

“DON’T CHA WISH YOUR GIRLFRIEND WAS HOT LIKE ME?”

EXAMINING THE IMPACT OF MUSIC VIDEOS ON ADOLESCENT FEMALE BODY  
DISSATISFACTION AND SELF-OBJECTIFICATION

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## ABSTRACT

The present study aimed to examine whether relationships exist between viewing objectifying music video images and adolescent female body dissatisfaction and self-objectification. Objectification Theory (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997) was used as a framework for understanding the potential impact of music video viewing. Participants completed the following self-report measures: the Body Image States Scale (BISS; Cash, Fleming, Alindogan, Steadman & Whitehead, 2002) to assess levels of body satisfaction, Self-objectification Questionnaire (SOQ; Noll & Fredrickson, 1998) to measure levels of self-objectification, and the researcher-created Music Video Viewing Survey (MVVS) to determine amount of music video viewing. Sequential multiple regression analyses controlling for Body Mass Index and Ethnicity were conducted.

A sample of 108 females ages 16 – 18 years was recruited from public high schools in North-Central Saskatchewan. Findings revealed significant relationships between self-objectification and body satisfaction, as well as body mass index (BMI) and body satisfaction scores. A significant relationship between music video viewing and body satisfaction scores, but not with self-objectification scores, was observed. This finding suggests that body satisfaction decreases as amount of music video viewing time increases. Strengths and limitations of the present study and implications for practice and future research are discussed. Future research is needed to further explore the relationship between music video viewing and body dissatisfaction in adolescent females and begin to examine the potential impacts of music video viewing on male viewers.

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## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Approximately 84-95% of young, American girls and women are dissatisfied with some aspect of their body or appearance (Cash & Henry, 1995; Hesse-Biber, 2007), putting them at risk for disordered eating (Polivy & Herman, 2002), jeopardizing their general life satisfaction (Giudice, 2006) and even predicting suicidal ideation (Rodriguez-Cano, Beato-Fernandez & Llario, 2006). The role that objectifying and sexualizing media images plays in the causation of negative body attitudes in girls and women has received much attention, and media has long been implicated as a significant risk factor for the development of these negative body attitudes (Grabe, Hyde & Ward, 2008). Pressure from and internalization of media images depicting an objectified female body and beauty ideal have been identified as playing significant roles in the development of body dissatisfaction and drive for thinness in young, adolescent women (Blowers, Loxton, Gradey-Flessler, Occhipinti & Sharon, 2003; Calogero, Davis & Thompson, 2005; Polivy & Herman, 2002). Despite a growing body of evidence that implicates the idealized images of girls and women in the development and perpetuation of negative body attitudes in women, additional research examining the effects of objectifying and sexualized media images of girls and women on female body attitudes is still needed (American Psychological Association, 2007).

### **Statement of the Problem**

While a large body of literature exists to support that viewing idealized images of girls and women in television and advertising negatively impacts female body satisfaction and other body attitudes (Groesz, Levine & Murnen, 2001; Grabe et al., 2008), the impact of music videos, a readily accessible and commonly viewed form of media with sexualizing and objectifying images of females, has received little attention. Three research studies have examined and

identified the negative effects of music video images on young adult female body dissatisfaction (Bell, Lawton & Dittmar, 2007; Grabe & Hyde, 2009; Tiggemann & Slater, 2003), but further research is needed to examine the effects of music video images on adolescent females, a particular population that is at increased risk for developing eating disordered behaviours and that regularly views music videos (Comstock & Scharrer, 2007). An estimated 80% of youth 12 years of age and older in America watch music television with average daily viewing times ranging from 25-30 minutes per day to two hours per day (Comstock & Scharrer, 2007; Kubey & Larson, 1990; Sun & Lull, 1986). Music psychology research reports on adolescents' use of music to manage mood (e.g., Saarikallio & Erkkila, 2007) and identifies gender differences on reported impact of music listening on affect (e.g., Larson, 1995). Further study of the impacts of music video viewing on the body attitudes of girls and women deserve the attention of researchers in order to increase understanding of these potential effects and to ultimately inform evidence-based intervention practices that may be beneficial in preventing or reducing the negative impacts that these images may be having on women.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the current study was to further investigate the potential impacts of music video viewing in every day contexts on body attitudes such as body dissatisfaction in women. Objectification Theory was chosen to provide a framework for understanding the negative effect on body satisfaction associated with viewing images of the female beauty ideal in the media. Objectification Theory suggests that the systematic objectification of the female body in media and culture causes women to adopt a self-objectifying perspective on their physical self (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997) and recent research has demonstrated that media images contribute to self-objectification and its relationship with body dissatisfaction and eating

disordered behaviour (Calogero et al., 2005; Harper & Tiggemann, 2008). However, media images in music video as well as the particular population of adolescent females have been little studied. Thus, the current study aimed to examine the relationship between adolescent female music video viewing and body dissatisfaction within the framework of Objectification Theory.

### **Research Questions and Hypotheses**

This research study examined the potential relationship between music video viewing, self-objectification and body satisfaction in Canadian adolescent females. The researchers asked the following research questions: (1) what relationship, if any, exists between self-objectification and body satisfaction in a Canadian adolescent female population? and (2) what relationship, if any, does the amount of music video viewing have with levels of body satisfaction and levels of self-objectification in a Canadian adolescent female population? Using a self-report methodology and multiple regression analysis, the following hypotheses were examined:

(1) there is a significant negative relationship between self-objectification and body satisfaction scores;

(2) there is a significant negative relationship between the level of exposure (i.e., time/amount per week) to music videos and body satisfaction scores; and

(3) there is a significant positive relationships between level of exposure to music videos and self-objectification scores.

The null hypotheses were that no significant relationships between the above variables existed.

### **Significance**

Attention from feminist researchers and feminist movements on the sexist nature of the depiction of women began more than 20 years ago (Crawford & Unger, 2004). These studies included critical content analyses of all major sources of media, including television,

advertisements and music videos. These analyses have continued to identify objectifying and derogatory depictions of girls and women across media forms (Crawford & Unger, 2004). In-depth and extensive attention by several key contributors such as Jean Kilbourne, Andrew Goodwin and Sut Jhally has helped to advance our awareness of the nature of these images and promote enhanced understanding of these images and the potential impact it has on viewers. Although work in this area contributes greatly to our understanding and awareness of the sexist nature of media's depictions of women, a review of this literature is beyond the scope of the present thesis. This document will primarily review literature in the area of Psychology. The reader is strongly encouraged to explore the extensive body of work produced in other disciplines such as Sociology, Feminist works and Women and Gender Studies.

The current study fills a gap in the current literature in Psychology that directly examines the relationship and potential impacts of music video viewing with body attitudes in females by (1) providing information regarding an adolescent, female population in Canada; (2) examining the relationship between music video viewing and body satisfaction as it exists in the every day lives of adolescent females; and (3) examining potential relationships within a theoretical framework that may help to further understanding of the processes underlying the relationship between body satisfaction and music video viewing. Further, the current study expands the current body of literature in both media effects and Objectification Theory by providing added information regarding an adolescent Canadian sample and music video viewing.

### **Definitions**

The body dissatisfaction and Objectification Theory literature uses multiple definitions to describe similar concepts and variables. The following are commonly referred to in the literature

reviewed in this thesis, beginning with terms used primarily in the present research and followed by commonly used terms in published works in this area of research.

**Body dissatisfaction.** *Body dissatisfaction* refers to the psychologically salient discrepancy between a person's perceived body and his or her ideal body size, shape, weight, or other physical characteristics (Bell et al., 2007). Body dissatisfaction also refers the negative thoughts and feelings one feels about his or her body based on his or her negative evaluation of their own physical characteristics.

**Objectification Theory.** *Objectification Theory* is a theory that asserts a distinctive female-specific experience of being subject to unique inspection, evaluation, and treatment as an object that is valued primarily for its value and use to others (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Harper & Tiggemann, 2008).

**Sexual objectification.** *Sexual objectification* is one form of oppression that females experience and that is theorized to impact and factor into other social oppressions such as discrimination in employment, violence against women, and trivialization of women's accomplishments (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Sexual objectification is the experience of being valued as an *object*, a body (or a collection of body parts), primarily to be used or consumed by others for pleasure (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997).

**Self-objectification.** *Self-objectification* is the internalization of an observer's view of one's body that results from the normative sexual objectification of the female body by society and its objectifying gaze (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997).

**Body image.** The term *body image*, is used frequently in the body dissatisfaction literature and can be understood as "a person's perceptions, thoughts, and feelings about his or her body" (Grogan, 2006, p. 3) or a "mix of self-perceptions, ideas and feelings about physical

attributes” (Wykes & Gunter, 2005, p. 2). The literature often uses the terms body dissatisfaction and *body image dissatisfaction* interchangeably. Similarly, the literature uses the terms body satisfaction and *body image satisfaction*, referring to a positive evaluation of one’s body and its physical characteristics.

**Thin ideal.** The *thin ideal* refers to the value placed on a very thin, slender body shape by the broader society.

**Drive for thinness.** *Drive for thinness* refers to a specific aspect of body dissatisfaction characterized by an intense motivation to achieve a very thin, slender body shape.

**Habitual body monitoring.** *Habitual body monitoring* refers to the frequent monitoring of one’s own physical appearance in a self-conscious manner from an observer’s viewpoint in order to self-evaluate one’s appearance as likely perceived by others (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Aubrey (2007) refers to this same concept as *body self-consciousness*. Researchers have begun to use body self-consciousness or habitual self-monitoring as a measure for levels of self-objectification. The *Objectified Body Consciousness Scale for Youth* (OBC-Y) created by Lindberg, Hyde and McKinley, 2006 and used in the recent Grabe and Hyde (2009) study, and the new *Objectified Body Consciousness Scale* (Chen & Russo, 2010) are two measures that have been introduced recently in the literature.

**Appearance anxiety and safety anxiety.** Appearance anxiety and safety anxiety are female experiences considered by Objectification Theory to be a result of the internalization of sexual objectification by the media. *Appearance anxiety* is the maladaptive experience of worry about “not knowing when and how one’s [own] body will be looked at and evaluated” (Citrin et al., 2004, p. 210). *Safety anxiety* results from a pervasive fear of danger resulting from physical evaluations of others.

**Thesis Organization**

The thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter One provides an overview of the study, its purpose and significance. Chapter Two consists of a review of the literature including information on body dissatisfaction, Objectification Theory and relevant self-objectification literature and media effects psychological research. Chapter Three summarizes the research method, procedures, data collection and analysis. Chapter Four presents the results and Chapter Five provides a discussion of the results and implications for practice and further research.

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter familiarizes the reader with the normative body dissatisfaction that girls and women experience along with the potentially dangerous or detrimental consequences of body dissatisfaction and associated psychological/mental health concerns (e.g., depression, anxiety, eating disorders). Objectification Theory and related literature are reviewed as an appropriate theoretical framework for understanding the etiology and persistence of body dissatisfaction in female populations. Adolescence is a particularly significant period of time for the onset in the development of body dissatisfaction; literature supporting and setting precedence for research with this population is briefly reviewed.

Media has long been implicated in the causation of female body dissatisfaction; a representative sample of the media effects literature on body dissatisfaction is reviewed and discussed. Research on the potential deleterious effects of music videos on young female body dissatisfaction is lacking in the literature despite the frequency with which music videos are viewed. The consequent need for cause and effect research in the area of body dissatisfaction and music video viewing is illustrated. The current study, as a means of responding to the current gap in the sparse literature regarding music video effects on adolescent female body dissatisfaction, will then be outlined.

### **Objectification Theory**

Objectification Theory is a theory that asserts a distinctive female-specific experience of being subject to unique inspection, evaluation, and treatment as an object that is valued primarily for its value and use to others (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Harper & Tiggemann, 2008).

*Sexual objectification* is one form of oppression that females experience and that is theorized to impact and factor into other social oppressions such as discrimination in employment, violence



against women, and trivialization of women's accomplishments (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Sexual objectification is the experience of being valued as an *object*, a body (or a collection of body parts), primarily to be used or consumed by others for pleasure (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). This, in turn, undermines a girl's or woman's value as a female, a sister or mother, a student, an employee, or simply as a human being. In essence, a woman's body or body parts are separated out from herself as a person, and she is evaluated based on her body instead (i.e., as an object). Objectification Theory (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997) provides a framework for understanding the negative effect on body satisfaction associated with viewing images of the female beauty ideal in the media.

A habitual monitoring of one's physical appearance is a form of self-consciousness that has the potential to significantly interrupt the flow of a girl or woman's consciousness and results from *self-objectification*. Self-objectification is the internalization of an observer's view of one's body that results from the normative sexual objectification of the female body by society and its objectifying gaze. Fredrickson and Roberts (1997) suggested that "in a culture that objectifies the female body, whatever girls and women do, the potential always exists for their thoughts and actions to be interrupted by images of how their bodies appear" (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997, p. 182).

Objectification Theory suggests that the systematic objectification of the female body in media and culture causes women to adopt a self-objectifying perspective on their physical self (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Sexual objectification by others is out of a woman's control and it is virtually impossible to avoid contexts in which a woman may be objectified. Although all women are unique and will experience objectification in unique ways, Fredrickson and Roberts

suggested that the experience of having a reproductively mature female body allows for a set of shared experiences with objectification that can be studied and explored.

Women encounter an objectifying gaze in three arenas: (a) a woman's actual interpersonal and social situations and experiences (b) interpersonal and social situations observed in the visual media and (c) images in North American media that highlight and focus on female bodies and body parts, aligning the viewers to produce a sexually objectifying gaze on the female's body or body parts. There is a solid body of research that provides evidence of the negative effects of viewing thin ideal or objectifying images of the female body from multiple forms of media including magazine, advertising, television/film and music videos (Aubrey, 2007; Dohnt & Tiggemann, 2006a; Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Grabe et al., 2008; Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2003a; Harper & Tiggeman, 2008; Tiggemann & Pickering, 1996).

**Potential impacts of self-objectification.** Several psychological and experiential consequences may result from the internalization of this objectifying gaze (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Citrin, Roberts & Fredrickson, 2004). Self-objectification, due to the very personal nature of this internalized view of oneself, is considered an individual difference variable (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). However, Fredrickson and Roberts suggested that the potential for both long-term, stable effects and situation specific experiences and consequences of objectification within a specific context exists due to similar shared experiences of objectification within Western culture. Based on the literature reviewed by Fredrickson and Roberts, the consequential experiences of self-objectification shared by women are (a) the experience of shame, (b) anxiety surrounding appearance and safety, (c) the disruption of a woman's ability to experience "flow" or peak motivational states and (d) a reduced awareness of internal bodily states (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997).

Shame results from a negative self-evaluation based on a particular body ideal and the potential for social evaluation (also Citrin et al., 2004) accompanied with the attribution of these shortcomings to the self (e.g., “I am worthless”). Fredrickson and Roberts (1997) argued that shame, which is often experienced as a moral emotion, is an inappropriate emotional reaction to a negative evaluation of the body which is much more difficult to adjust or change than, for example, immoral behaviour. This reaction to a negative evaluation of personal appearance is common in girls and women and speaks to the power and meaning that has evolved around the importance of female appearance. Similarly, women may also feel a sense of disgust by the discrepancy between their own appearance and a particular ideal (e.g., tall, slender) that they perceive (Citrin et al., 2004). This has been demonstrated as a result of self-objectification in several experimental studies (e.g., Fredrickson, Roberts, Noll, Quinn, Twenge, 1998; Roberts & Gettman, 2004) and again is experienced as a sense of personal failure. The authors summarized that the “habitual body monitoring encouraged by a culture that sexually objectifies the female body can lead women to experience shame that is recurrent, difficult to alleviate, and constructed as a matter of morality” (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997, p. 182).

