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The Effect of Media on Self-Objectification and Gender-Role Conflict in College Students

An Honors Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for Honors in Psychology.

By
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Under the mentorship of Shauna Joye, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

In today's society, people are confronted by sexually objectified images of men and women across multiple forms of media. Self-objectification occurs when a person internalizes this objectified perspective of his/her body. Gender role conflict occurs when socialized gender roles have negative consequences for a person's self or others. The current study sought to analyze the effect that objectified images of women from magazine advertisements can have on women's self-objectification and men's levels of gender role conflict. In this fully online study, each participant was shown five images of women with either high or low objectification. Images of highly objectified women included models showing more skin and posed more provocatively, and in images with low objectification, the models were dressed and posed more modestly. After viewing these images, participants were directed to the Self-Objectification Questionnaire and a modified version of the Gender Role Conflict Scale. Results indicated that women in this study were more likely to self-objectify than men, regardless of whether they saw images with high or low objectification. Men were more likely to experience gender role conflict than women overall, and there was a significant interaction between gender and condition such that men experienced higher gender role conflict in relation to success, power, and competition after viewing images with low objectification. Implications and limitations of findings are discussed.

Key Words: Objectification Theory, Sexual Objectification, Self-objectification, Gender Role Conflict

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The Effect of Media on Self-Objectification and Gender-Role Conflict in College Students

In today's society, people are confronted by images of objectified men and women in the media through television shows, commercials, billboards, movies, and countless other print and digital sources. The advertisements presented through the mass media are permeated with the idea that people, and women in particular, should be conscious of how others view them externally. Objectification Theory, proposed by Fredrickson and Roberts in 1997, states that sexual objectification occurs when a woman is viewed as merely a collection of body parts and that those body parts represent who she is as a person. Self-objectification occurs when a person internalizes an observers' perspective of his/her body. Fredrickson, Roberts, Noll, Quinn, and Twenge (1998) explain that self-objectification causes individuals to value their body more for observable characteristics rather than internal characteristics such as how they think or feel. Although some research has been done to study male self-objectification (e.g., Baird & Grieve, 2006; Schwartz, Grammas, Sutherland, Siffert, & Bush-King, 2010), most current research focuses on women. The present study seeks to analyze the effect that visually primed highly objectified images of women can have on men's and women's self-objectification and men's gender role conflict.

When men and women self-objectify, there can be negative influences on both their mental and physical health. People who put more emphasis on how others view them externally are more likely to only value themselves for their external characteristics and to treat themselves as objects to be evaluated. Further, self-objectification can lead to women having higher levels of anxiety, depression, and body shame (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). People who self-objectify are more likely to think in terms of observable characteristics such as how they look instead of how they feel. Fredrickson et al. (1998) tested the effect that self-objectification has on body

shame and how body shame in turn predicts restrained eating. They asked participants to try on either a swimsuit (experimental) or a sweater (control) and complete a measure to evaluate body shame. Participants were also presented with a taste task to measure restricted eating.

Researchers found that self-objectification led to increased body shame, which in turn predicted restricted eating. Fredrickson and Roberts (1997) assert that eating disorders may perhaps be the most obvious risk presented for women that self-objectify. According to the National Association of Anorexia Nervosa and Associated Disorders (2015), women make up an estimated 85-95% of those who suffer from bulimia and anorexia nervosa. As women struggle to fit into the ideal body image presented to them for society, they may take drastic measures to change their own body. If the images presented through media cause young men and women to self-objectify, eating and nutritional problems could become more prevalent in our society.

The sexual objectification of women is not only harmful for themselves but can influence the attitudes and perceptions of men. Kistler and Lee (2009) explored the potential effect of viewing highly sexualized hip-hop videos on college student's objectification of women, sexual permissiveness, and gender attitudes. They found that among male participants, those who viewed the highly sexual hip-hop videos expressed higher levels of objectification of women, more stereotyped gender attitudes, and increased acceptance of rape myths. The fact that this is occurring in college students is particularly concerning when we look at rates of sexual assault and rape on college campuses. In recent study conducted by the Association of American Universities (2015) across 27 universities, 23% of women reported an incidence of sexual assault and sexual misconduct due to physical force, threats of physical force, or incapacitation. If women continue to be objectified in the mainstream media that these students are consuming, these numbers may increase.

