpoint any existing differences between various groups in self-sexualization. The study examined differences based on age, ethnicity, education, body type, and

sexual orientation. Overall, sexualization scores were low. Data demonstrated that ritualization of subordination scores (displaying one's self in subordinate position) were higher among Hispanics, average body types, and bisexual women. In addition, objectification and body display (greater nudity) were higher for Black and Hispanic women, along with bisexuals and those women who had a higher level of education. Body display was lower for those of larger body types and degree of body exposure was less for lesbians.

This exploratory study stimulated interesting questions regarding cultural differences in displays of self-sexualization in SNS photographs. Being that the overall self-sexualization scores were low in the study, further investigation is needed with another sample to test whether self-sexualization is generally minimal on MySpace or was particularly minimal for Hall et al.'s (2012) sample of women. In addition, it may be beneficial to evaluate self-sexualization with another measure to assure that the full variability of self-sexualization is captured. Further, it may be important to examine the relationship between self-sexualization in online personal profile photographs and women's self-objectification because self-sexualization has been conceptualized as theoretically linked to self-objectification (e.g., Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; American Psychological Association, Task Force on Sexualization of Girls, 2007).

The current study addresses the lack of research on self-sexualization in SNSs by further examining self-sexualization of women's Facebook profile photographs. This work also builds on previous self-sexualization research done by Hall et al., (2012), but accounts for the role that self-objectification may play in women's self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs. The primary goal of this study was to test the relationship between women's self-objectification and their self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs. The second aim of this work was to further expand the existing literature on body image by investigating

whether self-sexualization in Facebook profile photographs was related to body image satisfaction and internalization of the "thin ideal." Thirdly, this research extends Stefanone and colleagues' (2011) work on appearance contingency of self-worth and women's photo sharing by measuring whether self-sexualzation in Facebook profile photographs was related to the appearance-related contingency of self-worth.

Four primary hypotheses were tested:

1) Based on the report by the APA Task Force (2007) stating that self-objectification may lead to self-sexualization, it was hypothesized that women with higher levels of self-objectification would have a higher degree of self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs than those with lower levels of self-objectification.

2) Because empirical evidence has demonstrated that there is a relationship between internalization of "thin ideal", and self-objectification (e.g., Morry & Staska, 2001), it was hypothesized that women who report greater internalization of the "thin ideal" would exhibit more self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs than those who report lower levels of internalization.

3) Prior research has shown that self-objectification is associated with body image dissatisfaction (e.g., McKinley & Hyde, 1996; see Moradi, & Huang, 2008 for a review). Additionally, research has suggested a relationship between self-objectification and self-sexualization (McKinley & Hyde, 1996; see Moradi & Huang, 2008 for a review) Based on this literature, it was hypothesized that women with less body image satisfaction (feeling more dissatisfied with their bodies) would display more self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs than those who report more body image satisfaction (feeling more satisfied with their bodies).

4) Previous studies on contingencies of self-worth have suggested that if person's self-worth is highly contingent on his/her appearance, he/she will seek to validate this contingency to protect self-esteem in their external world (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001). Thus, the posting of self-sexualized photographs on Facebook may be a method to validate one's physical appearance through other Facebook users' positive comments about one's photographs (e.g., "You look great!"). Therefore, it was hypothesized that women whose self-worth was highly contingent on their appearance would display more self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs than women whose self-worth was less contingent on their physical appearance.

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited through a Facebook advertisement and via email from a North-Eastern liberal arts public university. A total of 217 women completed the initial on-line survey. One hundred out of these 217 women proceeded with the Facebook photo-sharing portion of the study and comprised the final sample for this study. The final sample was composed of: 86.4% Caucasian, 5% Native American/American Indian, 4.1% Multi-racial, 3.2% Hispanic, 2.3% Black/African American, and 1.8% Asian/Pacific Islander heterosexual women who ranged in age from 18 to 49 years (M=22.50, SD=4.37). (See Appendix A for full demographics questionnaire).

Data was initially collected from non-heterosexual women with the possibility of obtaining enough non-heterosexual participants for analysis. However, the final sample was limited to heterosexuals for two reasons: 1) the number of non-heterosexual women was small (17 participants), and 2) there is the potential confound of sexual attraction; women presenting profile photographs to attract women may select different profile photographs than those trying

to attract men. Therefore, to be included in the final analyses, participants had to consent, be a heterosexual woman, at least 18 years of age, with a minimum of 10 Facebook profile photographs.

Measures

Internalization of the "Thin Ideal" was evaluated using the general internalization subscale of the Sociocultural Attitudes Toward Appearance Questionnaire-Version 3 (SATAQ-V3) (Thompson, van den Berg, Roehrig, Guarda, & Heinberg, 2004). This scale represents the third version of the original Sociocultural Attitudes Toward Appearance Questionnaire (SATAQ) (Heinberg, Coughlin, Pinto, Haug, Brode, & Guarda, 1995; Cusumano & Thompson, 1997). The SATAQ-3 measures societal influences on body image and disordered eating. It is a 30-item scale scored on a 5-point likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree) with 8 items reverse scored. The four subscales assess: general internalization, athlete-oriented internalization, societal pressures, and information regarding media presented ideals.

To address the current research questions, the 9-item general internalization subscale from the SATAQ-3 was used; these questions measure the extent to which women internalize the Western media's messages about physical attractiveness and the thin ideal body type. Two items are reverse score and sample items from this subscale include: "I've felt pressure from TV or magazines to lose weight" and "I compare my appearance to the appearance of TV and movie stars". In prior studies (e.g., Heinberg et al., 2008), Cronbach's alpha was satisfactory at .88. In the current study, the overall Cronbach's alpha of the measure was .95. Cronbach's alpha for the general internalization subscale was .93 (See Appendix B).

Body Image Satisfaction was assessed using a 34-item version of the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire-Appearance Subscale (MBSRQ-AS; Cash, 2000). The scale

measures appearance evaluation (feeling satisfied/dissatisfied with one's body), appearance orientation (degree of investment in one's appearance), overweight preoccupation (dieting, eating restraint, anxiety surrounding gaining weight), body areas satisfaction scale (satisfaction/dissatisfaction with specific aspects or areas of one's body), and self-classified weight (perception of one's weight such as under or overweight).

For the present study, both the appearance-evaluation subscale and the body areas satisfaction scales were used to measure the construct of body image satisfaction. The appearance-evaluation subscale consisted of 7 items measuring feelings of physical attractiveness or unattractiveness and satisfaction or dissatisfaction with one's physical appearance. Two items were reverse scored and sample items include: "My body is physically unattractive" (reverse-scored) and "I like my looks just the way they are". A higher score is reflective of more body image satisfaction and more positive feelings about one's appearance; a lower score is indicative of less body image satisfaction and negative feelings about one's appearance. The body areas satisfaction subscale includes a list of parts and aspects of the body and requires participants to indicate how dissatisfied they are with those individual body parts or aspects separately (1=very dissatisfied, 5=very satisfied). A total of 9 areas of the body are listed and examples include: face, weight, height, and muscle tone. Higher scores are indicative of more overall satisfaction with areas of one's body and lower scores suggest more dissatisfaction with areas of one's body. In the present work, Cronbach's alphas were satisfactory for both subscales at .90 and .81, respectively. In general, Cronbach's alpha ranges from .75 to .90 for all subscales in female samples (Cash, 2000). (See Appendix C).

Appearance Contingency of Self-Worth was assessed using the appearance subscale of the Contingencies of Self-Worth (CSW) scale developed by Crocker and Wolfe (2001).

Contingencies of self-worth are defined as domains in which self-worth can be externally or internally validated. The domain the individual decides to stake his/her self-worth on will influence his/her behavior, and depending on where the validation is placed, this behavior could either have costs or benefits to self-esteem. The CSW scale is a 35-item measure that measures all seven contingencies of worth: approval, appearance, competition, academic achievement, family support, virtue, and God's love.

The appearance contingency subscale was the primary subscale used in the current study. It consists of 5 items with 2 items reverse-scored using a 7-item likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 4=neutral, 7 =strongly agree). Sample items of the appearance contingency subscale include: "When I think I look attractive, I feel good about myself" and "My self-esteem is unrelated to how I feel about the way my body looks" (reverse scored). Items were averaged with higher scores indicating more self-worth placed on appearance. Cronbach's alpha for each of the subscales in past research ranged from .82 to .96. (Crocker, Luhtanen, Cooper, & Bouvrette, 2003). The Cronbach's alpha for the appearance contingency subscale in the present study was satisfactory at .80. (See Appendix D).