Currently, many girls and women live with anxiety caused by the anticipation of unknown and potentially negative evaluations by others as a result of everyday interactions. The anxiety that females experience exists in two forms, *appearance anxiety* and *safety anxiety* (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Appearance anxiety is the maladaptive experience of worry about “not knowing when and how one’s [own] body will be looked at and evaluated” (Citrin et al., 2004, p. 210). Safety anxiety results from a pervasive fear of danger resulting from physical evaluations of others. These feared evaluations overemphasize physical characteristics such as weight, clothing or hair and makeup when forming impressions of a female individual. People

will often make social judgments about an individual's intelligence and/or personality based on their appearance. A study by Gurung and Chrouser (2007) demonstrated that women who are dressed more provocatively are judged as being less intelligent and capable than those who dress more conservatively. The reality that survivors of sexual assault are often accused by others of provoking the assailant's reaction by looking, dressing, or acting a certain way provides evidence to women that appearance is a valid source of concern (Citrin et al., 2004). Interestingly, Citrin, et al. (2004) suggested that the sexual objectification of females is a key component of sexual violence, arguing that men view women as sexual objects first and foremost and thus, certain "types" of female objects warrant a specific reactions or responses. Therefore, women who are subjectively judged by a man as being provocatively dressed demand sexual advances from the man as a door demands to be opened or a drink demands to be consumed (Citrin et al., 2004). The common knowledge of this tendency for females to be objectified and judged not only by men but by women as well (Strelan & Hargreaves, 2005) allows for the common experience of appearance-related anxiety among girls and women.

From a very early age women begin to experience the disruption that results from the objectification of the female body. Citrin et al. (2004) pointed out that interruptions of a sexually objectifying nature begin as early as elementary school for young girls, even before they begin to develop. As women grow and develop throughout childhood, adolescence and early adulthood, they are provided with constant reminders that they cannot escape the objectifying gaze. This leads to the disruptive experience of self-objectification that creates a state of self-consciousness that holds the power and authority to interfere with one's own experiences. Most importantly, both self-conscious awareness and objectifying social experiences can disrupt peak motivational states or *flow*, the ability to become fully absorbed in a worthwhile and/or challenging mental or

physical activity (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Citrin et al., 2004). As peak motivational states are related to optimal experience, the culturally-encouraged habit of self-objectifying body monitoring limits a woman's ability to initiate and maintain this flow and thus may reduce the woman's quality of life (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997).

Finally, the internalization of a sexually objectifying gaze on one's own body may lead to a reduced awareness of internal bodily states, such as physical signs (e.g., hunger, heartbeat) as well as emotions and emotional indicators. Fredrickson and Roberts (1997) argued that "by internalizing an observer's perspective as a primary view of physical self, women may lose access to their own inner physical experiences" (p. 185), which has the potential to interfere with the enjoyment and appreciation of positive physical sensations and the valuable utility of the body. For example, the cultural practices that objectify the female body can also work to decrease women's opportunities to experience positive emotions. Citrin et al. (2004) cite two examples: smiling (expressing happiness) and expressing anger.

In North American culture, smiling is part of the ideal surrounding beauty and attractiveness; thus, a woman's smile often loses its emotional communicative value as women often force themselves to smile in order to "look pretty" (Citrin et al., 2004, p. 211). Additionally, this prescription for feminine attractiveness works to further oppress and devalue women – while women are considered more likeable if they smile, others often regard them as less competent and are more likely to be interrupted by others (Coates & Feldman, 1996; Citrin et al., 2004; Hecht & LaFrance, 1998). Conversely, the expression of anger by a girl or woman is construed as unbecoming and inappropriate and thus makes the woman "ugly" (Citrin et al., 2004). Those women who manage to control their anger in public are considered to be much more "mature" and "sophisticated".

These experiences may not only impact the expression of emotion for women but also their experience of their own emotions (Citrin et al., 2004). The gender norms surrounding emotion limit expressive options which in turn impacts the way others perceive women; thus, there is a “cyclical relationship between gender and emotions” (Citrin et al., 2004, p. 215) whereby cultural gender norms influence emotional expression as well as, perhaps, experience, and emotional expression in turn influences ideas and understanding of gender. When one considers, for example, Western cultural ideas and experience around men crying and expressing sadness or women expressing anger in public, certain understandings of emotional expression by gender surface. The violation or transgression of these social gender norms impact an individual’s relative status in society; for example, expressing anger violates power status between men and women, of which men are assumed to have more power and thus should express anger and hide sadness (a cultural sign of weakness in men; Citrin et al., 2004). Interestingly, these self-conscious or moralizing emotions identified as the likely results of self-objectification are hypothesized to keep women in their lower status positions by instilling a sense of punishment.

The negative impact of self-objectification may also contribute to women’s depression, sexual dysfunction, eating disorders, and overall self-worth and life satisfaction. In young adolescence, objectification increases and the similarities between those women who are objectified and the young adolescent girls become more prevalent. At this time, mental health risks such as significant, pervasive declines in self-esteem, disordered eating and depressive symptoms begin to present themselves (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Objectification theory predicts that with the onset of new challenges following the initiation of pubertal development, young girls are faced for the first time with the reality that they will be seen and evaluated by

others “*as a body*, not as herself” (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997, p. 194). This, in turn, triggers the development of habitual body monitoring and the internalization of an observer’s perspective of her own body, followed by subjective experiences and consequences such as shame and anxiety in response to objectifying social experiences, which ultimately puts the girl at increased risk for multiple poor mental health outcomes in adulthood.

**Self-objectification and media.** Current research in the area of self-objectification raises concern about the potential negative impact of exposure to objectifying media images. Calogero, Davis and Thompson (2005) extended their study of media effects on self-objectification to examine the role that self-objectification and media play in the experience of eating disorders. Survey results of 209 American women in treatment at a facility for recovery from eating disorders were analyzed using multiple regression. Self-objectification was found to partially mediate the relationship between internalization of media images and a drive for thinness while internalization of media contributed a unique variance to scores for drive for thinness. The authors suggested that the “viewing of sexually objectifying images of women in media (e.g., magazines, music videos, TV shows) may be a contributing factor to the chronic viewing of oneself as a sexual object if those images become integrated into one’s self-perception” (Calogero et al., 2005, p. 47). Internalized ideals of beauty as presented in the media then contribute to the objectification of the self.

Roberts and Gettman (2004) demonstrated that mere exposure to objectifying media could play a significant role in initiating a self-objectifying state in American women. Using a scrambled sentence test as a primer for body confidence or self-objectification the researchers were able to activate a self-objectification state in women simply by exposing them to physical appearance-related words. Results of correlational analyses on questionnaires filled out by

participants following the activation of self-objectification revealed an increase in appearance anxiety, decrease in the appeal of physical aspects of sexual interaction and negative self-attitudes and emotions in subsequent unrelated contexts (Roberts & Gettman, 2004). These findings support Fredrickson and Roberts' (1997) predictions, specifically that self-objectification leads to negative effects that impact women's' quality of life.

In an experimental study, Calogero (2004) demonstrated that it is possible for women to experience self-objectification in non-body-focused situation, even without actual observers present. The anticipation of engaging in "small talk" with a male stranger elicited an increase in self-objectification as measured by the Self-Objectification Questionnaire (SOQ), supporting Objectification Theory's central tenet that an objectifying gaze becomes internalized and can elicit negative experiences of objectification without actual exposure to objectification by others.

In Calogero's (2004) study, anticipation of a female gaze elicited lowered levels of body shame and appearance anxiety despite evidence that women do compare and evaluate other women (Calogero, 2004; Strelan & Hargreaves, 2005). Calogero suggested that this may further support Objectification Theory as the theory describes self-objectification as an "adaptive" strategy that allows women to anticipate potential negative repercussions of appearance-related evaluations by a specifically male observer (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Women who anticipated a woman's gaze may perceive women primarily as a positive social support, thus making it less likely that the association between appearance evaluation and treatment is triggered. Whether or not women consider another woman's gaze as evaluative and objectifying, this research demonstrated that women do objectify other women (Strelan & Hargreaves, 2005). In fact, those women that are highly self-objectifying are also more likely to objectify other women, and to a lesser extent, are more likely to objectify men (Strelan & Hargreaves, 2005).



In a survey of 384 American undergraduate students (227 female), Aubrey (2007) demonstrated that self-conscious body monitoring, triggered by exposure to sexually objectifying media, partially contributes to an increase in negative body emotions. Participants were first asked to self-report their viewing of sexually objectifying media and then provided with a battery of questionnaires intended to measure body self-consciousness, negative body emotions and sexual self-perceptions. Several controls were put in place, including level of sexual experience and global self-esteem. Regression analyses demonstrated that not only does exposure to sexually objectifying media images contribute to self-conscious body monitoring and negative body emotions, exposure to such images can interrupt the flow of natural sexual functioning which, in turn, reduces sexual satisfaction and enjoyment.

Recognizing the potential negative impact of self-objectification delineated above, it is important to explore what is known about the role that media images play in contributing to self-objectification and its relationship with body dissatisfaction and eating disordered behaviour (Calogero et al., 2005; Harper & Tiggemann, 2008). Recent research demonstrates that exposure to media images that objectify the female body are likely to contribute to self-objectification and subsequent body dissatisfaction.

### **Body Dissatisfaction**

The focus of this study is body dissatisfaction, which has been defined as “a psychologically salient discrepancy between a person’s perceived body and their ideal body” (Bell et al., 2007, p. 137) or “a person’s negative thoughts and feelings about his or her body...negative evaluation of body size, shape... weight,” usually involving the afore-mentioned perceived discrepancy between a person’s perceived body and his or her ideal body (Grogan, 2006, p. 4). Unlike Eating Disorders that are diagnosed using the Diagnostic and Statistical

Manual-IV-Text Revision (American Psychiatric Association, 2000), body dissatisfaction is not characterized as pathology but rather a subsection on the continuum of thoughts, attitudes and behaviours that bridges a healthy body image and eating disorder diagnoses (e.g., Russell-Mayhew, 2007; Smiley, King & Avery, 1997). Body dissatisfaction is an aspect of *body image*, which can be understood as “a person’s perceptions, thoughts, and feelings about his or her body” (Grogan, 2006, p. 3) or a “mix of self-perceptions, ideas and feelings about physical attributes” (Wykes & Gunter, 2005, p. 2). The focus on body image dissatisfaction, commonly referred to as body dissatisfaction, highlights attitudinal work in body image focusing specifically on satisfaction with and evaluation of the body (Grogan, 2006). Other terms used in the body dissatisfaction literature are *thin ideal*, or the value placed on a very thin, slender body shape by the broader society, and *drive for thinness*, an intense motivation to achieve a very thin, slender body shape.

In an era where visual, physical beauty is so strongly emphasized and valued, women’s dissatisfaction with their bodies has become so widespread as to warrant identifying it as a “normative discontent” (Cash & Henry, 1995; Grogan, 2006). According to Wykes and Gunter (2005), the pervasiveness of body-oriented concerns in women across the lifespan cannot be doubted; this ‘normative discontent’ has touched women worldwide, affecting both Western and Eastern cultures, industrialized and developing countries. Although studies of prevalence are challenging to find, the figures that can be found are shocking. Cash and Henry (1995) reported that 84% of their sample of 800 American women was dissatisfied with at least one aspect of their physical appearance (e.g., dissatisfaction with weight, buttocks, thighs/hips, stomach; Kashubeck-West, Mintz & Weigold, 2005). These researchers also demonstrated that, of this overwhelming majority experience of body dissatisfaction with some aspect of their physical

appearance, nearly half (48%) of women report a global dissatisfaction with their appearance. This number represents a statistically significant increase from Cash, Winstead and Janda's 1986 sample of over 900 women, 30% of which reported global dissatisfaction with their bodies (Cash et al., 1986; Cash & Henry, 1995). A 2007, large-scale study surveying over 2,000 American undergraduate men and women revealed that almost 30% of women were dissatisfied with their bodies, as compared to 15% of men (Frederick, Forbes, Grigorian & Jarcho). Just over 50% of women reported that they were satisfied with their bodies, whereas almost 70% of men reported satisfaction with their current body image. These differences represent statistically significant disparities in the way that men and women feel and think about their bodies.

This normative experience of female body dissatisfaction begins at a young age. Adolescent females have been identified as being especially vulnerable to body dissatisfaction and eating disorders as increased attention is paid to the body when it begins to develop during puberty (Comstock & Scharrer, 2007; Grogan, 2006). Research in the United States of America shows that the most common age range of onset for disordered eating is between the ages of 14 and 25 years but has been documented in children as young as 10 years old (Sullivan, 1995). Although diagnosable eating disorders have a lifetime prevalence of 3% of the population (Cavanaugh & Lemberg, 1999) and up to 27% of girls ages 12 to 18 years may be engaging in problematic food and weight behaviours (Zhu & Walsh, 2002), these figures do not provide the entire picture of destructive thoughts, attitudes and behaviours that characterize contemporary women's normative discontent with their bodies. In a 2002 study by Kassow, 74% of grade 1, 2, and 3 American girls sampled reported being dissatisfied with their bodies and 68% chose a very thin body shape as their ideal. Another survey study based on a sample of 1,739 adolescent, Canadian girls demonstrated that 47% of the 11-year-old girls, 58% of the 13-year-old girls and

55% of the 15-year-old girls reported that they would change the way that they look if they could (Jones, Bennett, Olmsted, Lawson & Rodin, 2001). Summarizing the research, Grogan suggested that young girls become critical of their body before adolescence, and begin to use discourse around body image and body dissatisfaction similar to that of adult women (Grogan, 2006). This evidence speaks to the discomfort and dissatisfaction girls as young as 10 years old feel in their own bodies.

Although body dissatisfaction is not a pathological disorder, it has many associated negative repercussions. Research has demonstrated significant relationships between body dissatisfaction and disordered eating (e.g., Johnson & Wardle, 2005; Polivy & Herman, 2002), depressive mood and low self-esteem (Paxton, Neumark-Sztainer, Hannan, & Eisenberg, 2006), general life satisfaction (Giudice, 2006) and even suicidal ideation (Rodriguez-Cano al., 2006). Johnson and Wardle (2005) examined responses on survey measures from over 1,000 British adolescent girls and found that body dissatisfaction predicted all adverse effects measured, specifically, emotional eating, binge eating, abnormal attitudes to eating and weight, low self-esteem, stress, and depression. In a five-year longitudinal study examining the relationship between body satisfaction and health-related behaviours in 1383 female adolescents in the USA, Neumark-Sztainer, Paxton, Hannan, Haines and Story (2006) demonstrated that, after controlling for Body Mass Index (BMI), lower levels of body satisfaction in females was related to increased dieting, very unhealthy weight control behaviors, and lower physical activity. This study demonstrated that females that were dissatisfied with their bodies in early adolescents (mean age 12.7 years) were likely to report depressive mood and low self-esteem at five-year follow-up. BMI, ethnicity and socioeconomic status were controlled for in the analyses. Interestingly, females reports of body dissatisfaction in mid-adolescence (mean age 15.8 years) did not predict

depressive mood and low self-esteem at the five-year follow-up. This suggests that there may be a critical period during adolescence for which body dissatisfaction may be a risk factor for depression and low self-esteem. These are just a few examples of the range of negative outcomes that body dissatisfaction has been shown to predict.

### **Media and Female Body Dissatisfaction**

Mass media, including television, film, magazines and commercials/advertisements, has long been implicated in the prevalence of body dissatisfaction in girls and women (Wolf, 1997; Wykes & Gunter, 2005). The development of technologies has allowed for the widespread dissemination of idealized images of female beauty, in particular, Western ideals of female beauty. As Wolf pointed out, most assumptions about the way women have always thought about “beauty” date from no earlier than the 1830s when industrialization and the development of these media technologies allowed such idealized images of the female form to circulate. Media has a powerful potential for effects on body image as it often provides “the benchmark used to judge physical beauty” (Comstock & Scharrer, 2007, p. 273), and plays a significant role in establishing what our society considers normal, acceptable and ideal. Consequently, many studies have examined the impact of different forms of media on female body satisfaction and body image in general.

