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Media and Body Image Discrepancy among African American Women

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Walden University
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Abstract

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BS, Bowie State University, 1996

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Exposure to thin images in mass media is associated with body image dissatisfaction and eating disorders. However, there is insufficient information on the effect of the media on body image discrepancy among African American women. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to investigate the role of media exposure, including Facebook, in body image discrepancy among African American women. Self-discrepancy theory, the self-objectification theory, and the social comparison theory helped to guide this study. Two hundred and twenty-four African American women ages 18-29 years residing in the United States were surveyed through convenience sampling and multiple regression and descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. Body image discrepancy was measured using the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale. Media exposure was assessed using the Mass Media Subscale of the Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire. Facebook use was measured with the Multidimensional Intensity Scale. Findings showed a statistically significant relationship between the level of exposure to mass media and the level of body image discrepancy among African American female adults but body mass index did not serve as a statistically significant moderator of the relationship between level of social media use and body image discrepancy. Results of this study demonstrate the need of positive social change by health care professionals to be more aware of cultural barriers when addressing the role of the media in body image discrepancy among African American women.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my ever-supporting husband, and my five children Andre, Kerishe, Dale, Kayla, and Norman II. Without their support I would not have found the strength, time, and patience to complete this journey.

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First, I would like to thank God for his mercy, love, and grace without which I would not be able to reach this point in my career. I also want to thank my supportive husband who made it possible for me to take time off from work to write my dissertation. Thanks to my children for their support and understanding when I was not able to participate in family activities because I had to work on my dissertation. Last but not least, I would like to acknowledge Dr. Rainforth, my chair, whose patience, guidance, and critiques encouraged me to write an acceptable dissertation.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Body image dissatisfaction is prevalent among young women and 81% of U.S. women in college complained of body dissatisfaction (Ariel-Donges et al., 2019). Forty percent of college age women stated that they would undergo cosmetic surgery in the near future (Ariel-Donges et al., 2019). Ariel-Donges et al. (2019) added that body image dissatisfaction placed these women at increased risk for eating disorders. They also noted that research has consistently shown that exposure to media images is associated with women's dissatisfaction. Their findings are not rare. Many young people are dissatisfied with their body owing to a discrepancy between their ideal and actual body size (Sorrel, 2019). Currently, there is a lack of studies on the effect of media on body image discrepancy among African American women. There is also lack of research on the relationship between Facebook and body image discrepancy among African American women. As such, I have chosen to address the aforementioned gap. and the findings may inform the development of appropriate intervention. It is important to comprehend the perceptions that African American women have of body image discrepancy and how this relates to their decision to avoid the negative impact of the media on their body image. This knowledge may help to improve culturally relative primary prevention programs, as well as secondary and tertiary programs, producing positive social change through better perception of body image and healthier lives.

In this chapter, I discuss research on the role of the media on body image dissatisfaction among African American women. The factors that contribute to body

image discrepancy are covered. I also present my problem statement and the purpose of the study. Next, I discuss my research questions and hypotheses, and I give a brief overview of the theoretical foundation of the study. The nature of the study, definition of terms, assumptions, and scope and delimitation are also discussed. Additionally, I give an in-depth view of the limitations and significance of the study. Chapter 1 concludes with a summary.

Background of the Study

In 1984, Rodin et al. coined the term *normative discontent* in reference to the disturbing findings of widespread body dissatisfaction among girls and women in Western Cultures (Engeln-Maddox, 2015). This writer noted that in the epidemiological sense, body image disturbances among adolescents and women were normal. Body image dissatisfaction is of great concern because it is linked to eating disorder-related pathology and lower levels of psychosocial adjustment (Mitchison et al., 2017). According to Derne and Bereson (2017), in today's social world where individuals have quick access to information and altered images on social media sites is the norm, there is a rising trend of body image dissatisfaction. However, there is a lack of body image research on African American women (James & Harville, 2018).

Body image dissatisfaction can lead to obesity, depression, and eating disorders (Sorrel, 2019). According to Sorrel (2019), viewing thin models is correlated with poor body image and anxiety in women. Brown (2016) reported that there is an increase in negative mood after viewing advertisements with thin models compared to advertisements without people. Bittencourt and Goncalves (2015) also found that mass

media is a causal risk factor for negative body image and eating disorders in women. Bittencourt and Goncalves conducted a controlled experiment and found that mass media is a casual risk factor. Recent research has linked body image dissatisfaction to social media use among women and girls (Mingoia et al, 2017; Saiphoo, & Vahedi, 2019).

African Americans are underrepresented in health research studies, even in the current era where web-based research is prevalent (Watson et al., 2016). Researchers including Cadpodilupo (2015) and Capodilupo and Kim (2014) have pointed out that few studies have addressed the impact of the media on body image discrepancy among African American women. Prior studies have focused on body image discrepancy among White women and girls (Robbins et al., 2017; Selzer, 2013). The consequences of aspiring to an unrealistic thin body image can be devastating; therefore it is important to examine how viewing thin images in the media might affect Black women (Selzer, 2013).

Body image discrepancy occurs when there is a mismatch between one's belief about physical attributes and those that the individual would ideally like to have (Heron & Smith, 2013). Body image dissatisfaction is generally measured through questionnaire items regarding global feelings concerning the individual's appearance and weight (e.g. Kashaabek- West et al., 2013). The construct of body image discrepancy involves requesting the individual to compare ideal versus actual bodily dimensions (e.g. chest, waist etc.).

Bruns and Carter (2015) also found that few studies have investigated the impact of the media on body image discrepancy of African American women of diverse ethnicities. Dye (2016) agreed that most studies have focused on White women. While

some researchers have failed to mention the ethnic composition of their participants, others have simply compared White with African American women, without measuring or describing their sample's ethnic group affiliations (Quick & Byrd-Bredbenner, 2014). Chapter 2 presents an up-to-date review of the empirical literature on the relationship between media exposure and body image dissatisfaction among African American women. This literature review shows that there are no studies on the relationship between media exposure and body image discrepancy in African American women. Moreover, there are no studies of African American women on effects of participation in online social media sites (such as Facebook) on body image discrepancy. My study aims to fill this gap by examining the role of the media in body image discrepancy among African American women. This study is warranted because of the lack of research on African American women who constitute an under-researched and underserved minority population.

Problem Statement

According to Rounsefell et al. (2020), negative body image heightens the risk of unhealthy dieting and disordered eating patterns in young adults ages 18-30 years. Exposure to thin images in the mass media is associated with body image dissatisfaction and eating disorders (Melioli et al., 2015). There is evidence that the difference between women's actual body sizes and ideals portrayed through the media's use of slim models may cause women to feel badly about their bodies and pressure them to engage in unhealthy dieting (Melioli et al., 2015). Of relevance is research on effects on body image discrepancy—the amount of mismatch between a person's actual body shape

versus the ideal shape that the individual would like to have (Heron & Smith, 2013; Quick & Byrd-Bredbenner, 2014). Previous research has found that body image discrepancy is more proximally related to exposure to media influences, whereas the influence of media exposure on body image perceptions is less direct (Eyal & Te'eni-Harari, 2013). The research problem, which this dissertation study addressed, is that there is insufficient information on the effect of the media on body image discrepancy among African American women.

Most Americans now use some kind of social media, with 68% using Facebook (Smith & Anderson, 2018). Due to the large numbers of young women relying on social media, it is important to investigate ways in which social media can affect body image disturbance and perceptions of body image (Perloff, 2014). Fardouly and Vartanian (2016) reviewed several correlational studies on the relationship between Facebook use and body image. These studies showed that Facebook usage is linked to body image disorders among young women (Fardouly & Vartanian, 2016). However, these authors noted that further research on Facebook use is warranted, including with more diverse samples.

Research on the effects of the media and other cultural influences on body image dissatisfaction has mainly focused on White women (Capodilupo, 2015; Debraganza & Hausenblas, 2010). Such research is important in view of cultural and ethnic differences (Capodilupo, 2015). Also, body image dissatisfaction has been linked to obesity (defined as having a body mass index >30.0), and when comparing African American women to White women, obesity rates are higher among African American women (Hales et al.,

2017; Weinberger et al., 2016). Although Fardouly and Vartanian (2016) identified several studies on the relationship between Facebook use and body image, none of the studies that these authors reviewed were specifically on African American women. Brooks (2016) and Howard (2017) utilized samples that included African American women to examine the influence of online social media regarding the effects on body image, but neither of these studies investigated effects of media exposure on body image discrepancy. More generally, regarding effects of traditional mass media, such as television and magazines, most studies have focused on White women; few studies have addressed the impact of the media on body image among African American women (Cadpodilupo, 2015; Selzer, 2013). Further research is needed on the relationship between media influences and body image discrepancy among African American women as this is an under-served, under-researched population.

Purpose of the Study

The overarching purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the role of the media exposure in body image discrepancy among African American women. A correlation design was used to address this relationship, which has not been previously investigated among African American women. This study determined the relationship between media exposure, including exposure to traditional mass media and use of social media, and body image discrepancy among African American women. Body mass index was used as control variables in the statistical analyses of the study data. In addition, body mass index was examined as a potential moderator of this relationship.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1 (RQ1): Is there a relationship between African American young women's' level of body image discrepancy and level of media exposure (including use of social media and influences of mass media)?

$H_0$1: Among African American young women, there is no relationship between level of exposure to mass media (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire-3 (SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H_a1: Among African American young female adults, there is a relationship between level of mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

$H_0$2: Among African American young female adults, there is no relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H_a2: Among African American young female adults, there is a relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

Research Question 2 (RQ2): Does body mass index moderate the relationship between media exposure (including use of social media and influences of mass media) and body image discrepancy among African women?

$H_0$3: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is not a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H_a3: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

$H_0$4: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is not a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale)

H_a4: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook

Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

Theoretical Foundation

Self-discrepancy theory, the self-objectification theory, and the social comparison theory helped to guide this study. Self-discrepancy theory was developed by Higgins (1987). This theory postulates that when people fail to attain what they believe they should or like to be, they can experience severe emotional distress and engage in self-destructive behaviors. The self-discrepancy theory also posits that women who view images of ideal models have the tendency to express negative evaluations of their bodies (Kim & Damhorst, 2010). This theory predicts failure to achieve personal ideals which are associated with body image dissatisfaction and can manifest as shame (Bessenoff & Snow, 2006).

Self-objectification theory posits that individuals tend to view themselves as objects (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). These writers suggested that objects in objectification were based solely on appearance. According to Green and Ohrt (2013), self-objectification theory also suggests that women exist in a culture that is obsessed with appearance. This culture reduces personal worth to a woman's capacity to conform to the standards of society for physical attractiveness (Green & Ohrt). One of the most frequent ways of perpetuating self-objectification is via the visual media (Frederickson & Roberts).

Social comparison theory was developed by Festinger (1954). This theory is based on the belief that the way in which individuals compare themselves to others

affects their self-evaluative process. According to Kim and Lennon (2007), individuals engage in relatively continuous self-evaluation to decide whether they are normal. The theoretical foundation of this study is discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

Definition of Terms

The following terms and definitions are foundational to the constructs that this study examines:

Body image: The mental image that individuals hold regarding their bodies. It includes both how people see themselves and how they feel about what they see (Fallon, 1990).

Body image discrepancy: The difference between an individual's perceived body size and their desired body image (Heron & Smyth, 2013).

Body image dissatisfaction: Dysfunctional, negative beliefs and feelings about an individual's weight and shape (Kashubek-West et al. 2013).

Body mass index (BMI): An indicator of body fatness based on the height and weight of the individual (Kakrshiton & Almeda, 2008).

Mass media: Includes television, magazines, social media, and movies (Tiggemann, 2005).

Thin-ideal internalization: Refers to the extent that people internalize societal standards of attractiveness and engage in unhealthy behaviors designed to meet these ideals (Thompson et al., 1999).

Social Media: An important source of information and news in the United States (Bradshaw et al., 2019). Social media platforms have become a critical public interest due to the spread of misinformation via social media (Bradshaw et al.).

Nature of the Study

A quantitative correlational design was used in this study to examine the role of the media in body image discrepancy among African American women. A quantitative approach was appropriate because the purpose of the study was to examine relationships among quantitative variables (Cresswell, 2003). More specifically, a correlational design was used because the study hypotheses involved relationships among variables at the same point in time. In addition, the quantitative design was used because the goal of the study was to examine the role of the media in body image discrepancy among African American women. In this study, the sample consisted of approximately 200 women of African American origin, who were enrolled in or had graduated from a university in the United States. Ages ranged from 18-29 years. The dependent variable included a measure of body image discrepancy, using the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale as used by Shih and Kubo (2002). The Stunkard Figure Rating Scale was developed by Stunkard et al. in 1983. In my study, participants were presented with figures of different sizes and requested to rate their body size in comparison to the figures based on the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale. The independent variables were measured by scale used by Chen and Jackson (2012). Chen and Jackson used the Mass Media Influence Subscale of the Socio-cultural Attitudes Towards Appearance -3 (SATAQ-3) which is a 6-item questionnaire to evaluate media influence. I calculated body image discrepancy as a

discrepancy measure: actual minus ideal score and actual minus score (Heron & Smyth, 2013). A discrepancy score of zero suggests no body image discrepancy and positive values mean that women want to be thinner (Heron & Smyth). The moderating variable, Body Mass Index (BMI), was calculated based on the height and weight of each participant (Goerke et al., 2017).

Participating students were requested to complete the surveys anonymously and asked not to provide identifying information such as name and address. I used the SPSS version 22.0 to analyze the data collected for this research. Body mass index was used as a control variable in the statistical analyses of the study data. Due to the advent of COVID-19, the survey was online and I used Survey Monkey, which is a web-based survey, to collect my data. Linear regression analysis was performed to examine the relationship of the media exposure to body image discrepancy and to investigate whether the relationship was moderated by body mass index. Linear regression analysis is an appropriate method to examine relationships between quantitative variables. Multiple linear regression analysis, based on a regression model that includes an interaction term, is the recommended statistical method to investigate effects of moderator variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Assumptions

I assumed that the participants in the study were honest in their responses to the questionnaires and demographic information requested of them and that all participants understood the questions asked. The participants' names were not included in their responses, and they were assured of their anonymity. Another assumption was that the

Stunkard Figure Rating Scale adequately measured body image discrepancy in the study. It was further assumed that the sample of university students was representative of students from other populations. Combined, these assumptions helped to both define and limit the scope of this study. Assumptions were necessary to improve the validity of the study because assumptions influence the entire research process. Assumptions also provided meaning to findings of the study and offered support to the recommendations (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008). These assumptions served as a basis for arriving at meaningful interpretations of the study results. These assumptions were plausible and necessary because in the context of performing the study, it was not feasible to test them empirically or control for factors that underlie them.

Scope and Delimitations

In relation to previous studies, this study's intent was to extend the research and understanding of the consequences of the media on body image discrepancy among African American women. The need for this study arose from the vast need to address the gap in knowledge about risk factors of the media and contributors to body image discrepancy among the target population. The study included African American women ages 18-29 years excluding any women who were 30 years and older at the time of the study. Participants were recruited from universities and colleges in the United States with predominantly African American students. Participants, conditions, and variables not specified in this study were beyond the scope of the study. This study did not include consideration of populations other than African American women hence the ability to generalize results to individuals of other races was impacted but also was not the goal.

Limitations

All the data were based on a convenience sample. A convenience sample is a limitation of the sample in that when using convenience sample, generalization to other populations is limited. Correlational studies are associated with statistical and design problems such as the inability to signify causality (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008). An important design limitation of correlation studies is that a correlation between an independent variable and dependent variable may be due to the influence of a third factor on both variables (Cresswell, 2003). Without doing a controlled longitudinal study, there would be no way to ascertain that exposure to mass media (TV, magazines, etc.) and social media use determines or causes the level of body image discrepancy. Other extraneous variables, such as body type, age, level of self-esteem, family background, cultural values, and social desirability factors could affect susceptibility to influences from social and mass media. To minimize the potential effects from confounding variables, body mass index was controlled in the data analysis.

Self-reported data is inherently subjective. Although some people may question the reliability and validity of self-report data, one can suggest that subjectivity was necessary because the construct of body image discrepancy is based on an individual's perception of self. The limitation of this type of construct is that information can be missed or skewed when participants respond in socially desirable or psychological defended ways. I minimized this limitation by reiterating anonymity of this study several times: upon presentation of the study to solicit participants, when the survey packet is

retrieved by the participants, and again in an introduction letter attached to the questionnaires.

Significance of the Study

Previous research on the role of the media in body image dissatisfaction has addressed mostly adolescents and young girls. For example, Javaid and Ahmad (2014) conducted a study to explore factors that affect body image satisfaction and negative mood among adolescent girls. Compared to other studies on a similar topic, this study was unique because it focused on body image discrepancy specifically in African American women. Whereas body image dissatisfaction is typically assessed by questionnaire items concerning a person's overall level of satisfaction with their body, body image discrepancy is a more precise construct in the sense that it involves comparison between the person's actual versus idealized bodily dimensions (Heron & Smyth, 2013). This study provides evidence regarding the existence of a relationship between media exposure and body image discrepancy among African American women aged 18-29 years. Media exposure included images seen in magazines and on television advertisements. According to Whyte et al. (2016), study of body image dissatisfaction and media exposure is important because of the association between influence of mass media and eating disorders. Research aimed at understanding factors that contribute to body image dissatisfaction and its accompanying psychosocial problems has the potential to lead to improvements in treatment delivery to women who are vulnerable to this problem, thereby promoting positive social changes.