Self-Objectification was examined using the Body Surveillance Subscale of the Objectified Body Consciousness (OBC) Scale (McKinley & Hyde, 1996). In the literature on objectification, body surveillance has been consistently used an indicator of self-objectification (e.g., Aubrey, 2006; Kozee & Tylka, 2006; Rolnik, Englen-Maddox, & Miller, 2010). The OBC measure evaluates the extent to which one perceives his/her body as an object and assesses the beliefs that support this perception. It contains three subscales: 1) body surveillance (viewing one's body as an observer), body shame (when one's body does not meet the ideal body type), and appearance control beliefs. For this study, the body surveillance subscale was used which

measures the degree to which individuals adopt an observer's view on their own bodies (i.e., self-objectify) and the extent to which a person judges his/her body in terms of how it looks rather than how it feels. The subscale is comprised of 8 items scored on a 6-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 6= strongly agree) with 6 items reverse scored. Sample items include: "During the day, I think about how I look many times" and "I think it is more important that my clothes are comfortable than whether they look good on me" (reverse scored). Higher scores were indicative of more body surveillance. Prior research has demonstrated satisfactory reliability for the body surveillance subscale: Cronbach's alpha = .89 (McKinley & Hyde, 1996). In this study, Cronbach's alpha =.90. (See Appendix E).

Coding Self-Sexualization in Facebook Profile Photographs

Self-Sexualization in Facebook photographs was coded using a revised version of Hatton and Trautner's (2011) Sexualization coding scheme used in their analysis of the sexualization of women and men in the magazine *Rolling Stone*. Based on a large body of research and theory, Hatton and Trautner's (2011) scale assessed constructs lacking in the existing literature on sexualization in media representations of men and women. (See Appendix F for Hatton & Trautner's, 2011 sexualization scale and Appendix G for the revised version used in the current study).

Goffman (1979) noted that advertisements generally portray women as subordinates, while men are presented as having significant power and authority. A woman lying on the floor or a bed while a man is standing up or over her, holding an object or a man for support, eyes closed, dressed like a child, biting her lip, and head is tilted down are all examples of how women are displayed as subordinates in the media (Goffman, 1979; Kang 1997).

Subsequent researchers such as Kang (1997) have focused on extending Goffman's (1979) work by accounting for factors such as body display (degree of nudity) and independence (self-assertiveness). The goal in adding the independence category was to assure that the overall image was being considered and not just the subtleties of the image (e.g., head tilt, hands clasped, sitting or standing). The woman in the image was coded as displaying independence or dependence. Building off of the work of Goffman (1979) and Kang (1997), Hall et al. 2012 used Kang's (1997) revised scale to measure self-sexualization in women' MySpace photographs. Other researchers have also added categories to Goffman's (1979) measure (e.g., Krassas et al. 2001; Reichert and Carpenter, 2004).

Despite the amount of research on sexualization and gender in media advertisements, Hatton and Trautner (2011) contend that prior measures of sexualization do not capture the construct in its entirety. They assert that adding categories such as: emphasis on genitals, accentuation of mouth and/or tongue exposure, presence of a sex act or simulation of a sex act, and sexual content of text in image, provides a clearer and more accurate depiction of sexualization in photographs.

Given that Hatton and Trautner's scale is based on a great deal of theory and research, it was employed- in a revised version- in the current research. Given that the types of photographs posted on Facebook might be qualitatively different than those available in advertisements, a focus group was created for the present study. The goal of the focus group was to assess the validity of the photograph sexualization scale and modify it as necessary to fit the types of photographs posted on Facebook. The focus group contained the primary researcher, her advisor, and two research assistants (1 male and 1 female). The four team members were trained by the researcher in applying Hatton and Trautner's (2011) original image sexualization scale.

Then all four team members individually coded the photographs for the first 5 participants (10

photographs for each participant, totaling 50 photographs) using the original 11 variables. The

primary aim of the focus group was to obtain feedback on the validity of measure when applied

to Facebook photographs. This was done through discussion and establishing consensus around

how the existing dimensions were applied and whether there were aspects of self-sexualization

that were not captured by the existing measure (e.g., eyes, legs/thighs, self-taken). The focus

group was also used to create descriptors, markers, and "coding rules" for the various categories

of the scale. Subsequent meetings were held to resolve any questions/concerns that arose

pertaining to the categories. A detailed description of the resulting 25-point scale is provided in

the coding scheme section above. A total self-sexualization score was computed for each of the

participants using the revised version of the Hatton and Trautner (2011) sexualization coding

scheme. After revisions, a 25-point additive scale, consisting of 13 categories at varying weights

to reflect the extent which an image was self-sexualized resulted. Each of the ten photographs

was coded using the categories by two coders. The two coder's ratings for each picture were

averaged and then the scores for each photo were summed to create a total self-sexualization

score. Detailed descriptions of each of these categories and how they were revised are provided

below.

   Clothing/Nudity was scored on a 0-4 point scale: 0 = Unrevealing, conservative everyday

clothing, clothing acceptable in an educational or professional setting; 1 = Slightly revealing,

moderately low necklines, minimal cleavage, exposed shoulders, tank tops, midriff peeking out,

back exposed, shorts or skirts or dresses close to finger-tip or mid-thigh length; 2 = Somewhat

revealing, low necklines with considerable cleavage, tube-tops, slightly exposed midriffs, shorts

or skirts or dresses shorter than finger-tip or mid-thigh length; 3 = Highly revealing, extremely

low necklines with large amount of cleavage; exposed shoulders, 1-piece bathing suit, skin-tight clothing, significantly exposed midriffs, shorts or skirts or dresses shorter than finger-tip or mid-thigh length. 4 = Extremely revealing, such as a bikini bathing suit or lingerie. The original scale, as proposed by Hatton and Trautner (2011) was scored on a 0-5 scale with images scoring a 5 when the models were wearing nothing at all. Since nudity is not allowed on Facebook, we omitted the score of 5 from our scale.

Breast/chest was scored on a 0-2 point scale: 0= breasts/chest was not visible or was not a focal point of the photo (e.g., mostly covered by clothing), 1= breasts/chest was slightly exposed and/or was somewhat of a focus (e.g., low necklines, considerable breast cleavage,); and 2= breasts/chest was a major focus of the image (e.g., extremely low necklines, large amount of breast cleavage). No revisions were made to this category.

Buttocks were rated on a 0-2 point scale: 0= buttocks were not visible or were not a focal point of the photo (e.g., forward facing photo, buttocks covered by clothing); 1= buttocks were somewhat of a focus (e.g., standing sideways with part of buttocks sticking out); 2= buttocks were a major focus of the image (backward facing photo with buttocks sticking out, buttocks being flaunted). This category appears as in the original scale.

Genitals were scored on a 0-2 point scale: 0= the genital area was not a focus of the image; 1= genital area was slightly a focus (e.g., genitals covered, but legs slightly spread); and 2= genital area was a major focus of the image (e.g., pants unbuttoned, partially pulled down, legs spread open). No revisions were made to this category.

Legs/thighs was scored on a 0-2 point scale: 0= legs/thighs were not visible or focal points of image, such as having pants on and standing straight up or sitting down, 1= legs/thighs were slightly exposed (some of leg/thigh showing) or a slight focus of the image, and 2= legs/thighs

were a major focus of the image (e.g., short dress or shorts with leg(s) up or spread). This category was added to the original scale.

Mouth was rated on a 0-2 point scale. A zero was given if the participant's mouth did not suggest any kind of sexual activity (e.g., closed lips, broad toothy smiles, and active singing, talking, or yelling); 1= somewhat suggestive of sexual activity (e.g., lips slightly parted but not smiling; kissy or "duck" faces); and 2= explicitly suggestive of sexual activity (e.g., mouths wide open but not actively singing/yelling/talking, tongue showing or sticking out, had something in mouth such as a finger). This category was not revised.

Eyes were added to the original scale for the purpose of the current study and scored on a 0-1 point scale: 0=eyes were not sexy/seductive and 1=eyes were sexy/seductive (e.g., big dreamy eyes, sultry, winks, hooded eyes, bedroom eyes).

Head vs. Body Shot was scored on a 0-1 point scale. A zero was given when the image's focus was primarily on the face or head (e.g. a "smile" being the focus of the image, body taking up less space in the image, or when scenery was the obvious focus of the image); a score of 1 reflected a body shot in which the participants' body or body parts were more of a focus (e.g., "showing off" whole body or body parts). No revisions were made to this category.

Pose was scored on a 0-3 point scale: 0= not being posed in any kind of sexual way; 1=a "flirty" pose where the participant is showing off one's body (e.g., hands on hip, leg cocked); 2= a pose that is somewhat sexually suggestive or highlighting certain body parts (e.g., posing to show off breasts, butt, thighs, etc); and 3= overtly posed for sexual activity such as lying down or having legs spread (e.g., representing a sexual invitation to another person). To capture a greater range of variance in the poses found on Facebook, pose was expanded to 0-3 points, rather than the 0-2 point scale used in Hatton and Trautner's (2011) study.