A meta-analysis of 25 years of research published in the journal *Human Communication Research* (Emmers-Sommer & Allen, 1999) identified several themes in the meta-analysis results: (a) age is positively correlated with understanding, processing ability and attending to media, (b) mass media is a significant source of learning, and (c) media have the ability to influence attitudes and subsequent related thoughts and behaviours. Media is a source of learning, providing information about social issues and politics (Emmers-Sommer & Allen,

1999). Individuals in Western society cannot avoid consuming an exorbitant amount of media, especially television and advertisements, and a significant amount of learning inevitably takes place. The authors discussed this as a concern, especially in the context of the demonstrated impact of a child's age on their ability to process and understand media. Specifically, a child develops an increasing ability to process and understand media as they age (Emmers-Sommer & Allen, 1999).

As children and adolescents are often exposed to media featuring idealized images of women as well as sexualized imagery while they are still en route to developing the skills to understand and process this information in a real-world context (e.g., to realize that high school is not crowded with incredibly tall, impossibly slim and flawless teenage girls in a real-life context), the potential negative impact of media presenting these types of images and ideal is both relevant and significant. Emmers-Sommer and Allen's study was conducted in 1999 studying media that, in comparison with today's High Definition photography and filming, would have been significantly less "realistic" and "true-to-life". The impact of learning social values and attitudes from media may have increased significantly since this time as current, high-definition media images may be interpreted to be more in line with reality (as it certainly appears to be). Unfortunately, by the time these new high definition images are released to the public, women have been made-up, dressed-up, touched up, digitally enhanced, re-shaped and polished to the point of impossibly slender, pore-less and flawless "perfection" that can leave girls and women feeling like they don't measure up (Grogan, 2006).

Groesz, Levine and Murnen (2001) examined 25 studies that experimentally manipulated exposure to images of the thin female body ideal commonly presented in the media and the effect that exposure had on female body image satisfaction. This meta-analysis of 43 effect sizes

revealed a small but consistent, significant negative impact of exposure to thin ideal images on female body satisfaction (Groesz et al., 2001). The authors noted that this effect seems to be stronger when participants were exposed to images of the thin ideal only, rather than to both experimental and control images. These findings support the perspective that mass media has the power to establish and normalize a standard of thinness and beauty which makes women feel dissatisfied with their own appearance (Groesz et al., 2001). Further analysis of those studies that include a measure of dispositional body dissatisfaction before exposure revealed that women who have internalized the thin body ideal are more vulnerable to the negative effects of exposure to such images on body satisfaction.

Groesz et al. (2001) also demonstrated that, for those that were motivated to think about their body weight, shape, or beauty, exposure to thin ideal images activated a thin ideal schema (i.e., cognitive conceptual representation), which consequently elicited negative feelings around aspects of their bodies. Thus, it is the activation and not the cultivation of this thin ideal schema that appears to elicit negative feelings around body shape, weight and beauty. Finally, the authors noted that the effect was more significant with participants under the age of 19. Groesz, et al. (2001) called for additional research on this effect in girls at different developmental stages as related research suggests that the likelihood that girls will seek out, “enjoy” and compare themselves with slender and idealized images of the female body increases in young adolescence (Martin & Kennedy, 1993; Martin & Gentry, 1997). The authors suggested a need for examining this relationship within the framework of a theory of motivation to view thin ideal images and development of body dissatisfaction as a result of exposure to these images (Groesz et al., 2001).

Recently, Grabe, Hyde and Ward (2008) conducted a meta-analytic review of 77 studies and 141 effects reported in the experimental and correlational literature concerning media effects

on body satisfaction. Grabe and colleagues suggested that, based on the prevalence of body dissatisfaction and the serious mental and physical health risks associated with body dissatisfaction, body satisfaction is a core aspect of women's mental and physical health and wellbeing. Providing converging evidence for the negative relationship between media exposure to thin ideal images and body satisfaction, Grabe et al.'s (2008) results were consistent with Groesz et al. (2001); a small to moderate effect size was demonstrated, indicating an increase in body dissatisfaction associated with exposure to idealized images of the female body. Both correlational and experimental research independently demonstrated this relationship (Grabe et al., 2008). The demonstration of this effect in both correlational and experimental research suggests that this impact occurs in both laboratory and real-world contexts (Grabe et al., 2008). Furthermore, results demonstrate a small, consistent effect of media and internalization of the thin ideal on the frequency of bulimic and anorexic attitudes and behaviours. The researchers concluded that the consistent relationships between media exposure and body dissatisfaction across both correlational and experimental research and across multiple measures of body image, eating behaviours and beliefs provide strong support that media images do have a significant detrimental impact on this core aspect of women's mental and physical health (Grabe et al., 2008).

**Television and body dissatisfaction.** The negative relationship between body dissatisfaction and exposure to television has been consistently demonstrated across ages, races and cultures (e.g., Dohnt & Tiggemann, 2006a; Nathanson & Botta, 2003; Schooler, 2008; Schooler & Trinh, 2011). A correlation between dissatisfaction with one's physical appearances and viewing appearance-focused television programming that has a notable focus on appearance (i.e., popular North American programming such as *Friends*, or *Sex and the City*) has been



demonstrated in girls as young as 5 to 8 years of age (Dohnt & Tiggemann, 2006b). Another study (Harrison, 2000) found that girls in first through third grade were more likely to report eating disorder symptomology as their exposure to television programming increased. On the other hand, those first through third grade girls who were interpersonally attracted to average-sized television characters reported the healthiest body-size choices and viewed thinness as relatively unimportant, demonstrating the potential beneficial function of viewing normal-weight television role models (Harrison, 2000). Internalization of the thin ideal was found to mediate the relationship between body dissatisfaction and television viewing in preadolescent girls (Blowers et al., 2003; Harrison, 2003a; Harrison & Hefner, 2006), whereas only perceived pressure from the media played a significant, unique role in the internalization of the thin ideal. This same relationship between television viewing and body dissatisfaction and drive for thinness has been similarly demonstrated throughout adolescence (Nathanson & Botta, 2003; Schooler, 2008) and into adulthood (Harrison, 2003b; Schooler, Ward, Merriwether & Caruthers, 2004), and the long term negative impact on body dissatisfaction has been documented (Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2003b).

The relationship between Western television program viewing and body dissatisfaction has also been demonstrated across cultures. Schooler (2008) studied a group of Latino girls ages 11 to 17 years who were surveyed regarding body dissatisfaction, level of acculturation and use three types of television programming: mainstream, black-oriented and Spanish-language. A longitudinal follow-up on the original sample revealed that frequent viewing of mainstream television was associated with a decrease in body satisfaction across ages; conversely, frequent viewing of black-oriented television programming (i.e., television programming with an African-American target audience) was associated with increased body satisfaction, especially in those

who reported higher levels of acculturation (Schooler, 2008). In a study comparing Caucasian and Black American women, an increase in body dissatisfaction was found to be associated with more frequent viewing of mainstream television in Caucasian women; conversely, Black women seemed unaffected by mainstream television with a healthy body image associated with frequent viewing of Black-oriented television programming (Schooler et al., 2004). In 2000, Van den Bulck conducted a large survey of over 1,000 Flemish girls ages 17 to 18 years with the intention of identifying potential health effects of watching television. Analysis of survey results demonstrated a preference for watching television programming featuring idealized images of women. Corresponding with these results, lower levels of satisfaction with their weight and held appearance at a greater level of importance (Van den Bulck, 2000). These studies hint at the pervasive effects that mainstream, Western televised images of women can have on girls and women of many racial and cultural backgrounds.

A unique study by Becker, Burwell, Gilman, Herzog and Hamburg (2002) studied the effects of television exposure on a culture that was largely sheltered from western images of idealized female beauty. A group of approximately 60 Fijian females was studied before and after television was introduced in the area. Using the 26-item eating attitudes test (EAT-26) and a semi-structured interview to generate data, the researchers observed that a mere three years later, not only had young women's attitudes towards eating change significantly, and dieting and purging behaviours in young women increased in prevalence from 0% to 11.3%; but, those who owned a television set were three times more likely to have negative attitudes towards eating. Narrative data from interviews at the three year follow-up centred largely around themes of admiration of western television characters and a desire to change aspects of their appearance (e.g., clothing, hair, body shape) in order to better emulate the western television characters that

they admired (Becker et al., 2002; Becker, 2004). Interestingly, although only 77% of females admitted that exposure to television had influenced their own body image and preference toward the western thin ideal, 83% thought that television had influenced body images and preferences of their friends (Becker et al., 2002). The researchers noted the profound impact that the introduction of television had on a culture, which seemed previously to protect young women from body dissatisfaction and dieting, suggesting the potential negative impact that lifelong exposure to these idealized images may have.

**Magazines and body dissatisfaction.** Millard and Grant (2006) examined the portrayal of women in fashion spreads in women's magazines and found a striking pattern of Caucasian women posed in an explicitly sexual manner with Black women less often placed in sexual positions but more often positioned in submissive postures. Millard and Grant interpreted this data as demonstrating the prevalence of sexual stereotyping in images of women and race, for women of all races, extending well into the new millennium. In a study of the impact that thin ideal media images have on a women's state level of self-objectification, 90 Australian women, ages 18 - 35 years, were exposed to magazine advertisements that featured thin-idealized women (Harper & Tiggemann, 2008). Harper and Tiggemann proposed that self-objectification is the mechanism through which exposure to thin ideal media translates to increases in body dissatisfaction. Using a between-subjects experimental design, participants were exposed to one of three image conditions: a product-only magazine image condition, an idealized female image condition and an idealized female accompanied by a male image condition. Questionnaires were used to assess state self-objectification, body dissatisfaction, negative mood and appearance anxiety. Results of one-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) controlling for trait self-objectification demonstrated that the participants who were asked to view thin-ideal magazine

ads (both female only and female with male conditions) reported increased state self-objectification, as well as increased weight-related anxiety, negative mood and body dissatisfaction. This was not the case for women who viewed product control advertisements.

Tiggemann (2003) reported that, while exposure to both television and women's magazines is associated with decreased body satisfaction and increased eating disorder symptomology (Vaughan & Fouts, 2003), the processes likely differ. Tiggemann surveyed 104 female undergraduate students, using measures for television and magazine use, body dissatisfaction, disordered eating and awareness of internalization of societal ideals. Results of multiple correlations and regression analysis demonstrated that although the amount of time spent with women's magazines was positively associated with the internalization of thin ideals, watching television was negatively correlated with self-esteem and the awareness of societal ideals, which led Tiggemann (2003) to conclude that internalization of the thin ideal mediated the relationship between exposure to women's magazine and body dissatisfaction. Similarly, Vaughan and Fouts (2003) found that adolescent eating disorder symptomology increased with an increase in magazine exposure over a period of 16 months, whereas a decrease in magazine exposure over a period of 16 months has been associated with a decrease in symptomology. These and other studies support the notion that still images featuring the female ideals in women's magazines increase body dissatisfaction and are associated with detrimental effects on mental health. Women's magazines are a second major media source that demonstrates a contribution to the normative discontent of women with their bodies.

**Television advertisements and body dissatisfaction.** The effect of appearance-related television advertisements on levels of body dissatisfaction in girls and women has also been well established. For example, Hargreaves and Tiggemann (2002) found that exposure to idealized

television advertising images of the female and male body significantly increases body dissatisfaction in girls but not boys, respectively, with increases in body dissatisfaction demonstrated in girls as young as 13 years of age. In 2003, Hargreaves and Tiggemann again demonstrated that experimental exposure to television commercials had a negative impact on young adolescent body satisfaction; 13- to 15-year-old females report higher levels of body dissatisfaction following “thin ideal” commercials persisting at least 15 minutes after viewing. As Botta (1999) emphasized, young adolescents look to images of women in the media and are affected by what they perceive as a realistic representation of what women should look like; indeed, Botta reveals that media variables account for 17% of the variance in body dissatisfaction and 33% of variance in high school girls’ endorsement of the thin ideal.

In a study by Lavine, Sweeny and Wagner (1999), 57 female and 51 male American undergraduate students were exposed to one of three conditions: sexist advertisements, nonsexist advertisements and no advertisements. Sexist advertisements were those that featured the female(s) as a sexual object in an eroticized manner. Participants were asked to rate the pleasantness of the advertisement and subsequently asked to complete a Pictorial Body Image Scale unrelated to the advertisement study. Women who were exposed to advertisements that were judged to portray women as sexual objects assessed their current body size as larger than women who were exposed to non-objectifying advertisements or no advertisements at all (Lavine et al., 1999). Additionally, women who viewed sexually objectifying advertisements had a larger discrepancy between actual and ideal body, preferring a thinner figure sizes than women who are not exposed to the same advertisements (Lavine et al., 1999).

Viewing commercials with appearance-related messages and content has also been demonstrated to cause an increase in beauty-related schema activation and anger as well as

decreasing confidence in women in addition to the established increases in body dissatisfaction (Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2002). When females who were restrained eaters were exposed to dieting products and images of thin models, they consequently ate less (Anschutz, Van Strien & Engles, 2008). Finally, sexual objectification of women in television advertisements also causes increased body dissatisfaction among both women and men. Recall that a study by Lavine et al. (1999) revealed that, when exposed to sexist advertisements, women judged their current body size as larger than both their actual and ideal body sizes than women who were exposed to nonsexist advertisements or those who were exposed to no advertisements at all. Men, after exposure to sexist advertisements judged their current body size as smaller than their actual and ideal body size (Lavine et al., 1999). Thus, advertisements developed to sell an image and products to consumers have the power to influence and affect the body image of both males and females.

**Music video viewing and body dissatisfaction.** In the 2007 report by the American Psychological Association (APA) task force examining the sexualization of girls, a review of the literature illustrated the prevalence of sexualized and objectifying imagery featured in music videos. The APA (2007) reported that somewhere between 44 – 81% of music videos contain sexualized imagery, of which sexually objectifying images of women make up a large portion. The authors indicated that content analyses of music videos noted that women more frequently than men were portrayed as decorative objects, were objectified, dressed in provocative, revealing clothing, and were featured in a manner that emphasized their bodies, body parts and in positions implying sexual readiness. Notably, this is consistent with a content analysis conducted almost 15 years earlier on 40 MTV music videos that demonstrated women engaged in significantly more implicitly sexual and subservient behaviour and were the object of many

aggressive sexual advances (Sommers-Flanagan, Sommers-Flanagan & Davis, 1993). The APA (2007) report went on to note the possible impacts of these images, which included negative impacts on self-esteem, mental health, physical health, sexuality, risks of sexual exploitation, and impacts on attitudes and beliefs about femininity and sexuality. This information set the stage for an important area of research on the link between media and negative body attitudes, among other potential negative impacts.

An estimated 80% of American youth ages 12 and older watch music television with average daily viewing times ranging from 25-30 minutes per day to two hours (Comstock & Scharrer, 2007; Kubey & Larson, 1990; Sun & Lull, 1986). Television stations such as MuchMusic or Music Television (MTV) target an audience from ages 12 to 34 years and provide music videos and other music-related programming to over 7.5 million households in Canada (CNW website group, 2008). In 2007, MuchMusic and MTV Canada websites reported 19 million unique visitors to the sites specifically for video streaming (viewing videos online), with 120 million video streams in total during the calendar year (CNW website group, 2008). MTV, one of the newest media giants, operates MTV stations in countries throughout the world (Corteau & Hoynes, 2001).

A relatively recent and frequent source for music video viewing is YouTube.com, which has been utilized by local radio stations in Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, for example, to determine the popularity of current music and music videos. YouTube provides the total number of times a single version of a video has been viewed. At the time of data collection for this study, the top three music videos as listed by the MuchMusic Countdown (retrieved on February 8, 2011 from [www.muchmusic.com/countdown/](http://www.muchmusic.com/countdown/)) were “We R who we R” by Ke\$ha, “Black and Yellow” by Wiz Kahlifa, and “Coming Home” by Diddy Dirty Money. On YouTube, almost 36 million

individual views within the last six months are indicated for “We R who we R” by Ke\$ha ([http://www.youtube.com/results?search\\_query=we+r+who+we+r+kesha&aq=1&oq=we+r+who+](http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=we+r+who+we+r+kesha&aq=1&oq=we+r+who+), retrieved on June 8, 2011), with Wiz Kahlifa’s “Black and Yellow” boasting over 81 million hits within the last 9 months ([http://www.youtube.com/results?search\\_query=black+and+yellow+wiz+khalifa&aq=0&oq=black+and+](http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=black+and+yellow+wiz+khalifa&aq=0&oq=black+and+), retrieved June 8, 2011), and “Coming Home” by Diddy Dirty Money totaling over 61 million views (<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=k-ImCpNqbJw>, retrieved June 8, 2011).