Summary and Transition

In this chapter I provided an overview of the purpose of the study, research questions and hypotheses, theoretical foundation, nature of the study and definition of terms to give the reader more detailed information about the contents of the study. Furthermore, I also discussed assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study. This study is significant because it examines the body image of African American women. Many studies on body image have disregarded African American women as subjects. Instead, researchers use White women and girls with little focus on ethnic and racial differences. This study acknowledges the presence of African Americans in the media and shows the effect on African American women's body image. As such, this study is a steppingstone to more research in this area.

In Chapter 2, I review the literature that is present in the field regarding the role of the media in body image discrepancy among African American women. Chapter 2 concludes with a summary of the issues and literature included within the review.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this dissertation study was to investigate the role of media exposure in body image discrepancy among African American women. Body image discrepancy occurs when there is a mismatch between an individual's beliefs about physical attributes and those that the person would ideally like to have (Heron & Smith, 2013). Whereas body image dissatisfaction is generally assessed through questionnaire items regarding global feelings concerning one's physical appearance and weight, the construct of body image discrepancy involves asking a person to compare her ideal versus actual bodily dimensions (Kashubek-West et al., 2013). This approach has been used with female populations of predominantly European descent to explore how media exposure influences the attitudes and perceptions women hold toward different parts of their bodies (Pearl et al., 2012).

The advent of widespread social media use is one of the reasons that further research is needed on media influences on body image among African American women. According to Jefferson and Stake (2009), few studies have focused on the impact of the media on body image discrepancy among African American women. Prior studies focused on the effects of the media on body image discrepancy among White women (Zhang et al., 2009). Aspiring to an unrealistic thin body can have serious negative consequences for a person's self-esteem, mental health, and physical health. Hence it is important to explore how viewing thin images in the media might affect African American women (Zhang et al., 2009). However, as this chapter shows, there was a gap in the literature in that previous studies had not examined the relationship between media

exposure to bodily images and discrepancy in African American women. Although studies with African American women have investigated the relationship between media exposure and body-image dissatisfaction (rather than body-image discrepancy; e.g., Ogden et al. (2011), prior studies have mainly addressed the effects of the media on body image discrepancy among White women (Zhang et al., 2009).

In this chapter, I examine research on the role of the media on body image discrepancy among African American women. In the first section of this chapter, I discuss my literature search strategy and present background information on the topic under study. I also present information regarding research on body image among African American women and girls and discuss research on body image and ethnic influences. I further examine data on the theoretical framework underlying this study and the rationale for using these theories. Additionally, I discuss evidence of the problem and research on body image discrepancy. The remainder of the chapter includes a discussion on moderating variables and a review of current research literature. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Literature Search Strategy

I conducted a review of the literature by using a computerized search of databases available through Walden University. These databases included Google Scholar, Academic Search Premier, The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), ProQuest Dissertation, PsychInfo, and PsychArticles. Studies from peer-reviewed journals were also obtained through the American Psychological Association, The American Educational Research Association, and the American Counseling Association.

Additional resources included books obtained through my local library. Key search terms used included body image, body image dissatisfaction, body image discrepancy, media exposure, and African American women. Although I reviewed historical literature, the focus was on studies conducted within the last 5 years. The literature search included research published within the past 10 years except for research related to defining primary variables and theories.

Evidence of the Problem

Body image encompasses a person's feelings, thoughts, and behaviors that are related to one's physical appearance (Tylka & Wood-Barcalow, 2015). Because body image dissatisfaction is a strong predictor of eating disorders, depression, negative mood, low self-esteem, and obesity, effective interventions for body image dissatisfaction are necessary (Dakanalis et al., 2016). Over 70% of adolescent girls and 80% of adult women suffer from poor body image (Castonguay et al., 2012). Approximately 50% of girls and undergraduate women report that they are dissatisfied with their bodies (Castonguay et al., 2012). The negative effects of the media on body image discrepancy are fast becoming a significant public health concern in the United States (Bessenoff, 2012). The majority of body image research focuses on women's and girls' experiences with weight and shapes, particularly the pursuit of a thin ideal (Whyte et al., 2016). Sufficient research with White women prevails to support the belief that a desire to be thinner and to lose weight is a central obsession bordering on normalcy (Whyte et al.). David and Warrier (2019) provided evidence that body image dissatisfaction has become the norm among young women in America.

Finkley (2016) used a qualitative instrument to investigate the body image perception of African American women enrolled in an all-female, historically Black college. Finkley's research was intended to get the participants to participate in discussions concerning their perceptions on body image. Few researchers have solely examined the body image perceptions of African American women in an all-female historically Black college. Finkley used face to face interviews and the sample consisted of 15 African American women ages 18 to 24 and enrolled at the college. The following research question governed Finkley's study: What are the body image perceptions of African American women attending an all-female, historically Black college? A computer assisted data analysis program called Dedoose was used to manage and organize the data and Finkley used the social comparison theory as the theoretical foundation. Findings indicated that female African American college-aged women face and sometimes struggle with body image perception. Finkley concluded that the African American students are self-aware and self-conscious regarding their body image and the body images of others. These women frequently compared themselves to each other and were conscious of size and body image. Findings also indicated that the focus of the college on school activities, women's empowerment, peer interaction, and a wellness program assisted in shaping the body image perceptions of the women in Finkley's study.

According to Grant (2017), African American women have the largest rate of obesity in the United States which increases their risk for chronic diseases. African American women's understanding of their health status and response to it may be triggered by messages in the media. However, Grant noted that few writers have

investigated this subject with African American women. The purpose of Grant's research was to investigate how adolescent and editorial material in media contributed to perceptions that African American women have regarding obesity and overweight. Grant used the theoretical framework of the social cognitive theory to guide the study and the research questions examined the type of messages that participants faced, and which messages included behavior changes. The sample of the study consisted of 10 African American women aged 25 and older who were interviewed regarding their understanding of overweight and obesity, self-efficacy, and chronic diseases. Results of the study suggested that media messages are components in the development of the perspectives that African American women have about being obese or overweight and prompted them to embrace health improving behaviors. Grant found that messages in the media may lead to shifting of the imbalance of obesity and overweight among African American women. The results of Grant's study may encourage public health officials, health communication researchers, and media professionals to build and spread informative health related messages.

Body Image among African American Women and Girls: A Historical Perspective

Historically, the media perpetuate beliefs about race and ethnicity that put Black women at a clear disadvantage (Bounds-Littlefield, 2008). This writer stated that starting with the welfare queen image during the Reagan administration and moving to the porno chick represented in current media, people view a daily discourse on gender, race, and class that continues to reproduce dominant and misrepresented views of African American womanhood and sexuality. According to Pyke (2010), throughout history and

up to present day Black women have challenged White definitions of beauty. There is a cultural difference in what or who is considered beautiful (Pyke). Historically, and up to modern times, African American beauty has been underrated (Pyke). Three historical negative images of African American Beauty include the tragic sapphire, the oversexed jezebel, and the mammy figure (Morgan et al., 2017). During slavery African American women who were lighter-skinned and possessed features such as wavy or straight hair were house slaves and African American women with darker skin, broader facial features, and kinky hair tended to be field slaves (Pyke).

Research on Body Image and Ethnic Influences

Early researchers of body image that included African American women tended to explicitly compare the Black population with their Caucasian counterparts. Researchers specifically suggested that Black women generally experienced less body image discrepancy than White women (Capodilupo & Kim, 2013). David and Warrier (2019) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the prevalence of media influences based on cultural differences. This qualitative meta-analysis included 37 studies, 22 of which were Indian. The methodology used for this study was thematic analysis as the studies were divided into non-Indian and Indian studies. The research was based on themes, such as the prevalence of media stereotypes, media influence, and the effect of advertisement and films. Data from the meta-analysis showed that 11 of the 37 studies headlined the stereotypical facet of the media. David and Warrier also recommended that more media studies should be conducted to capture the cultural aspect of media influences.

Researchers consistently examine the negative effect of thinness pressures in body image among ethnic groups in the United States (Ordaz et al., 2018). However, these studies have mainly used Caucasian samples in the United States thus limiting generalizability to other ethnic groups. Additionally, scant research has investigated ethnic differences in thinness pressures from specific social cultural influences (Ordaz et el.). These researchers investigated the origin of thinness pressures in 135 African American, 598 White, and 131 Hispanic college-aged women in the United States. Findings of the study concluded that mean levels of thinness pressures differed significantly across ethnicity. African American women reported the lowest levels of each pressure. For White women, each source was prominent for appearance for disordered eating. For the Hispanic women, pressure from family was specifically salient for appearance evaluation. Family pressure was particularly salient for appearance evaluation in African American women. Findings of the study also suggest existing ethnic differences in the associated salience of some pressure over others (Ordaz et al.)

According to Rakhkovskaya and Warren (2016), current research proposes that ethnic American identity and American identity are positively associated with psychology and health in ethnic minorities. Particularly, ethnic identity is linked to body dissatisfaction in minority women (Rakhkovskaya & Warren). The researchers investigated the relationship between American identity, ethnic identity, thin-ideal internalization, pressures for thinness, and body dissatisfaction in 1,018 ethnically diverse college-aged women. Results of the study show that ethnic identity negatively predicted

body dissatisfaction for Asian American women and African Americans. Ethnic identity also lessened the relationship between pressures for thinness body dissatisfaction for Asian Americans and African Americans but not for Latino and European Americans. Findings of the study by Rakhkovskaya and Warren suggested that ethnic identity could be a defensive factor against eating pathology for African American and Asian American women.

Additionally, Fitzgibbon et al. (2010) conducted a study to examine at what body mass index (BMI) body image discrepancy (BD) was reported in a community sample. The sample consisted of 389 women – 63 Caucasian, 231 African American, and 95 Hispanic women. Fitzgibbon et al. measured the trajectory of the BMI – BD relationship as BMI increases by ethnic group. The height and the weight of the participants were assessed, and they completed the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale. The researchers found no difference in the proportion of women in each ethnic group reporting body image discrepancy. However, the Caucasian participants experienced BD at a lower BMI level and below the criteria for overweight. On the other hand, African American and Hispanic women did not report BD until they were overweight. In comparison to African American and White women, Hispanic women registered increases in BD at smaller increases in BMI. Fitzgibbon et al. concluded that the findings of the study could signify unhealthy implications for weight control behavior.

Theoretical Frameworks

The self-objectification theory postulates that individuals tend to view themselves as objects (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). These writers added that objects in

objectification are based solely on appearance. Self-objectification theory suggests that women exist in a culture that is obsessed with appearance (Green & Ohrt, 2013). This culture reduces personal worth to a woman's capacity to conform to the standards of society for physical attractiveness (Green & Ohrt). According to Frederickson and Roberts, one of the most frequent ways of perpetuating sexual objectification is via the visual media. Viewing images of the sexualized female body or images in which sexual objectification is portrayed may increase self-objectification in women (Harper & Tiggemann, 2008). The writers added that very few researchers have investigated the relationship between media exposure and self-objectification. Self-objectification theory provides a framework for understanding the experience of being female in a sociocultural context that sexually objectifies the female body (Szymanski et al., 2011). Self-objectification theory has emerged as a significant organizing perspective for many studies within feminist and counseling psychology (Szymanski et al., year). Evidently the self-objectification theory fits well within the multicultural feminist and social justice tasks of counselling psychology. Evidence of the sexual objectification of women is prevalent everywhere-from the media to women's interpersonal experiences, and to specific environments and subcultures within the United States culture where the sexualization of women is cultivated and culturally condoned (Szymanski et al., year). I chose the self-objectification theory because several studies investigating body surveillance have successfully supported the self-objectification theory regarding the harmful effects of the media. The self-objectification theory has emerged as a significant organizing perspective, such as mine within feminist and counseling psychology. My

study is relevant because very few studies have investigated the relationship between media exposure and self-objectification. According to Yu and Perez (2020), influences, such as thin ideal images for women and sexual objectification, impact body image and dissatisfaction in women and girls. In addition to studies about how body dissatisfaction influences behavior and psychological functioning, theorists like Frederickson and Roberts develop theories like self-objectification to comprehend factors that cause body image dissatisfaction. Many writers in the field argue that cultural influences, such as thin ideal bodies and sexual objectification impact body image and dissatisfaction in girls and women (Sorrell, 2019). The theoretical underpinnings are therefore appropriate to the application to my study. Theories, such as the self-objectification theory are connected to my research questions and hypotheses. The self-discrepancy theory was developed by Higgins (1987) and posits that when people fail to attain what they believe they should or like to be, they can experience severe emotional distress and engage in self-destructive behaviors. The self-discrepancy theory also predicts failure to achieve personal ideals which are associated with body image dissatisfaction and can manifest as shame (Bessenoff & Snow, 2006). Szymanski and Cash (1995) used the self-discrepancy theory to assess body image, particularly the distinctions of standpoint and self-guide. People, particularly young women, who view images of ideal models, have the tendency to express negative evaluations of their bodies (Kim & Damhorst, 2010). Several studies have supported the predictions of the self-discrepancy theory. For example, Pentina et al. (2009) found that the self-discrepancy theory is instrumental in identifying the kinds of self-concept issues that are linked to the intentions to undergo plastic surgery

(transformation of one's body). My study is consistent with a growing literature that addresses the self-discrepancy theory. According to Heron and Smyth (2013), the self-discrepancy theory has been broadly applied to body image research. The self-discrepancy theory is also connected to my research questions and my hypotheses.

The social comparison theory was developed by Festinger (1954) and is based on the belief that the way in which people compare themselves to others affects their self-evaluative process. Individuals engage in a relatively continuous self-evaluation to decide whether they are normal (Jung-Hwan & Lennon, 2007). These researchers used the social comparison theory as the theoretical framework for their study that addressed how female college students perceive their body image, self-esteem, and eating disorder tendencies associated with the degree of media exposure. The basis of Festinger's social comparison theory is the process of evaluating oneself in comparison to others in the social environment. Festinger also theorized that people make upward social comparisons, which means that they compare themselves to someone whom they perceive as being superior. Individuals will make this comparison to gain information that may encourage self-improvement (Festinger, year). The aforementioned theorist also postulated that individuals would continue to make upward social comparisons if they do not believe that the comparison is harmful. On the other hand, downward comparisons are defined as comparisons to one who is believed to be inferior to the individual and arise from the desire to improve one's self esteem (Festinger).

According to Schooler et al., (2004), the social comparison theory is an alternative framework to discuss the effects of the media on body images. According to

this perspective, when one makes an upward comparison, it will generally lead to a depressed mood. On the other hand, a downward comparison results in mood elevation (Schooler et al., 2004). These writers stated that women who compared themselves with women in the media are more dissatisfied with their bodies. Cattarin et al. (2010) suggested that the effects of media exposure on body image are greater when women compare themselves to thin ideal images in the media. Thus, findings from the social comparison perspective suggest that women who frequently view and compare themselves to thin images on television experience less satisfaction with their bodies and physical appearance (Schooler et al., year). My study is consistent with Gung-Huan and Lennon (2017) who used the comparison theory as a theoretical framework for their study. The writers used this framework to address how female college students perceive their body image, self-esteem, and eating disorder tendencies associated with the degree of media exposure. My rationale for choosing the social comparison theory is that this theory provides a valid explanation for the role of the media in body image discrepancy. Comparison to idealized media images is important in developing and reinforcing a preoccupation with physical attraction (Groesz et al., 2012).

Rationale for Using Theories

Several studies and particularly the studies investigating body surveillance have successfully supported the self-objectification theory regarding the harmful impact of the media (Vandenbosch & Eggermont, 2012). I was able to associate the self-objectification theory with my study which addresses the impact of the media on body image discrepancy. Both traditional and recent media have been found to frequently focus on

women's appearance in a sexualized way and ignore women's personalities (Vandenbosch & Eggermont). Exposure to sexually objectifying media is expected to follow a chain of psychological events among media users and may lead to various mental and physical health risks (Aubrey, 2006). According to Moradi and Huang (2008), self-objectification has been found to be one of the most fundamental events in the chain of psychological events. I chose the self-objectification theory because several studies that investigated body surveillance have successfully supported the self-objectification theory regarding the harmful impact of the media.

According to the self-discrepancy theory, actual ideal discrepancy is related to body image dissatisfaction (Higgins, 1987). Individuals, especially young women who are exposed to images of ideal models, have the tendency to show negative evaluations of their bodies (Kim & Damhorst, 2010). The aforementioned information fits well with my study which focuses on the media and body image discrepancy. Kim and Damhorst (2010) conducted a study to investigate the relationships among self-discrepancy, body dissatisfaction, apparel involvement, concerns with size, and intentions to purchase based on self-discrepancy theory. My study is consistent with a growing literature that addresses the self-discrepancy theory. As mentioned before, the self-discrepancy theory is connected to my research questions and hypotheses.