Self-taken was scored on a 0-2 point scale: 0 = not self-taken; 1= self-taken with other(s) in the picture; and 2 = self-taken by themselves (focus solely on the participant). This category was added to the scale because the coding focus group believed that self-taken shots represent an individual taking an observers standpoint (i.e., self-objectifying).

Sex act, as in the original scale, was scored on a 0-1 point scale: 0 = not engaged in a sexual act 1= engaged in or simulating a sexual act (e.g., kissing, embracing someone, "acting out" fellatio or masturbation).

Sexual role play was scored on a 0-1 point scale: 0= the participant was not engaged in sexual role play in the photo; 1= The participant was engaged in sexual role play in the photo (e.g., infantilization – dressing up in child-like clothes; acting out bondage/domination – wearing a leather bustier, leather straps, dog collars, studded bracelets, etc.). This category appears as it does in the original scale.

Touch included all forms of sexualized touch (i.e., self-touch, touching others, being touched) and was scored on a 0-2 point scale: 0 = not being touched or not touching another person in a sexual way (e.g., touching shoulder-to-shoulder to fit in photograph with other people); 1= some sort of suggestive touching (e.g., hands on waist of another person); 2= explicit sexual touching (of oneself or another person; hands actively touching in suggestive way such as touching near breasts, buttocks, or genitals). In the original Hatton and Trautner (2011) scale, touch was conceptualized on a 0-3 point scale. In the original scale, a "3" was included signifying explicit sexual touch. However, because touching on Facebook tends to be less explicit than in magazine advertisements, the scoring was revised to be 0-2 rather than 0-3 points.

Procedure

Data were collected online. Participants were recruited through Facebook advertisements and a campus-wide email both of which briefly explained the study and contained a link which directed participants to the survey webpage. Participants were then informed about what participation in the study entailed and basic consent procedures. Next, participants completed questionnaires assessing: general demographic information, Facebook use, internalization of the "thin ideal", body image satisfaction, contingencies of self-worth, and body monitoring (i.e., self-objectification). Prior to the Facebook photo-sharing portion of the study, participations were provided with more detailed information about what information would be obtained from their Facebook site, how it would be stored, and who would see it. Next, participants were provided with a link to the Facebook Research Page where they were asked to "friend" the research page by clicking "add friend" and were assured that other Facebook "friends" of the page would not be able to see that they were "friends" with the Facebook Research Page. Last, participants were fully debriefed and assured that all of their data would be kept confidential and locked in a secure storage room with keycard access.

Analytic Strategy

Selection of Photographs. Ten photographs were selected randomly from each participant's Facebook log of profile photographs. Using a random number generator it was determined that every fifth photo would be selected to better capture the variability within participants' photographs overtime. To be selected, the photograph had to meet additional criterion: (1) the photograph had to include the participant, (2) the photograph had to be an adult picture of the participant, and (3) the participant had to be identifiable in the photograph. Any photographs that appeared to be taken prior to adolescence and any group photographs in which

it was too difficult to find the participant were not included the study. In these situations, the next photo in the series was then selected instead. When the end of the profile photographs was reached, counting would continue at the beginning of the photographs. Participants who had less than 10 Facebook profile photographs were not included in the study.

Coding the photographs. After revising the Hatton and Trautner (2011) scale with the coding focus group, the researcher and advisor worked together to jointly code approximately 25% of the photographs in each category using the revised 25-point scale. The remaining 75% of photographs in each category were then individually coded by both the researcher and advisor. The researcher and advisor worked closely to resolve any questions that arose.

To assess the reliability of the coding, 10% of the photographs were randomly selected to serve as a reliability check. Using Dedoose, a Cohen's Kappa was calculated for each of the variables. The Cohen's Kappa reliability scores were perfect for three variables ("genitals," "sex act" and "sex role play") and indicated significant agreement for the remaining variables, ranging from .67 ("touch"; p <.001) to .80 ("clothing/nudity").

Results

Preliminary analyses were conducted to examine whether there were any differences between those who proceeded with the Facebook photo-sharing phase of the study compared to those who did not on the primary variables of interest. A dummy variable was created based on whether the participant had proceeded with the Facebook photo part of study (0=no, 1=yes). Independent t-tests indicated differences between the two groups on the variable of body image satisfaction, measured by the appearance evaluation subscale of the MBSRQ. Results showed the women who proceeded with the Facebook photo sharing portion of the study reported more body image satisfaction (M=3.60, SD=.72) than those who did not participate in the Facebook photo sharing portion of the study (M=3.37, SD=.92); t (203) = 2.08, p =.04, two-tailed, d=.28.

No other significant differences between the two groups were found on any of the other major variables (Refer to Table 1 in Appendix H).

Although there were participants in the final sample who were older than 25 years of age, an overwhelming 86% of the sample consisted of young-adult women (ages 18-25). Young adult women have been found to be a: 1) a primary target for sexual objectification (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997), 2) in the process of exploring their identities during emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2000), and 3) among the most frequent users of Facebook (Baker & Moore, 2008; Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008; Wilson, Fornasier, & White, 2010). A Pearson correlation with age was run and no correlation was found between age and any of the major variables.

Descriptives

Frequencies for each of the self-sexualization categories were run. The most common category coded in the Facebook profile photographs was self-taken (23.94%) followed by clothing/nudity (21.9%), pose (14.58%), head vs. body shot (11.80%), and breast/chest (9.6%). Categories coded the least frequently were: eyes (5.68%), mouth (3.58%), touch (2.06%), buttocks (1.49%), sex act (.88%), sexual role play (.20%), and genitals was not coded for any of the Facebook profile photographs (Refer to Table 2 in Appendix H).

Hypothesis 1

To test the hypothesis that higher levels of self-objectification would be positively correlated with self-sexualization in participants' Facebook photographs (H1), a Pearson Correlation Coefficient was calculated between self-objectification scores and ratings of self-sexualization in Facebook photographs. As hypothesized, a positive correlation emerged showing that the more participants reported self-objectifying, the more they self-sexualized in their Facebook photographs, r (98) = .23, $p<.01$. Thus, hypothesis 1 was supported (See Figure

1, Appendix H). For descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among variables, see Table 3 in Appendix H.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis stated that internalization of the "thin ideal" would be positively correlated with self-sexualization in Facebook photographs (H2). To test this hypothesis, a Pearson Correlation was conducted using internalization of the "thin ideal" scores and ratings of self-sexualization in Facebook photographs. Contrary to the hypothesis, there was no significant correlation found between internalization of the "thin ideal" and sexualization ratings of Facebook photographs, r (98) = .13, p>10. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 was tested using the appearance evaluation and body areas satisfaction subscales from the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire- Appearance Subscale (MBSRQ-AS) (Cash, 2000). It was predicted that body image satisfaction would be negatively correlated with self-sexualization of Facebook photographs. In order to examine this hypothesis, a Pearson Correlation was run with both measures of body image satisfaction (appearance evaluation and body area satisfaction) and ratings of self-sexualization in Facebook photographs. In contrast to the hypothesis, no significant correlation was found between either of the two measures of body image satisfaction and ratings of self-sexualization in Facebook photographs, r (96) = .06, p>.10, r (94) = -.01, p>.10 (appearance evaluation and body image satisfaction subscales listed respectively). Thus, hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4

Lastly, hypothesis 4 predicted that women whose self-worth was highly contingent upon their appearance would display more self-sexualization in Facebook photographs. To test this

hypothesis, a Pearson Correlation was performed correlating the appearance contingency of self-worth scores and ratings of self-sexualization in Facebook profile photographs. In accordance with the hypothesis, a positive correlation was found that indicated that participants who reported that their self-worth was more contingent on their appearance displayed more self-sexualization in Facebook photographs, r (98) = .21, $p<.05$. Thus, hypothesis 4 was supported (See Figure 2, Appendix H).

Discussion

The present study extended the work of Hall et al. (2012) by examining self-objectification's role in women's tendencies to self-sexualize in their Facebook photographs. The primary aim of the current study was to test the relationship between women's self-objectification and their self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs. Secondly, this research measured whether their self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs was related to body image satisfaction, internalization of the "thin ideal", and the extent to which their self-worth was contingent on their appearance.