An informal content analysis on these music videos reveals some patterns of depictions of women that are consistent with the derogatory, oppressive and objectifying images that have received so much attention from the feminist movements (Crawford & Unger, 2004). In “Black and Yellow”, the few references of women are characterized by lyrics such as “ain’t a lesbian, but she’s a freak though” and boasting about having casual sexual relations with women. Images of women in this video are brief and feature women as either serving the male artist (breakfast or grooming) or standing around featured as objects to look at. Women featured are also of lighter skin colour relative to the males featured in the video, which is a pattern of bias towards the attractiveness of “whiteness” (Crawford & Unger, 2004, p. 41).

Both “We R Who We R” and “Coming Home” feature images of women that are primarily objectifying and sexualizing. In both videos, women are scantily clad and dancing or posing in a sexually suggestive manner. Camera shots focus in on body parts, often excluding the face. “We R who we R” features a female artist who is hyper-sexualized, wearing revealing and provocative clothing, touching and focusing on body parts in a sexually provocative manner, and singing lyrics such as “stockings ripped all up the sides, looking sick and sexified”. In “Coming Home”, images of women in lingerie, poised in positions implying sexual readiness upon objects



with camera angles focusing in on legs, chest and other body parts are featured as part of a gallery of broken and burnt objects scattered in the desert; the featured male artist passes by all of the objects, including the women. In viewing that week's Top Three, music video viewers could not avoid sexually objectifying media images and lyrics about women.

Feminist critics, such as Imani Perry (2003), point to music videos as a source of some of the most "widespread sexual objectification and degradation" of women, often characterized by "half-naked women" who depict women and sex as a commodity (p. 137). Perry (2003) wrote,

Women are often presented as vacuous, doing nothing but swaying around seductively. Their eyes are averted from the camera, thereby allowing the viewer to have a voyeuristic relationship to them. Or they look at the camera, eyes fixed in seductive invitation, mouth slightly open. Extremely rare are any signs of thought, humour, irony, intelligence, anger, or any other emotion (p. 137).

Music videos are generally accepted as a largely male-centered form of media, with the camera assuming a male heterosexual perspective appreciating the sexually objectifying images of available women; however, young girls and women watch this form of media as well, allowing women to learn that to be sexy and capture the attention of men involves being "vacuous" and "swaying around seductively", rarely showing any signs of "thought, humour, irony, intelligence, anger, or any other emotion" (Perry, 2003, p. 137).

These music videos fail to teach either men or women about the constructed nature of these images of women. Instead, men and women learn to value an image of women that becomes increasingly idealized as more and more fantasy elements are puzzled together to create her (Perry, 2003). The two-dimensional nature of these fantasy constructions of women are sharply contrasted by the three-dimensional, beautiful, laughing little girls filled with personality

that are commonly featured in music videos. Perry retorted, “Is this what puberty is supposed to hold for these girls?” (p. 139).

In 1996, Tiggemann and Pickering published the results of a correlational study that examined the relationship between television viewing, body dissatisfaction and drive for thinness. Using a procedure adopted from Tangney and Feshbach (1988), the researchers presented 94 adolescent female Australian participants with a copy of the previous week’s television programming and asked participants to indicate which programs they watched. A total viewing time was calculated as well as viewing times by genre or type of programming. Tiggemann and Pickering’s results reveal that the total number of hours of television viewing was not significantly related to body dissatisfaction or drive for thinness. Rather, the amount of time spent watching particular types of programming impacted body dissatisfaction and drive for thinness in young women. Specifically, body dissatisfaction was significantly positively correlated with watching soap operas (serials) and movies, whereas drive for thinness was significantly positively correlated with watching music videos (Tiggemann & Pickering, 1996). Stepwise multiple regressions revealed that music video viewing did, indeed, significantly predict drive for thinness in Tiggemann and Pickering’s sample, providing evidence for the potential impact of music videos on body dissatisfaction and self-objectification through the promotion or drive for thinness.

While the negative effects of television and advertising on female body dissatisfaction have been established (Groesz, Levine & Murnen, 2001; Grabe et al., 2008), the impact of music videos, a readily accessible and commonly viewed form of media with sexualizing and objectifying images of females, has received little attention by researchers in the area of Psychology. Considering recent increases in the accessibility of music videos online, the effects

of these images on young adolescent females, a population at increased risk for developing eating disordered behaviours (Comstock & Scharrer, 2007), should be more closely examined. Young adolescence marks a developmental stage that Objectification Theory cites as a critical turning point in the onset of self-objectification (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997), and the viewing of sexually objectifying music video images beginning in young adolescence may have marked detrimental effects. A September 2011 search of PsychInfo, a search engine focusing on research in Psychology, revealed only three research studies that directly examined the effects of music video images on young adult female body dissatisfaction (Bell et al., 2007; Grabe & Hyde, 2009; Tiggemann & Slater, 2003).

In a recent study by Grabe and Hyde (2009), 196 American female adolescent participants (mean age 13.5 years) completed measure of music television use, self-surveillance, body esteem, current dieting status, depressive symptoms, anxiety and math confidence. Based on responses on these measures, Grabe and Hyde demonstrated that young adolescents viewed music television an average of once per week. Adolescent females reported higher levels of self-objectification than have been reported in previous research, but the majority of the sample (88%) was not dieting. Participants reported relatively low levels of anxiety and 40% of the sample reported no symptoms of depression versus 35% who reported two or more symptoms of depression. Female participants reported their math confidence as relatively high.

In a series of statistical analyses aimed at completing structural equation modeling, Grabe and Hyde demonstrated that music television viewing “marginally predicted body esteem” at the  $p < .10$  level. However, music television viewing significantly predicted current dieting status, anxiety, and math confidence. Further analysis revealed that self-surveillance mediated these relationships between music television and the abovementioned variables. Finally, although

music television viewing was not significantly related to depression, a significant relationship between music television viewing and self-surveillance as well as self-surveillance and depression were demonstrated. This may indicate a significant indirect relationship between depression and music television viewing (Grabe & Hyde, 2009).

It is important to note that Grabe and Hyde (2009) demonstrated only a marginally significant relationship between music television viewing and body esteem. At the  $p < .10$  level, there is an increased risk of Type I error, reflecting a false positive by incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis that predicts an absence of a relationship between these two variables. Grabe and Hyde's measure of MTV viewing may have been an overly simplistic means of gathering information regarding MTV viewing, resulting in a less sensitive measure of this variable. The study used a 4-point scale asking participants to indicate whether they viewed MTV "never", "once a week", "2-5 times a week" or "every day". This measure may not have had enough power to demonstrate differences in viewing patterns; for example, viewing MTV once per week may refer to watching a 3-minute video or a 2-hour top 30 music video count down. However, these results may also reflect a more real-world picture of the impacts of music video viewing on body esteem.

Tiggemann and Slater (2003) were the first to experimentally investigate the potential impact that thin ideal images of the female body in music television may have on body dissatisfaction in women. The authors reasserted the importance of such an investigation when body dissatisfaction has undoubtedly become a normative experience for women in the 21<sup>st</sup> century; idealized images of women presented in the media are argued to be one of the most powerful conveyors of these sociocultural ideals (Tiggemann & Slater, 2003). Whereas correlational studies have suggested a relationship between music video viewing and body

dissatisfaction, no experimental evidence had been collected, leaving the underlying processes of this potential relationship unexamined.

Tiggemann and Slater (2003) recruited 84 female Australian University students (mean age = 20.23 years) to participate in a between-subject, 2 x 2 factorial design investigating the impact of appearance-focused and non-appearance focused music videos (music video condition) and the impact of an instructional set that either encouraged women to compare themselves with the idealized images of female bodies or distracted the women from attention to such comparisons. The design of this study intended to examine the effects of both idealized images of the female body on female body dissatisfaction and the potential for social comparison as the process with which this body dissatisfaction may develop. In groups of three or four females, the researchers presented the tasks as part of a study examining television programming's effects on mood and informed the participants that they would be asked several questions. They were then assigned an instructional set with questions that would either require the women to compare themselves to the women in the music videos or evaluate the creativity of the programming and their levels of boredom. Height and weight were also measured.

Using Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA), the effects of the aforementioned on state mood and body dissatisfaction were examined (Tiggemann & Slater, 2003). Pre- and post-test visual analog scale scores for mood and body dissatisfaction were considered covariates. Results indicated that women in the appearance-focused video condition felt significantly less confident, less physically attractive, fatter and less satisfied with their bodies after viewing the music videos as compared to those who were in the non-appearance-focused music video condition. Follow-up Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs) revealed a main effect of video condition, indicating more social comparison in the appearance-focused video condition,

as well as an interaction between the video condition and the instructional set, pointing to an increase in comparison for either video condition when participants were instructed to compare themselves with the idealized images of the female form in the music videos. Tiggemann and Slater (2003) concluded that even brief exposure to music videos containing thin idealized images of the female body increased body dissatisfaction in young women. The results suggested that these images of thin and attractive women in music videos elicit appearance concerns and social comparison in female viewers. Additionally, the authors suggested that if social comparison can be elicited using instructional set, reducing the amount of comparison tendency in women should reduce the negative impact of exposure to thin ideal images in music videos on body satisfaction.

A recent study examining the impact of music videos images on body dissatisfaction was conducted by Bell, Lawton and Ditomar (2007). The authors employed an experimental exposure design which compared mood, self-esteem and body dissatisfaction scores for groups of British girls aged 16-19 years who were exposed to one of three experimental conditions: (a) exposure to three music videos featuring thin and “glamorous” adolescent models, (b) exposure to the three songs corresponding to the three videos (no images shown), and (c) memorization task requiring participants to memorize lists of neutral words. Each condition required approximately 10 minutes. Eighty-seven female students from an all-female, Catholic School in England participated in the study on a volunteer basis in small groups. As sampling was opportunistic in nature, true randomization was not possible. The girls that participated in the study reported an average of 3.74 hours of music video viewing per week.

Bell et al. (2007) argued that “controlled experimental exposure is best suited to gauging the immediate psychological impact of music videos as a possible cause of girls’ body

dissatisfaction” (p. 138) and these researchers are the first to study the role that music video exposure may play in adolescent girls’ body dissatisfaction in this manner. Controlling for age (which was marginally significantly correlated with body dissatisfaction), the authors conducted 2 x 3 ANCOVAs (level of self-esteem x condition), which examined group scores for each of the two dependent variables (mood and body dissatisfaction). Results demonstrated that exposure to music videos did have a significant impact on state body dissatisfaction scores, with a significant increase in body dissatisfaction in participants that were exposed to the music videos as compared to the control conditions (Bell et al., 2007). However, no differences were found between the two control conditions on body dissatisfaction scores. Positive affect was significantly lowered in girls that participated in the music video or music conditions as compared to baseline scores in the control condition, but no significant differences between these two conditions were detected. The level of self-esteem measured for participants did not moderate the pattern of these results.

Bell et al. (2007) concluded that exposure to glamorous, thin models featured in music videos significantly increased body dissatisfaction in adolescent girls, even with a mere 10 minutes of exposure (Bell et al., 2007). Furthermore, girls with both high and low self-esteem were equally vulnerable to the effects of viewing thin idealized female body images in the context of music videos. However, music and music video effects on mood as compared to the word recall control condition seemed to suggest that mood effects may be relatively independent of body dissatisfaction (Bell et al., 2007). Bell and colleagues suggested that “it is possible that other vulnerability factors, such as high dispositional levels of internalization of the thin ideal... may moderate the relationship” between body dissatisfaction and music video viewing (p. 144). This suggestion parallels Fredrickson and Roberts (1997) suggestion that women internalize a

sexually objectifying view of women that would sensitize them to the effects sexually objectifying or idealizing images of the female body on body satisfaction.

Another recent study examined the moderating role of ethnicity in the impact of viewing rap music videos on body dissatisfaction in African American women (Zhang, Dixon & Conrad, 2009). Zhang et al. used self-report measures to assess body dissatisfaction, body mass index (BMI), black stereotype endorsement, overall television viewing, ethnic identity and exposure to thin-ideal rap videos. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to first remove control variables (i.e., age, MBI, black stereotype endorsement and overall television viewing) and second, to examine the impact of ethnic identity and exposure to thin-ideal rap videos on body dissatisfaction. Zhang et al. (2009) found the amount of music video viewing in African American participants was not directly related to body dissatisfaction. BMI contributed significantly to body dissatisfaction as a control variable. Finally, the influence of music video viewing was moderated by participants' level of identification with their culture, where a stronger cultural identity promoted healthier body image.

**Media, body attitudes, and men.** There is a growing body of literature that examines the impact of idealized or objectifying media images of boys and men on their levels of body satisfaction, self-objectification, and other body-related variables. In 2008, Barlett, Vowels and Saucier conducted a meta-analysis of 25 studies revealed a significant relationship between the pressure that men feel from the mass media and the degree to which men feeling negatively about their bodies. In their first meta-analysis, results demonstrated that pressure from the mass media was related to body dissatisfaction, negative body- and self-esteem, and an increase likelihood of psychological and behavioural outcomes associated with these negative body attitudes. Furthermore, results revealed a negative relationship between the effect size and age,



indicating that older males reported more concern as related to pressure from media. A second meta-analysis examining experimental research revealed similar results, suggesting a causal relationship between exposure to muscular mass media and negative body attitudes. The body attitudes negatively impacted were body satisfaction and body esteem, and an increased likelihood of negative psychological outcomes (e.g., depression). These results suggest that media also plays a significant role in influencing the way men feel about their bodies (Barlett et al, 2008).

A study conducted by Wagner Oehlhof, Musher-Eizenman, Neufeld and Hausser (2009) suggested that Objectification Theory is relevant to both men and women. Responses from 111 women and 72 men (mean age 18.7 years) revealed that, while women self-objectify more than men do, both men and women engage in self-objectification. However, the body ideals for women reflect a less muscular, thinner physique whereas men prefer a larger, more muscular physique. For women, a negative relationships between self-objectification scores and body ideal was found, such that those women with higher levels of self-objectification preferred a smaller, less muscular physique; scores for men reflected the opposite, positive correlation between self-objectification and body ideal. A limitation of his study was the small sample size of male participants, limiting the generalization of these findings.

Daniel and Bridges (2010) conducted an online study surveying 244 college-aged male participants regarding internalization of media ideals, self-objectification, body surveillance, body shame, drive for muscularity, and Body Mass Index (BMI). Results revealed that an internalization of media ideals had a significant, direct impact on self-objectification, body surveillance and drive for muscularity. Body surveillance mediated the relationship between self-objectification and body shame. Finally, BMI exhibited a significant effect on drive for

muscularity. Counter to hypotheses, self-objectification had a negative relationship with body surveillance and internalization of media ideals. The authors conducted a second analysis excluding self-objectification, and demonstrated that the relationship between internalization of media ideals and body shame was mediated by body surveillance. Internalization of media ideals maintained a direct relationship with drive for muscularity, while body shame showed no direct relationship. BMI maintained its significant relationship with drive for muscularity. The authors concluded that objectification did not have a relationship to drive for muscularity, and that objectification as it is currently measured may not be applicable to men.

The authors of this study utilized the unaltered Self-Objectification Scale (SOQ) originally developed for use in women. The reliability and validity of this measure in a male population is unknown. Further, as the authors pointed out, the competency items on the scale that are supposed to reflect a healthy, non-objectifying view of oneself in women, focused on strength, coordination, stamina, etc., which are highly related to the attributes a male individual would emphasize with a high drive for muscularity. This would be consistent with the current Western cultural ideals emphasizing tall, thin and beautiful women and strong, tall and muscular men. Thus, the scores that would reflect a healthy view of oneself as a woman may reflect an objectifying view of oneself as a man. This could explain the unexpected negative relationships between self-objectification, body surveillance, and internalization of media ideals.