Although most studies that have been done on self-objectification have focused on women, a few studies have been conducted to examine the effect that objectification can have on men and their body satisfaction. For example, men who read fitness magazines are more likely to internalize the ideal standard of beauty for men presented in those magazines and engage in self-objectification (Schwartz et al., 2010). Baird and Grieve (2006) found that when male college students were presented with images from advertisements featuring male models, they reported decreased body satisfaction. Michaels, Parent, and Moradi (2013) conducted a study in which they sought to examine the effect exposure to “muscularity idealizing” media images has on male self-objectification and body image, specifically through body dissatisfaction, body shame, body surveillance, and appearance anxiety. The results of this study did not show statistical differences in the body image measures of heterosexual men. However, sexual minority men reported more body dissatisfaction, body surveillance, and social physique anxiety relative to heterosexual men. Although their study did not compare men to women, given the abundance of literature that women are affected by seeing objectified images, this suggests that short-term exposure to muscularity idealizing images may not have quite the same effects on men as they do women.

Whereas self-objectification occurs in women as they struggle to meet the slim body ideal (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997), male self-objectification often stems from societal pressures to have a muscular body, broad shoulders, a well-developed upper body, and narrow hips (Schwartz et al., 2010). A study by Schwartz et al. (2010) sought to examine some of the predictors of negative body image and self-objectification in college men. One of the factors they looked at specifically was the influence of gender role conflict, which is defined as the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral problems men face in conforming to gender-role expectations. Gender

role conflict occurs when socialized gender roles have negative consequences for a person's self or others. O'Neil (2008) states that the ultimate outcome of gender role conflict is for a person's human potential to be restricted. A man experiencing high gender role conflict is one who may feel distress about the disconnect between how society dictates he should behave and how he wants to behave (e.g., wanting to expressing emotion but feeling that this is not a "manly" thing to do; O'Neil, 2008). The researchers hypothesized that men with higher levels of gender role conflict would be more likely to self-objectify, but instead they found that higher levels of gender role conflict was negatively associated with self-objectification. What has not been examined, however, is the effect that seeing images of objectified women has on men's gender role conflict. We anticipate that men will have less gender role conflict when they see images of highly objectified women, as this aligns with typical gender roles seen in the media.

A few studies, such as the one by Michaels et al. (2013), have been conducted using visually primed images in relation to self-objectification. For example, Aubrey, Henson, Hopper, and Smith (2009) completed a study to see if showing women images of highly objectified body parts would cause them to self-objectify. Participants in their study were split into three conditions and shown images of either the full bodies of objectified women (showing a lot of skin), objectified body parts (also showing a lot of skin) or "control" images (places and things rather than people). Participants in this study were told that they were participating in a magazine study and were asked to answer questions corresponding to each image to ensure they spent enough time looking at each image. After viewing the images, participants were asked to complete the statement "I am ____" with 20 different words/phrases. These statements were then analyzed for positivity and negativity. Exposure to the full-body objectified images, but not the body-part images, caused the participants to use more appearance-related statements to describe

themselves compared to the control group. That is, for women to self-objectify, they needed to see the full image of a woman, not just skin (body parts).

Like the study by Aubrey et al. (2009), in the present study we sought to analyze the effect that objectified images had on state self-objectification. However, rather than using images of body parts, we will use images from current magazines classified as either high or low in level of objectification. In doing this, we created a more real-world look at how images from the media affect self-objectification. Unlike Aubrey et al. (2009), we also showed images of women to men to determine whether priming objectification of women impacted self-objectification and gender role conflict in men. Based on the current literature, we hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 1: Women who view the images with low objectification of women will report lower levels of self-objectification than those who view images of women with high objectification.

Hypothesis 2: Men who view the images with low objectification of women will report lower levels of self-objectification than those who view images of women with high objectification.

Hypothesis 3: Men who view the images of low objectification of women will report higher levels of gender role conflict than those who view images with high objectification.