Based on empirical evidence and the tenets of Objectification Theory (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997), the main hypothesis (hypothesis one) stated that women who self-objectify more will display more self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs. As hypothesized, women who were more inclined to self-objectify were more likely to self-sexualize in their Facebook profile photographs. In line with the original thinking, those who self-objectify may use sharing profile photographs on SNSs to present their bodies in a sexualized way to others in their online social network. Alternatively, Facebook may create an environment that stimulates self-objectification. There may be a normative social pressure among adolescent and young adult women to post more self-sexualized photographs of themselves (especially if they are looking

for a male partner). Even the mere acts of taking the photographs of themselves (adopting an observers' perspective) and sharing the photographs on their online profile could make them more inclined to self-objectify. Hence, it is possible that taking and/or sharing self-sexualized profile photographs increases self-objectification, rather than Facebook simply being an avenue to express self-objectification through self-sexualization.

Building on prior work done by Stefanone and colleagues (2011) on appearance-contingency and gender differences in photo sharing behaviors, this study examined if self-sexualization in Facebook profile photographs was related to how strongly women identify with the appearance contingency of self-worth. Hypothesis four stated that the women whose self-worth was highly contingent on their appearance would display more self-sexualization in their Facebook photographs than women whose self-worth was less contingent on their physical appearance. In support of the hypothesis, women who identified more with the appearance contingency of self-worth displayed more self-sexualization in their Facebook photographs. If a woman's self-worth is more contingent on appearance, she may be more likely to use Facebook to post sexualized photographs of herself as a way to gain validation on her physical appearance to boost her self-worth (through Facebook user comments on photographs). Although researchers have yet to investigate this notion in terms of social networking, evidence suggests that there is a tendency for women who identify with the appearance contingency to seek validation for this contingency in their external world (e.g., Crocker, 2002; Patrick, Neighbors, & Knee, 2004).

Contrary to hypothesis two and three, there was no relationship found between women's body image satisfaction or internalization of the "thin ideal" and their self-sexualization in their Facebook profile photographs. However, consistent with prior research, self-objectification, body image satisfaction, internalization of the "thin ideal" were related to one another (e.g.,

Dittmar, & Howard, 2004; Engeln-Maddox, 2005; Heinberg et al., 2008; Grabe, Ward, & Hyde, 2008; Noll & Fredrickson, 1998; Thompson & Stice, 2001). Body image satisfaction was negatively related to self-objectification and internalization of the thin ideal; internalization of the thin ideal was positively related to self-objectification. Therefore, body image satisfaction and internalization of the "thin ideal" may serve as proximal predictors of self-sexualization because both variables are related to each other and to self-objectification. In this case, it may be necessary to conduct a path analysis to test if there is such a relationship between these variables.

Despite the potential insights this investigation may offer, several limitations should be noted. This is the first investigation using the self-sexualization scale revised from Hatton and Trautner's (2011) scale. Thus, further study is needed to assess the scale's validity with other samples. Second, the current sample was comprised of mostly White women. Previous research on self-sexualization in MySpace photographs has suggested there are cultural differences in the tendency to self-sexualize in SNS photographs (Hall et al., 2012). Future researchers may benefit from having a more culturally diverse sample of women.

In addition, this study is correlational. Therefore, subsequent research is needed to pinpoint exactly how these variables are related to one another and to identify any other factors involved in the relationship such as appearance-comparisons and Facebook users' comments on profile photographs. Some researchers contend that self-objectifying may lead a woman to compare herself to others to evaluate her appearance, which may lead to certain feelings and behaviors that continue the cycle of self and other objectification (Lindner, Tantleff-Dunn, & Jentsch, 2012). Additionally, evidence has suggested that self-worth contingent on appearance is positively related to comparisons to those who are more physically attractive or characteristic of the societal thin body ideal (i.e., upward appearance comparisons) (Bailey & Ricciardelli, 2010).

Taken together, these findings suggest that those women whose self-worth is more contingent on physical appearance may be more likely to get caught in the "circle of objectification", a term coined by Lindner et al. (2012). Future researchers might want to evaluate the relationship between women's tendencies to engage in appearance comparisons with other women on Facebook, Facebook users' comments on profile photographs, and women's self-objectification.

Overall, SNS research has revealed that women are among the most frequent visitors of SNSs, are more likely to post photographs on their online profile, and tend to use social networking for different reasons than men (e.g., McAndrew & Jeong, 2012; Nosko, Wood, Kenney, Archer, De Pasquale, Molema, & Zivcakova, 2012; Thompson & Lougheed, 2012). Therefore, additional research is critical in attempting to understand the potential role that Facebook may play in how women feel about their bodies. Although more empirical work is required to understand exactly which factors play into women's self-sexualization in Facebook profile photographs and what the mental health consequences might be, this examination provides the first steps toward identifying the relationship between women's tendencies to self-sexualize in their Facebook profile photographs and their levels of self-objectification. Further, these findings provide insight into a possible relationship between self-sexualization in Facebook profile photographs and identification with the appearance contingency of self-worth.

References

American Psychological Association, Task Force on Sexualization of Girls. (2007). *Report on the APA task force on the sexualization of girls.* Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Amichai-Hamburger, Y., & Vinitzky, G. (2010). Social network use and personality. *Computers and Human Behavior, 26,* 1289-1295.

Anderson, B., Fagan, P., Woodnutt, T., & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2012). Facebook psychology: Popular questions answered by research. *Psychology of Popular Media Culture, 1*(1), 23-37.

Arnett, J. (2000). Emerging adulthood: A Theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. *American Psychologist, 55*(5), 469-480.

Aubrey, J. S. (2006). Effects of sexually objectifying media on self-objectification and body surveillance in undergraduates: Results of a 2-year panel study. *Journal of Communication, 56,* 366–386.

Bailey, S. D., & Ricciardelli, L. A. (2010). Social comparisons, appearance related comments, contingent self-esteem and their relationships with body dissatisfaction and eating disturbance among women. *Eating Behaviors, 11,* 107–112.

Baker, C. N. (2005). Images of Women's Sexuality in Advertisements: A Content Analysis of Black and White Oriented Women's and Men's Magazines. *Sex Roles*, *52*(1/2), 13-27.

Baker J., & Moore S. (2008). Distress, coping, and blogging: comparing new MySpace users by their intention to blog. *CyberPsychology and Behavior, 11,* 81-85.

Boyle, K., & Johnson, T.J. (2010). MySpace is your space? Examining self-presentation of MySpace users. *Computers and Human Behavior, 26,* 1392-1399.

Boyd, D.M., & Ellison, N.B. (2007). Social networking sites: Definition, history, and scholarship. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 13*(1), article 11.

Cash, T. F. (2000). *The Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire Users' Manual.*

Chen, B., & Marcus, J. (2012). Students' self-presentation on Facebook: An examination of personality and self-construal factors. *Computers and Human Behavior, 28,* 2091-2099.

Clabaugh, A., Karpinski, A., & Griffin, K. (2008). Body weight contingency of self-worth. *Self and Identity, 7,* 337–359.

Corning, A. F., Krumm, A. J., & Smitham, L. A. (2006). Differential social comparison processes in women with and without eating disorder symptoms. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 53,* 338–349.

Crocker, J., & Wolfe, C. T. (2001). Contingencies of self-worth. *Psychological Review*, *108*(3), 593-623.

Crocker, J., Luhtanen, R.K., Cooper, M.L., & Bouvrette, A. (2003). Contingencies of self-worth in college students: Theory and measurement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85*(5), 894 –908.

Dittmar, H. (2009). How do "body perfect" ideals in the media have a negative impact on body image and behaviors? Factors and processes related to self and identity. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *28*(1), 1-8.

Dittmar, H., Halliwell, E., & Stirling, E. (2009). Understanding the impact of thin media models on women's body-focused affect: The roles of thin-ideal internalization and weight-related self-discrepancy activation in experimental exposure effects. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 28,* 43-72.

Dittmar, H., & Howard, S. (2004). Thin-ideal internalization and social comparison tendency as moderators of media models' impact on women's body-focused anxiety. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 23,* 768-791.

Dominick, J. (1999).Who do you think you are? Personal home pages and self-presentation on the World Wide Web. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly, 76*, 646–658.

Ellison, N., Heino, R., & Gibbs, J. (2006). Managing impressions online: Self-presentation processes in the online dating environment. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 11*, 415–441.

Ellison, N.B., Steinfield, C., & Lamp, C. (2007). The Benefits of Facebook "friends:" Social capital and college students' use of online social network sites. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 12*(4).

Engeln-Maddox, R. (2006). Buying a beauty standard or dreaming of a new life? Expectations associated with media ideals. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *30*(3), 258-266.

Engeln-Maddox, R. (2005). Cognitive responses to idealized media images of women: The relationship of social comparison and critical processing to body image disturbance in college women. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *24*(8), 1114-1138.

Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis.* New York: Norton.

Facebook (2012). Statistics. < http://newsroom.fb.com/content/default.aspx?NewsAreaId=22> Retrieved November 1, 2012.