Social comparison theory provides a valid explanation for the role of the media in the body image discrepancy. According to Fitzsimmons-Craft et al. (2012), research has shown a significant link between ideal internalization and body image discrepancy. Additionally, social comparison theory posits that human beings participate in social

comparison with others to comprehend how and where they fit into the world when fair standards are not available (Festinger, 1954). When an individual compares himself or herself to others, intentionally or unintentionally, it is considered a pervasive aspect of social interactions (Fitzsimmons et al., year). These writers added that university campuses provide environments conducive to social comparisons. For example, women are surrounded by several women of almost the same age with whom they interact both directly and indirectly. Research findings suggest that women often make appearance-related social comparisons which may lead to body dissatisfaction (Myers & Crowther, 2009). A common element in both thin-ideal internalization and body dissatisfaction is social comparison (Bessenoff, 2006). For example, body dissatisfaction is linked to the tendency to compare one's body to other people's bodies. Additionally, measures of thin ideal internalization include statements measuring the level of comparison to thin ideals. In westernized societies, such as the U.S. individuals have the tendency to perceive attractiveness and thinness as the desired traits for women (Kim & Lennon, 2007). The perceptions of beauty and attractiveness are reinforced by evaluations and comparisons to others, such as peers, family members, and media images (Thompson & Stice, 2010). These comparisons are frequently unconscious, and the process of comparison is explained by social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954). Comparison to idealized media images is important in developing and reinforcing a preoccupation with physical attractiveness (Groesz et al., 2012). Unrealistic and idealized images play an important role in promoting self-comparison among women and result in an upward shift of people's personal image expectations (Blowers et al., 2013).

Evidence that Exposure to Media Images Negatively Influences Body Image

There is evidence that poor body image among women is caused or exacerbated by exposure to media images of thin women. Grabe et al. (2008) conducted a meta-analysis that investigated 25 experimental and 52 correlational studies. Most of this evidence is based on studies using samples of predominantly Caucasian women. Grabe et al. tested the associations between media exposure and women's body dissatisfaction, internalization of the thin ideal, and eating behaviors. Results of the meta-analysis showed consistent associations across multiple measures of the participants' body image, eating behaviors, and beliefs (Grabe et al., year). Findings of these studies provide evidence for the idea that exposure to mass media is related to women's vulnerability to body image concerns.

Additional evidence is provided by Lopez-Guimera et al. (2010) who reviewed research on the effects of magazines and television on body image and disordered eating behaviors in females. Findings from the meta-analysis done by these researchers suggest that greater use of the mass media, particularly fashion magazines and television, is significantly correlated with higher levels of body image dissatisfaction and disordered eating. Several researchers have focused on research regarding body image dissatisfaction. According to Dohnt and Tiggermann (2006), body dissatisfaction is very prevalent among women and has become the norm in the United States. As early as when girls start school, they appear to already live in a culture in which the media transmits thin ideal in such a way that negatively affects the development of body image and self-esteem. These researchers examined the role of peer and media influences in the

development of body satisfaction and self-esteem. Results of the study suggested that perceived peer desire for thinness temporally precedes body dissatisfaction and self-esteem.

There is evidence that poor body image among women is caused or exacerbated by exposure to media images of thin women. According to Dakanalls et al. (2015), many researchers have utilized experimental methods to test whether women develop worse body image after they have been exposed to thin media models than after exposure to other forms of images. In these experiments the participants are shown magazines or television advertisements that contain thin ideal images or neutral images. After the experimental manipulation the women are requested to complete assessments of body image-related constructs. According to Grabe et al. (2008), a strength of the experimental method is the potential for causal inferences regarding the relationship between the manipulation of the media and the participants' body image.

The second set of studies that Grabe et al. (2008) used in their research included correlational data. These writers used correlational methods to explore the relationship between the participants' media consumption and their body image dissatisfaction and related problems. Findings from these studies suggested that frequent exposure to media featuring the thin-ideal images is linked to greater levels of body dissatisfaction and eating disorders among girls and women. Grabe et al. (2008) conducted a meta-analysis that investigated 25 experimental and 52 correlational studies. Grabe et al. tested the associations between media exposure and women's body dissatisfaction, internalization of the thin ideal, and eating behaviors. Results of the meta-analysis showed consistent

associations across multiple measures of the participants' body image, eating behaviors, and beliefs (Grabe et al., year). Additional evidence is provided by Lopez-Guimera et al. (2010) who reviewed research on the effects of magazines and television on body image and disordered eating behaviors in females. Findings from the meta-analysis done by these researchers suggest that greater use of the mass media, particularly fashion magazines and television, is significantly correlated with higher levels of body discrepancy and disordered eating. These studies provide evidence for the idea that exposure to mass media is related to women's vulnerability to body image concerns.

Research on Body Image Discrepancy

Recent research has demonstrated that exposure to the thin ideal standard of female beauty, commonly presented in the media, contributes to body image discrepancy (Posavac & Weigel, 2011). These researchers measured the impact of media exposure on body image discrepancy and collected data to evaluate the theorized social comparison mechanism by which women compare themselves with media images. Additionally, the women perceived a discrepancy and consequently feel badly about their own bodies. Three experimental interventions were designed, each with the aim of leading women to define media images of female beauty as dissimilar to others, and thus inappropriate comparison targets (Posavac & Weigel). Findings of the study suggest that all three interventions decreased the likelihood of the participants comparing their bodies with the media images. Intervention one was presented as an exploration of how certain personality variables affect the preferences of consumers. Participants were given a bogus Consumer Preferences Survey, which was devised to support the cover story.

Intervention two was described and presented as a marketing research study. The participants examined one of the four kinds of videotaped interventions and completed a bogus rating form that supported the cover story. The third intervention was described as an examination of the relationship between self-concept and the preferences of consumers for products. The participants viewed 20 slides of either automobiles or fashion models for 20 seconds each. The participants completed a bogus survey of preferences for the products to support the cover story while viewing the slides. The interventions also prevented body image discrepancy induced by the media.

Moderating Variables

Bessenoff (2012) investigated body image self-discrepancy to determine the effects of the thin-ideal on women as portrayed by the media. The study consisted of 112 female undergraduates with high and low body image self-discrepancy. The participants were exposed to advertisements either with thin women (thin-ideal) or without thin women. Findings from the study suggested that exposure to thin-ideal advertisements increased negative mood, low self -esteem, body dissatisfaction, and depression. Bessenoff (2012) affirmed that exposure to social media's portrayal of the thin-ideal had an adverse effect on women who were oversized. The body image self-discrepancy also contributed to self-hatred especially among obese women. Stevens-Aubrey (2007) investigated the role of body self-consciousness in mediating the relationship between the media and two sets of criteria variables. These variables include sexual dysfunction and negative body emotions. The author conducted a survey of 384 undergraduates. Results from the study indicated that body surveillance partially mediated the relationship

between media exposure to sexually objectifying magazines and television and body image self-consciousness during physical intimacy.

DeBraganza and Hausenbles (2010) conducted a study to explore whether ethnicity moderated the mood and body dissatisfaction of females exposed to media images depicting the ideal physique. The sample consisted of two ethnic groups of women (Whites and African American) who viewed two sets of slides (mass media ideals and controls). The participants also completed pre-and posttest mood state measures of anger, depression, anxiety, and body image dissatisfaction. Findings showed that the Black women reported no changes from pre to posttest body dissatisfaction after viewing either slide condition. On the other hand, the White women reported higher body dissatisfaction after viewing the model slides and lower body dissatisfaction score after seeing the control slides.

Research on Effects of Social Media Use

Facebook continues to be the most widely used social media site and is used by 69% of Americans (Gramlich, 2021). Young females report that they spend approximately two hours daily on Facebook (Tiggemann & Slater, 2013). Due to the popularity of Facebook, I have chosen to focus on Facebook usage in my study. Facebook information is also appropriate for this study because of its negative impact on body image. Fardouly and Vartunian (2016) highlighted the following findings from their study including the impact of Facebook use on women's body image:

1. Facebook use is constantly and positively linked with negative body image

2. Longitudinal research suggests that the positive association between Facebook use and negative body image may strengthen over time.

3. Brief exposure to Facebook does not appear to impact body image negatively.

4. Appearance comparisons are important in the association between Facebook use and body image.

5. Research on more diverse samples and other types of social media (e.g. Instagram) is needed.

6. Facebook is presently the most popular form of social media platform in the world and has therefore been the focus of body image research.

7. Additionally, given that body image concerns are particularly prominent among young women, this population has been the focus of most of the studies on social media such as Facebook.

Facebook has high utilization rate in college-aged females. Ninety percent of college women engage in Facebook use (Walker et al., 2015). The largest groups of Facebook users are women aged 18-29 years (Walter et al.). However, in my literature search, I located only one study on the relationship between Facebook and body image among African American women. Previous research on Facebook has explored how individuals are using Facebook and the way in which identity is presented on the Social Networking Sites (Slattery, 2013). This writer examined how young women ages 18-25 years, enrolled in a northeast university, engage with and comprehend photographs posted on Facebook. Slattery focused on the relationship between Facebook use and attitudes towards body image and appearance. Findings from the study suggested that

women use photos on Facebook impression management and interact with photos on Facebook to build their own online identity and to learn the identity of others (Slattery, 2013).

Cohen et al. (2017) explored the specific social networking site (SNS) qualities that relate to body image disorders in young women. The sample of the study consisted of 259 women aged 18-29 years. The participants completed questionnaire measures of Facebook and Instagram and body image concerns. Results of the study indicated that appearance-focused SNS usage rather than overall SNS usage was associated with body image disorders in young women. Particularly, larger engagement in photo-activities on Facebook, but not general Facebook usage was related to greater thin-ideal internalization and body surveillance. Equally, following appearance-focused accounts on Instagram was linked to body surveillance, thin ideal internalization, and drive for thinness. Following appearance-neutral accounts was not linked to any body image concerns (Cohen et al., year).

This study conducted by Flynn (2016) aimed to examine the effects of exposure to Facebook body ideal profile pictures and "norm conforming comments on user's body image" (p.239). Additionally, the social identity and self-categorization theoretical frameworks were utilized to examine users' endorsement of a body ideal norm. The sample of the study consisted of 866 undergraduates recruited from a Midwestern university. However, only 501 participants were successful in passing the manipulation check. One hundred and 67 were men, 330 women and 4 categorized themselves as other. The mean age was 19.98 years and the sample consist of 405 Caucasian, 58 African

American, 8 Hispanic, 8 Asian, and 2 Native American. Twenty participants classified themselves as other. Participants were shown pictures and comments on the status page and were allowed to leave their own comments before exiting. Results of the study indicated no significant main effects. However, body satisfaction moderated the relationship between body satisfaction and body ideal pictures, significantly. According to Flynn, most comments went along with the body ideal norm. In support of the self-categorization theory, participants who were exposed to non-conforming comments made nonconforming comments themselves much more than those exposed to conforming comments.

Albrecht (2016) conducted a study to explore whether social media usage deteriorates or improves a child's body image. The researcher used a cross-sectional analysis of secondary data, which was collected as part of the CATCH middle school project. Albrecht stated that analysis was restricted to baseline data collected in 2009. The original source of these data was reviewed and approved by the Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects (CPHS). Descriptive statistics were utilized to explain the prevalence of the desired weight among the participants, arranged by gender, ethnicity, and school level SES status. Both adjusted and unadjusted odd ratios acquired from logistic regressions were utilized to describe the relationship between time spent watching television and rate of social media use, the independent variables, and the dependent variable. Logistic regressions were also modified to facilitate important confounders such as BMI, ethnicity, and school level SES. Additionally, Saiphoo and Vahedi (2019) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the relationship between social

media use and body image disturbance. These researchers used the comprehensive meta-analysis software (CMA) to finish all analysis. According to Saiphoo and Vahedi, the meta-analysis consisted of sixty-three independent samples (N=36, 552). The meta-analysis filled a gap in literature but is limited because the meta-analysis only included cross-sectional studies. Findings of the study suggested a small positive, significant relationship between social media use and body image disturbance (Saiphoo & Vahedi, 2019).

Finally, Albrecht (2016) conducted logistic regression to examine the relationship between obesity and the desire to weigh less after regulating for the exposure variables of frequency of social media use and time spent watching TV daily. The results of the study indicated a higher prevalence of girls and boys wishing to weigh less than previous values reported in the literature. Results also show differences in weight concerns among diverse ethnicities and socioeconomic backgrounds. Additionally, the study supports the link between obesity and the wish to weigh less, and a sign of poor body image among youths, which lasts even after regulating for several demographic and exposure variables. Results from the study indicated the associations between the frequency of social media use and daily time spent watching television. Female participants showed a positive link with high frequency of social media usage and males with daily time spent watching television (Albrecht, 2016).

Previous Research on the Effects of Media Exposure on Body Image Among African American Women

From the literature of media exposure and body image discrepancy among African American women, a general overview of available literature is provided. Table 1 shows published studies that investigated media exposure or its influences in relation to measures of body image dissatisfaction among African American women. The table includes studies of exposure to traditional media (television, magazines, etc.), as well as studies on use of social media. The table includes all relevant studies located in the literature searches that I conducted, regardless of date of publication. The reason for including older studies as well as more recent studies is to show clearly that there is a gap in the literature.

Table 1

Previous Studies on the Relationship between Media Exposure and Body Image Discrepancy among African American Women

Author (s)/ Date	Research approach / Type of research design	Population/Sample size / Subject Characteristics	Indicators of Body Image Dissatisfaction	Indicator of Media Exposure
Brooks (2016)	Quantitative Correlational	139 African American females aged 18-50	The Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS). The Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI).	An online social networking questionnaire and a sociodemographic questionnaire were utilized to determine social media usage and collect demographic information for the participants.
Bruns & Carter (2015)	Experimental	Women aged 18 – 45, African American or Caucasian (n=202).	The Contour Drawing Rating Scale. Consumer Response Questionnaire (CRQ).	Participants were exposed to 10 advertisements either showing: (1) Thin African Americans, (2) Thin Caucasians, (3) plus sized African American women and (4) plus sized Caucasian women. Body image was assessed post exposure.
DeBraganza and Hausenblas (2010)	Experimental	31 Caucasian and 30 African American. female undergraduate students from a large Southeastern university, aged 18-23	Demographic questionnaire Body mass index Ideal Body Stereotyping Scale Revised Body-Areas Satisfaction Scale Mood Visual Analogue Scale	Stimulus slides were used under two conditions: (1) the female Caucasian mass media ideals and (2) the female Caucasian normal-weight controls. Participants were required to answer two questions regarding the similarity of the slides and their current ideal body
Greenwood and Dal- Cin (2012)	Survey	37 Black women and 104 White women. Data was collected at a large Midwestern university from Fall, 2007 through Spring 2011.	The Rosenberg's 10-item measure of self-esteem. The Others Approval Subscale. The Body Surveillance Subscale of the Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS).	Participants were asked three questions regarding the degree to which they desired to be like their favorite television character in terms of physical appearance, life, and personality.
Howard et al. (2017)	Cross-sectional	445 African American and 447 White female undergraduates recruited from 3 Southeastern U.S. Universities.	Body Shape Questionnaire (BSQ-16).	The Social Networking Reassurance Seeking Scale was used to measure the degree to which the participants place importance on their Facebook to seek feedback from others.
Jefferson and Stake (2009)	Correlational	89 EA and 80 AA female undergraduate students from a large Midwestern university.	Body Mass Index The Body Image Ideals Questionnaire (BIQ) The Sociocultural Attitudes Toward Appearance	Likert scale questionnaire was used to measure the degree to which the participants compare themselves to female media images.

Author (s)/ Date	Research approach / Type of research design	Population/Sample size / Subject Characteristics	Indicators of Body Image Dissatisfaction	Indicator of Media Exposure
		Their ages ranged from 18 to 30 years.	Questionnaire Internalization (SATAQ-IN)	
Kelch - Oliver and Ancis (2011)	Qualitative methodology	16 Black women who were pursuing advanced graduate degrees. Ages of participants ranged from 23-34 years old.	Qualitative methodology of focus groups and individual interviews were conducted with the 16 participants. All participants completed a demographic questionnaire. Semi-structured individual interviews and focus groups were conducted.	Participants were asked a question regarding the messages they received regarding their bodies from the media.
Poran (2006)	Open qualitative approach	15 Black female students from a New York City college.	Focus group discussions	Discussion regarding the perception of African American women as included in the standards of media beauty.
Schooler et al. (2004)	Longitudinal Correlational	548 White women and 87 African American women aged 17 to 22 years.	Body Dissatisfaction subscale Body Esteem Scale Ethnic Identity Measure Anonymous survey Body Shape Questionnaire	Participants were requested to indicate the frequency they watched television on a 5-point Likert scale.
Sira and Ballard (2011)	Correlational	231 Caucasians and 80 African American female students from a large Southeastern university Age 18-24 years	Body mass index Physical Appearance Subscale of the Self-Perception Profile for College Students The Eating Attitude Test (EAT-26)	The effect of the media on the participant's body satisfaction was assessed by 3 questions regarding decision-making strategies, or motivation for improving one's body appearance.

Of the 10 studies included in Table 1, only 3 of the 10 studies included a sample that consisted of solely African American women. The other 7 studies included White women. Seven of the studies were quantitative and the remaining studies used a qualitative approach. The overall age of the women in the studies ranged from 17-45 years.

Although it is evident that images viewed in mass media can negatively impact body image in women, little is known regarding whether exposure to images in the social media affect body image dissatisfaction in African American women (Brooks, 2016). A focus on the effects of social media on African American women can help mental health providers and educators to address any potential consequences of high usage of social media (Brooks, 2016). Thus, the researcher conducted a study to explore the relationship between body image dissatisfaction and social media among African American women. Findings of the study indicated that racial identity variables significantly predicted body image dissatisfaction (Brooks, 2016). However, Brooks found that social media variables were not significant (Brooks, 2016).

Bruns and Carter (2015) conducted a study to explore ethnic differences in the effects of media on body image. The sample consisted of 202 women ages 18-45 years who identified themselves as either Caucasian or African American. However, the proportion of African Americans in the sample was not reported by the authors. The women in the study were exposed to images of ethnically similar thin models and ethnically different thin or plus-sized models. The images were selected from printed media sources, including clothing catalogues marketed to women, as well as popular

fashion, beauty, and health magazines. The researchers used the Contour Drawing Rating Scale to measure body dissatisfaction. The participants were also requested to self-report height and weight to calculate BMI. The study findings indicated that the thin-model condition did not produce greater levels of body dissatisfaction than plus-sized models. Images of plus-sized models elicited less body dissatisfaction in the African American women compared to the European American women.