Slater and Tiggemann (2010) demonstrated that Objectification Theory appears to be applicable to both male and female adolescents. In a sample of 714 Australian adolescents (382 boys), ranging from 12 to 16 years of age, the researchers demonstrated that a model proposing that body surveillance predicted disordered eating via body shame and appearance anxiety was largely supported for both sexes. However, girls had significantly higher levels of self-

objectification as measured by body surveillance, body shame, appearance anxiety and disordered eating as compared to boys.

Other studies examining the impact of idealized media images on body dissatisfaction suggest that girls and women are impacted more so than boys and men. Hargreaves and Tiggemann (2002) found that exposing adolescent boys and girls to appearance-focused television advertisements featuring idealized male and female bodies impacted girls' body dissatisfaction, but not boys. Studies of music video viewing have demonstrated positive emotional responses to music video viewing in male viewers as opposed to negative emotional responses in female viewers (Larson, 1995; Saarikallio & Erkkila, 2007). However, Tiggemann (2005) demonstrated a positive relationship between the number of hours spent watching music videos and negative body attitudes in adolescent boys. Some researchers suggested that gender-related and sexuality-related differences in men may influence the extent to which men self-objectify, such that men that identify with a more feminine or homosexual gender or sexual orientation experience more self-objectification (Kozak, Frankenhauser & Roberts, 2009; Schwartz, Grammas, Sutherland, Siffert & Bush-King, 2010; Wisemen & Moradia, 2010). Thus, third variables in these studies such as gender- and sexuality-related variables may explain mixed findings in the literature. Overall, the literature on the impact of objectifying or idealized male media images on body dissatisfaction and self-objectification in boys and men is mixed, at best.

Given the limited resources of the present study and based on the mixed results regarding the impact of media ideals on self-objectification and body dissatisfaction, as well as the overall lower levels of self-objectification and negative body-related variables demonstrated in boys and men, the present study focused on adolescent girls only.

### **Current Study**

In 2007, the American Psychological Association published a report summarizing the results of a task force commissioned to examine the sexualization of young girls in media. This report outlined evidence to suggest that girls are sexualized in North American media, the consequences of viewing these sexualized images as suggested by research, and the possible mechanisms through which sexualization of girls in media has an impact on viewers. This report recommended further study of sexualization of girls and the media's role in this phenomenon. The above literature review demonstrates the presence of objectifying images of females in media and the prevalence of their negative effects on body satisfaction in girls and women across ages and cultures. However, there is a gap in the literature pertaining to the effects of music video viewing on young female adolescents in a North American population. The present study responded to this gap by examining the relationship between music video viewing, self-objectification and body satisfaction in Canadian adolescent females. Thus, this study provided an exploratory analysis of a population previously unstudied in terms of its age (adolescent) and nationality (Canadian) and extended the literature on Objectification Theory to include objectifying music video viewing as a potential source of self-objectifying thoughts, attitudes or behaviours.

### **CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY**

The methodology for this study is outlined in this chapter. First, ethical considerations and details of the setting and recruitment of participants for this study are discussed. Next, the procedure including obtaining consent, data collection and debriefing are described. Measures are described next and validity and reliability of these measures are reviewed. Data preparation and analysis conclude the chapter.

#### **Ethical Considerations**

The present study was considered to be of minimal risk and no deception was associated with the methodology. First, ethical approval from the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board (Beh-REB) was granted. Next, the public school division Director of Education granted ethical approval and permission to approach individual schools and teachers.

Parental consent to participate in this study was waived for participants over the age of 16 years, who were considered mature enough to provide their own consent for this minimal risk study. A written consent form (see Appendix A) and added verbal delivery of the consent form further ensured that any questions regarding consent would be answered. Participants had a right to withdraw or to not answer all questions without consequence, rights which the researcher prior to participation in the study emphasized verbally. Consent forms were immediately separated from data to ensure that data could not be matched to any identifying information. During the study, data were stored by the student researcher in a locked cabinet; following completion of study, data will be stored by the supervisor, Dr. Jennifer A.J. Nicol, in a locked cabinet in a locked room at the University of Saskatchewan. Data will be stored for a minimum of five years following the completion of this study and then destroyed.

Due to the sensitive nature of the themes explored in this study, participants were provided with a written debriefing form (see Appendix B) and verbal debriefing as well as

contact information for mental health therapists and resources in the event that participants wanted to seek further support. The student researcher offered to provide a psycho-educational presentation upon request regarding media images and their effects on girls and women. This would have served as psycho-educational information and debriefing session that would educate about the impact and effects of media on body attitudes and increased the likelihood that students would become more critical consumers of media. No requests for a formal presentation were made, although interest in such a presentation was expressed.

### **Participants**

A sample of female adolescents ranging from 16 to 18 years of age in Grade 10, 11, and/or 12 classes was recruited. Based on standard conventions for determining sufficient power and statistical significance (Olejnik, 1984), a minimum sample of approximately 70 participants was required; 108 participants were recruited. This sample was drawn from public schools in northern Saskatchewan with the cooperation of administration and teachers within the public school division. Several public schools were approached to participate in this study and two high school expressed interest in participating in the research. The first public high school sampled had an enrollment of over 2,000 students in grades 9 through 12. The second public high school sampled was smaller with an enrollment of approximately 200 students in grades 9 through 12. Participants were recruited from Grade 10, 11 and 12 Physical Education, Social Studies, Psychology and History classes. In high school, students must take one of Social Studies, History or Psychology in each of grade 10, 11, and 12 in order to graduate. Thus, samples from these classes should be relatively representative of the general population. Participants were offered a chance to enter their name into a draw to win one of five (5) gift cards for two to Galaxy Cinemas, their local movie theatre (worth approximately \$20).

## **Procedure**

**Participant recruitment.** Upon receiving approval from the Director of Education, the principals of public high schools within the school division were contacted regarding participation in the study. As noted previously, permission to approach teachers was provided by the principals of two high schools. Teachers were contacted by email regarding their willingness to allow the researcher to approach students regarding participation in this study. The researcher and teachers arranged dates and times for data collection. All teachers chose to have the researcher visit the classroom and survey students at the beginning of class.

The researcher visited several classrooms during class time to survey female students. Several classes were surveyed, including three female Physical Education classes, two Psychology classes, four Social Studies classes, and one History class. In Psychology, Social Studies, and History classrooms, male students present in the class completed schoolwork while female students completed their surveys. In Physical Education classes, only female students were present during the completion of surveys. One Physical Education class was changed and ready for swimming at the time that surveys were completed. All other surveys were completed in regular attire in a regular classroom setting. Data were collected at various times throughout the school day, anytime between 9am and 3pm.

**Data collection.** The researcher met with potential participants in their classrooms. Participants were introduced to the study and what they would be asked to do if they wished to participate. Participants were reminded that they had a right to withdraw at any time without any negative consequences and that they were free to leave a question(s) blank if they were not comfortable answering. Participants were also reminded that participation was not a component of their class and would not impact their class marks in any way. Participants were encouraged to

answer the questions as honestly as possible and were reminded that all data collected would in no way be connected to their names or any other identifying information. Participants were then provided with a packet of measures and instructed to complete the packet of surveys in the order that they are presented. Participants completed the surveys in the presence of the researcher.

Data were generated by administering three self-report measures. Participants were asked to complete the Body Image States Scale (BISS; Cash et al., 2002), Self-objectification Questionnaire (SOQ; Noll & Fredrickson, 1998) and Music Video Viewing Survey (MVVS). Surveys were counterbalanced in an attempt to reduce any order effects of administration. In other words, participants randomly received a booklet in one of the following six orders: BISS, SOQ, MVVS; SOQ, MVVS, BISS; MVVS, BISS, SOQ; BISS, MVVS, SOQ; SOQ, BISS, MVVS; MVVS, SOQ, BISS. Data gathered did not include any identifying information so that participants could not be identified. Upon completion of the questionnaires by all groups, participants were provided with a debriefing form (see Appendix B) describing the purpose of the study as well as a verbal debriefing of the purpose of the study. Student participants were then given the opportunity to ask any questions that they might have and to sign up to receive the results of the entire study upon completion. The researcher encouraged student participants to contact the researcher with any questions or concerns they may have.

## **Measures**

In order to quantify the dependent variables of interest, body satisfaction and self-objectification was measured using survey instruments commonly employed in the literature as measures for these variables. Variables were defined to closely reflect previous literature in order to maintain consistency within the body of literature in this area of study. Body Satisfaction was assessed using the Body Image States Scale (BISS) developed by Cash, et al. (2002). The second



variable of interest, Self-Objectification, was measured using the Self-Objectification Questionnaire (SOQ; Noll & Fredrickson, 1998). The independent variable, Time Viewing Music Videos per week, and an alternative variable, Number of Top Ten Music Videos viewed, were assessed by a researcher-created survey. All measures were self-report, paper and pencil survey instruments. Measures were piloted prior to recruiting participants.

**Body Image States Scale (BISS).** The dependent variable (DV), Body Satisfaction, was defined as the psychological presence of a salient discrepancy between an individual's ideal body and their perceived body (Bell et al., 2007). This DV was measured using the Body Image States Scale (BISS; Cash et al., 2002), a self-report questionnaire (see Appendix C). The questionnaire asked participants to choose the statement that best describes how they are feeling in the present moment. The participant was then prompted to choose from a range of nine possible stems of "Extremely dissatisfied", "Mostly dissatisfied", "Moderately dissatisfied", "Slightly dissatisfied", "Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied", "Slightly satisfied", "Moderately dissatisfied", "Mostly satisfied" and "Extremely satisfied", with the following four stem completions: "...with my physical appearance", "...with my body size and shape", and "...with my weight". The fourth question options had "dissatisfied" and "satisfied" removed from the stem and "physically attractive" or "physically unattractive" as the stem completion. The fifth and sixth questions had a range of nine possible stems of "A great deal better", "Much better", "Somewhat better", "Just slightly better", "About the same", "Just slightly worse", "Somewhat worse", "Much worse" and "A great deal worse" with the following two stem completions: "...about my looks than I usually feel" and "...than the average person look".

The scale was scored based on the composite average (mean) of the 6 questions, scored on a scale of 1 to 9. Items that reflect a more negative body image should be scored lower and

more positive body image items scored higher. Items 2, 4, and 6 are reverse scored. Thus, lower composite scores reflect more negative body image states and higher composite scores reflect a more positive body image state. Acceptable validity was established during the development of the questionnaire (Cash et al., 2002). Cronbach's Alpha coefficient demonstrated internal consistency reliability for women at .77 (Cash et al., 2002).

**Self-Objectification Questionnaire (SOQ).** The second dependent variable, Self-Objectification, was measured using the Self-Objectification Questionnaire (SOQ; Noll & Fredrickson, 1998). Self-Objectification was defined as the internalization of an observer's objectifying perspective on one's own body resulting in habitual self-monitoring and a view of one's body as an object (or number of objects, e.g., chest, legs, stomach, buttocks, etc.) to be viewed by others (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). The SOQ was developed based on Objectification Theory by the authors of this theory (see Appendix D). The measure's format was modified in an attempt to increase clarity about how to complete it (see Appendix E). Ten (10) items were ranked on a scale from 1 to 10, with 1 having the most impact on physical self-concept and 10 having the least impact on physical self-concept. Total scores were obtained by summing the ranks for (a) appearance-based items (# 3, 5, 6, 8, and 10) and (b) competence based items (#1, 2, 4, 7 and 9), then subtracting the sum of the competence rankings from the sum of the appearance rankings. Total scores range from -25 to 25, with higher scores reflecting a greater emphasis on appearance or higher levels of self-objectification. Noll and Fredrickson (1998) reported that the SOQ has demonstrated sufficient validity and reliability; however, the authors did not provide specific statistical information regarding validity and reliability.

**Music Video Viewing Survey (MVVS).** The Music Video Viewing Survey (see Appendix F) was a researcher-created measure of the independent variable of interest, Time

Viewing Music Videos, as well as a measure of an alternative independent variable, Amount of Music Video Viewing. Participants were asked to self-report the amount of time they spend per week watching music videos on television, online, or in any other mode of video viewing, on average. Number of hours was used as a continuous variable. Participants were then asked to estimate the number of times they had viewed each of the recent top 10 music videos listed. Total number of viewings of the ten videos listed was used as an alternative continuous variable. This method of measurement is similar to that used by Zhang et al. (2009) to measure time spent viewing rap music videos. Reliability and validity of this measure are unknown.

**Demographic and control variables.** Participants were also asked to self-report ethnicity, age, height and weight. Height and weight was used to calculate BMI using the equation  $(\text{kg})/[\text{height (m)}]^2$  (Spence, 1991). It has been demonstrated the BMI significantly contributes to body dissatisfaction and has been used as a control variable in other published research studies of body dissatisfaction and media (e.g., Botta, 1999; Dalley, Buunk, & Umit, 2009; Lu & Hou, 2009; Weaver, & Byers, 2006; Zhang et al., 2009). Ethnicity has also been demonstrated to provide a moderating effect on the impact of media exposure on body dissatisfaction, wherein identification with certain cultures (e.g., African American, Hispanic) is a protective factor in the development of body dissatisfaction within Westernized cultures (e.g., Botta, 1999; DeBraganza & Hausenblas, 2010; Warren, Gleaves, Cepeda-Benito, Fernandez, & Rodriguez-Ruiz, 2005; Zhang et al., 2009).

### **Data Preparation**

Scores based on responses from self-report measures were calculated by hand and recalculated a second time to ensure accuracy. Data were entered into a spreadsheet in SPSS 16.0 for Windows. In order to ensure the soundness of the statistical analysis of this data, data were

analyzed using box plots and descriptive analysis to determine whether outliers were present within the data. Considering the type of data that was collected (i.e., subjective, quantitative, self-reported measures of DVs) and the nature of the research questions, outlying cases were changed to a less deviant score which more closely reflects the pattern of the majority of scores. Specifically, the researcher manually reduced outlying case scores to one unit larger than the next most extreme score (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

### **Data Analysis**

SPSS 16.0 for Windows was used to conduct data analyses. Following data preparation, descriptive statistics were calculated. Descriptive statistics included the mean, standard deviation, skew, Kurtosis, and range of scores for each variable of interest. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then conducted in order to examine this data in a way that best suited the research questions of interest. Multiple regression examines whether a relationship between variables (i.e., body satisfaction, self-objectification, time viewing music videos, etc.) exists and whether the relationships are likely to have occurred by chance alone or are statistically significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Hierarchical multiple regression allows groups of variables to be examined in an order predetermined by the researcher. In this instance, variables that the researchers wished to control for (i.e., BMI, Ethnicity) were examined in relation to the independent variable Time Viewing Music Videos per week first, in order to determine the necessity of these variables entrance into the hierarchical multiple regression. Both dependent variables were measures on a continuous, interval scale appropriate for multiple regression analysis. The importance of the reliability and validity of these measures in statistical testing is to allow the researcher to place more confidence when interpreting the practicality of statistically significant results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

The level of statistical significance at which the hypotheses were tested was  $p < .05$ . Because this study represents an early stage of research in this area and because conducting a study in the area of social sciences typically does not demonstrate strong effect sizes, it is best that a significance level of  $p < .05$  is used. These points are especially important in the area of female body dissatisfaction, where body dissatisfaction in young girls and women is becoming the norm and the messages and images that are suspected to play significant roles in the development of this disorder are so pervasive.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS**

### **Preliminary Analysis**

Data preparation for analysis consisted of analysis using box plots and descriptive analysis to determine whether outliers were present within the data. Significant outliers were found in the variable Time Viewing Music Videos. The highest cases were manually reduced to one unit larger than the next most extreme score until skewness for the variable was within acceptable limits, although Kurtosis still reflected an extreme score departing substantially from a Kurtosis value of zero, reflecting normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A non-normal kurtosis that is above zero produces an underestimate of the variance of a variable; however, the large sample approaching 100 cases for this variable should substantially diminish the impact of the departure of Kurtosis from zero in this case (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Additionally, because Time Viewing Music Videos was measured in meaningful units (i.e., hours), a transformation of these scores to bring the variable scores closer to normality would have made the data difficult to interpret; therefore, only simple transformation of extreme cases were made. In total, only 4 cases were reduced to bring the highest cases in the range to 11 hours. The variable BMI also demonstrated a non-normal distribution with a positive kurtosis value. Because the useable sample size for this variable is much less than 100 cases, it is noted that the variance for this variable is not likely to accurately reflect the true variance for this variable in the total population. All other variables used in the final multiple regression analyses reflected expected ranges and distributions of scores.