Method

Participants

In total, 187 students from Georgia Southern University completed the study, including 55 male and 127 female participants. Three participants in this study identified as transgender, and two did not indicate their gender. These five participants were removed from the dataset so that only those identifying as male or female were used in the analysis, leaving a total of 182

participants. The self-reported race of participants was Caucasian/White ($n = 113$; 62.1%), African American/Black ($n = 48$; 26.4%), Hispanic/Latino ($n = 8$; 4.4%), Asian/Pacific Islander ($n = 2$; 1.1%), Native American/American Indian ($n = 1$; .5%), and multiracial/identifying with more than one race ($n = 9$; 4.9%). One participant stated that they prefer not to report their race. The majority of participants identified as heterosexual ($n = 163$; 89.6%) while 10.4% identified as gay/lesbian ($n = 4$; 2.2%), bisexual ($n = 9$; 4.9%), and “don’t know/unsure” ($n = 4$; 2.2%). Two participants stated they prefer not to report their sexual orientation (1.1%). All participants were treated ethically and received course credit for participation in this study.

Measures

Gender-Role Conflict Scale (GRCS). The GRCS was developed by Dr. James M. O’Neil. It is a 6-point Likert scale designed to measure negative conflict that results from gender roles in regard to (1) success, power, and competition; (2) restrictive emotionality; (3) restrictive affectionate behavior between men; and (4) conflict between work and family (Schwartz et al., 2010). Prior to the current study, the GRCS was only written for men. With permission, we created a gender-neutral version by removing gender-specific pronouns. Our gender-neutral version was administered to all participants using the same wording. Across a number of studies, the GRCS has shown good internal consistency as well as appropriate factor and scale intercorrelations (see O’Neil, 2014 for a review).

Self-Objectification Questionnaire. Using the Self-Objectification Questionnaire developed by Dr. Barbara L. Fredrickson, we asked participants to rank order a list of 10 body attributes based on the impact they believe the attributes have on their physical self-concept (with the greatest impact rated as 9 and least impact rated as 0). Five of the qualities on the questionnaire are based physical appearance, and five are based on physical competence

(Fredrickson et al., 1998). Scores for the Self-Objectification Questionnaire are were obtained separating the appearance items and competence items and summing the scores of the two categories. The sum of the competence ranks was then subtracted from the sum of appearance ranks to obtain the overall self-objectification score. According to Noll and Fredrickson (1998), the Self-Objectification Questionnaire shows good construct validity as indicated by moderate correlations with assessments of body image and appearance anxiety.

Procedure

Using a similar design to that of the Aubrey et al. (2009), we pulled images of women from advertisements featured in popular men's and women's magazines (e.g., Glamour, Cosmopolitan, GQ). All advertisements were presented in black and white with all brand names cropped or blurred. The images used were pulled from a previous class assignment in Psychology of Human Sexuality during which students were presented with 23 images and asked to rate them on a scale of 1-10, with 1 indicating *not objectified at all* and 10 indicating *very objectified*. Chosen images were the 5 rated as the most objectified and the 5 rated as the least objectified, with images matched on how much of the woman's body was shown (see Appendix A).

This study took place fully online with participants randomly assigned to one of two groups: low or high objectification. Upon beginning the experiment, participants answered a short questionnaire asking for basic information about their interest in magazines (see Appendix B). Participants were then presented with the five images that corresponded with their assigned condition. To insure that the participant spent an adequate time looking at each image, they were asked to answer the following short open-ended questions about each picture: "In what type of magazine do you think this photo would be found?" and "What type of product do you think this

photo is advertising?” They were informed that these questions were a matter of opinion and that there was no right or wrong answer.

After answering the questionnaire and viewing the images, participants were directed to the Gender Role Conflict Scale and the Self-Objectification Questionnaire. After completing those two measures, they completed a short demographic survey (see Appendix C).

Results

The data were analyzed using a 2 X 2 (gender X level of objectification), between-groups MANOVA. The total score for self-objectification was used as a dependent variable as well as each subscale of the GRCS and the total GRCS score. Below, significant interactions between gender and condition were analyzed using LSD mean comparisons ($p < .05$).