Fredrickson, B., & Roberts, T. (1997). Objectification theory: Toward understanding women's lived experiences and mental health risks. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 21,* 173-206.

Fredrickson, B. L., Roberts, T. A., Noll, S. M., Quinn, D. M., & Twenge, J. M. (1998). That swimsuit becomes you: Sex differences in self-objectification, restrained eating, and math performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75,* 269–284.

Gentile, B., Twenge, J.M., Freeman, E.C., & Campbell, W.K. (2012). The Effect of social networking websites on positive self-views: An experimental investigation. *Computers in Human Behavior, 28*(5), 1929-1933.

Goffman, E. (1979). *Gender advertisements.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Goffman, E. (1959). *The Presentation of self in everyday life*. New York, NY: Anchor Books.

Grabe, S., Ward, L. M., & Hyde, J. S. (2008). The role of the media in body image concerns among women: A meta-analysis of experimental and correlational studies. *Psychological Bulletin, 134*(3), 460-476.

Greenleaf, C. (2005). Self-objectification among physically active women. *Sex Roles*, *52*, 51–62.

Grossbard, J. R., Lee, C. M., Neighbors, C., & Larimer, M. E. (2009). Body image concerns and contingent self-esteem in male and female college students. *Sex Roles, 60,* 198–207.

Hall, C.P., West, J.H., & McIntyre, E. (2012). Female self-sexualization in MySpace.com personal profile photographs. *Sexuality and Culture, 16,* 1-16.

Hatton, E., & Trautner, M.E. (2011). Equal opportunity objectification? The Sexualization of men and women on the cover of Rolling Stone. *Sexuality and Culture, 15*, 256-278.

Heinberg, L., Coughlin, J., Pinto, A., Haug, N., Brode, C., & Guarda, A. (2008, September). Validation and predictive utility of the Sociocultural Attitudes toward Appearance Questionnaire for Eating Disorders (SATAQ-ED): Internalization of sociocultural ideals predicts weight gain. *Body Image*, *5*(3), 279-290.

Heinberg, L. J., & Thompson, J. K. (1995). Body image and televised images of thinness and

      attractiveness: A controlled laboratory investigation. *Journal of Social and Clinical*

      Psychology, 14, 325–338.

Hum, N.J., Perrin, E.C., Hambright, B.L., Portwood, A.C., Schat, A.C., & Bevan, J.L. (2011). A

      picture is worth a thousand words: A content analysis of Facebook profile photographs.

      Computers in Human Behavior, 27(4), 1828-1833.

Ivcevic, Z., & Ambady, N. (2012). Personality impressions from identity claims on Facebook.

      Psychology of Popular Media Culture, 1(1), 38-45.

Kang, M. (1997). The portrayal of women's images in magazine advertisements: Goffman's

      gender analysis revisited. *Sex Roles, 37,* 979-996.

Kozee, H. B., & Tylka, T. L. (2006). A test of objectification theory with lesbian women.

      Psychology of Women Quarterly, 30, 348–357.

Kramer, N. C., & Winter, S. (2008). Impression management 2.0: The relationship of self-

      esteem, extraversion, self-efficacy, and self-presentation within social networking sites.

      Journal of Media Psychology: Theories, Methods, and Applications, 20(3), 106-116.

Krassas, N., Blauwkamp, J., & Wesselink, P. (2001). Boxing Helena and corseting Eunice:

      Sexual rhetoric in Cosmopolitan and Playboy magazines. *Sex Roles, 44,* 751–771.

Krassas, N., Blauwkamp, J., & Wesselink, P. (2003) "Master your johnson": Sexual rhetoric in

      Maxim and *Stuff* Magazines. *Sexuality and Culture, 7,* 98-119.

Lanis, K., & Covell, K. (1995). Images of women in advertisements: Effects on attitudes related

      to sexual aggression. *Sex Roles, 32,* 639–649.

Leaper, C., & Friedman, C. K. (2007). *The socialization of gender.* In J. E. Grusec & P. D. Hastings (Eds.), Handbook of socialization: Theory and research (pp. 561−587). New York: Guilford.

Lenhart, A. (2009). PEW internet project data memo. *PEW Internet and American Life Project, 2,* 17.

Lin, L., & Reid, K. (2009). The relationship between media exposure and antifat attitudes: The role of dysfunctional appearance beliefs. *Body Image*, *6*(1), 52-55.

Manago, A. M., Graham, M. B., Greenfield, P. M., & Salimkhan, G. (2008). Self-presentation and gender on MySpace. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 29*(6), 446-458.

McAndrew, F.T., & Jeong, H.S. (2012). Who does what on Facebook? Age, sex, and relationship status as predictors of Facebook use. *Computers in Human Behavior, 3,* 2359-2365.

McKinley, N. M. (1999).Women and objectified body consciousness: Mothers' and daughters' body experience in cultural, developmental and familial context. *Developmental Psychology*, *35*, 760–769.

McKinley, N. M., & Hyde, J. S. (1996). The Objectified Body Consciousness Scale: Development and validation. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 20,*181–215.

Monro, F., & Huon, G. (2005). Media-portrayed idealized images, body shame, and appearance anxiety. *International Journal of Eating Disorders, 38*(1), 85-90.

Moore, K., & McElroy, J.C. (2012). The influence of personality on Facebook usage, wall postings, and regret. *Computers and Human Behavior, 28,* 267-274.

Moradi, B., & Huang, Y-P. (2008). Objectification theory and psychology of women: A decade of advances and future directions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 32*(4), 377-398.

Morry, M. M., & Staska, S. L. (2001). Magazine exposure: internalization, self-objectification, eating attitudes, and body satisfaction in male and female university students. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science, 33*, 269–279.

Muscanell, N.L., & Guadagno, R.E. (2012). Make new friends or keep the old: Gender and personality differences in social networking use. *Computers in Human Behavior, 28*(14), 107-112.

National Institutes of Mental Health. (2012). Retrieved October 27, 2012 from http://www.nimh.nih.gov/about/director/2012/spotlight-on-eating-disorders.shtml

Noll, S. M., & Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). A mediational model linking self-objectification, body shame, and disordered eating. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 22,* 623–636

Overstreet, N. M., & Quinn, D. M. (2012). Contingencies of self-worth and appearance concerns: Do domains of self-worth matter?. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *36*(3), 314-325.

Patrick, H., Neighbors, C., & Knee, C. R. (2004). Appearance-related social comparisons: The role of contingent self-esteem and self-perceptions of attractiveness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30,* 501–514.

Plous, S., & Neptune, D. (1997). Racial and gender biases in magazine advertising. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 21,* 627–644.

Raacke J., & Bonds-Raacke J. (2008). MySpace and Facebook: Applying the uses and gratifications theory to exploring friend-networking sites. *CyberPsychology and Behavior, 11,* 169–174.

Reichert, T. (2003).*The erotic history of advertising*. Amherst, NY: Prometheus.

Reichert, T., & Carpenter, C. (2004). An update on sex in magazine advertising: 1983 to 2003. *Journalism and Mass Communications Quarterly, 81,* 823–837.

Reichert,T., Lambiase, J., Morgan, S., Carstarphen, M., & Zavoina, S. (1999). Cheesecake and beefcake: No matter how you slice it, sexual explicitness in advertising continues to increase. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly, 76*, 7-20.

Rolnik, A., Englen-Maddox, R.,& Miller,S.A. (2010). Here's looking at you: Self-objectification, body image disturbance, and sorority rush. *Sex Roles, 63*, 6–17.

Rosenberg, J., & Egbert, N. (2011). Online impression management: Personality traits and concerns for secondary goals as predictors of self-presentation on Facebook. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 17,* 1-18.

Ross, C., Orr. E.S., Sisic, M., Arseneault, J.M., Simmering, M.G., Orr, R.R. (2009). Personality and motivations associated with Facebook use. *Computers and Human Behavior, 25*, 578-586.

Rudman, W., & Verdi, P. (1993). Exploitation: Comparing sexual and violent imagery of femen and men in advertising. *Women and Health, 20,* 1-14.

Stankiewicz, J.M., & Rosselli, F. (2008). Women as sex objects and victims in print advertisements. *Sex Roles, 58,* 579-589.

Stefanone MA, Lackaff D. (2009). Reality television as a model for online behavior: Blogging, photo and video sharing. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 14,* 964–87

Stefanone, M.A., Lackaff, D., & Rosen, D. (2011) Contingencies of self-worth and social-networking-site behavior. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking, 14*(1/2), 41-49.

Strelan, P., & Hargreaves, D. (2005). Women who objectify other women: The vicious circle of objectification? *Sex Roles, 52,* 707–712.