### **Participant Characteristics**

A descriptive statistics analysis on the data collected was conducted. Data from a total of 108 participants were collected. Ages ranged from 16 years to 18 years. The two control variables, Ethnicity and BMI had useable cases (i.e., no missing data) of  $n = 104$  and  $n = 78$ , respectively. Ethnicity was a categorical variable for which additional descriptive statistics such

as standard deviation and mean were not relevant. The majority of participants,  $n = 75$ , identified their ethnicity as Canadian. The remaining participants identified themselves as First Nations ( $n = 14$ ), European ( $n = 2$ ), Hispanic ( $n = 1$ ), or Other ( $n = 12$ ). BMI ranged from 15.4 to 42.3, with a mean of 22.60 and  $SD = 4.27$ .

Data collected regarding music video viewing habits indicated that 67 of 108 participants (62%) had seen more than thirty minutes of music videos during the previous week and 20 participants (19%) had seen more than two hours of music videos. Forty-seven (47) of 108 participants (43%) reported that they had a favourite music video. Additional variables of interest included the number of hours listening to music and number of times viewing Top Ten music videos. Number of hours listening to music per week ranged from 1 to 100 hours, with a mean = 23.37 and  $SD = 24.42$ . The distribution of hours listening to music per week was positively skewed where  $S = 1.69$ . For number of times viewing Top Ten music videos per week, counts ranged from 0 to 58, with a mean = 7.24 and  $SD = 9.55$ . The distribution for this variable of interest was positively skewed where  $S = 2.11$ .

## Measures

Measures for Body Satisfaction, as measured by the BISS, and for Self-Objectification, as measured by the SOQ, demonstrated the full range of expected scores and acceptable distribution of scores for use in a multiple regression analysis. The first measure of music video viewing, Time Viewing Music Videos per week, was positively skewed with a negative Kurtosis. The second measure of music video viewing, Number of Top Ten Music Videos seen, demonstrated the expected range with a relatively normal distribution of scores. Table 1 outlines the number of useable cases (i.e., no missing data for variable), range, mean score, standard

deviation, skewness and Kurtosis statistics for each measure utilized in the final multiple regression analysis.

Table 1.

Number of useable cases, range, mean score, standard deviation, skewness and Kurtosis for measures used.

Variables	n	Range	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
BISS	108	4 to 45	36.26	9.32	-.61	-.01
SOQ	89	-25 to 25	-1.89	15.37	-.21	-1.02
Time Viewing Music Videos	94	0 to 11 hrs	1.48	2.11	2.39	6.33
Number of Top Ten	108	0 to 10	3.00	2.71	.83	-.05
BMI	66	15.4 to 42.3	22.60	4.27	1.49	4.57

### Multivariate Statistical Analysis

Two separate multivariate analyses were conducted, each using a different method of measurement for the variable examining the amount of music video viewing. As indicated previously, two methods of measurement were used to examine this variable because of the exploratory nature of this research and the lack of valid and reliable measures that are available to examine this type of variable.

In order to determine the usefulness of the control variables of Ethnicity and BMI, hierarchical multiple regression analyses with each separate, independent measure of music video viewing were conducted using both Ethnicity and BMI in the first step of the analysis.



Analysis revealed a significant negative correlation between BMI and scores on the BISS,  $r = -.475$ ,  $p < .001$  as well as between Ethnicity and scores on the BISS ( $r = -.273$ ,  $p = .019$ ), and found no relationship between SOQ ( $r = .152$ ,  $p = \text{n.s.}$ ) or Time Viewing Music Videos ( $r = .012$ ,  $p = \text{n.s.}$ ). Ethnicity did not contribute significantly to the model,  $t = -.968$ ,  $P = \text{n.s.}$ , and was therefore removed from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted again with BMI entered first followed by the independent variable (e.g., Time Viewing Music Videos) and dependent variables of interest, Body Satisfaction and Self-Objectification. By entering the BMI before the dependent variables of interest, the relationships between the independent variables and the control variables were to be removed which, theoretically, allowed for a more accurate relationship between the dependent and independent variables of interest to be revealed.

The first hierarchical multiple regression analysis using the IV of interest Time Viewing Music Videos per week was employed to examine the two DVs of interest: (1) Body Satisfaction, and (2) Self-Objectification. Data from 108 female participants ages 16 years and older were collected; a sample size over 70 would ensure robustness to violations of assumptions for multiple regression. Due to missing variables, useable  $n = 58$ . Initially, both Ethnicity and BMI were entered in Step 1 of the multiple regression, followed by Body Satisfaction, Self-Objectification, and Time Viewing Music Videos in Step 2. However, because Ethnicity did not contribute significantly to the model,  $t = -.97$ ,  $p = \text{n.s.}$ , it was removed and the multiple regression was repeated without controlling for Ethnicity. In Step 1 of the final multiple regression, BMI was entered.

In Step 2, Self-Objectification and Time Viewing Music Videos was entered, with Body Satisfaction as the dependent variable. R for the regression of in this model was statistically

significant,  $F(3, 54) = 9.27, p < .001$ , with  $R^2$  at .34. The adjusted  $R^2$  value of .30 indicates that slightly less than one third of the variability in Body Satisfaction was predicted by both Self-Objectification and Time Viewing Music Videos. However, the variable Time Viewing Music Videos did not significantly contribute to the model;  $t = -1.35, p = n.s.$  BMI and Self-Objectification did contribute significantly to the model, where BMI was  $t = -3.58, p = .001$  and Self-Objectification was  $t = -2.69, p < .001$ .

A significant negative correlation between Body Satisfaction and Self-Objectification was observed,  $r(56) = -.383, p = .002$ . Body Satisfaction and BMI were also negatively correlated, where  $r(56) = -.475, p < .001$ . Time Viewing Music Videos was negatively correlated with Body Satisfaction,  $r(56) = -.214, p = .054$ . Table 2 displays the correlations and level of significance between variables. It is interesting to note that the original model, which included Ethnicity, demonstrated significant correlations between Ethnicity and Body Satisfaction,  $r(56) = -.273, p = .019$ , and Ethnicity and BMI,  $r(56) = .350, p = .004$ .

Table 2.

Pearson correlation coefficients and level of significance for variables Time Viewing Music Videos (i.e., Music Videos), Body Satisfaction, Self-Objectification, Body Mass Index (BMI), and Ethnicity.

Variables	Pearson Correlation (Significance)				
	Body Satisfaction	Self- Objectification	Music Videos	BMI	Ethnicity
Body Satisfaction	-	-.38 ( $p = .002$ )	-.24 ( $p = .054$ )	-.48 ( $p < .001$ )	-.27 ( $p = .019$ )
Self-Objectification	-.38 ( $p = .002$ )	-	.06 <i>n.s.</i> (.33)	.18 <i>n.s.</i> (.09)	.15 ( $p = .094$ )

Music Videos	-.24 ( $p = .054$ )	.06 <i>n.s.</i> (.33)	-	.11 <i>n.s.</i> (.20)	.02 ( $p = .438$ )
BMI	-.48 ( $p < .001$ )	.18 <i>n.s.</i> (.09)	.11 <i>n.s.</i> (.20)	-	.35 ( $p = .004$ )
Ethnicity	-.27 ( $p = .019$ )	.15 <i>n.s.</i> (.094)	.02 ( $p = .438$ )	.35 ( $p = .004$ )	-

The second hierarchical multiple regression analysis was employed to examine the two DVs of interest: Body Satisfaction, and Self-Objectification, with the IV Number of Top Ten Music Videos viewed. SPSS multiple regression analysis available through SPSS 16.0 for Windows was used for this analysis. Due to missing variables, useable  $n = 61$ . In Step 1 of this multiple regression, BMI was entered. In Step 2, Self-Objectification and Number of Top Ten Music Videos were entered, with Body Satisfaction as the DV. R for the regression of in this model was statistically significant,  $F(3, 57) = 9.29, p < .001$ , with  $R^2$  at .33. The adjusted  $R^2$  value of .29 indicates that 29% of the variability in Body Satisfaction was predicted by Self-Objectification and Number of Top Ten Music Videos. However, the variable Number of Top Ten Music Videos did not significantly contribute to the model;  $t = -.83, p = n.s.$  BMI and Self-Objectification did contribute significantly to the model, where BMI was  $t = -3.79, p < .001$  and Self-Objectification was  $t = -2.94, p = .005$ ; however, the variable Self-Objectification was removed because it did not correlate significantly with any of the variables. Table 3 displays the correlations and level of significance between variables for this multiple regression analysis.

Table 3.

Pearson correlation coefficients and level of significance for variables included in the second hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Pearson Correlation

Variables	(Significance)			
	Body Satisfaction	Self-Objectification	Top Ten	BMI
Body Satisfaction	-	-.39 ( $p = .001$ )	-.09 <i>n.s.</i> (.24)	-.47 ( $p < .001$ )
Self-Objectification	-.39 ( $p = .001$ )	-	-.39 <i>n.s.</i> (.40)	.16 <i>n.s.</i> (.12)
Top Ten	-.09 <i>n.s.</i> (.24)	-.03 <i>n.s.</i> (.40)	-	.03 <i>n.s.</i> (.42)
BMI	-.47 ( $p < .001$ )	.16 <i>n.s.</i> (.12)	.03 <i>n.s.</i> (.42)	-

## CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to conduct an exploratory analysis examining the relationship between music video viewing, self-objectification and body satisfaction in a sample of Canadian adolescent females. Studies by Bell et al. (2007), Grabe and Hyde (2009) and Tiggemann and Slater (2003) have supported the hypothesis that a positive relationship between music video viewing and body dissatisfaction exists. Objectification Theory was used as a framework for understanding the potential relationship between music video viewing and body satisfaction. Objectification Theory suggests that the systematic objectification of the female body in media and culture causes women to adopt a self-objectifying perspective on their physical self (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997); research has supported this theory indicating that media images contribute to self-objectification and its relationship with body dissatisfaction and eating disordered behaviour (Calogero et al., 2005; Harper & Tiggemann, 2008).

### **Discussion of Findings**

The results of this study support the established relationship between self-objectification and body dissatisfaction variables (e.g., body shame, drive for thinness) in adolescent and adult females (e.g., Calogero & Jost, 2011; Calogero & Thompson, 2009; Choma, Shove, Busseri, Sadava & Hosker, 2009; Mercurio & Laudry, 2008; Mitchell & Mazzeo, 2009; Slater & Tiggeman, 2010; Tylka & Hill, 2004). Furthermore, the results of this study demonstrate a strong negative relationship between BMI and body satisfaction, indicating that increased BMI scores are associated with lower levels of body satisfaction. This is consistent with previous research (e.g., Botta, 1999; Dalley et al., 2009; Lu & Hou, 2009; Weaver, & Byers, 2006; Zhang et al., 2009). Interestingly, BMI was not related to self-objectification scores in this study. This suggests that BMI and self-objectification may be separate contributors to a female's overall level of body dissatisfaction. However, a recent study examining the relationship between body

dissatisfaction and self-objectification, as measured by body surveillance, demonstrated a significant relationship between body surveillance and BMI (Frederick et al., 2007). Further research may help to shed light on this potential relationship and a possible theoretical basis.

With regard to music video viewing, results indicated that more than 60% of adolescent females sampled watched over half an hour of music videos per week, with almost 20% of participants watching two or more hours of music videos per week. This is markedly less than viewing times reported in previous studies, which ranged from 25-30 minutes to two hours of music video viewing daily (Comstock & Scharrer, 2007; Kubey & Larson, 1990; Sun & Lull, 1986). The above studies sampled adolescent males and females ages 9 – 18 years in the United States of America. Comparatively, the present sample was not a high consumer of music videos.

The results of the present study strongly supported the researchers' first hypothesis that a significant negative relationship would exist between body satisfaction scores and levels of self-objectification. Results indicated that, after the relationship between BMI and body satisfaction that explained approximately 23% of the variability in body satisfaction was removed, self-objectification levels predicted approximately 14% of the variability in scores for body satisfaction such that higher levels of self-objectification predicted lower levels of body satisfaction. This is consistent with the Grabe and Hyde (2009) study, which found that self-surveillance mediated the relationship between MTV viewing and body esteem, predicting approximately 5% of the variability in body esteem. This is also consistent with a substantial body of research demonstrating relationships between self-objectification and negative body-related variables such as disordered eating (e.g., Calogero & Thompson, 2009; Mitchell & Mazzeo, 2009; Tylka & Hill, 2004), appearance anxiety (Roberts & Gettman, 2004), negative body emotions and sexual self-perceptions (Aubrey, 2007) body shame, increased self-

surveillance, lower levels of self-esteem, overall life satisfaction and well-being (Calogero & Jost, 2011; Choma et al., 2009; Mercurio & Laudry, 2008).

Multiple regression analyses suggested that the amount of time spent viewing music videos per week was significantly related to body satisfaction at  $p < .10$ , but not self-objectification. Thus, in this sample, as time viewing music videos increased, body satisfaction decreased. This is consistent with the current research literature that suggests that music video viewing is related to body dissatisfaction in female participants (Bell et al., 2007; Tiggemann & Slater, 2003), and recent research that suggests viewing music television programming increases self-objectification which mediates a direct relationship between music television (MTV) viewing and negative body-related attitudes and consequences such as body esteem and dieting in an adolescent population (Grabe & Hyde, 2009).

### **Research Contributions to the Music Video Effects Literature**

The findings in the Grabe and Hyde (2009) study are similar to the results of the present study, in which Grabe and Hyde found a modest negative relationship between body esteem and music video viewing of  $r = -.14$ ,  $p < .10$ , predicting approximately 5% of the variance in body esteem scores. Grabe and Hyde's study recruited 195 female adolescent participants with a mean age of 13.5 years from the American state of Wisconsin. No information regarding missing cases was reported, suggesting that all 195 participants provided complete, valid information for use in statistical analyses. Interestingly, the statistical power for this study to detect relationships between variables may have been substantially greater than the power of the present study, which had valid and complete participant information for between 58 and 61 participants. However, the present study demonstrated a stronger and more statistically significant relationship.

Regarding self-objectification, Grabe and Hyde (2009) used an alternate measure of self-objectification that measured body consciousness, specifically, the Objectified Body Consciousness Scale for Youth (OBC-Y) created by Lindberg, Hyde and McKinley, 2006. This questionnaire used four questions such as “During the day, I think about how I look many times”, and was reported by the authors to have strong test-retest reliability and validity (Grabe & Hyde, 2009). With this measure, Grabe and Hyde’s results showed a significant relationship between self-surveillance as a measure of self-objectification and music video viewing. It is possible that this questionnaire was better suited to the adolescent population, thus measuring this construct more accurately. One of the limitations of the SOQ that will be discussed is the apparent difficulty that participants in the present study had in completing the SOQ, as suggested by the incorrect completion of the SOQ measure by a number of participants.

A limitation of the latter study was likely the method used to gather information regarding MTV viewing. Grabe and Hyde used a simple 4-point scale asking participants whether they viewed MTV “never”, “once a week”, “2-5 times a week” or “every day”. This scale may be an overly simplistic means of measuring music video viewing. For example, viewing MTV once per week may refer to a duration of anywhere between three minutes to view one music video to several consecutive hours of viewing multiple music videos. Furthermore, this measure may not have been specific enough to separate out viewing of MTV programming such as “The Hills” television show as compared to music videos, specifically. Thus, this measure of music video viewing may have resulted in a measure of viewing television programming and music videos that is too broad, which may simply reflect the impact of viewing television programming on body satisfaction and self-objectification, which has already been well established in the literature (e.g., Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2003b; Harrison, 2003a;



Harrison, 2003b; Nathanson & Botta, 2003; Schooler, 2008; Schooler et al., 2004). This lack of specificity may also have led to the weaker correlation and statistical significance demonstrated for the relationships between body esteem and music video viewing.