DeBraganza and Hausenblas (2010) researched whether ethnicity moderated the body dissatisfaction and mood of women exposed to media images portraying the ideal physique. The study's sample consisted of 31White women and 30 African American women. Their ages ranged from 18-23 years old. DeBraganza and Hausenblas used the Mood Visual Analogue Scale to assess the participants' mood-anxiety, depression, anger, and body dissatisfaction. Caucasians and African American participants viewed two sets of slides (controls and mass media ideals). These researchers assessed body image dissatisfaction but not body image discrepancy. DeBraganza and Hausenblas used the Ideal Body Stereotyping Scale-Revised to assess each participant's internalization of the ideal body stereotype. The Ideal Body Stereotyping Scale consists of 8 items on a 5-point Likert type scale. The researchers also used the Body-Areas Satisfaction Scale to measure the participants' satisfaction with their hair, face and weight. This instrument also contains eight items and participants responded on a 5-point Likert-type scale. African American women reported no changes from pre-to posttest body dissatisfaction after viewing the model slides and lower body dissatisfaction score after viewing the control

slides. Consistent with the researchers' hypothesis, ethnicity moderated the effects of viewing the ideal physique on stated body dissatisfaction.

Greenwood and Dal Cin (2012) investigated whether ethnicity moderated the relationship between personal affinity and body surveillance. These researchers assessed body image dissatisfaction but not body image discrepancy. The sample included 37 African American women and 104 Caucasian women. The mean age of the women in the sample was 19.43 years. The Body Surveillance Subscale of the Objectified Body Consciousness Scale was used to assess concerns about a woman's body image from a third-party perspective, based upon items such as "I often worry about whether the clothes I am wearing make me look good." To measure personal affinity, participants were requested to list the name of their favorite female personality on television and name the television station on which the female character appears. Next the participants were asked to respond to three questions regarding how similar they perceived themselves to be to their favorite television personality and physical appearance. The main finding of the study was that African American women reported lower body surveillance, concern with others' approval and wishful identification with a favorite media persona than the White women did. Others' approval concerns predicted body concerns for all other study variables (Greenwood & Dal Cin, 2012).

In the study conducted by Howard et al. (2017), the researchers explored racial differences in social networking site (SNS) usage, disordered eating, and body image dissatisfaction. The sample consisted of 477 Caucasian and 445 African American female undergraduates. The participants completed online measures of SNS use, which included

frequency and reassurance seeking, disordered eating, and body dissatisfaction. Results suggested that Caucasian women used Facebook but not the other SNS more often than African American participants did. The researchers also found that reassurance seeking on SNS was associated with body dissatisfaction and disordered eating, which suggests that maladapted SNS use has negative consequences for both African American and Caucasian women.

Jefferson and Stake (2009) conducted a correlational study to explore the differences in body image of African American women and European women. The sample included 89 European American women and 80 African American women. The ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 30 years. The European American women averaged 15.11 years of education while the African American women averaged 14.29 years of education (Jefferson & Stake, 2009). These writers assessed body mass index by requesting that each participant report her height and weight. The Body Image Ideals Questionnaire (BIQ) was used to measure body image dissatisfaction. The BIQ measures the extent to which participants perceive that their bodies are different from their personal ideals for 10 specific appearance features, as well as the importance they place on these body features when judging their own attractiveness (Jefferson & Stake, 2009). The Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire Internalization (SATAQ-IN) was used to assess acceptance of socially sanctioned standards of appearance (Jefferson & Stake, 2009).

In the Jefferson and Stake (2009) study, social comparisons were measured by requesting women in the study to indicate the extent to which they had the tendency to

compare themselves to female media images. The participants evaluated their own attractiveness on a Likert-type scale ranging from1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). Participants were also requested to indicate the ethnicity of the female with whom they tended to compare themselves (Jefferson & Stake, 2009). Findings suggested that the European American women expressed more dissatisfaction with weight related features than African American women. Only internalization was related to any measure of body dissatisfaction for African American participants (Jefferson & Stake). Although this study assessed body image discrepancy in a sample that included African American women, Jefferson and Stake did not directly measure media exposure, only internalization and social comparisons. In their study, the media comparisons variable was based on a single questionnaire item, not a previously validated psychometric scale.

The study conducted by Kelch-Oliver and Ancis (2011) is unique because their sample consisted of exclusively African American women. These authors explored the body image related experiences of 16 African American women. The women in the study completed a demographic questionnaire. Qualitative methodology of focus groups and individual interview were conducted by the researchers. Each interview lasted 30 minutes and was audiotaped and participants were requested to answer eight questions. The questions assessed culture specific issues related to body image issues, the influence of family, peer and romantic relationships, and the media. Keltch-Oliver and Ancis (2011) concluded that African American women are not protected from body image issues.

Poran (2006) is also unique in terms of the consistency of the sample, which included 15 Black female students. Poran investigated the way in which young Black

females experience their bodies. The authors utilized an open qualitative approach because this approach enables the participants to define issues for themselves instead of answering preset questions (Poran, 2006). The study included three focus group meetings and each session consisted of three to eight participants and lasted approximately 69 minutes. When the participants arrived, the facilitator explained to them that their participation in the study was voluntary. Participants were also assured of their anonymity and that they could drop out of the study at any time without any repercussion. The meetings were audiotaped with the participants' consent. Conclusions of the study indicated that Black women are feeling far greater pressures in the realm of beauty and body than previous research indicates. African American women also have a strong sense of being misrepresented by media images of thin Black women.

Schooler et al. (2004) examined the relationship between women’s frequent viewing of TV thin images and body image dissatisfaction. The sample consisted of 548 White women and 87 African American women. The ages of the participants ranged from 17 to 22 years. Schooler et al. added that the participants came from well-educated families. The researchers used seven scales to measure various dimensions of women's' body image. These measurements included three subscales from the Eating Disorders Inventory (EDI), three subscales from the Body Esteem Scale (BES), and the Body Shape Questionnaire (BSQ).

The three subscales of the EDI measured body dissatisfaction, drive for thinness, and tendencies toward bulimia. The subscales therefore measured components of body image disturbance. Three subscales from the Multi- group Ethnic Identity were used to

measure the participants' feelings about being African American (Ethnic Identity). To assess the participants' television viewing habits, the researchers presented a listing of 35 highly rated primetime sitcoms and dramas from four years before data collection. The participants were requested to indicate the frequency with which they had viewed each program on a 5- point Likert scale. Results suggested that White women who viewed mainstream television displayed poorer body image. Ethnic identity predicted healthier body image among African American women.

Sira and Ballard (2011) conducted a study to explore the mediating role of race in the measurement of family environment that is associated with body satisfaction in college women. The sample was drawn from a large southeastern university and consisted of 231 White women and 80 African American women. The age range of the participants was 18-24 years. Sira and Ballard examined body mass index (BMI), eating behavior, self-worth, parental attachment, parental control, and media influence in relationship to perceived body satisfaction. The researchers used two subscales of Harter's Self Perception Scale for College Students to assess body satisfaction and self-worth. The researchers employed the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment Questionnaire to measure attachment to both parents. Media influence was measured by the Media Influence Scale which was developed specifically for this study. To calculate Body Mass Index (BMI) the participants were requested to report their height and weight. Sira and Ballard (2011) found that White women who disclosed greater body satisfaction expressed: (a) lower BMI indices, (b) positive self-worth, (c) minimal influence by the media, (d) a positive relationship with mother and, (e) negative attachment to father.

Black women who reported greater body satisfaction also expressed (a) lower BMI indices, (b) a lower degree of maternal control, (c) fewer dieting actions, (d) greater degree of paternal control, and (e) lower degree of attachment to mother (Sira & Ballard). For both Black and White participants, BMI was the best predictor of body satisfaction. However, the media and global self-worth were the strongest predictors of body satisfaction for Caucasian women (Sira & Ballard, 2011). The researchers also concluded that a combination of dieting behavior and lower maternal control were the variables that predicted body satisfaction for Black females. Findings from the study suggested that body satisfaction is developed differently by each race.

In summary, among the above studies in Table 1 on media influences and body image which included samples of African American women, the studies by Kelch- Oliver and Ancis (2011) and Poran (2006) applied qualitative research methods, whereas the studies by Bruns and Carter (2015) and DeBraganza and Hausenblas (2010) assessed body image dissatisfaction, but these studies did not include measures of body image discrepancy. The studies by Jefferson and Stake (2009) and Sira and Ballard (2011) did include a measure of body image discrepancy. However, in the study by Jefferson and Stake, the authors utilized only a single item asking about the extent to which respondents compared themselves to media images-rather than a psychometric scale to assess media exposure. The study by Bruns and Carter did not separately analyze a subsample of African American women, nor did the authors report the proportion of African American women within their entire sample. Both Brooks (2016) and Howard

(2017) examined the influence of participation in online social networking regarding effects on body image but in not in relation to body image dissatisfaction.

An increasing number of researchers have demonstrated social media effects on body image and eating disorders (Holland & Tiggemann, 2016). Additionally, recent studies have shifted to new forms of media such as social networking sites (Holland & Tiggemann, 2016). The researchers suggested that research on the psychological impact of using social networking sites is a relatively new area of research that is gaining momentum. The use of social media is therefore pervasive and is spreading quickly worldwide. Social media is particularly common among young women, the age group and sex for which body dissatisfaction is a common problem (Fardouly et al. 2015). Previous research has shown a positive relationship between Facebook use and body dissatisfaction (Fardouly & Vartanian, 2015). However, there is presently hardly any theoretically driven experimental research investigating the impact of Facebook on young women's body image (Fardouly & Vartanian, 2015). Only four experimental studies have examined the effect of Facebook on body image (Holland & Tiggemann, 2016).

Summary

Few studies have addressed the impact of the media on body image discrepancy among African American women. The goal of this study was to further explore the role of the media on body image discrepancy among African American women. Past research has supported the idea that exposure to mass media is related to women's vulnerability to body image concerns, and yet there is limited information available on the topic as it relates to African American women. The self-objectification theory, the self-discrepancy

theory, and the social comparison theory provided the theoretical foundation of this study. A tenet of this study is that African American women generally experience less body image dissatisfaction than their White counterparts. Historically, the media perpetuates beliefs about race and ethnicity that place African American women at a clear disadvantage. Information for this literature review was obtained mainly from a computerized search of databases through Walden University. On the whole, Chapter 2 provided a review of relevant literature pertaining to the research topic. This study was justifiable because there is a gap in the literature in that previous studies had not investigated the relationship between media exposure to bodily images and body discrepancy in African American women.

Compared to other studies on a similar topic, this study was unique because it focused on body image discrepancy in African American women. This study attempted to provide evidence regarding the existence of a relationship between media exposure and body image discrepancy among African American women aged 18-29 years. According to Parr (2018), the study of body image dissatisfaction is important because of the association between the influence of mass media and eating disorders. Research aimed at understanding factors that contribute to body image discrepancy and to accompanying psychological problems has the potential to lead to improvements in treatment delivery to women who are vulnerable to this problem, thereby promoting positive social changes. Chapter 3 presents the design of the research, including justification for the selection of the research methodology. Chapter 3 also includes details about the sample, population, research instruments, data collection, and data analysis.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study is to examine the role of media exposure in body image discrepancy among African American women. The two research questions to be answered in this study included: (a) Is there a relationship between African American young woman's level of body image discrepancy and level of media exposure? and, (b) Is the relationship between media exposure and body image discrepancy moderated by body mass index? In this chapter I describe the research design used in this study. I also discussed the population and sample, the instruments used, data collection and analysis procedures. Last, Chapter 3 includes an explanation of threats to validity and relevant ethical procedures.

Research Design

I chose a quantitative correlational design because the goal of the study was to examine the relationship of the media in body image discrepancies among African American women. To explore this relationship, I collected data from a convenience sample of African American women ages 18-29 years residing in the United States. In my study, I used the quantitative method to draw conclusions regarding the relationships between the media and body image discrepancy among African American women. Quantitative methods have several advantages in empirical research. First, quantification frequently makes observations easier to aggregate, provides the opportunity to compare and summarize data, and unfolds the possibility of statistical analysis (Babbie, 2003). Quantitative methods can also be used to assess the statistical significance of the variable of interest and to promote generalizations based on sample populations. Survey

methodology is often used in social sciences for administration of validated instruments and observation (Bowling, 2005). I chose descriptive surveys, also referred to as correlational studies, because they permit quantitative descriptions of data to be presented in a manageable form. Babbie (2003) suggested that survey methodology is a feasible approach to data collection in regard to both the researchers' and participants' lives in terms of personal time.

I measured the dependent variable (body image discrepancy) using the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale (SFRS). The independent variable (media exposure) was assessed using the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire (SATAQ-3). I assessed Facebook use with the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale (MFIS).

Population and Sample

The target population for this research was African American women aged 18 -29 years who were enrolled or had graduated from a university at the time of the study. In view of the target population, participants were recruited from women attending or who had graduated from a university or a college in the United States, whose student body is predominantly African American. The selection of participants that comprised the sample for this research were based on three main criteria: (a) they were African American women, (b) they were ages 18-29 years, and (c) they were enrolled at or had recently graduated (within 5 years) from a university or a college in the United States whose student body is predominantly African American. Individuals who meet these criteria were included in the study; all others were ineligible and were excluded. No

compensation was provided to participants, but findings of the study contributed to increased social awareness of the media and its effects on body image of African American women.

The sample to be investigated consisted of approximately 200 African American women in the United States. Because random sampling was not feasible within constraints on time and finances in the context of a dissertation study, the study sample was gathered using convenience sampling.

The required sample size was determined using G*Power 3.1 statistical software. For calculating the sample size, I assumed that the Pearson correlation coefficient between media exposure and body image dissatisfaction will be 0.20, based upon a meta-analysis (Saiphoo & Vahedi, 2019). To achieve 80% statistical power, assuming a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.20 and probability of type 1 error of .05, the minimum sample size was calculated to be 191.

Instrumentation

The surveys were administered by Survey Monkey, Inc. and included a demographic questionnaire (Appendix A), with items concerning(a) race, (b) gender, (c) age, (d) marital status, (e) height, (f) weight, and (g) socioeconomic status. Participants were presented with the demographic measure before the other measures. The dependent variable of body image discrepancy was assessed using the SFRS, developed by Stunkard et al. (1983). The independent variable of media exposure was measured by the SATAQ-3 developed by Thompson et al. (2004). The MFIS, developed by Orosz et al. (2015), was used to measure Facebook use.

The SFRS was developed by Stunkard, Sorenson, and Schulsinger (1983) and was used to measure body image discrepancy. The SFRS is fully published in journal articles and is in the public domain; hence author permission is not required. This instrument consists of nine images of female bodies. An example of the items is: "Choose the figure that reflects how you think you look." The items are rated on a 9-point scale ranging from 1 = *very thin* and 9 = *very overweight*. Participants were presented with figures of different sizes and requested to rate their body size in comparison to the figures. The body image figures have been ordered by size and assigned values of 1 through 9 by the researchers. The SFRS is appropriate for this study because this scale has been a reliable measure in African American populations (Jackson et al., 2014). Fitzgibbon et al. (2010) conducted a study to examine the relationship between body image discrepancy (BD) and body mass index (BMI) across ethnic groups. They used the SFRS to assess body image discrepancy. According to the researchers, the nine images in the SFRS were validated in a sample of 1000 adults and had good validity. The discrepancy scores between existing and ideal female body image correlated positively with subscales of the Eating Disorder Inventory (EDI). The EDI assesses eating disorder and body dissatisfaction and correlated negatively with an instrument of general self-esteem. The validity of the SFRS was supported by its correlating SFRS ratings to BMI in community groups of White, Black, and Hispanic women by ethnic group (r = .69 to .77). According to Fitzgibbon et al. (2010), the SFRS. has a good test – retest reliability.

Cardinal et al. (2006) conducted a study to determine whether the SFRS is a valid instrument. They also sought to test the hypothesis that the SFRS is a valid index of the

participants' weight status, when a researcher recognized the figure rating of adult women, both in videotape and in-person. Cardinal et al. found that the correlation between BMI and in-person figure ratings was greater (0.92) than the correlation between BMI and videotape figure rating (0.89 and 0.87). Based on the results, Cardinal et al. (2006) suggested that the SFRS is a valid tool to measure women's weight status either in-person or on videotape.

Thompson and Altabe (1991) completed an in-depth study of the reliability and validity of the SFRS. To facilitate validity analyses, figure ratings were converted into three measures of discrepancy that mirrored subjective body dissatisfaction (Thompson & Altabe, 1991). The three measures were: (a) feel minus ideal, (b) think minus ideal, and (c) feel minus think. The correlations between figure ratings and measures of eating disturbances, body dissatisfaction, and self–esteem are usually large and in the expected directions (Thompson & Altabe, 1991). The findings of the study indicated that the SFRS has good test-retest reliability and moderate correlations with other instruments of body image dissatisfaction, self-esteem, and eating disorders. Thompson and Altabe (1991) concluded that the SFRS is an appropriate tool for investigating body image disturbance.

The Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Scale-3 (SATAQ-3) was developed by Thompson et al. (2004). I used the Mass Media Pressure subscale of the SATAQ-3 , which consists of six items which are rated on a 5-point Likert scale. An example of an item is: "I've felt pressure from TV or magazines to be thin." The items are rated on a scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly agree" to 5 = "Strongly disagree." Thompson et al. utilized the Mass Media Pressure Scale to examine pressure from

television, magazines, and movies. In their study Pressures subscale was significantly associated with body dissatisfaction. This instrument is fully published in journal articles; hence author permission is not required. The Mass Media Pressure subscale of the SATAQ-3 is appropriate for this study because it has satisfactory reliability and validity in Western samples (Chen & Jackson, 2012).

The Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale (MFIS) was developed by Orosz, Toth-Kiraly, and Bothe and published in 2015. The MFIS was created to produce a short and valid questionnaire to measure Facebook use . An example of the items is: "I feel bad if I don't check my Facebook daily." The MFIS consists of four intensity scale factors: (a) persistence, (b) boredom, (c) overuse, and (d) Self-expression. According to Oroz et al. (2015) the MFIS can assess the most significant aspects of Facebook use. The MFIS was selected for my study because past questionnaires were geared towards the reason that one uses Facebook instead of measuring Facebook use intensity. Orosz et al. (2015) stated that the MFIS has good psychometric properties in terms of internal consistency and validity.

In one of their studies, Orosz et al. (2015) aimed to measure the convergent validity of the MFIS by correlating the MFIS with constructs related to the hypotheses. To measure the convergent validity of the MFIS, Orosz et al. (2015) administered the newly developed measurement (MFIS). The Cronbach's alpha values were adequate (α persistence =.79; α self-expression =.74; α boredom =.85; α overuse =.76; α total =.88) (Orosz et al.). See Appendix E for permission from Dr. Orosz to use the MFIS.

Data Collection

First, I obtained approval from Walden University's IRB before beginning data collection. My IRB approval number is 05-12-21-0020619. Questionnaires were self-administered online using Survey Monkey. Survey respondents were recruited by Survey Monkey Audience, a service offered by Survey Monkey to recruit and collect data online from participants who meet the participation requirements (Survey Monkey, 2020). To participate in the study participants must be female and 18-29 years of age and must be an African American woman who is currently enrolled at or has graduated from a university or a college in the United States. I chose this age group because body image issues are prevalent during early adulthood (Kay & Shipman, 2014).

Contact with prospective participants was initiated by email through Survey Monkey and permission was obtained at the time of data collection. Survey Monkey Audience sent emails to potential participants, who were identified using a database of demographic information from previous survey respondents. Participants were asked to accept informed consent (Appendix B) before the beginning of the surveys by acknowledging the benefits, risk, and responsibilities of being in the study. An informed consent form was attached to the online survey and participants were required to read it before answering the survey. After accepting the terms of the informed consent, interested participants were given an ID to access the link to the survey questions online and were directed to the survey questions.

Participants were requested to complete the surveys anonymously and were not asked to provide identifying information, such as name and address. Survey Monkey was

required to disable their IP tracking to keep participants anonymous. By utilizing the services of Survey Monkey in this study, anonymity of participants was maintained, allowing the researcher to be objective and detached from the participants.

Data Analysis

I used SPSS version 22.0 to analyze the data collected for this research. First, I analyzed the data with standard descriptive statistics, such as standard deviation, frequencies, means, and percentages as appropriate. The design of the survey in Survey Monkey ensured that responses to all the multiple choices questions on the BIDS, SATAQ-3, and MFIS were within range because responses were limited by the multiple-choice options. I inspected the data on height and weight for cases that was beyond the range of reasonably plausible values of 40-85 inches for height or 80-400 pounds. When height or weight scores were missing or outside of the plausible range then BMI scores were not calculated. In these instances, if data for the BIDS, SATAQ-3, and MFIS were available, the participants responses were included in the analyses for RQ1 but not in RQ2 because the analyses for RQ2 required BMI scores. In the case of missing data due a participant skipping a question, I removed this case from the research. Data for the study variables were screened by producing boxplots for each variable. I used inferential statistics to test the hypotheses.

Linear regression analysis was performed to examine the relationship of the media exposure to body image discrepancy and to investigate whether this relationship is moderated by body mass index. Linear regression analysis is an appropriate method to examine relationships between quantitative variables. Multiple linear regression analysis

based on a regression model that includes an interaction term is the recommended statistical method to investigate effects of moderator variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Data were screened to ensure that the statistical assumptions required for regression analysis are met. These assumptions include: (a) linearity—i.e., the relationship between each independent variable and the dependent variable is approximately linear; (b) normality of the residuals— i.e., the residual errors from the regression model are approximately normally distributed and free from outliers; (c) absence of collinearity — i.e., the independent variables in the regression model are not highly correlated; and (d) equal variance condition (homoskedasticity) – i.e., the variability of the residuals is approximately constant in relation to the predicted values. These assumptions were examined by screening the data as follows: (a) I inspected the scatter plots of the dependent variable versus each independent variable to check that each conforms approximately to a straight line; (b) I examined a histogram of the residuals from each regression analysis to check that it is approximately symmetrical and bell-shaped; (c) I checked that independent variables are not highly correlated; and (d) I examined a scatter plot of the residuals versus the predicted values from each regression to check that the vertical spread of points is approximately even across the range of the predicted values. If any of these assumptions are not met then appropriate adjustments were made to the data analysis plan, such as by re-expressing the study variables using data transformations or by excluding outliers.

RQ 1- Is there a relationship between African American young women's' level of body image discrepancy and level of media exposure (including use of social media and influences of mass media)?

H1o: Among African American young women, there is no relationship between level of exposure to mass media (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire-3 (SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H1a: Among African American young female adults, there is a relationship between level of mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H2o: Among African American young female adults, there is no relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H2a: Among African American young female adults, there is a relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

RQ2: Does body mass index moderate the relationship between media exposure (including use of social media and influences of mass media) and body image discrepancy among African women?

H3o: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is not a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H3a: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H4o: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is not a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use(as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale)

H4a: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

Simple linear regression analysis was used to test the null hypothesis that the level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) is not related to level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale). The independent variable was level of social media use, and the dependent variable was body image discrepancy. The null hypothesis was rejected if the p-value for level of social media use is less than .05 in the regression analysis results.

The third null hypothesis states that body mass index does not moderate the relationship between mass media exposure and body image discrepancy. This hypothesis was examined using multiple linear regression analysis. The dependent variable was body image discrepancy. There were two independent variables: level of exposure to mass media and the interaction between body mass index and mass media exposure. The interaction term was created by multiplying the body mass index by the score on the Mass Media Pressure Subscale. The null hypothesis was rejected if the p-value for the interaction term is less than .05 in the regression analysis results. If the null hypothesis is rejected, then it was concluded that body mass index is statistically significant as a moderator the relationship between mass media exposure and body image discrepancy.

The fourth null hypothesis states that body mass index does not moderate the relationship between level of social media use and body image discrepancy. This hypothesis was examined using multiple linear regression analysis. The dependent variable was body image discrepancy. There were two independent variables: level of social media use and the interaction between body mass index and level of social media use. The interaction term was created by multiplying the body mass index by the score on the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale. The null hypothesis was rejected if the p-value for the interaction term is less than .05 in the regression analysis results. If the null hypothesis is rejected, then it was concluded that the body mass index is statistically significant as a moderator the relationship between social media use and body image. To minimize the potential effects from confounding variables, body mass index was controlled in the data analysis.

Discrepancy Threats to Validity

Internal validity examines the relationships of other variables within the study. According to Heiman (2010), to promote internal validity, the researcher needs to control for unnecessary variables within the study. Strengthening the internal validity of a study assists in the results depicting either a negative or positive relationship between variables. Specific threats to the validity of this study include but are not limited to participants failing to complete all the surveys, and participants having different interpretations of the instructions. To minimize any confusion or subjectivity I stated study directions for completion and content of questions as clear as possible. Social desirability bias may be present as participants may not be honest with their responses. To address this bias, I requested that the participants be honest as possible, and I also collected anonymous data. I reassured the participants that participation is anonymous. Using convenience sampling is also a threat to external validity in my study. I obtained a large sample size to reduce the likelihood of this threat to validity. Due to this threat to external validity of my study, caution was needed in generalizing the results beyond the study sample.

External validity refers to the extent that conclusions drawn from the study can be generalized to other contexts (Leedy & Ellis-Ormrod, 2010). One threat to the external validity of my study is that I obtained my sample from only one university. Other threats to the external validity of my study are researcher bias, self-selection bias, and sampling bias. The population of these Universities is mainly African American, so I have a better chance of obtaining my sample of African American students.

Ethical Procedures

Walden University's IRB approval was obtained prior to conducting the study to protect the participants. My IRB approval number is 05-12-21-0020619. I also obtained approval from the participating universities. Participants are females ages 18 to 29 years and participation are voluntary. They also have the option to discontinue the surveys at any time without penalties. As mentioned before, participants were not asked their names or any other personal identifying information. Data was completely anonymous. Participants were requested to read the informed consent before starting to fill out the surveys. After the study was completed, participants were provided with a copy of the research findings to offer some information of the effect of the media on the body image of African American women.

The informed consent form included information regarding the study, the purpose of the research, the voluntary nature of the research, a guarantee of confidentiality, statement of little or no risk to the participant, and my contact information. The name and location of the universities were not included in the write-up of the study results. Participants were informed that the universities would receive a copy of the findings of the study. Data collection and analysis were compiled with IRB procedures. Data were stored electronically with password protection. Only I knew the password and data were destroyed after completion of the dissertation in case any questions arise about the data, or the way I analyzed the study.

Summary

Chapter 3 included the methodology to be used in this quantitative survey study. This chapter included a discussion of the population and study, instrumentation, data collection, data analysis, explanation of threats to validity and ethical considerations, Participants were female students aged 18-29 years who are attending or recently graduated from a university or a college in the United States. Afterwards, collection of data results was analyzed using multiple regressions. To ensure privacy, data were stored electronically with password protection. Only I knew the password. This study contributed to the current body of research related to the prevalence of body image discrepancy, incurred by the media on African American women. The results of this study could also promote better understanding of the impact of the media on body image discrepancy and help to mitigate the devastating effects of the media on the body image of the targeted population.

Chapter 4: Results

According to Rounsefell et al. (2020), negative body image heightens the risk of unhealthy dieting and disordered eating patterns in young adults ages 18-30 years. Exposure to thin images in the mass media is associated with body image dissatisfaction and eating disorders (Melioli et al., 2015). Research on the effects of the media and other cultural influences on body image dissatisfaction has mainly focused on White women (Capodilupo, 2015; Debraganza & Hausenblas, 2010). Research attending to cultural and ethnic differences is also important (Capodilupo, 2015). Also, body image dissatisfaction has been linked to obesity (defined as having a body mass index >30.0), while among African American women compared to Caucasian women, obesity rates are higher (Hales et al., 2017; Weinberger et al., 2016). The overarching purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the role of the media exposure in body image discrepancy among African American women. The research questions and their hypothesis are presented below:

1. Is there a relationship between African American young women's level of body image discrepancy and level of media exposure (including use of social media and influences of mass media)?

   H1o: Among African American women, there is no relationship between level of exposure to mass media (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire-3 (SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H1a: Among African American young female adults, there is a relationship between level of mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H2o: Among African American young female adults, there is no relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H2a: Among African American young female adults, there is a relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

2. Is there a relationship between African American young women's level of body image discrepancy and level of media exposure (including use of social media and influences of mass media)?

   H3o: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is not a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

   H3a: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is a moderator of the relationship

between mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H4o: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is not a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H4a: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

I used 8 items from demographic questionnaire, 2 items from the SFRS questionnaire, 6 items from the SATAQ-3, and 13 items from the MFIS. Data were collected during the summer of 2021 through Survey Monkey and 799 respondents gave informed consent to participate in the survey. Of these, 227 completed the BID and SATAQ, and 224 completed the MFIS. Hence there were 224 responses that provided data for analysis of RQ1. The dataset consisted of 224 observations.

Body image discrepancy (BID) scores were calculated using the two SFRS items, by subtracting the response for Item 1 (“Circle the number of the silhouette that looks most like you”) from the response for Item 2 (“Circle the number of the silhouette that

best shows how you would like to look"). This resulted in a BID score, for which positive scores represented a desire to be thinner and negative scores represented a desire to be less thin; higher scores represented a greater desire to be thin. Scale scores for the SATAQ-3 and MFIS were calculated according to the standard scoring instructions by summing the responses for the items on each scale. According to the scoring instructions, no items needed to be reverse scored. Among the 224 respondents, 106 provided information on their height, and weight, which enabled calculation of BMI. Age was collected as a categorical variable, to verify that all respondents were between the ages of 18 and 29, and consequently eligible for inclusion of the analysis. Exact ages in years were not collected, and so it was not possible to use age as a control variable in the regression analyses.

Data were cleaned according to the procedures described in Chapter 3. Cases with missing values for the study variables involved in RQ1 were excluded from the analyses for RQ1. Cases with missing values for the study variables involved in RQ1 were excluded from the analyses for RQ2. The data was screened for outliers and violation of statistical assumptions, as described in the following sections of this chapter. Descriptive statistics, hypothesis testing, and regression analysis were performed on the data using the SPSS software.

Descriptive Statistics for Demographics

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for the demographics. About 74% of the respondents were single and 25.0% were married. About 85% had graduated from college

while about 15% were currently enrolled in college. Table 2 also shows that 37.5% had a bachelor's degree and 28.6% had an advanced degree.

Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics of Demographics (*N *= 224)*

	Frequency	Percentage
Marital Status		
Married	56	25.0
Single	166	74.1
Divorced	2	0.9
College Graduate		
Graduated from college/university	190	84.8
Currently enrolled in college/university	34	15.2
Highest Degree		
No college – HS Diploma or GED	24	10.7
Associate Degree	52	23.2
Bachelor's Degree	84	37.5
Master's Degree	38	17.0
Ph. D. or other doctoral degree	26	11.6

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the study variables BID, SATAQ, MFIS, and BMI. The number of respondents for BID, SATAQ, and MFIS is 224 except for BID which is 106. The Cronbach's alpha for MFIS and SATAQ are 0.928 and 0.892 respectively. because the BID score is based on the difference between scores for two items, the number of items was too small to yield a meaningful value for Cronbach's alpha.

Table 3

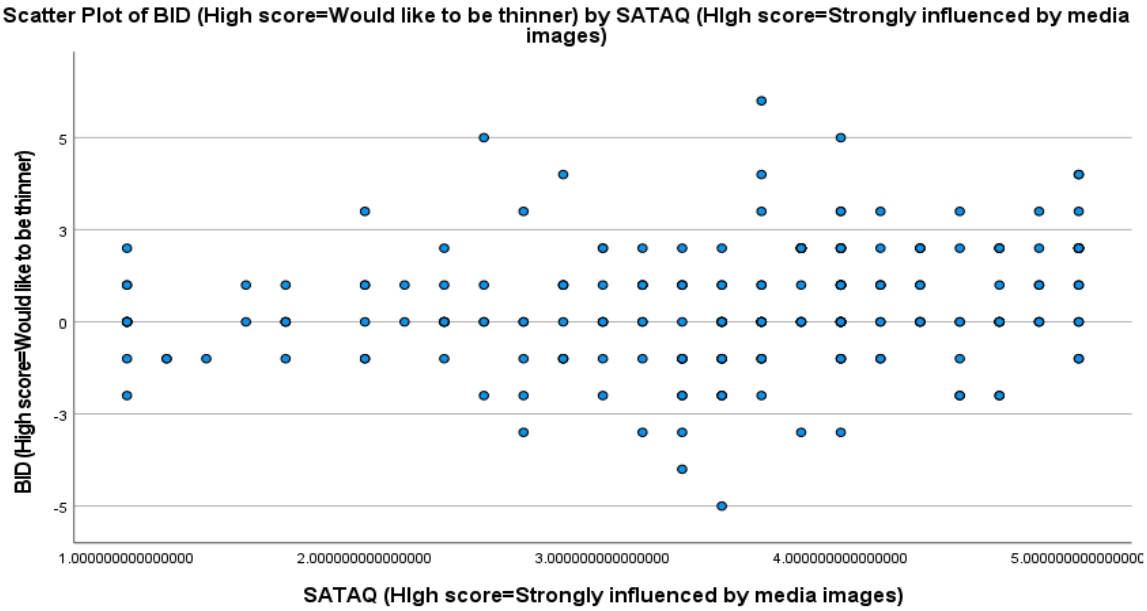
Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables BID, SATAQ, MFIS, and BMI

	N	Min	Max	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
BID (High score = Would like to be thinner)	224	-5	6	.38	1.577	0.200	1.199
SATAQ (High score = Strongly influenced by media images)	224	1.00	5.00	3.46	1.07	-.741	-.056
MFIS (High score = use Facebook a lot)	224	1.00	5.00	2.72	0.97	-.061	-.316
BMI	106	15.65	53.53	26.40	7.17	1.317	1.898

The box plot for BID scores identifies 5 extreme outliers, which are indicated by asterisks on Figure 1. Figure 1 shows the scatterplot of the of mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

Figure 1

Scatterplot of BID and SATAQ



The box plots for the other study variables did not indicate that any extreme outliers were present on the other variables. These values for the outliers in BID scores were within the plausible range and there was no evidence that they resulted from data entry errors. Therefore, they were not removed from the regression analyses reported in this chapter. However, to assess whether including them affected the regression results, I re-ran the regression analyses after excluding the extreme outliers. The results of these analyses are in Appendix G. Data for the study variables were screened for box plots, which are shown in Appendix F. Table 4 shows the correlation of the study variables BID, SATAQ, MFIS, and BMI.