Subrahmanyam, K., Reich, S. M., Waechter, N., & Espinoza, G. (2008). Online and offline social networks: Use of social networking sites by emerging adults. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 29*(6), 420-433.

Swim, J. K., Hyers, L. L., Cohen, L. L., & Ferguson, M. J. (2001). Everyday sexism: Evidence for its incidence, nature, and psychological impact from three daily diary studies. *Journal of Social Issues*, *57*, 31–53.

Thompson, S.H., & Lougheed, E. (2012). Frazzled by Facebook? An exploratory study of gender differences in social network communication among undergraduate men and women. *College Student Journal*, *46*(1), 88-98.

Thompson, J. K., & Stice, E. (2001). Thin-ideal internalization: Mounting evidence for a new risk factor for body-image disturbance and eating pathology. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 10,* 181–183.

Thompson, J.K., van den Berg, P., Roehrig, M., Guarda, A.S., & Heinberg, L.J. (2004). The Sociocultural attitudes towards appearance scale-3 (SATAQ-3): Development and validation. *International Journal of Eating Disorders*, *35*(3), 293-304.

Tiggemann, M., & McGill, B. (2004). The role of social comparison in the effect of magazine advertisements on women's mood and body dissatisfaction. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 23*, 23–44.

Tiggemann, M., Polivy, J., & Hargreaves, D. (2009). The processing of thin ideals in fashion magazines: A source of social comparison or fantasy*? Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 28,* 73-93.

Tylka, T., & Subich, L. (2004). Examining a multidimensional model of eating disorder symptomatology among college women. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *51*(3), 314-328.

Vartanian, L.R. (2009). When the body defines the self: Self-concept clarity, internalization, and body image. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 28*(1), 94-126.

Wilson, K., Fornasier, S., & White, K. (2010). Psychological predictors of young adults' use of social networking sites. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior and Social Networking*, *13*(2), 173-177.

Zhao, S., Grasmack, S., & Martin, J. (2008). Identity construction on Facebook: Digital empowerment in anchored relationships. *Computers in Human Behavior, 24*, 1816-1836.

Appendix A
(Demographic Questions)

1. Please indicate which best describes your racial/ethnic background.

○ White/Caucasian

○ Black/African American

○ Hispanic/Latin

○ Native American/American Indian

○ Asian/Pacific Islander

○ International student (non-citizen of USA)

○ Multiracial

Other (please specify)

2. Please indicate your age.

_____

3. Please indicate your name (Once your responses are linked to Facebook info, this will be deleted)

_____

4. Please indicate your sexual orientation.

○ Exclusively heterosexual

○ Mostly heterosexual

○ Bisexual

○ Mostly homosexual

○ Exclusively homosexual

5. What is your name as it appears on your Facebook page? (So that we can connect your survey responses with your Facebook page; This information will be deleted once we have linked the responses to your Facebook data)

_____

Appendix B
SOCIOCULTURAL ATTITUDES TOWARDS APPEARANCE SCALE - 3 (SATAQ-3)
The Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire 3 is a revision of our first two scales (Heinberg & Thompson, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). It has subscales that assess internalization (general, athlete), pressures, and information. Reliability and validity information are contained in Thompson et al., 2004. See also Calogero et al, 2004 for data with an eating disordered sample.

Internalization-General: Items: 3, 4, 7, 8, 11, 12, 15, 16, 27
Internalization-Athlete: Items: 19, 20, 23, 24, 30
Pressures: Items: 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26
Information: Items: 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, 28, 29
Reverse-keyed items: 3, 6, 9, 12, 13, 19, 27, 28

Please read each of the following items carefully and indicate the number that best reflects your agreement with the statement.

Definitely Disagree= 1
Mostly Disagree= 2
Neither Agree Nor Disagree= 3
Mostly Agree = 4
Definitely Agree = 5

1. TV programs are an important source of information about fashion and "being attractive." _____
2. I've felt pressure from TV or magazines to lose weight.   _____
3. **I <u>do not</u> care if my body looks like the body of people who are on TV.** _____
4. **I compare my body to the bodies of people who are on TV.**   _____
5. TV commercials are an important source of information about fashion and "being attractive."   _____
6. I <u>do not</u> feel pressure from TV or magazines to look pretty. _____
7. **I would like my body to look like the models who appear in magazines.** _____
8. **I compare my appearance to the appearance of TV and movie stars.**   _____
9. Music videos on TV are <u>not</u> an important source of information about fashion and "being attractive." _____
10. I've felt pressure from TV and magazines to be thin. _____
11. **I would like my body to look like the people who are in movies.** _____
12. **I <u>do not</u> compare my body to the bodies of people who appear in magazines.** _____
13. Magazine articles are <u>not</u> an important source of information about fashion and "being attractive." _____
14. I've felt pressure from TV or magazines to have a perfect body. _____
15. **I wish I looked like the models in music videos.** _____
16. **I compare my appearance to the appearance of people in magazines.** _____
17. Magazine advertisements are an important source of information about fashion and "being attractive." _____
18. I've felt pressure from TV or magazines to diet. _____
19. I <u>do not</u> wish to look as athletic as the people in magazines. _____

20. I compare my body to that of people in "good shape." _____

<div align="center">Appendix B cont'd</div>

21. Pictures in magazines are an important source of information about fashion and "being attractive." _____
22. I've felt pressure from TV or magazines to exercise. _____
23. I wish I looked as athletic as sports stars. _____
24. I compare my body to that of people who are athletic. _____
25. Movies are an important source of information about fashion and "being attractive." _____
26. I've felt pressure from TV or magazines to change my appearance. _____
27. I <u>do not</u> try to look like the people on TV. _____
28. Movie starts are <u>not</u> an important source of information about fashion and "being attractive." _____
29. Famous people are an important source of information about fashion and "being attractive." _____
30. I try to look like sports athletes. _____

Heinberg, L., Coughlin, J., Pinto, A., Haug, N., Brode, C., & Guarda, A. (2008, September). Validation and predictive utility of the Sociocultural Attitudes toward Appearance Questionnaire for Eating Disorders (SATAQ-ED): Internalization of sociocultural ideals predicts weight gain. *Body Image*, *5*(3), 279-290.

<u>NOTE.</u> **Bold text** items were analyzed in the present research as part of the internalization (general) subscale.

Appendix C

Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire- Appearance subscale (MBSRQ-AS)
There are no right or wrong answers. Just give the answer that is most accurate for you.
Remember, your responses are confidential, so please be completely honest and answer all items.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Definitely	**Mostly**	**Neither agree**	**Mostly**	**Definitely**
Disagree	**Disagree**	**Nor Disagree**	**Agree**	**Agree**

_____ 1. Before going out in public, I always notice how I look.
_____ 2. I am careful to buy clothes that will make me look my best.
_____ 3. My body is sexually appealing.
_____ 4. I constantly worry about being or becoming fat.
_____ 5. I like my looks just the way they are.
_____ 6. I check my appearance in a mirror whenever I can.
_____ 7. Before going out, I usually spend a lot of time getting ready.
_____ 8. I am very conscious of even small changes in my weight.
_____ 9. Most people would consider me good-looking.
_____ 10. It is important that I always look good.
_____ 11. I use very few grooming products.
_____ 12. I like the way I look without my clothes on.
_____ 13. I am self-conscious if my grooming isn't right.
_____ 14. I usually wear whatever is handy without caring how it looks.
_____ 15. I like the way my clothes fit me.
_____ 16. I don't care what people think about my appearance.
_____ 17. I take special care with my hair grooming.
_____ 18. I dislike my physique.
_____ 19. I am physically unattractive.
_____ 20. I never think about my appearance.
_____ 21. I am always trying to improve my physical appearance.
_____ 22. I am on a weight-loss diet.

*For the remainder of the items use the response scale given with the item, and enter your answer
in the space beside the item.*

_____ 23. I have tried to lose weight by fasting or going on crash diets.
       1. Never
       2. Rarely
       3. Sometimes
       4. Often
       5. Very Often

_____ 24. I think I am:
        1. Very Underweight
        2. Somewhat Underweight
        3. Normal Weight
        4. Somewhat Overweight
        5. Very Overweight

_____ 25. From looking at me, most other people would think I am:
        1. Very Underweight
        2. Somewhat Underweight
        3. Normal Weight
        4. Somewhat Overweight
        5. Very Overweight

Use this 1 to 5 scale to indicate how dissatisfied or satisfied you are with each of the following areas or aspects of your body:

1	2	3	4	5
Very Dissatisfied	**Mostly Dissatisfied**	**Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied**	**Mostly Satisfied**	**Very Satisfied**

_____ 26. Face (facial features, complexion)
_____ 27. Hair (color, thickness, texture)
_____ 28. Lower torso (buttocks, hips, thighs, legs)
_____ 29. Mid torso (waist, stomach)
_____ 30. Upper torso (chest or breasts, shoulders, arms)
_____ 31. Muscle tone
_____ 32. Weight
_____ 33. Height
_____ 34. Overall appearance

Appendix D
Contingencies of Self-Worth (CSW) Scale (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001)

FAMILY SUPPORT: items 7, 10*, 16, 24, and 29.
COMPETITION: items 3, 12, 20, 25, and 32.
APPEARANCE: items 1, 4*, 17, 21, and 30*.
GOD'S LOVE: items 2, 8, 18, 26, and 31.
ACADEMIC COMPETENCE: items 13*, 19, 22, 27, and 33.
VIRTUE: items 5, 11, 14, 28, and 34.
APPROVAL FROM OTHERS: items: 6*, 9, 15*, 23*, and 35.