Self-Objectification

Participant gender related with ratings of self-objectification, $F(1, 178) = 6.13, p = .014$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Overall, women reported higher self-objectification ($M = 3.27, SD = 13.09, n = 127$) than men ($M = -1.69, SD = 11.86, n = 55$). Condition did not significantly affect self-objectification ratings, $F(1, 178) = .28, p = .598$. Overall, participants who viewed images with low objectification reported similar levels of self-objectification ($M = 1.69, SD = 13.63, n = 85$) than those who viewed images with high objectification ($M = 1.84, SD = 12.30, n = 97$). Gender and condition failed to interact to affect self-objectification ratings, $F(1, 178) = 1.46, p = .229$.

GRCS: Total

Participant gender related with ratings of overall gender role conflict, $F(1, 178) = 6.44, p = .012$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. Overall, men reported higher overall gender role conflict ($M = 125.65, SD = 19.92, n = 55$) than women ($M = 116.78, SD = 22.73, n = 127$). Condition did not significantly affect overall gender role conflict ratings, $F(1, 178) = 1.15, p = .284$. Overall,

participants who viewed images with low objectification reported similar levels of self-objectification ($M = 120.96$, $SD = 22.43$, $n = 85$) to those who viewed images with high objectification ($M = 118.14$, $SD = 22.11$, $n = 97$). Gender and condition failed to interact to affect overall gender role conflict ratings, $F(1, 178) = .57$, $p = .452$.

GRCS: Success, Power, Competition

Participant gender related with ratings on the success, power, competition subscale of the GRCS, $F(1, 178) = 4.04$, $p = .046$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$. In this subscale, men reported higher gender role conflict ($M = 48.87$, $SD = 8.11$, $n = 55$) than women ($M = 46.37$, $SD = 8.59$, $n = 127$). Condition also related with rating on this subscale of the GRCS, $F(1, 178) = 7.52$, $p = .007$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. Overall, participants who viewed images with low objectification reported higher levels of gender role conflict ($M = 48.41$, $SD = 8.11$, $n = 85$) than those who viewed images with high objectification ($M = 46.00$, $SD = 8.60$, $n = 97$).

Gender and condition interacted to affect gender role conflict ratings on this subscale, $F(1, 178) = 5.67$, $p = .018$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Among men, those who viewed images with low objectification ($M = 52.46$, $SD = 5.89$, $n = 26$) scored higher on the Success, Power, Competition subscale than those who viewed images with high objectification ($M = 45.66$, $SD = 8.11$, $n = 29$). However, among women, those who viewed images with low objectification ($M = 46.63$, $SD = 8.35$, $n = 59$) scored similarly to those who viewed images with high objectification ($M = 46.15$, $SD = 8.85$, $n = 68$). Among images with low objectification, men scored higher on the Success, Power, Competition subscale of the GRCS than women. However, among images with high objectification, men and women scored similarly on this subscale (see Figure 1).

GRCS: Restrictive Emotionality

Participant gender related with ratings on the restrictive emotionality subscale of the GRCS, $F(1, 178) = 8.26, p = .005$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. In this subscale, men reported higher overall gender role conflict ($M = 27.05, SD = 7.38, n = 55$) than women ($M = 23.62, SD = 13.09, n = 127$). Condition did not significantly affect gender role conflict ratings in this subscale, $F(1, 178) = .00, p = .972$. Overall, participants who viewed images with low objectification reported similar levels of self-objectification ($M = 24.65, SD = 7.55, n = 85$) to those who viewed images with high objectification ($M = 24.67, SD = 7.48, n = 97$). Gender and condition failed to interact to affect gender role conflict ratings on this subscale, $F(1, 178) = .00, p = .992$.

GRCS: Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men- Homophobia

Participant gender related with ratings on the Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men subscale of the GRCS, $F(1, 178) = 8.26, p = .055$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. In this subscale, men reported higher overall gender role conflict ($M = 27.05, SD = 7.38, n = 55$) than women ($M = 23.62, SD = 7.33, n = 127$). Condition did not significantly affect gender role conflict ratings in this subscale, $F(1, 178) = .00, p = .972$. Overall, participants who viewed images with low objectification reported similar levels of gender role conflict ($M = 24.65, SD = 7.55, n = 85$) to those who viewed images with high objectification ($M = 24.67, SD = 7.48, n = 97$). Gender and condition failed to interact to affect gender role conflict ratings on this subscale, $F(1, 178) = .00, p = .992$.