Table 4

Pearson Correlation Between Variables

	1	2	3	4
1. BID	--			
2. SATAQ	.185**	--		
3. MFIS	.029	.222**	--	
4. BMI	.385**	-.003	.026	--

Note. n = 224. For BMI, n = 106.

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Findings for Research Question 1: Exposure and Use of Mass Media and BID

Regression analysis was performed to determine the degree of relationship between level of exposure to and use of mass media and level of body image discrepancy. The research questions and hypotheses were:

RQ1. Is there a relationship between African American young women's level of body image discrepancy and level of media exposure (including use of social media and influences of mass media)?

$H_0$1: Among African American women, there is no relationship between level of exposure to mass media (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire-3 (SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H_a1: Among African American young female adults, there is a relationship between level of mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

$H_0$2: Among African American young female adults, there is no relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

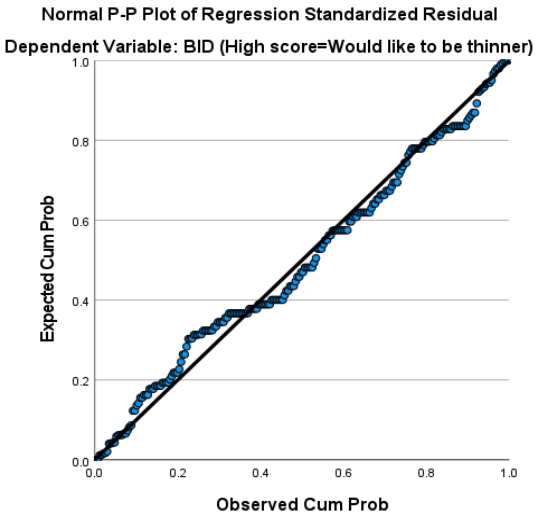
H_a2: Among African American young female adults, there is a relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

Evaluation of Linear Regression Assumptions for Hypothesis 1 (SATAQ-3)

The assumptions of linear regression were tested by evaluating the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. Regarding the assumptions of normality, the Normal Predicted Probability (P-P) plot in Figure 2 shows that the residuals are normally distributed as the residuals follow the pattern of the predicted line.

Figure 2

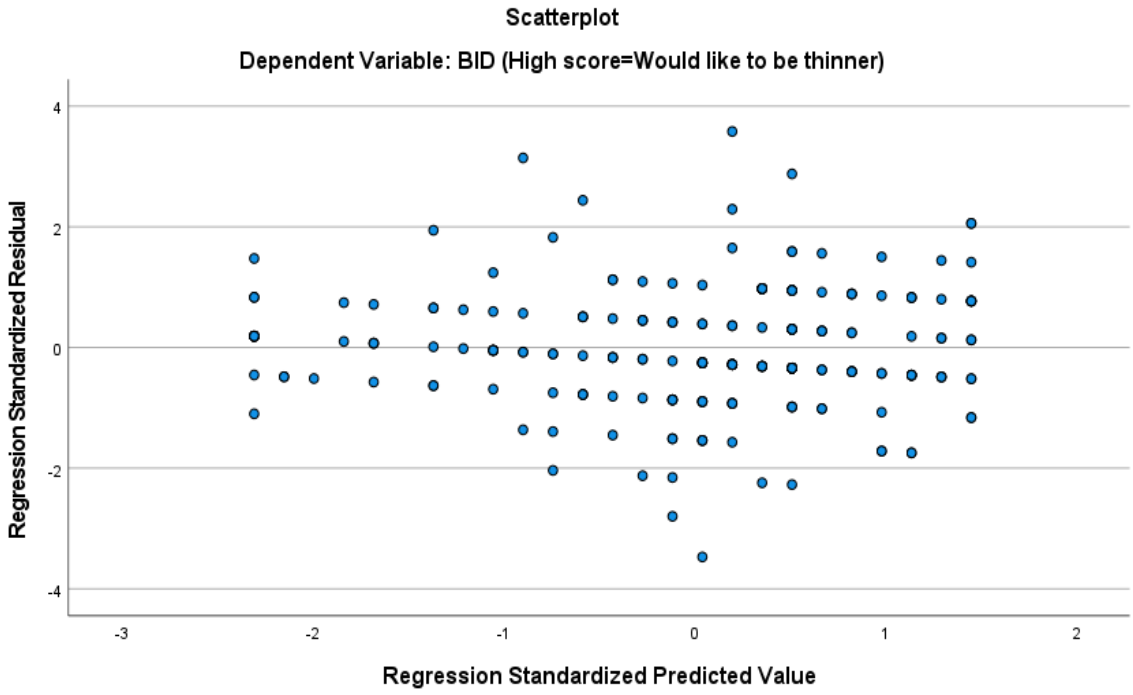
Normal P-P Plot



Regarding the assumption of homoscedasticity, the scatterplot of the regression standardized residuals and the regression standardized predicted values Figure 3, shows that the values of the residuals are approximately evenly spread about the central line, for all levels of the predicted values. This indicates that the assumption of homoscedasticity is satisfied.

Figure 3

Homoscedasticity



Multicollinearity indicates that two or more independent variables are strongly correlated ($r \geq .8$). Since only one independent variable was used in the linear regression, evaluating the assumption of multicollinearity was not necessary. To examine the assumption of linearity, the scatterplot in Figure 1 displays the relationship between the mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale). Figure 1 does not show that an obvious departure from a straight-line relationship. Therefore, it is assumed that the assumption of linearity is approximately valid for the study data.

Regression Analysis: Hypothesis 1 (SATAQ-3)

Table 5 presents the results of the regression analysis examining the first hypotheses. As shown in Table 5, there was a statistically significant relationship between level of exposure to mass media and level of body image discrepancy among African American young female adults (p = .005). Table J.1 presents the results of the regression analysis after excluding outliers on BID scores, which again showed a statistically significant relationship (p = .002). These results showed that there was enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between body image discrepancy and SATAQ scores. We can conclude from the above analysis that among African American women, there is a statistically significant relationship between level of exposure to mass media and level of body image discrepancy.

Table 5

Regression Results of SATAQ as Predictor of BID

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients			
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	Semi-partial correlation	*t*	*P*-value
(Constant)	-0.568	0.353			-1.609	0.109
SATAQ	0.274	0.098	0.185	0.185	2.808	0.005

Note. F (1,222) = 7.884, *p.* = 0.005, *R* Square (R^2) = 0.034, Adjusted *R* Square=.030, *N* = 224. Dependent Variable: BID; Predictors: (Constant), SATAQ (High Score = Strongly influenced by media Images.)

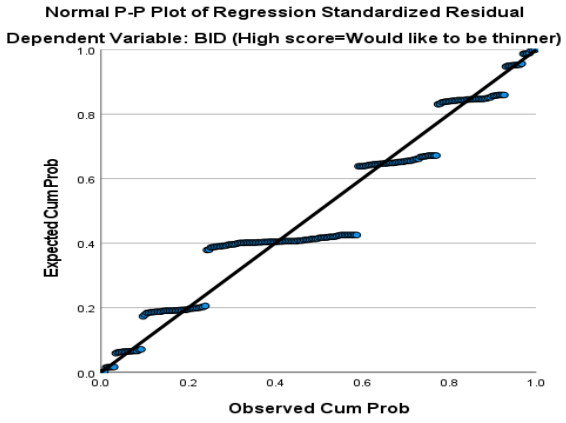
Evaluation of Linear Regression Assumptions Hypothesis 2 (MFIS)

The assumptions of linear regression were tested by evaluating the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. Regarding the

assumptions of normality, the Normal Predicted Probability (P-P) plot in Figure 4 shows that the residuals are normally distributed as the residuals follow the pattern of the predicted line.

Figure 4

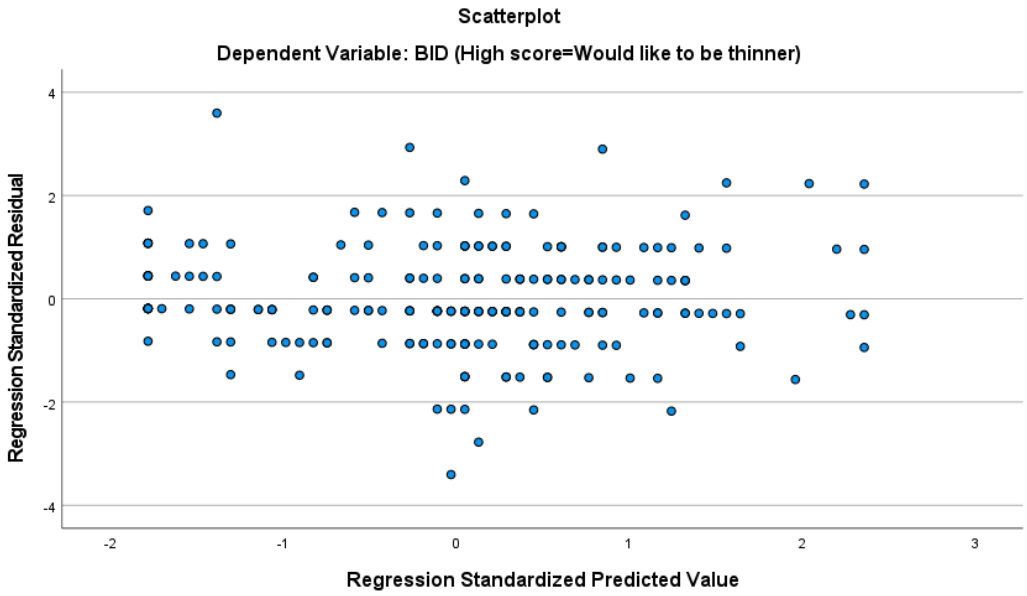
Normal P-P Plot



Regarding the assumption of homoscedasticity (see Figure 5), the scatterplot of the regression standardized residuals and the regression standardized predicted values shows that the assumption of homoscedasticity is satisfied as the residuals are reasonably close to the pattern of the predicted line.

Figure 5

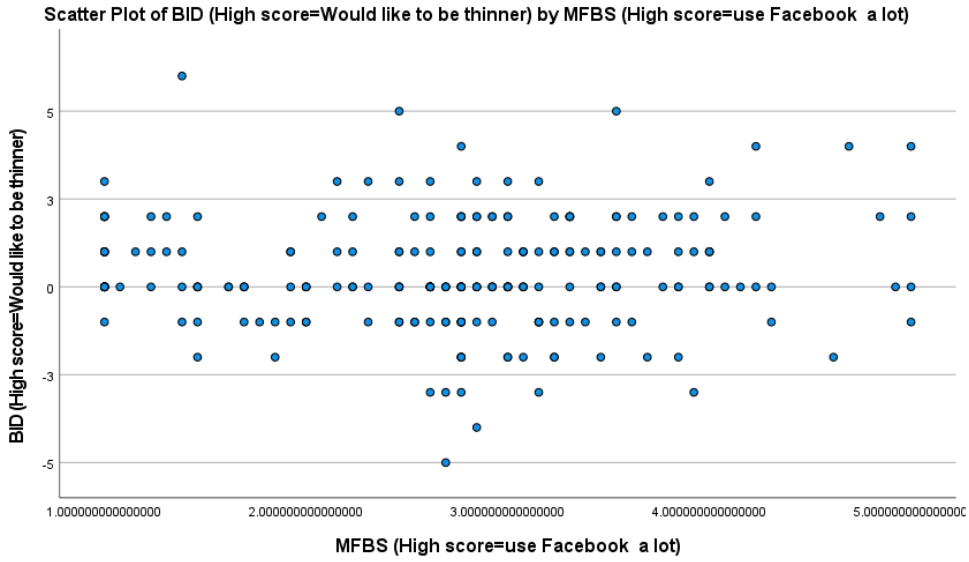
Homoscedasticity



Multicollinearity indicates that two or more independent variables are strongly correlated ($r \geq .8$). Because only one independent variable was used in the linear regression, evaluating the assumption of multicollinearity was not necessary. To examine the assumption of linearity, the scatterplot in Figure 6 displays the relationship between the social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale). Figure 6 does not show that an obvious departure from a straight-line relationship. Therefore, it is assumed that the assumption of linearity is approximately valid for the study data.

Figure 6

Scatterplot of BID and MFIS



Regression Analysis: Hypothesis 2 (MFIS)

As shown in Table 6, there was no statistically significant relationship between social media use and the level of body image discrepancy among African American young female adult (p = 0.666). Table J.2 presents the results of the regression analysis after excluding outliers on BID scores, which again showed no statistically significant relationship (p =.453). We conclude that among African American female adult, there is not a significant linear relationship between social media use and the level of body image discrepancy.

Table 6

Regression Results of MFIS as Predictor of BID

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	Semi-partial correlation		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta		*t*	*P*-value
(Constant)	0.250	0.316			0.792	0.429

MFIS	0.047	0.110	0.029	0.029	0.433	0.666

Note. F (1,222) = 0.187, *p*. = 0.666, *R* Square (R^2) = 0.001, Adjusted *R* Square =*-0.*004, *N* = 224. Dependent Variable: BID, Predictors: (Constant), MFIS (High Score = use Facebook a lot).

Findings for Research Question 2: BMI as Moderator

RQ2: Does body mass index moderate the relationship between media exposure (including use of social media and influences of mass media) and body image discrepancy among African women?

$H_0$3: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is not a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H_a3: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

$H_0$4: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is not a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H_a4: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

Regression Analysis: Hypothesis 3 (SATAQ-3)

Regression analysis was performed to determine whether BMI was a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure and body image discrepancy. This analysis was performed on the subset of 106 respondents who provided information from which BMI could be calculated. Table 7 presents the results of the analysis in two steps. In Step 1 mass media exposure (SATAQ) and BMI are the independent variables. In Step 2, the interaction term between BMI and SATAQ scores is also included as an independent variable.

Table 7

Regression Results of BMI, SATAQ and BMIxSATAQ as Predictors of BID with BMI as a Moderator

Model Term	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	Semi-partial correlation		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		*t*	*P*-value
Step 1:						
(Constant)	-2.314	0.629			-3.678	<0.001
BMI	0.074	0.017	0.386	0.386	4.323	<.001
SATAQ	0.236	0.120	0.176	0.176	1.976	0.051
Step 2:						
(Constant)	-2.196	1.702			-1.290	0.200
BMI	0.070	0.062	0.363	0.101	1.131	0.261
SATAQ	0.203	0.462	0.151	0.039	0.440	0.661
BMI x SATAQ	0.001	0.017	0.035	0.007	0.075	0.940

Note. Step 1 R^2 = 0.180, Adjusted *R* Square=0.164, *F* (2,103) = 11.273, *p*. < 0.001.

Dependent Variable: BID; Predictors: (Constant), BMI, SATAQ.

Step 2: R^2 = 0.180, Adjusted *R* Square=0.156, *F* (3,102) = 7.445, *p*. < 0.001. Dependent

Variable: BID; Predictors: (Constant), BMI, SATAQ, BMIxSATAQ.

Results for Step 1 indicated that the effect of BMI was statistically significant (t (103) = 4.323, p = <0.001, semi-partial correlation= 0.385). The p-value for the effect SATAQ was slightly above the threshold for statistical significance (t (103) = 1.976, p = 0.051, semi-partial correlation = 0.176). Results for Step 2 indicated that interaction effect of BMI with SATAQ was not significant (t (102) = 0.075, p = 0.940.) which indicated that BMI was not statistically significant as moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure and body image discrepancy. The semi-partial correlation of 0.007 for the interaction effect was very small.

Table J3 presents the results of the analysis in two steps after excluding outliers on BID scores. Results for Step 1 indicated that the effect of BMI was statistically significant (p = <0.001). The effect SATAQ was statistically significant (p = 0.017). Results for Step 2 indicated that interaction effect of BMI with SATAQ was not significant (p = 0.745.) which also indicated that BMI was not statistically significant as moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure and body image discrepancy. I conclude that body mass index does not serve a moderator of the relationship between media mass exposure and body image discrepancy

Regression Analysis: Hypothesis 4 (MFIS)

Regression Analysis was performed to determine whether body mass index is a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use and body image discrepancy. Table 8 presents the results of the analysis in two steps. In Step 1, social media use (MBFS) and BMI are the independent variables. In Step 2, the interaction term between BMI and social media use scores is also included as an independent variable.

Table 8

Regression Results of BMI, MFIS and BMIxMFIS as Predictor of BID with BMI as a moderator

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	Semi-partial correlation		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		*t*	*P*-value
Step 1:						
(Constant)	-1.461	0.609			-2.401	0.018
BMI	0.074	0.018	0.386	0.385	4.239	<.001
MBFS	-0.010	0.135	-0.007	-0.007	-0.073	0.942
Step 2:						
Constant	-0.775	1.657			-0.468	0.641
BMI	0.048	0.062	0.248	0.070	0.766	0.445
MFIS	-0.262	0.581	-0.177	-0.041	-0.450	0.653
BMI x MFIS	0.010	0.022	0.225	0.041	0.446	0.657

Note. Step 1: R^2 = 0.149, Adjusted *R* Square=0.132, *F* (2,103) = 8.984, $p < 0.001$.

Dependent Variable: BID; Predictors: (Constant), BMI, MBFS.

Step 2: *F* (3,102) = 6.009, $p < 0.001$, *R* Square (R^2) = 0.150, Adjusted *R* Square=0.125.

Dependent Variable: BID; Predictors: (Constant), BMI, MFIS, BIDxMFIS.