• First, reverse-score answers to items 4, 6, 10, 13, 15, 23, and 30, such that (1 = 7), (2 = 6), (3 = 5), (4 = 4), (5 = 3), (6 = 2), (7 = 1).

• Then sum answers to the five items for each respective subscale score, then divide each by 5.
17. INSTRUCTIONS: Please respond to each of the following statements by circling your answer using the scale from "1 = Strongly disagree" to "7 = Strongly agree." If you haven't experienced the situation described in a particular statement, please answer how you think you would feel if that situation occurred.

1. When I look attractive, I feel good about myself.
2. My self-worth is based on God's love.
3. I feel worthwhile when I perform better on others on a task or skill.
4. My self-esteem is unrelated to how I feel about the way my body looks.
5. Doing something I know is wrong makes me lose my self-respect.
6. I don't care if other people have a negative opinion about me.
7. Knowing that my family members love me makes me feel good about myself.
8. I feel worthwhile when I have God's love.
9. I can't respect myself if others don't respect me.
10. My self-worth is not influenced by the quality of my relationships with my family members.
11. Whenever I follow my moral Principals, my sense of self-respect gets a boost.
12. Knowing that I am better than others on tasks raises my self-esteem.
13. My opinion about myself isn't tied to how well I do in school.
14. I couldn't respect myself if I didn't live up to a moral code.
15. I don't care what other people think of me.
16. When my family members are proud of me, my sense of self-worth increases.
17. My sense of self is influenced by how attractive I think my face or facial features are.
18. My self-esteem would suffer if I didn't have God's love.
19. Doing well in school gives me a sense of self-respect.
20. Doing better than others gives me a sense of self-respect.
21. My sense of self-worth suffers whenever I think I don't look good.
22. I feel better about myself when I know I'm doing well academically.
23. What others think of me has no effect on what I think about myself.
24. When I don't feel loved by my family, my self-esteem goes down.
25. My self-esteem is affected by how well I do when I am competing with others.

26. My self-esteem goes up when I feel that God loves me.

<div align="center">Appendix D cont'd</div>

27. My self-esteem is influenced by my academic performance.
28. My self-esteem would suffer if I did something unethical.
29. It is important to my self-respect that I have a family who cares about me.
30. My self-esteem does not depend on whether or not I feel attractive.
31. When I think that I'm disobeying God, I feel bad about myself.
32. My self-worth is influenced by how well I do on competitive tasks.
33. I feel bad about myself whenever my academic performance is lacking.
34. My self-esteem depends on whether or not I follow my moral/ethical Principals.
35. My self-esteem depends on the opinions others hold of me.

NOTE. **Bold text** signifies questions used in current study belonging to the following subscales of the measure: appearance, competition, academic, approval)

Appendix E
Surveillance Subscale of the Objectified Body Consciousness Scale
(McKinley & Hyde, 1996)

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	moderately disagree	mildly disagree	mildly agree	moderately agree	strongly agree

_____   1. I rarely think about how I look.
____   2. I think it is more important that my clothes are comfortable than whether they look good on me.
_____   3. I think more about how my body feels than how my body looks.
_____   4. I rarely compare how I look with how other people look.
_____   5. During the day, I think about how I look many times.
_____   6. I often worry about whether the clothes I am wearing make me look good.
_____   7. I rarely worry about how I look to other people.
_____   8. I am more concerned with what my body can do than how it looks.

Appendix F
Sexualization Scale
(Hatton & Trautner, 2011)

The following scale is a based on a continuum of sexualization ranging from: not sexualized, slightly sexualized, clearly sexualized, or highly sexualized.

This scale is a 23-point scale consisting of 11 separate variables, the sum of which indicates the degree to which an image is sexualized. Detailed descriptions from Hatton and Trautner's (2011) analysis are provided below:

Clothing/Nudity: 0–5 points; ranging from unrevealing clothing (0 points) to completely naked (5 points). Those images that featured models wearing slightly revealing clothing, such as women wearing shirts with modestly low necklines or exposed arms and shoulders, scored a ''1'' on this measure. Images that scored a ''2'' in this category featured models wearing clothing that was somewhat revealing; this included exposed midriffs on both women and men. Images that scored a ''3'' featured models wearing highly revealing and/or skin-tight clothing. Images that scored ''4'' in this category featured models wearing swimsuits and lingerie, that is, apparel that is not generally considered ''clothing'' at all. Images that scored a ''5'' in this category featured models wearing nothing at all (or only minimal clothing, such as socks and shoes but nothing else).

Touch: 0–3 points; included all forms of touch, including self-touch, touching others, and being touched. Cover models who were neither touching nor being touched scored ''0'' on this measure. ''Casual touching,'' for example, a model clasping his hands together or resting her arm on someone else's shoulder, scored a ''1.'' Those images that scored a ''2'' exhibited some kind of provocative touching.

Pose: 0–2 points; images in which the cover model was not posed in any way related to sexual activity—standing upright, for example —scored ''0'' in this category. Images scored ''1'' for a variety of poses that were suggestive or inviting of sexual activity, including lifting one's arms overhead and any kind of leaning or sitting. Images that scored a ''2'' on this measure were overtly posed for sexual activity; this included lying down or, for women, sitting with their legs spread wide open.

Mouth: 0–2 points; the lowest score of 0 was for mouths that did not suggest any kind of sexual activity, including closed lips, broad toothy smiles, and active singing, talking, or yelling. One point was given to mouths that were somewhat suggestive of sex; this included images in which the model's lips were parted slightly but not smiling. Images that scored a''2'' featured models whose mouths were explicitly suggestive of sexual activity: This included models whose mouths were wide open but passive (not actively singing or yelling but, perhaps, posed for penetration), whose tongue was showing, or who had something (such as a finger) in his or her mouth.

Appendix F cont'd

Breasts/Chest; Genitals; Buttocks: 0-2 points; three separate variables, scoring each of them on a 0–2 scale. Those images in which these body parts were either not visible or not a focal point scored a ''0'' for each of the three variables. If one or more of these body parts were somewhat emphasized—if, for example, a women's breasts were a centerpiece of the image but still mostly concealed by clothing—the image received a ''1'' in the appropriate category. If one of these body parts was a major focus of the image—if a model's pants were unbuttoned and pulled down, for example—the image received a ''2'' for that variable.

Text: 0–2 points; text not related to sex or sexuality and scored ''0'' on this measure. Text that contained some sexual innuendo, scored ''1'' in this category, and text that made explicit references to sex or sexuality scored ''2.''

Head vs. Body Shot: 0–1 point; headshots scored ''0'' and body shots scored ''1.''

Sex Act: 0–1 point; images illustrating no sex act scored a 0 in this category; images in which the model was engaged in a sex act (e.g., kissing or embracing someone while lying naked in bed) or simulating a sex act (e.g., affecting fellatio or masturbation) scored ''1'' in this category.

Sexual Role Play: 0–1 point; measured symbols of sexual role playing—such as infantilization (e.g., child-like clothes) or bondage/domination (e.g., leather bustier, leather straps, dog collars, studded bracelets). Images that suggested no sexual role play received a 0 and those that illustrated sexual role play scored ''1'' in this category.

Appendix H

Table 1. *Means for All the Major Variables among Facebook and Non-Facebook Participants*

Reason	Subsample	Comparison of Participants in Facebook Subsample (n=100) and Non-Facebook Subsample (n=161)			
		M	*SD*	*t*	*df*
Self-Objectification	Facebook sample	3.71	1.03	1.26	192
	Comparison sample	3.91	1.14		
Internalization of the "thin ideal"	Facebook sample	2.98	0.93	1.27	204
	Comparison sample	3.15	1.06		
Appearance Contingency of Self-Worth	Facebook sample	4.92	1.08	5.68	193
	Comparison sample	5.00	1.03		
Body Areas Satisfaction	Facebook sample	3.52	0.60	-.195	201
	Comparison sample	3.34	0.73		
Appearance Evaluation	Facebook sample	3.60	0.71	-2.08*	205
	Comparison sample	3.36	0.92		

Notes. * $p < .05$.