GRCS: Conflicts between Work and Leisure- Family Relations

Participant gender did not relate with ratings on the Conflicts between Work and Leisure subscale of the GRCS, $F(1, 178) = .35, p = .558$, partial $\eta^2 = .002$. On this subscale, women reported similar levels of gender role conflict ($M = 23.17, SD = 5.38, n = 127$) to men ($M = 22.67, SD = 5.87, n = 55$). Condition did not significantly affect gender role conflict ratings in

this subscale, $F(1, 178) = .08, p = .775$. Overall, participants who viewed images with low objectification reported similar levels of gender role conflict ($M = 23.26, SD = 5.52, n = 85$) to those who viewed images with high objectification ($M = 22.80, SD = 5.53, n = 97$). Gender and condition failed to interact to affect gender role conflict ratings on this subscale, $F(1, 178) = .32, p = .570$.

Discussion

We began this study with three hypotheses: that (1) women and (2) men would report higher self-objectification after viewing images of highly objectified women than women with low objectification, and that (3) men who viewed the images of low objectification of women would report higher levels of gender role conflict than those who viewed images with high objectification. To test our first two hypotheses, we needed to show a main effect of condition for self-objectification. To test our third hypothesis, we needed to show an interaction for gender role conflict.

Self-Objectification

We did not find support for either Hypothesis 1 or Hypothesis 2; that is, whether women or men viewed images with high or low objectification did not affect their self-objectification. For women, we speculate that this result may be related to the notion that the women in all of the images could be perceived as conventionally attractive. If this is the case, even the images with low objectification could still have caused the women in this study to self-objectify. Aubrey et al. (2009), state that although some women in the media may not conform to the physical standards of attractiveness, they can still be objectified. In this same manner, a woman may be physically attractive, but not necessarily portrayed in a sexually objectifying way in the strict interpretation of the word. In future studies, measuring how attractive versus sexually objectified participants

perceive the women in the images to be could help address this hypothesis directly and insure that any increase in self-objectification is due to exposure to objectified images as opposed to attractiveness.

For men, we speculate that it is possible that seeing images of women does not trigger self-objectification as seeing images of other men. Previous research supports that when men are exposed to hyper masculinized images of other men they report a decrease in body dissatisfaction (Baird & Grieve, 2006). A good follow-up study to the present one would be to show men images of men with different levels of objectification. Although our first two hypotheses were not supported, we did find a main effect of gender on self-objectification such that women were more likely to self-objectify than men regardless of the pictures they saw. In our culture, women are more often the subject of objectifying treatment than men in both interpersonal encounters and mass media (Fredrickson et al., 1998). According to Fredrickson and Roberts (1997), when women are exposed to sexually objectified images and messages, they begin to take on an observer's view of themselves. A strong predictor of women's self-objectification is media consumption through a wide array of genres (Tiggemann & Slater, 2015). The present study used images from magazine advertisements, which barely scratches the surface of the media to which women are exposed every day. With the rising popularity of Internet-based media and social-networking platforms, women are being exposed to more societal expectations for how they should look and act than ever before. Although isolated effects of media priming such as those experienced in the present study are generally short term, the repeated exposure to objectified images can cause these effects to occur often and regularly (Aubrey et al., 2009).

Gender Role Conflict

We found partial support for Hypothesis 3. Specifically, for the Success, Power, Competition subscale of the GRCS, we found an interaction between gender and condition such that men reported higher gender role conflict in this area such than men who viewed images of low objectification. scored higher on the “Success, Power, Competition” subscale than those who viewed images of high objectification, whereas women scored similar on this subscale across conditions.