Result for Step 1 indicated that the effect of BMI was statistically significant ($t(103) = 4.239$, $p = <0.001$, semi-partial correlation= 0.385). The *p*-value for the effect social media use was above the threshold for statistical significance ($t(103) = -0.073$, $p = 0.942$, semi-partial correlation =-0.007). Results for Step 2 indicated that interaction effect of BMI with social media use was not significant ($t\ (102) = 0.446$, $p = 0.657$) which indicated that BMI was not statistically significant as moderator of the relationship between social media use and body image discrepancy. The semi-partial correlation of 0.041 for the interaction effect was very small.

Tables J4 presents the results of the analysis in two steps after excluding outliers on BID scores. Result for Step 1 indicated that the effect of BMI was statistically significant ($p = <0.001$). The p-value for the effect social media use was above the threshold for statistical significance ($p = 0.938$). Results for Step 2 indicated that interaction effect of BMI with social media use was not significant ($p = 0.570$.) which also indicated that BMI was not statistically significant as moderator of the relationship between social media use and body image discrepancy. For the main and interaction effects to be meaningful, they must be statistically significant, and their effect size must be reasonable. I conclude that BMI does not serve as a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use and BID.

Summary

I conclude from the linear regression analyses presented in this chapter that among African American female adults, there is a statistically significant relationship between the level of exposure to mass media and the level of BID. When body mass index was included as a control variable, the number of available cases were only 53% of the total number of respondents, because not all respondents provided height and weight information. When controlling for BMI, level of exposure to mass media was no longer statistically significant as a predictor of BID. However, the semi-partial correlation coefficients for level of exposure to mass media was very similar when BMI was included as control variable versus when it was not controlled for (0.176 vs. 0.185).

I also concluded that BMI is not statistically significant as a moderator of the relationship between the level of exposure to media mass and the level of BID. Among African American female adults in the study, there was not a significant relationship between social media use and the level of BID. I also found that BMI did not serve as a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use and BID.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter presents the summary and discussion of results, conclusions, and recommendations drawn from this quantitative correlational study. . The overarching purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the role of the media exposure in body image discrepancy among African American women. This study determined the relationship between media exposure, including exposure to traditional mass media, and use of social media, and BID among African American women. BMI was used as a control variable in the statistical analyses of the study data. In addition, BMI was examined as a potential moderator of this relationship. I conducted this study because there is a lack of studies on the effect of the media on BID among African American women, despite the research showing correlation between media and BID in White populations.

I collected data anonymously through the Survey Monkey website. Key findings of the analysis suggested that there is a statistically significant relationship between level of exposure to mass media and level of BID among African American adult females. However, results of the analysis showed that there was no relationship between social media use and the level of BID among African American adult females. For Hypothesis 3, I concluded that BMI does not serve as a statistically significant moderator of the relationship between media mass exposure and BID. For Hypothesis 4, I concluded that BMI does not serve as a statistically significant moderator of the relationship between level of social media use and BID. I conducted this study because there is a lack of

studies on the effect of the media on BID among African American women, despite the potential effects of the media on BID among African American women.

In Chapter 5, I summarize the study findings presented in Chapter 4 and discuss the interpretations based on these findings. In the final section of this Chapter, I relate the results presented in Chapter 4 to the concepts presented in Chapter 1, as well as the review of literature in Chapter 2. The chapter concludes with recommendations for further research. The data were analyzed to examine the research questions and fulfill the purpose of this quantitative correlational research. Multiple linear regressions were used as the statistical tool for hypothesis testing. RQ1 is not limited to one form of media. The research questions for this study were as follows:

RQ 1: Is there a relationship between African American young women's' level of body image discrepancy and level of media exposure (including use of social media and influences of mass media)?

H1o: Among African American young women, there is no relationship between level of exposure to mass media (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire-3 (SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H1a: Among African American young female adults, there is a relationship between level of mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

RQ2: Does body mass index moderate the relationship between media exposure (including use of social media and influences of mass media) and body image discrepancy among African women?

H2o: Among African American young female adults, there is no relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H2a: Among African American young female adults, there is a relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H3o: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is not a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H3a: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H4o: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is not a moderator of the relationship between level

of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

H4a: Among African American women, body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) is a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale).

Summary of Key Findings

For Hypothesis 1, the data was analyzed using the linear regression model to determine the relationship between level of mass media exposure (as measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale). The analysis indicated a statistically significant relationship between level of exposure to mass media and level of body image discrepancy among African American adult female.

For Hypothesis 2, the data was analyzed using the linear regression model to determine the relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and level of body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale). The analysis indicated no statistically significant linear relationship between social media use and the level of body image discrepancy among African American adult female.

For Hypothesis 3, the data was analyzed using the multiple regression model to determine whether the body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) was a moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure (as

measured by the Mass Media Pressure Subscale of the SATAQ-3) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale). The results were presented in two parts. In part 1, the result showed that the effect of BMI was statistically significant when the interaction effects were not considered. In part 2, the result indicated that interaction effect of BMI with SATAQ was not significant which indicated that BMI was not statistically significant as moderator of the relationship between mass media exposure and body image discrepancy. The semi-partial correlation of 0.007 for the interaction effect was very small. I concluded that body mass index does not serve as a moderator of the relationship between media mass exposure and body image discrepancy.

For Hypothesis 4, the data was analyzed using the multiple regression model to determine whether the body mass index (calculated from the height and weight of each participant) was a moderator of the relationship between level of social media use (as measured by the Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale) and body image discrepancy (as measured by the Stunkard Figure Rating Scale). The results were presented in two parts. In part 1, the result indicated that the effect of BMI was statistically significant when the interaction effects were not considered. In part 2, the results indicated that interaction effect of BMI with social media use was not significant, which indicated that BMI was not statistically significant as moderator of the relationship between social media use and body image discrepancy. The semi-partial correlation of 0.041 for the interaction effect was very small. I concluded that body mass index does not serve as a moderator of the relationship between social media use and body image discrepancy.

In summary, I concluded from the analyses that among African American female adults, there is a statistically significant relationship between the level of exposure to mass media and the level of body image discrepancy. However, the body mass index does not serve as a statistically significant moderator of the relationship between the level of exposure to media mass and the level of body image discrepancy. I also concluded that among African American female adults, there is no statistically significant relationship between social media use and the level of body image discrepancy. I concluded that body mass index does not serve as a statistically significant moderator of the relationship between level of social media use and body image discrepancy. This suggests that there is not a relationship between African American young women's level of body image discrepancy and level of social media.

Interpretation of Findings

The advent of widespread social media use necessitates further research on media influences on body image among African American women, as few studies have focused on the effect of the mass media and of social media on body image discrepancy among African American women, whereas most of the focus has been on White women (Capodilupo, 2015; de Valle et al., 2021; Lowy, et al., 2021). Aspiring to an unrealistic thin body can have serious negative consequences for a person's self-esteem, mental health, and physical health. Hence it is important to explore how viewing thin images in the media might affect African American women (Bruns & Carter, 2015;de Valle et al., 2021). In this study, I concluded that there is a statistically significant relationship between the level of exposure to mass media and the level of body image discrepancy

among African American female adult. As with White women, the consequences of unrealistic body image may result in problems related to African American women's self-esteem, mental health, and physical health (de Valle et al., 2021). As suggested by Finkley (2016), programs, such as women's empowerment, peer interaction, and a wellness program could assist in shaping the body image perceptions of African American women.

Fitzgibbon et al. (2010) in their study that measured the trajectory of the body mass index (BMI) to body image discrepancy (BD) relationship as BMI increases by ethnic group concluded that African American did not report BD until they were overweight. However, the results of my study indicated that body mass index does not serve as a statistically significant moderator of the relationship between level of social media use and body image discrepancy.

Sira and Ballard (2011) explored the moderating role of race in of 231 White women and 80 African American women attending university, aged 18-24 years. For both Black and White participants, BMI was the best predictor of body satisfaction. However, the media and global self-worth were the strongest predictors of body satisfaction for Caucasian women (Sira & Ballard, 2011). Findings from the study suggested that body satisfaction is developed differently for each race.

Researchers have demonstrated social media effects on body image and eating disorders (de Valle et al., 2021; Holland & Tiggemann, 2016; Lowy, et al., 2021). Additionally, recent studies have shifted to new forms of media such as social networking sites (Holland & Tiggemann, 2016; Saiphoo & Vahedi, 2019; de Valle et al., 2021).. The

use of social media is therefore pervasive and is spreading quickly worldwide. Social media usage is particularly common among young women, the age group and sex for which body dissatisfaction is a common problem (Fardouly et al. 2015). Previous research has shown a positive relationship between Facebook use and body dissatisfaction (Fardouly & Vartanian, 2015).

However, in my study, Facebook use was not statistically significant as a predictor of body image dissatisfaction. Saiphoo and Vahedi (2019) noted that social media use seems to have a weaker influence and body image dissatisfaction compared to exposure to traditional mass media. To explain the difference in impact of the two types of media exposure, they argued that: Traditional media is composed almost exclusively of idealized content, or content that has been edited in some way. Even traditional media content that is thought to be candid and unedited is not (e.g., scripted reality television). As mentioned previously, social media content may be similarly idealized and edited, however, because of the varied purposes and motivations for using social media amongst users … each user's timeline or newsfeed will be different. In other words, some users may follow and engage with content that is relevant to appearance and body ideals more than or more frequently than other users. (Saiphoo & Vahedi, 2019, p. 26) These considerations may help to explain why, in my study, social media use was not statistically significant as a predictor of body image discrepancy.

Limitations of Study

All data were based on a convenience sample. Correlational studies are associated with statistical and design problems such as the inability to signify causality

(Lunenburg & Irby,2008). An important design limitation of correlation studies is that a correlation between an independent variable and dependent variable may be due to the influence of a third factor on both variables (Cresswell, 2003). Without doing a controlled longitudinal study, there would be no way to ascertain that exposure to mass media (TV, magazines, etc.) and social media use determines or causes the level of body image discrepancy. Other extraneous variables, such as body type, age, level of self-esteem, family background, cultural values, and social desirability factors could affect susceptibility to influences from social and mass media. To minimize the potential effects from confounding variables, body mass index was controlled in the data analysis.

Subjectivity of self-report data is another limitation to this study. Although some people may question the reliability and validity of self-report data, one can suggest that subjectivity was necessary because the construct of body image discrepancy is based on an individual's perception of self. The limitation of this type of construct is that information can be missed or skewed when participants respond in socially desirable or psychologically defended ways. I minimized the limitation by reiterating anonymity of this study several times: upon presentation of the study to solicit participants, when the survey packet was retrieved by the participants, and again in an introduction letter attached to the questionnaires.

Another limitation is that I only looked at the influence of social media use in terms of one social media platform (i.e., Facebook), while ignoring other platforms, such as Instagram. Additionally, my study sample was a convenience one, not a random sample of African American women students. It was obtained from a database of survey

respondents maintained by Survey Monkey, and this may have greatly influenced the sample I wound up with. Eighty-five percent of the sample was college graduates, so my sample may not reflect the experiences of young undergraduate women attending universities.

Recommendations for Further Research

Further studies should involve the examination of other factors that affect body image discrepancy. These include determining the effects of other factors, such as the levels of income, culture, family traits, gender, ethnicity, and religion, among others. The advent of widespread social media use is one of the reasons that further research is needed on media influences on body image among African American women. Aspiring to an unrealistic thin body can have serious negative consequences for a person's self-esteem, mental health, and physical health. Hence, it is important that further research should explore how viewing thin images in the media might affect African American women (de Valle et al., 2021).

In my study, I originally intended that the focus would be women attending historically black colleges and universities (HCBU's). However, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, recruiting on campus was not feasible and so it was necessary to change the recruitment procedure to collect data online from young African American women. Ideally further research should be performed using participants from universities with a majority African American enrollment.

Further research is warranted on how cultural factors may shape or moderate the influence of media on body image discrepancy in young African American women.

Existing research on body image supports sociocultural theories emphasizing the internalization of societal pressures to attain the thin-ideal, as well as other Caucasian or Eurocentric ideals that are predominant in mainstream media (Hughes, 2021; Lowy et al., 2021). Racial standards of fitness are developed as a marker of African American femininity and attractiveness (Hughes, 2021). These researchers encourage other researchers to apply culturally-sensitive and intersectional-informed theory to improve attempts in assessing early warning signs of body dissatisfaction and developing effective interventions for African American women (Lowy et al., 2021) .

A recent review (de Valle et al., 2021) raised concerns about the potential impact of using image- and video-based social media platforms such as Instagram, Tumblr, and TikTok. The authors of this review noted, that users of these platforms "can access a constant stream of appearance ideal imagery from 'influencers' models, and celebrities, depending on the accounts they follow and what the platforms' algorithms suggest for them" (pp. 286-287).). Therefore, I also recommend investigating other types of social media exposure, such as Instagram.

Implications

The information obtained by completion of this study can be used to generate positive social change. Body image encompasses a person's feelings, thoughts, and behaviors that are related to one's physical appearance (Tylka & Wood-Barcalow, 2015). Because body image dissatisfaction is a strong predictor of eating disorders, depression, negative mood, low self-esteem and obesity, effective interventions for body image

dissatisfaction are necessary (Dakanalis et al., 2016). Over 70% of adolescent girls and 80% of adult women suffer from poor body image (Castonguay et al., 2012). Approximately 50% of girls and undergraduate women report that they are dissatisfied with their bodies (Castonguay et al., 2012) . The negative effects of the media on body image discrepancy are fast becoming a significant public health concern in the United States (Bessenoff, 2012). The majority of body image research focuses on women's and girls' experiences with weight and shapes, particularly the pursuit of a thin ideal (Whyte et al., 2016). Sufficient research with White women prevails to support the belief that a desire to be thinner and to lose weight is a central obsession bordering on normalcy (Whyte et al.). David and Warrier, (2019) provided evidence that body image dissatisfaction has become the norm among young women in America.

Findings from this study can inform women that idealized media images do not necessarily mean that any single woman is vulnerable to detrimental media effects. According to Lowy et al. (2021), existing research on body image supports sociocultural theories emphasizing the internalization of social pressures to attain the thin-ideal, as well as other Caucasian or Eurocentric ideals that are predominant in mainstream media. Lowy et al. (2021) encourages researchers to apply culturally-sensitive informed theory to improve efforts in measuring early warning signs of dissatisfaction and developing effective interventions for African American women. Another avenue for social change would be to use media messages among women to educate them about possible eating disorders (ED), prevention lessons, and to decrease body dissatisfaction by improving eating disorders. According to Saiphoo and Vahedi (2019), given the rising popularity of

social media within the last decade, researchers have begun to investigate how social media use may or may not be related to different physiological barriers. Studies have examined the use of an existing frequently used social media platform. These research findings could further bring about social change by using them to develop appropriate educational campaigns in U.S. communities.

This research was one of the few studies to examine the effects of the media on body image discrepancy among African American women. I would make several recommendations based on the results of this study. First, findings demonstrated that there is a statistically significant relationship between the level of exposure to mass media and the level of body image discrepancy. Researchers should therefore consider the variables when carrying out research in this area. I also recommend that healthcare professionals receive additional educational training on how pressures from the media may influence body image discrepancy among African American women. Thirdly, I would recommend that this study should be replicated to either confirm or disconfirm the findings of the study.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to investigate the role of the media in body image discrepancy among African American women. Chapter 5 was a summary of the findings and conclusions, implication of results, and recommendations for future research. Findings from this study provided new information regarding the effects impact of the media on body image discrepancy among African American women. In conclusion, results of this study fit into Walden University's social change mission by demonstrating

the need for health care professionals to be more aware of cultural barriers when addressing the role of the media in body image discrepancy among African American women.

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Appendix A: Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire is intended to collect basic and general information pertinent to this study.

What is your race? __ White or European descent __ Black or African-American __ Other What is your gender? __ Male __Female __ Other What is your age? _ _
What is your marital status? __ Married __ Single __ Divorced
What is your yearly income? __ $20,000 - $30,000 __ $30,000 - $40,000 __ $40,000 - $50,000 __ $50,000 - $60,000 __ $60,000 - $70,000 __ $70,000 - $80,000 __ $80,000 - $90,000 __ $90,000 - $100,000 __ Above $100,000
Did you attend a Historically Black College/university?
What is your height? __
What is your weight? __

Appendix B: **Consent Form**

You are invited to voluntarily participate in a study involving the role of the media in body image discrepancy among African American women. I seek 200 participants. The form that you are reading is part of a process called "informed consent" that provides you with the information about this research in order to make an informed decision about study participation.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to explore the role of the media in body image discrepancy among African American women.

Procedure:

The survey contains 30 questions which take approximately 5 to 10 minutes of your time to answer. After you complete the survey the researcher will not be in further contact with you or provide you with any follow up.

Here are some sample questions:

1. Can you choose the figure that reflects how you think look? (SFRS)
2. Do you feel pressure from TV or magazines to be thin? (SATAQ-3)
3. Do you feel bad if you don't check your Facebook daily? (MFIS)

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation is anonymous and voluntary, and you are free to withdraw your participation in the study at any time during the survey without any repercussions. Consenting participants must be African American women of ages 18-29 years old enrolled or recently graduated from a university or college. This study is being conducted by Jacqueline Allen, who is a doctoral student at Walden University based in Minneapolis, Minnesota. Jaqueline Allen can be reached at telephone number [redacted]

Benefits of Being in the Study:

The study offers no compensation or other direct benefits to those who answer the survey questions. The aim of this study is to benefit society by advancing the understanding of factors that influence the body image of young African American women.