The present study's findings were also consistent with the results of the experimental studies by Tiggemann and Slater (2003) and Bell et al., (2007), but demonstrated a weaker relationship between music video viewing and body dissatisfaction. These studies examined female, college-aged women from Australia and female adolescent girls ages 16-19 from Britain, respectively. Both previous studies exposed females to music videos that featured images of thin, attractive women and demonstrated statistically significant increases in body dissatisfaction following exposure to these music videos as compared to control conditions. Tiggemann and Slater further demonstrated that a focus on comparing oneself to these images increased the impact of the videos on body dissatisfaction. Experimental research is ideal in this area of research as compared to correlational research for several reasons. First, experimental research such as the above-mentioned studies ensure that participants have viewed the target stimulus, and allows for control of many details surrounding the exposure such as the amount, timing and setting of exposure. Second, it controls for, to some extent, the tendency for certain individuals to watch music videos versus other individuals that may tend not to view music videos. For example, correlational research cannot control for the possibility that individuals that already have low body esteem or are already dissatisfied with their body to watch and compare themselves to thin, attractive females in a variety of media forms, including music videos. Third, experimental studies allow for comparisons between state body dissatisfaction before and after exposure, which allows researchers to control for initial individual differences in body dissatisfaction. Thus, the experimental studies by Bell et al., and Tiggemann and Slater may have

had a more powerful means of examining the immediate impact of exposure to music videos on levels of body dissatisfaction.

Conversely, the much weaker relationship observed between music video viewing, body satisfaction and self-objectification in the present study may give clues regarding the more long-term, every day effects of music video viewing on adolescent females. For instance, the impact on body satisfaction and other body-related consequences of music video viewing may lessen as the length of time between viewing and measurement of such variables, such that music video viewing does not have an extended negative impact on body satisfaction. The difference in results between the above experimental research and the present correlational study may also reflect a low incidence of regular, focused music video viewing and thus a low level of impact in the general population. It may be that the real-world impact of music video viewing, for several reasons such as these, may be significantly less than what is suggested by experimental research. However, that the results of the present study demonstrated a significant negative relationship between music video viewing and body satisfaction despite its small useable sample and relatively weak power to detect statistical differences may reflect a relationship that is potentially more significant and of greater concern than the present study's results suggest.

There may be several other reasons related to the present study that led to a failure to demonstrate relationships between music video viewing and self-objectification, and for the relatively weak correlation between music video viewing and body satisfaction. Some of these reasons will be discussed in the limitation section. However, reasons related to the population and region in which the study was conducted may have impacted the results. The population studied is considered a northern population in Canada and has not been widely examined in the media literature. There may be cultural or regional factors that influence the lack of music video

viewing or the difference in the potential impact of music video viewing on female body satisfaction and self-objectification.

One possible reason may relate to the culture of the population in the region sampled. Although the region is considered urban, not rural, by Statistics Canada (2006) and the definition of rural areas suggested by Statistics Canada (du Plessis, Beshiri, Bollman, & Clemenson, 2001), the research site area is surrounded by a predominantly agricultural, farming area and thus a significant proportion of the population is influenced by this farming culture. The urban population of the Saskatchewan city sample was 36,000 as of the 2006 Census by Statistics Canada, which is substantially lower than the population of regions studied in literature published to date. Specifically, Tiggemann and Slater (2003) sampled from a population in Adelaide, South Australia that, according to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2010), has a population of approximately 1.2 million. Bell et al., (2007) sampled from a population in North East England that, according to the Office of National Statistics (2001) in the United Kingdom, has a population of approximately 2.5 million. Finally, Grabe and Hyde (2009) sampled from a population in Wisconsin, USA that, according to the United States (U.S.) Census Bureau (2009) has a population of approximately 5.6 million people. These differences in population may translate to very different cultural norms related to media access and usage and emphasis placed on appearance. This would be an interesting area of study for future research.

### **Limitations**

Several limitations existed in the present study that may have impacted the validity of the results. First, due to the number of missing variables for participants, a sample of 108 female adolescents was reduced to approximately 60 cases that could be used for analysis. This falls short of the minimum of 70 participants recommended for adequate statistical power. However,

statistically significant relationships between BMI and self-objectification with body satisfaction and the statistically significant relationships between body satisfaction and music video viewing demonstrated in the present study's results suggest that enough power existed to detect these relationships that are supported by the literature. It may be that weak but significant relationships between music video viewing and/or BMI and self-objectification could be detected in this sample with additional participants and statistical power.

The second significant limitation to this study is the validity of the measures used with this adolescent population. The SOQ has demonstrated acceptability reliability and validity, but has only been used with college-aged female students, to the researchers' knowledge. When the SOQ, with modified presentation of the items, was used in this study it was observed that adolescent participants in a general education setting might have had difficulty understanding the instructions for completing the questionnaire. Common errors included ranking attributes as only 1, 2, 9 or 10 as demonstrated in the example provided at the bottom of the measure, assigning the same ranking to multiple attributes, leaving some attributes unranked, and leaving the entire measure blank. Anecdotal evidence based on researcher observations suggested that these errors were due to a lack of understanding of the instructions for the measure because, when the instructions were explained out loud to a small group of participants toward the end of the data collection phase, the errors and omissions decreased to almost none. It may be that another measure of self-objectification may have been more appropriate. For example, the *Objectified Body Consciousness Scale for Youth* (OBC-Y) created by Lindberg, Hyde and McKinley, 2006 and used in the recent Grabe and Hyde (2009) study, or the new Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (Chen & Russo, 2010) may be better suited to this adolescent population and should be considered in future studies with a similar population.

The method used in the present study to measure self-reported time spent viewing music videos and music listening, although lacking information regarding validity and reliability, appeared to provide a specific and seemingly accurate picture of the time spent engaged in these activities. Numerous participants utilized the table provided in the questionnaire to help calculate the number of hours spent listening to music, presumably because these numbers were quite high and more difficult to calculate mentally. However, future studies may find it helpful to divide time spent into categorical variables.

Additional limitations relate to the self-report methodology. As with any methodology, there are strengths and weaknesses. One of the strengths of self-report methodology, and also one of the contributing aspects of this study to the literature, is a more real-life look at the potential impact of music video viewing on female body satisfaction. While experimental research with its tight control over potential confounding variables can provide a very powerful and clear picture of the potential effects of an IV on a DV, it may not accurately reflect the impact this variable may have in the everyday lives of individuals. However, self-report measures have several disadvantages, including the subjective nature of responses, individual differences in the understanding and perception of the questions being asked, the possibility of reporting bias which may result in responses that more closely reflects the researcher's hypotheses or what are considered by the participants as the more socially desirable or "right" responses (i.e., social desirability bias), and the potential impact of contextual variables such as where and with whom the participant is filling out the self-report measure (e.g., with friends, peers and male classmates close by; during gym class while wearing a bathing suit), and the mood that the participant is in while completing the self-report measure. These extraneous,

uncontrollable factors related to self-report methodology present potential limitations and disadvantages to this study's design.

### **Implications for Practice**

The present study suggested that adolescent girls' levels of body satisfaction are related to thoughts and attitudes around self-objectification. This is strongly supported in existing literature, as discussed previously. As such, the thoughts and attitudes that girls and women have that focus on viewing oneself as an object for the pleasure of others (i.e., self-objectification) would be an excellent target for intervention. If these thoughts and attitudes can be captured using a self-report measure, they could likely be identified as automatic thoughts or cognitions that could be the focus of Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT) or other cognitively based interventions.

CBT is strongly supported by research as a first line of treatment in many psychological disorders such as depression and anxiety (Tolin, 2010). CBT is also an empirically supported method of treatment for individuals with Bulimia Nervosa (Lewandowski, Gebing, Anthony, & O'Brien, 1997). A study by Jarry and Ip (2005) demonstrated that CBT can be effective in reducing body image disturbances in attitudes, behaviours and perceptions related to their body image, and may include dissatisfaction with appearance, appearance as a significant self-defining feature, excessive appearance management (e.g., grooming), and anxiety and avoidance of situations in which one's body may be featured. Jarry and Ip conducted a meta-analysis of 19 studies examining both clinical and non-clinical populations. Results of this analysis showed that both behavioural and perceptual domains of body image disturbance were significantly improved and that these improvements were either maintained or continued to improve at long-term follow-up. The dimension that showed the least improvements was the attitudinal domain;

specifically, the amount of importance one invests in their appearance. The authors suggest that CBT does not adequately address some of the underlying motivations that fuel overinvestment in appearance as an important aspect of their self-image.

It is possible that in some, or many, cases, thoughts and attitudes related to self-objectification are underlying motivations that fuel this overinvestment in appearance that are not identified and addressed. Perhaps, with the knowledge of the strong correlation between body dissatisfaction and the tendency to objectify oneself, cognitive behaviour therapist can identify and address some of these thoughts and attitudes, which could potentially contribute to an improved outcome on this attitudinal dimension, especially the investment dimension. Future research on the effects of CBT targeting these thoughts and attitudes would be useful in our attempts to better understand and improve female maladaptive attitudes toward body image.

Given the gendered and socio-cultural nature of media's apparent influence on females' views of their bodies, a Feminist approach seems to be an appropriate method of psychotherapy and intervention. Feminist psychotherapeutic approaches focus therapies on issues of gender and power as being at the core of a successful therapeutic process (Corey, 2005; Enns, 2004). The central concept of Feminist Therapy is that women face a significant amount of psychological oppression in Westernized cultures (Corey, 2005; Enns, 2004). Goals of therapy include increasing the client's awareness of gender role socialization and the constructed nature of gender roles as well as the identification of the internalized messages of oppression, such as those self-objectifying messages reported in the present research, replacing these messages with more self-enhancing beliefs (Corey, 2005; Enns, 2004). For example, as part of a feminist psychotherapeutic process, women can explore the body as a process versus a body as an object (Franzoi, 1995). Franzoi demonstrated that femininity is associated with less positive evaluations

of the body as an object, whereas masculinity was associated with more positive evaluations of the body as a process, the body as a functioning unit. Reframing one's view of the body as an object into a view of the body as a process may lead to more positive self-evaluations of one's body.

Additionally, a central tenet of Feminist therapy is the belief that “the personal is political” (Corey, p. 352); this means that women must learn not only to free themselves from the oppressive ideologies and stereotypes in our societies but also work to free all people from these oppressive bonds. As a result, women can develop a sense of both personal and social power. Peterson, Tantleff-Dunn and Bedwell's (2006) experimental study demonstrated that a 15-minute feminist intervention could have a positive impact on women's body esteem. Peterson et al. employed a pretest-posttest experimental design in which female participants were randomly assigned to one of the following 15-minute presentations by a psychologist: feminist intervention, psycho-educational intervention, or assessment only (control condition). Results indicated a significant increase in appearance satisfaction following the feminist intervention as compared to the control condition; additionally, for those who rated themselves as having an increased sense of feminist identification, the importance of and anxiety related to one's appearance decreased.

Feminist psychotherapeutic approaches are appropriate for both the individual and groups of women. In groups, women can gather together to allow for an increased sense of connectedness and unity (Corey, 2005; Enns, 2004). Emerging evidence suggests that group interventions for both college-aged women and young adolescents based in a feminist therapeutic approach can have a positive impact by reducing reported body image disturbances (Duhlgien Deigneault, 2000; Posavac, Prosavac & Wiegel, 2001). It is important to note, however, that



research in the area of feminist interventions for body dissatisfaction is sparse; further empirical evidence regarding feminist interventions would be a valuable addition to the literature on body dissatisfaction.

The present study added evidence to a growing body of experimental literature that suggests that the impact of music video viewing on body satisfaction can be significant (Bell et al., 2007; Grabe & Hyde, 2009; Tiggeman & Slater, 2003). Another growing body of literature suggests that objectifying media can significantly impact the tendency for females to self-objectify (e.g., Aubrey, 2006; Calogero et al., 2005; Roberts & Gettman, 2004). Furthermore, there is a substantial body of literature that supports the negative impact of other forms of media on body satisfaction and other body-related consequences (Groesz et al., 2001). This warrants intervention regarding the potential impacts of objectifying and idealized images of girls and women on female students and adults.

Media literacy programs have been developed and examined as a potential method of prevention and/or intervention regarding body image disturbances. These programs aim to educate viewers about the unrealistic, idealized images in the media and to reduce the pressure that individuals feel to measure up to these unrealistic standards. In an extensive controlled evaluation of one media literacy program called “Media Smart”, Wilksch and Wade (2009) demonstrated significant reductions in weight concern, dieting, body dissatisfaction, and depression. Wilksch and Wade examined the effects of this media literacy program with a sample of 540 male and female Grade 8 students (mean age 13.6 years). The researchers randomly assigned students by class to either a media literacy program or regular classes (control condition). Students in the media literacy condition received the Media Smart literacy program consisting of eight, 50-minute sessions delivered by the researcher twice per week. As a group,

these improvements were maintained at a 30-month follow-up. Interestingly, 50% of female control students actually showed a clinically significant increase in shape and weight concerns and dieting at the 30-month follow-up, whereas only 30% of females that participated in the media literacy program showed increases in these variables. Of importance is the finding the boys benefited as much as girls, showing reduction in shape and weight concerns, dieting and body dissatisfaction at post-test and 6-month follow-up. These results suggest that media literacy programs have the potential to be powerful preventative intervention.

Other media literacy studies have also demonstrated positive effects. Yager and O'Dea (2010) demonstrated significant improvements in an adult population (mean age 21), with males showing significant decreases in drive for muscularity, and increases in self-esteem and body image, and females demonstrating significant reductions in drive for thinness, eating disorder symptomology and excessive exercise. In a collaborative project involving female college student participants, a preventative program focusing on media literacy, self-esteem and stress management demonstrated significant improvements in body satisfaction and decreases in the internalization of media stereotypes following participation in the program (McVey, Kirsh, Maker, Walker, Mullane, Laliberte, Ellis-Claypool, Vorderbrugge, Burnett, Cheung, & Banks, 2010). In general, preventative programs with a focus on body dissatisfaction and eating disorders have been found to be most successful when they include a media literacy component (O'Dea, 2005). In a literature review of 21 programs published in the last 50 years, O'Dea summarized and evaluated activities from body image and eating disorder prevention programs implemented in schools. The researcher identified that self-esteem and media literacy approaches have produced positive results in some large, randomized and controlled studies. All studies reported at least one improvement in knowledge, beliefs, attitudes or behaviours. O'Dea

concluded that the most effective programs included interactive components, involved parents, aimed to build self-esteem and provided media literacy. These examples of the effectiveness of media literacy programs in the reduction of maladaptive, body-related attitudes, thoughts and behaviours provide significant evidence to support the use of such media literacy programs in practice.

### **Implications for Future Research**

The present research leads to questions that remain to be answered. Primarily, this study provides some evidence regarding the more general, real-world relationships between music video viewing and body dissatisfaction, but leaves us wondering to what extent this relationship impacts everyday body attitudes for adolescent girls? Is there a threshold as to how much music video viewing is harmful? Further, the question remains as to whether self-objectification may play a role in mediating the relationship between music video viewing and body dissatisfaction suggested by the present study and by emerging evidence in the literature. A similar study to the present study designed to examine the basic relationships between body dissatisfaction and frequency of music video viewing should be conducted to provide additional information regarding this relationship. This study could be replicated with a larger sample size for additional power, and perhaps use a revised or alternative measure of self-objectification that will increase the number of error-free measures completed. Based on the results of this study, controlling for BMI in a replication or adaptation of this study would be wise. Another variable that needs to be considered is the population/region from which the sample is drawn. Further research could sample from a range of metropolitan, smaller urban, and/or rural areas to determine whether this moderates or changes the results of the study.