*The Facebook sample participated in the Facebook photo sharing portion of the study; the comparative sample did not participate in the Facebook photo sharing portion of the study.

Table 2. *Frequencies of Self-Sexualization Categories*

|	Count	Percent	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Median
Breast/Chest	285	9.6%	1	2	1.2	1
Buttocks	44	1.49%	1	2	1.3	1
Clothing/Nudity	648	21.9%	1	4	1.6	1
Eyes	168	5.68%	1	1	1	1
Genitals	0	0	0	0	0	0
Head v.s. Body	349	11.80%	1	1	1	1
Legs/Thighs	126	4.26%	1	2	1.1	1
Mouth	106	3.58%	1	2	1.2	1
Pose	431	14.58%	1	3	1.1	1
Self-Taken	708	23.94%	1	2	1.6	1
Sex Act	26	.88%	1	1	1	1
Sexual Role Play	5	.17%	1	1	1	1
Touch	61	2.06%	1	2	1.4	1
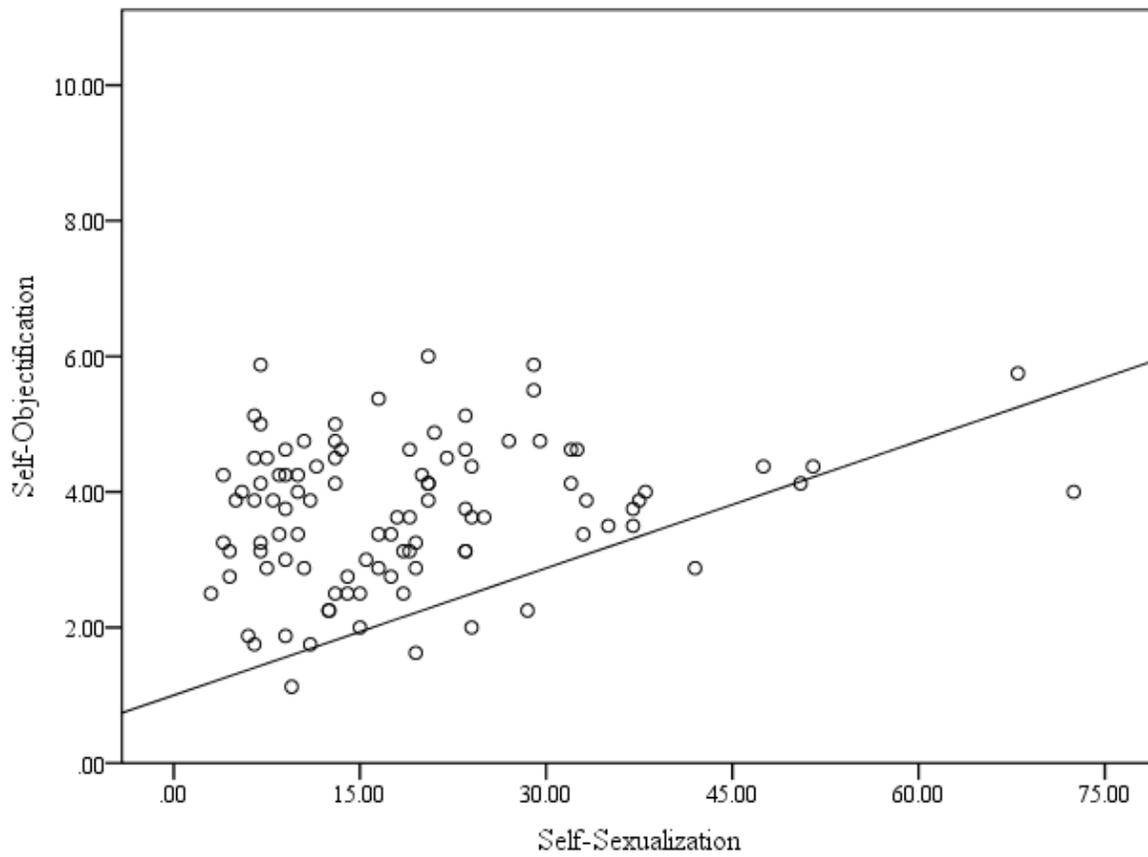
Figure 1. The Relationship between self-sexualization on Facebook and self-objectification

Table 3. *Descriptive Statistics for and Intercorrelations among Major Variables (N = 100).*

	Self-Sexualization	Self-Objectification	Body Image Satisfaction (AE)	Body Image Satisfaction (BAS)	Internalization	ACSW
Self-Sexualization	-					
Self-Objectification	.23*	-				
Body Image Satisfaction (Appearance Evaluation)	.06	.44***	-			
Body Image Satisfaction (Body Areas Satisfaction)	-.01	-.43***	.81***	-		
Internalization	.125	.70***	-.41***	-.43***	-	
Appearance Contingency Of Self-Worth (ACSW)	.21	.72***	-.48***	- .50***	.71***	-
Age	-.19	-.04	-.05	-.06	-.08	-.04
Range	0-25	1-6	1-5	1-5	1-5	1-7
Mean	18.90	3.70	3.60	3.51	2.97	4.92
Standard Deviation	13.13	1.03	.71	.60	.93	1.08

Notes. * $p<.05$; ** $p<.01$. ***$p<.001$.
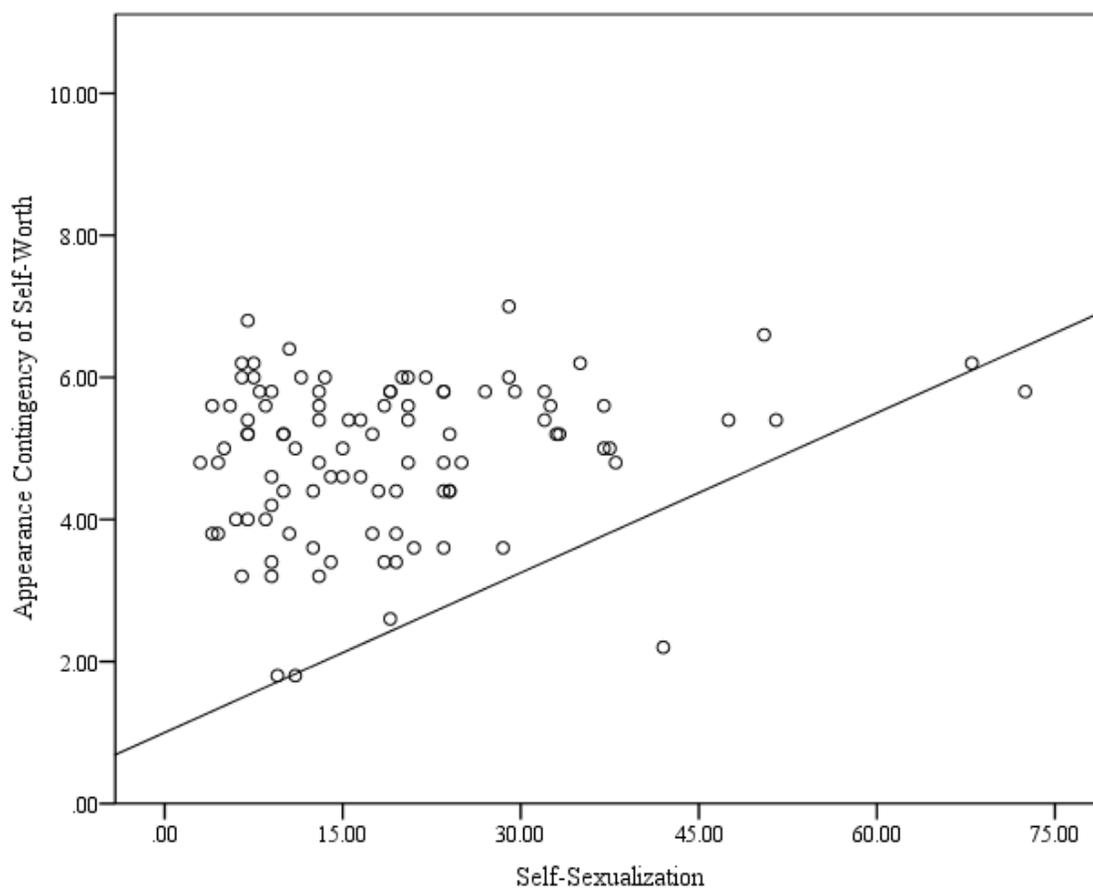
Figure 2. The Relationship between self-sexualization on Facebook and appearance contingency of self-worth