Risks of Being in the Study:

This study will pose minimal risk to your well-being because no personal identifiable information is being collected, so there is in no way to link you directly with any response that you have given to any such uncomfortable questions. However, being in this study could involve some risk of the minor discomfort that can be encountered in daily life, such as some questions being too personal, or slightly uncomfortable. If you need support you can call the Office of Women's Help at 1-800-994-9962 to solicit help in the areas of body image and eating disorders. Further information regarding support

groups for individuals with eating disorders is available from the Eating Disorder Foundation (See https://eatingdisorderfoundation.org/get-help/support-groups/). With the protection in place, this study would pose minimal risk to your well-being.

Privacy:

The researcher is required to protect your privacy. Responses will be utilized only for the researcher's study purpose of gathering information about the media and body image discrepancy and will not be linked to any personally identifiable information. Survey Monkey will supply survey responses to the researcher in a format that does not contain email addresses or other information that indicates names or locations of respondents. The researcher will not ask for your names at any time or link your responses to your contact information you provide for any purposes outside for any purposes outside of the research project and will have no way of contacting you. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by Walden University.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have any questions you can get in touch with the researcher now or any point during or after the study by email ([redacted]). If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant or any negative aspects of the study, you can call Walden University advocate at 612-312-1210. You are welcome to print or save a copy of this consent form. Walden University's approval number for this study is IRB will enter approval number here and it expires on IRB will enter expiration date.

Instructions:

If you feel you understand the study and wish to volunteer, please indicate your consent by clicking the OK button to participate and begin answering the questions.

Your participation in this study is appreciated.

Thank You,

Jacqueline Allen

Appendix C: Permission to use SFRS

Subject: SFRS

SV: Permission to use instrument

Fra: Jacqueline Allen [redacted]
Sendt: 15. april 2021 21:18
Til: Thorkild I.A. Sørensen [redacted]
Emne: Re: Permission to use instrument

Dear Jacqueline

You are very welcome to use the SFRS

Good luck with your study!

Bedste hilsner

Best wishes

Thorkild

[redacted]

Professor Thorkild Sorensen

I hope this email finds you doing well. My name is Jacqueline Allen and I am a PhD student at Walden University. Currently I am working on my dissertation which addresses the media and body image discrepancy among African American women. I am seeking a relevant instrument to explore the body image perceptions of African American women. The Stunkard Figure Rating Scale (SFRS) fits my need. I am requesting approval to use your questionnaire to measure body image discrepancy. Your approval is much needed and would be appreciated. If you should have any comments, questions, concerns, or need additional information about my study, please feel free to contact me at your earliest convenience at [redacted].

Sincerely, Jacqueline Allen

Appendix D: Permission to use Mass Media Pressure Subscale of SATAQ-3

Thompson, J. Kevin [redacted]
Mon 4/19/2021 2:54 AM
To: Jacqueline Allen
Yes, you of course have my permission. Good luck with your research.
Kevin

Dr. Thompson,

I hope this email finds you doing well. My name is Jacqueline Allen and I am a Phd student at Walden University. Currently I am working on my dissertation which addresses the media and body image discrepancy among African American women. I am seeking a relevant instrument to measure media exposure. The Mass Media Pressure Subscale of SATAQ-3 seems to fit my need. I am therefore requesting permission to use your questionnaire. Your approval is much needed and will be greatly appreciated. If you should have any comments, questions, concerns, or need additional information about my study, please feel free to contact me at your earliest convenience at [redacted].

Thank you,

Jacqueline Allen

Appendix E: Permission to use MFIS

Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale

Gábor Orosz <[redacted]

Reply all|
Sun 2/25, 11:21 PM
Jacqueline M. Allen

Action Items

Dear Jacqueline,

I give my permission. If you have any questions regarding this measure you can count on me. Please send me a summary or the paper on your results if it's ok for you.

All the best,

Gabor

2018. febr. 26. 4:22 de. ezt írta ("Jacqueline M. Allen[redacted]):
Dr. Orosz,
I hope this email finds you doing well. My name is Jacqueline Allen and I am a PhD student at Walden University. Currently I am working on my dissertation which addresses the media and body image discrepancy among African American women. I am seeking a relevant instrument to measure Facebook use. The Multidimensional Facebook Intensity Scale (MFIS) seems to fit my need. I am hereby requesting permission to use your questionnaire. Your approval is much needed and will be greatly appreciated. If you should have any comments, questions, concerns, or need additional information about my study, please feel free to contact me at your earliest convenience at [redacted]

Sincerely,

Jacqueline Allen

Appendix F: Boxplot of Study Variables BID, SATAQ, MFIS, and BMI.

Figure F1

Boxplot of BID

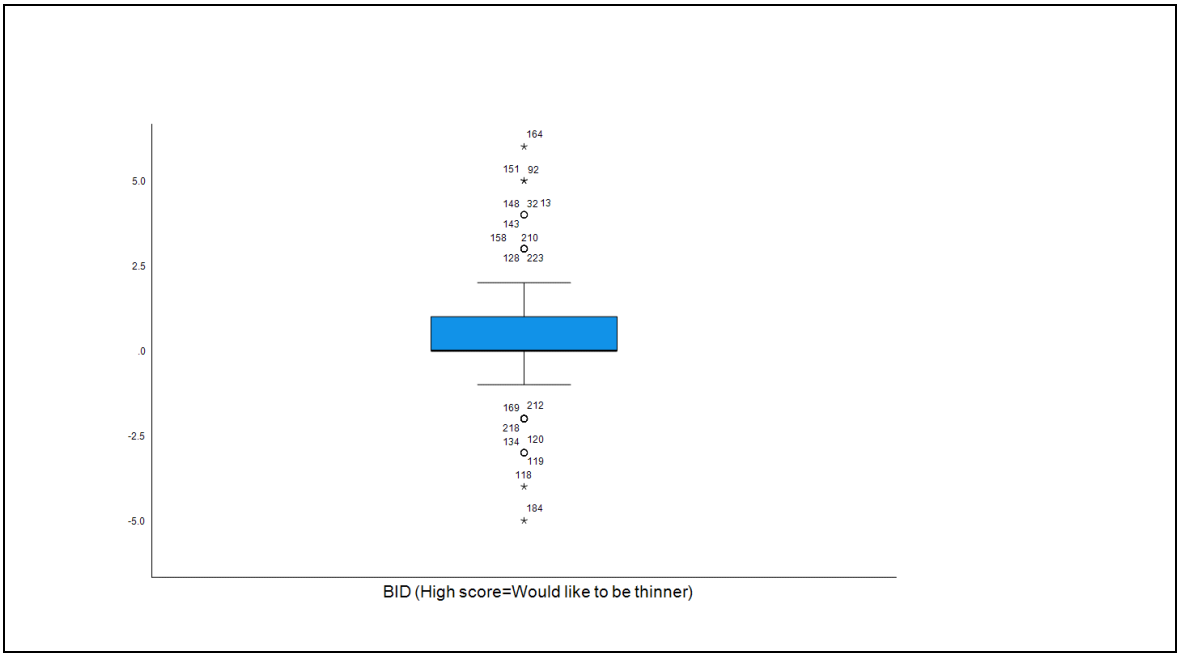


Figure F2

Boxplot of SATAQ

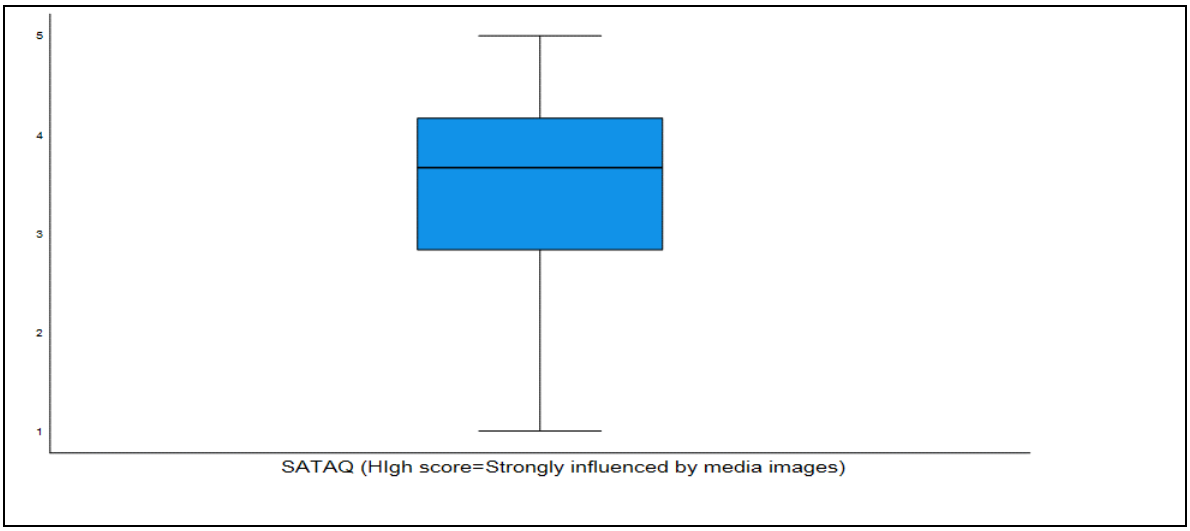

5
4
3
2
1
SATAQ (HIgh score=Strongly influenced by media images)

Figure F3

Boxplot of MFIS

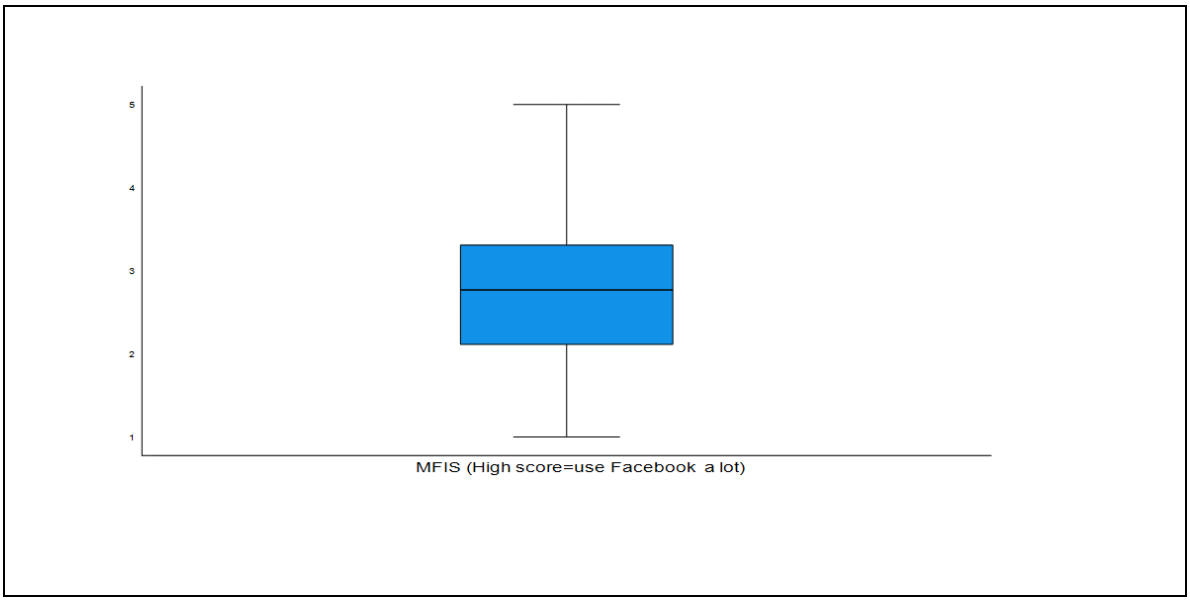
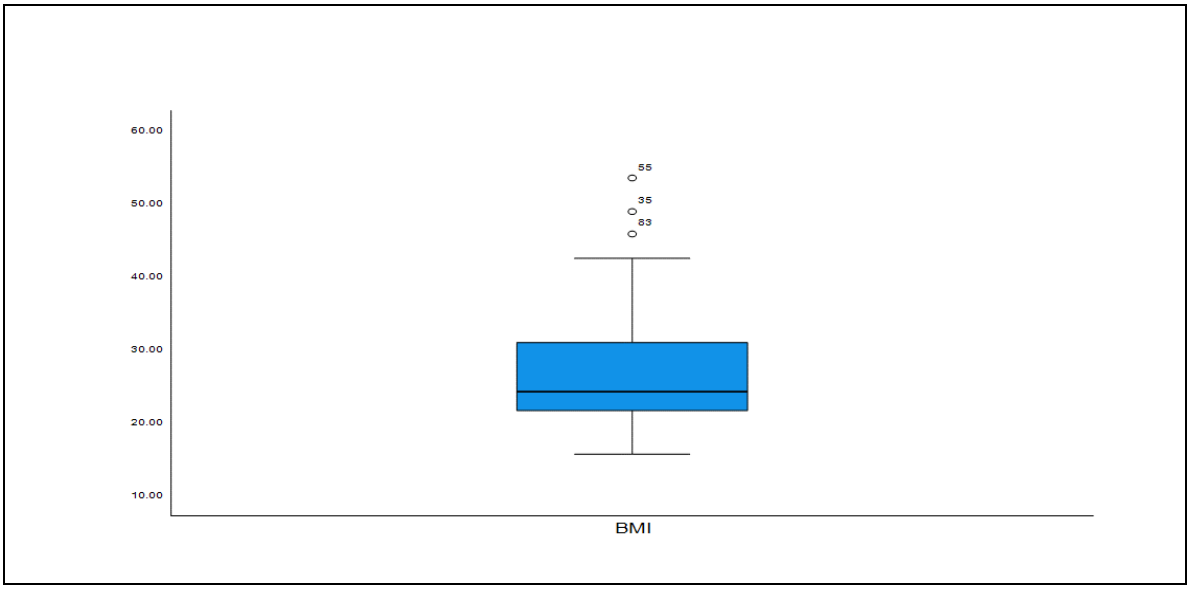


Figure F4

Boxplot of BMI



Appendix G: Regression Analysis Without the Outliers in the Data

Table G.1

Regression Results of SATAQ as Predictor of BID with outliers excluded

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	Semi-partial correlation	t	P-value
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	-0.602	0.315			-1.914	0.057
SATAQ	0.277	0.087	0.212	0.212	3.190	0.002

Note. F (1,217) = 10.174, *p.* = 0.002, *R Square* (R^2) = 0.045, *Adjusted R Square*=.040, *N* = 218

a. Dependent Variable: BID
b. Predictors: (Constant), SATAQ (High Score = Strongly influenced by media Images)

Table G.2

Regression Results of MFIS as Predictor of BID with outliers excluded

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	Semi-partial correlation	t	P-value
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	0.155	0.284			0.544	0.587
MFIS	0.074	0.098	0.051	0.051	0.752	0.453

Note. F (1,217) = 0.566, *p.* = 0.453, *R Square* (R^2) = 0.003, *Adjusted R Square=-0.*002, *N* = 218

a Dependent Variable: BID
b. Predictors: (Constant), MFIS (High Score = use Facebook a lot)

Table G.3

Regression Results of BMI, SATAQ and BMIxSATAQ as Predictors of BID with BMI as a moderator (with outliers excluded)

Model Term	Unstandardized coefficients B	Unstandardized coefficients Std. Error	Standardized coefficients Beta	Semi-partial correlation	t	P-value
Step 1:						
(Constant)	-2.385	0.593			-4.019	<0.001
BMI	0.070	0.016	0.384	0.393	4.321	<.001
SATAQ	0.276	0.113	0.216	0.234	2.435	0.017
Step 2:						
(Constant)	-1.899	1.606			-1.183	0.240
BMI	0.0052	0.058	0.284	0.079	0.888	0.376
SATAQ	0.139	0.435	0.109	0.028	0.319	0.751
BMI x SATAQ	0.005	0.016	0.150	0.029	0.326	0.745

,

Step 1:

R Square (R^2) = 0.195, *Adjusted R Square*=0.179, *F* (2,102) = 12.337, *p*. < 0.001

a. Dependent Variable: BID

b. Predictors: (Constant), BMI, SATAQ

Step 2:

R Square (R^2) = 0.196, *Adjusted R Square*=0.172, *F* (3,101) = 9.188, *p*. < 0.001

a. Dependent Variable: BID

b. Predictors: (Constant), BMI, SATAQ, BMIxSATAQ

Table G.4

Regression Results of BMI, MFIS and BMIxMFIS as Predictor of BID with BMI as a moderator (with outliers excluded)

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	Semi-partial correlation	t	P-value
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
Step 1:						
(Constant)	-1.453	0.579			-2.509	0.014
BMI	0.070	0.017	0.384	0.384	4.205	<.001
MBFS	0.010	0.128	0.007	0.008	0.078	0.938
Step 2:						
Constant	-0.617	1.577			-0.391	0.696
BMI	0.038	0.059	0.207	0.064	0.640	0.524
MFIS	-0.296	0.553	-0.211	-0.053	-0.536	0.593
BMI x MFIS	0.012	0.021	0.290	0.057	0.570	0.570

Part 1
Step 1:
R Square (R^2) = 0.148, Adjusted R Square=0.131, F (2,102) = 8.861, p. < 0.001
a. Dependent Variable: BID
b. Predictors: (Constant), BMI, MBFS
Step 2:
Note. F (3,101) = 5.977, *p.* < 0.001, *R Square* (R^2) = 0.151, *Adjusted R Square*=0.126,
a. Dependent Variable: BID
b. Predictors: (Constant), BMI, MFIS, BIDxMFIS