Additional questions may help to further explore the results of this study, and shed light on the differences in effect sizes that are observed between current correlational and experimental studies. For example, does the level of focused attention to the video component of the music video moderate the effects of viewing these objectifying music videos? In experimental studies, researchers are often focusing the participants' attention on the video, perhaps more so than would be typical of everyday viewing. It may be that this level of focused attention further moderates the effects of music video viewing. Future experimental studies may test the attention hypothesis by manipulating the amount of attention the participants are focusing on the video. The researchers may create conditions during which participants are either watching the video only, or are doing various distraction tasks that require different levels of attention. For example, some adolescent girls may have music videos playing while they do their hair and make-up, or, they may have it on in the background while they are talking to a friend. These conditions may distract the viewer to differing degrees. This information may inform understanding of the effects of everyday music video viewing and adolescent girls.

A related area of research that may be inspired by the results of this study is to study the relationship between BMI and self-objectification. The present study suggests that these variables are not related. However, body dissatisfaction is strongly correlated with self-objectification and BMI measures independently. This may suggest that, although individuals with a higher BMI are more likely to be dissatisfied with their body, individuals across the spectrum of BMI measurements are equally susceptible to engage in self-objectifying thoughts and behaviours and experiencing body dissatisfaction. It would be interesting to understand the lack of relationship observed between these two variables, as they both appear to be so strongly related to body dissatisfaction.

An area of study that is gaining increasing amounts of attention is the potential impact of idealizing media images of men on male viewers. Researchers studying relationships between male body dissatisfaction and media influences point to the unrealistic images of attractive, muscular men that result in body dissatisfaction and/or a *drive for muscularity*, or the desire to attain a muscular physique (Parent & Moradi, 2011). A meta-analysis of 25 studies including 93 effect sizes revealed a significant relationship between pressures from the mass media and men feeling negatively about their bodies (Barlett et al., 2008). The researchers concluded that pressures from the mass media appear to be an important factor in how men think and feel about their bodies (Barlett et al., 2008).

Tiggemann (2005) found a relationship between the number of hours spent watching music videos and negative body attitudes in adolescent boys. Specifically, Tiggemann found an increase in body dissatisfaction and drive for muscularity associated with the number of hours spent watching music videos. To date, no other attempt to study the impact of music video viewing in male participants has been made. Thus, it would be useful to conduct research in this area to fill a gap in the mass media effects literature for boys and men.

There is some emerging evidence that Objectification Theory may help us to understand the impact of mass media images on male body dissatisfaction and other negative body attitudes. In a study examining the applicability of Objectification Theory to a sample of 714 adolescent boys and girls (382 boys) ages 12 to 16 years, Slater and Tiggemann (2010) collected data measuring body surveillance (i.e., self-objectification), body shame, appearance anxiety and disordered eating. Although girls demonstrated higher scores on all measures than their male counterparts, self-objectification was significantly related to, and predicted, body shame, appearance anxiety and disordered eating in both girls and boys. Another study by Parent and

Moradi (2011) found that internalization of cultural ideals of attractiveness in males was related to objectification variables (i.e., body shame and body surveillance) and drive for muscularity, which ultimately influenced attitudes towards using steroids to increase muscle mass. These findings suggest that Objectification Theory may be applicable to both males and females.

However, a study by Daniel and Bridges (2010) examined the relationship between internalization of media ideals, self-objectification, body surveillance, body shame, drive for muscularity and BMI in 244 predominantly college-aged males (mean age 21.4 years) and found that variables of objectification did not predict drive for muscularity. The researchers found that internalization of media ideals was the strongest predictor of drive for muscularity, followed by BMI. Daniel and Bridges suggest that Objectification Theory, as it is currently measured, may not be applicable to a male population. Further research is needed to determine if this theory, in its current state, is applicable to boys and men.

## **Conclusion**

The present study aimed to examine the potential impact of viewing objectifying music video on female adolescent body satisfaction. Objectification Theory was used as a framework to explore and understand the effects of music video viewing on body satisfaction cited in previous studies (i.e., Bell et al., 2007; Tiggemann & Slater, 2003). The results of this study suggested the existence of strong negative relationships between BMI and body satisfaction, as well as a strong negative relationship between body satisfaction and self-objectification, such that decreases in body satisfaction scores were associated with increases in self-objectification scores. The demonstration of a modest negative relationship between music video viewing and body satisfaction adds to the growing body of literature regarding the impact of objectifying music videos on body attitudes in girls and women. Limitations of this study, including questionable

power to detect statistical differences, may have influenced the strength of relationships and statistical significance of weaker relationships in the current study. Further research will be required to expand our knowledge in this area and provide further evidence for or against the hypothesis that time spent watching music videos is related to body dissatisfaction. Based on the strong negative relationship between body satisfaction and self-objectification, Objectification Theory may be a valuable framework to use in future research in this area.

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## APPENDICES

## Appendix A



**Investigating the Effects of Music Videos on Body Attitudes**

Consent Form

You are being invited to participate in a study examining the potential effects of music video viewing on teenage girls. Thank you for taking the time to consider participating in this study.

This study is intended only for female adolescents, age 16-18 years.

If you choose to participate, we will ask you to complete three (3) questionnaires that will let you report your feelings and thoughts about your body, estimate how often you regularly view music videos and listen to music, as well as name a favorite singer, video and song. If you do not feel comfortable to answer one or more of the questions, you may leave them blank with no consequence. It will take approximately 5-10 minutes to complete the study. To thank you for your participation in this study, you may enter your name into a draw for one of five gift certificates for two to attend a movie at your local movie theatre.

Your survey results will not be connected to any identifying information. This allows your thoughts and feelings to be reported anonymously (which means no one will know that you filled out the survey). You have the right to withdraw from the study if you choose to do so at any time prior to submitting the questionnaires. However, because there will be no way to identify which questionnaires are yours, once you hand in your completed questionnaires, you can no longer withdraw.

***Please do not put your name or any identifying information on the surveys.***

This study was approved by the University of Saskatchewan Ethics Board on January 14, 2011.

If you would like to receive a summary of the results you may include your email or mailing address at the bottom of this form and the results will be sent to you upon completion of analysis.

If you agree to participate in the study please sign your name below. If you have any questions about the study please feel free to contact:

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**Consent to Participate:** I have read and understand the description of the research study provided above. I have been allowed to ask questions and my questions have been answered. I agree to participate in the study described above, understanding that I may choose not to participate at any time. A copy of this consent form has been given to me for me to keep.

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Signature of Student Participant)

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Date)

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Signature of Student Researcher)

I would like to receive a copy of the study's results by email. My email address is: \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix B****Debriefing Form:*****Investigating the Effect of Music Videos on Body Attitudes***

Thank you for your participation in our study. Objectification theory suggests that treating the female body in media and culture as an object (i.e., something to use, consume, look at, etc.) causes women to adopt a view of one's own physical self as an object for others to appreciate. Seeing oneself as an object for the pleasure of others is called *Self-Objectification*. Recent research suggests that media images increase how much girls and women see their physical self as an object that belongs to others. Seeing oneself in this way is associated with body dissatisfaction and eating disorders such as Anorexia or Bulimia.

The effect that music videos can have on female body dissatisfaction and self-objectification has only begun to be studied. Two research studies found that music videos had negative effects on young adult female body dissatisfaction, but more research is needed because adolescents have a higher risk for developing eating disordered behaviours and also regularly watch music videos. Music psychology research has taught us that listening to music can change our mood. It is possible that music may increase negative feelings in girls, allowing music video images to cause more feelings of self-objectification and body dissatisfaction. This means that music videos may be one of the most powerful types of media available to youth today. The study you just participated in will help us to better understand if music videos have an effect on female body dissatisfaction and self-objectification and, if so, how music videos affect us. From there we can work to prevent or reverse the negative effects of these images on young girls and women.

This research intends to find out whether viewing objectifying music videos has an effect on body dissatisfaction and self-objectification in female adolescents. Specifically, the researchers are studying the prediction that the amount of time spent watching music videos is related to female adolescent's level of body dissatisfaction and self-objectification

If you have any questions about this study or wish to receive a copy of the results you may contact Heather Ksyniuk at 249-4083 ([heather.ksyniuk@usask.ca](mailto:heather.ksyniuk@usask.ca)) or Dr. Jennifer Nicol (Supervisor) at 966-5261 ([jaj.nicol@usask.ca](mailto:jaj.nicol@usask.ca)). As well, you may contact the Office of Research Services at (306) 966-2975 if you have any questions regarding your rights as a participant.

**Thank you again for your participation!**

**Online Resources:****Centre for Young Women's Health**

[http://www.youngwomenshealth.org/eating\\_disorders.html](http://www.youngwomenshealth.org/eating_disorders.html)

**Kids Help Phone**

<http://kidshelpphone.ca/>  
1-800-668-6868

**Child and Youth Mental Health Services:**

**Prince Albert** - (306) 765-6055

**Saskatoon** - (306) 655-7950

**Contact your School Counsellor**

## Appendix C

## BISS Questionnaire

For each of the items below, check the box beside the one statement that best describes how you feel **RIGHT NOW, AT THIS VERY MOMENT**. Read the items carefully to be sure the statement you choose accurately and honestly describes how you feel right now.

1. Right now I feel...

- Extremely dissatisfied** with my physical appearance
- Mostly dissatisfied** with my physical appearance
- Moderately dissatisfied** with my physical appearance
- Slightly dissatisfied** with my physical appearance
- Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied** with my physical appearance
- Slightly satisfied** with my physical appearance
- Moderately satisfied** with my physical appearance
- Mostly satisfied** with my physical appearance
- Extremely satisfied** with my physical appearance

2. Right now I feel...

- Extremely satisfied** with my body size and shape
- Mostly satisfied** with my body size and shape
- Moderately satisfied** with my body size and shape
- Slightly satisfied** with my body size and shape
- Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied** with my body size and shape
- Slightly dissatisfied** with my body size and shape
- Moderately dissatisfied** with my body size and shape
- Mostly dissatisfied** with my body size and shape
- Extremely dissatisfied** with my body size and shape



3. Right now I feel...

- Extremely dissatisfied** with my weight
- Mostly dissatisfied** with my weight
- Moderately dissatisfied** with my weight
- Slightly dissatisfied** with my weight
- Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied** with my weight
- Slightly satisfied** with my weight
- Moderately satisfied** with my weight
- Mostly satisfied** with my weight
- Extremely satisfied** with my weight

4. Right now I feel...

- Extremely** physically **attractive**
- Very** physically **attractive**
- Moderately** physically **attractive**
- Slightly** physically **attractive**
- Neither attractive nor unattractive**
- Slightly** physically **unattractive**
- Moderately** physically **unattractive**
- Very** physically **unattractive**
- Extremely** physically **unattractive**

5. Right now I feel...

- A great deal worse** about my looks than I usually feel
- Much worse** about my looks than I usually feel
- Somewhat worse** about my looks than I usually feel
- Just slightly worse** about my looks than I usually feel
- About the same** about my looks as usual
- Just slightly better** about my looks than I usually feel
- Somewhat better** about my looks than I usually feel
- Much better** about my looks than I usually feel
- A great deal better** about my looks than I usually feel

6. Right now I feel that I look...

- \_ ***A great deal better*** than the average person looks
- \_ ***Much better*** than the average person looks
- \_ ***Somewhat better*** than the average person looks
- \_ ***Just slightly better*** than the average person looks
- \_ ***About the same*** as the average person looks
- \_ ***Just slightly worse*** than the average person looks
- \_ ***Somewhat worse*** than the average person looks
- \_ ***Much worse*** than the average person looks
- \_ ***A great deal worse*** than the average person looks

|

## Appendix D

### SOQ Questionnaire

We are interested in how people think about their bodies. The questions below identify 10 different body attributes. We would like you to *rank order* these body attributes from that which has the *greatest impact* on your physical self-concept (rank this a "9"), to that which has the *least impact* on your physical self- concept (rank this a "0").

Note: It does not matter *how* you describe yourself in terms of each attribute. For example, fitness level can have a great impact on your physical self-concept regardless of whether you consider yourself to be physically fit, not physically fit, or any level in between.

Please first consider all attributes simultaneously, and record your rank ordering by writing the ranks in the rightmost column.

**IMPORTANT:** *Do Not Assign The Same Rank To More Than One Attribute*

When considering your *physical self-concept*...

1. What rank do you assign to *physical coordination* ?
2. What rank do you assign to *health*?
3. What rank to you assign to *weight*?
4. What rank do you assign to *strength*?
5. What rank do you assign to *sex appeal*?
6. What rank do you assign to *physical attractiveness*?
7. What rank do you assign to *energy level (e.g., stamina)*?
8. What rank do you assign to *firm/sculpted muscles*?
9. What rank do you assign to *physical fitness level*?
10. What rank do you assign to *measurements (e.g., chest, waist, hips)*?

9 = greatest impact

8 = next greatest impact

1 = next to least impact

0 = least impact

## Appendix E

### SOQ Questionnaire

We are interested in how people think about their bodies. The questions below identify 10 different body attributes. We would like you to *order* these body attributes from that which has the *greatest impact* on your physical self-concept (rank this a "1"), to that which has the *least impact* on your physical self- concept (rank this a "10"). In other words, what is *most important* (#1) to you when you think about your body and what is *least important* (#10) to you?

Note: It does not matter *how* you describe yourself in terms of each attribute. For example, fitness level can have a great impact on your physical self-concept regardless of whether you consider yourself to be physically fit, not physically fit, or any level in between.

Please first read and consider all attributes listed, and record your rank ordering by writing the letter in the column on the right.

**IMPORTANT:** *Do Not Assign The Same Rank To More Than One Attribute*

When considering your *physical self-concept*...

- |  |           |
|--|-----------|
| A) Physical coordination                   | #1 _____  |
| B) Health                                  | #2 _____  |
| C) Weight                                  | #3 _____  |
| D) Strength                                | #4 _____  |
| E) Sex appeal                              | #5 _____  |
| F) Physical attractiveness                 | #6 _____  |
| G) Energy level (e.g., stamina)            | #7 _____  |
| H) Firm/sculpted muscles                   | #8 _____  |
| I) Physical fitness level                  | #9 _____  |
| J) Measurements (e.g., chest, waist, hips) | #10 _____ |

- 1 = most important (greatest impact)  
 2 = second most important (next greatest impact)  
 9 = next to least important (next to least impact)  
 10 = least important (least impact)

**Appendix F**

**Music Video Viewing Survey**

The following is a list of the current top 10 music videos. Please put a check mark on the left next to the music videos that you have seen and indicate approximately how many times you have viewed each video *in the past week* on the right.

**Top 10 Music Videos**

#	Seen it! (yes)	Video & Artist	Seen how many times?
1		“We R who we R” – Ke\$ha	
2		“Black and yellow” – Wiz Kahlifa	
3		“Coming home” – Diddy Dirty Money	
4		“Higher” – Taio Cruz feat. Travy McCoy	
5		“Bigger than us” – White Lies	
6		“About us” - Neverest	
7		“Who dat girl?” – Flo Rida feat. Akon	
8		“Table dancer” – Keshia Chante	
9		“Hello” – Martin Solveig feat. Dragonette	
10		“This time” – JDiggz feat. Neverending White Lights	

Approximately how much time did you spend *viewing* music videos last week (i.e., music television, youtube, etc.)? \_\_\_\_\_

Approximately how much time did you spend *listening* to music last week (i.e., ipod, radio, CDs, etc.)? \_\_\_\_\_

This table may help you to calculate your answers for above:

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Weekend
Morning	(mins/hrs)					
Afternoon						
Evening						

**Do you have a current favourite song, artist, and/or music video? If so, please list below below:**

Favourite Song: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Favourite Music Video: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Favourite Artist: \_\_\_\_\_

**Additional Information:**

Age: \_\_\_\_\_ Height: \_\_\_\_\_ Weight: \_\_\_\_\_

**Ethnicity/Culture:**

- Canadian
- First Nations
- European (e.g., English, French)
- Hispanic
- African
- Asian
- Other \_\_\_\_\_