There are a few possible explanations for this significant interaction. Items on the Success, Power, Competition subscale include factors by which men value themselves in relation to others (e.g., “I like to feel superior to other people” and “I evaluate other people’s values by their level of achievement and success”). Of the five images with low objectification, two of the women are dressed professionally. Previous research supports that men who view images of women presented in a sexually objectified manner are more likely to engage in stereotypical sex role behavior and are more likely to be more accepting of violence against women than those who viewed progressive images of women (Lanis & Covell, 1995). Perhaps in the current study, the men who viewed the images of professionally dressed women perceived the women to be more successful than them and therefore viewed these women as threats to their masculinity. Further study is needed to tests these assumptions. It would be advantageous in future research to include more images of professionally dressed women in the stimuli. Perhaps three conditions could be examined: high objectification, low objectification, and professionally dressed low objectification.

Recall that for this study, we created a gender-neutral version of the GRCS. Using this new version of the scale with both men and women, we found a main effect of gender such that

men scored higher on the GRCS total score as well as all subscales with the exception of the Conflicts between Work and Leisure - Family Relations subscale. Recall that gender role conflict occurs when a man feels distressed about the disconnect between how society dictates he should behave and how he wants to behave (e.g., wanting to expressing emotion but feeling that this is not a “manly” thing to do; O’Neil, 2008). Although we adapted the GRCS to contain gender-neutral pronouns, all of the items on the GRCS are based on stereotypical male attitudes and behaviors. It is not surprising that women would not feel internal conflict with the need to conform to these behaviors when that is not what is typically expected of them in society. Currently, there is not a comparable version of the GRCS that accesses gender role conflict in women based on stereotypical female attitudes and behaviors. In future studies, more work needs to be done to examine the role that viewing objectified images of women could have on the conflict that women may have as they struggle to conform to our society’s traditional gender scripts. For example, we need to understand why the Family Relations subscale did not show a gender difference. Items on this subscale include “My work or school often disrupts other parts of my life (home, health, leisure)” and “I feel torn between my hectic work schedule and caring for my health” (O’Neil, 1986). Perhaps in general, college males do not yet experience conflict in between their workload and family life since many of them have not yet started a family of their own.

Limitations and Future Directions

Several limitations could have affected the results of the study. First, although structuring the study in an online format allowed a large number of participants, we do not know the type of environment in which the participants took the survey. The researchers had no control over any additional confounds that could have affected the results. Second, although questions were

provided to prompt participants to spend time looking at each image, researchers could not directly control the amount of time participants spent studying each image. Third, it may have been advantageous to measure self-objectification and gender role conflict of the participants before they viewed the images so that we could have had a baseline comparison for each participant before and after manipulation. Random assignment should have distributed error variance equally across conditions, but the only way to know for sure would be to measure these variables.

It is not a limitation of the current study, but in retrospect we feel that this study would have greatly benefited from the addition of images of men to the stimuli. Although men are not as often the target of objectification treatment in media as women are, there are still many pressures that exist for them to have the ideal masculine body shape: wide shoulders, a larger upper body, and a flat abdomen (Schwartz et al., 2010). The lack of presence of these men's images in the present study could account for insufficient findings in areas of male self-objectification as well as gender role conflict.

Finally, the results of this study could have been different if we had created a female version of the GRCS rather than using gender-neutral pronouns. Although the current GRCS developed by O'Neil (1986) thoroughly assesses men's gender role conflict through especially masculine attitudes and behaviors, it lacks the ability to assess women's conflict, as they may struggle with the concept of conforming to traditionally feminine behaviors (e.g., being kind, showing emotions, getting married and having children) but not traditionally masculine behaviors. A substantial amount of work needs to be done to examine the potential effect of objectified images of women on their personal gender role conflict.

Conclusion

The results of the present study suggest that magazine advertisements with both objectified and conventionally attractive female models prime female college students to self-objectify more than men. Additionally, viewing images of women with low objectification leads to higher levels of gender role conflict in men in relation to success, power, and competition, which means they have more internal stress about conforming to traditionally masculine behaviors and attitudes when presented with a woman outside the “norms” of mass media. Although this area of study is rich with previous research, we suggest that several holes in the literature still exist; most notably, the lack of a measure of gender role conflict in women.

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Figures

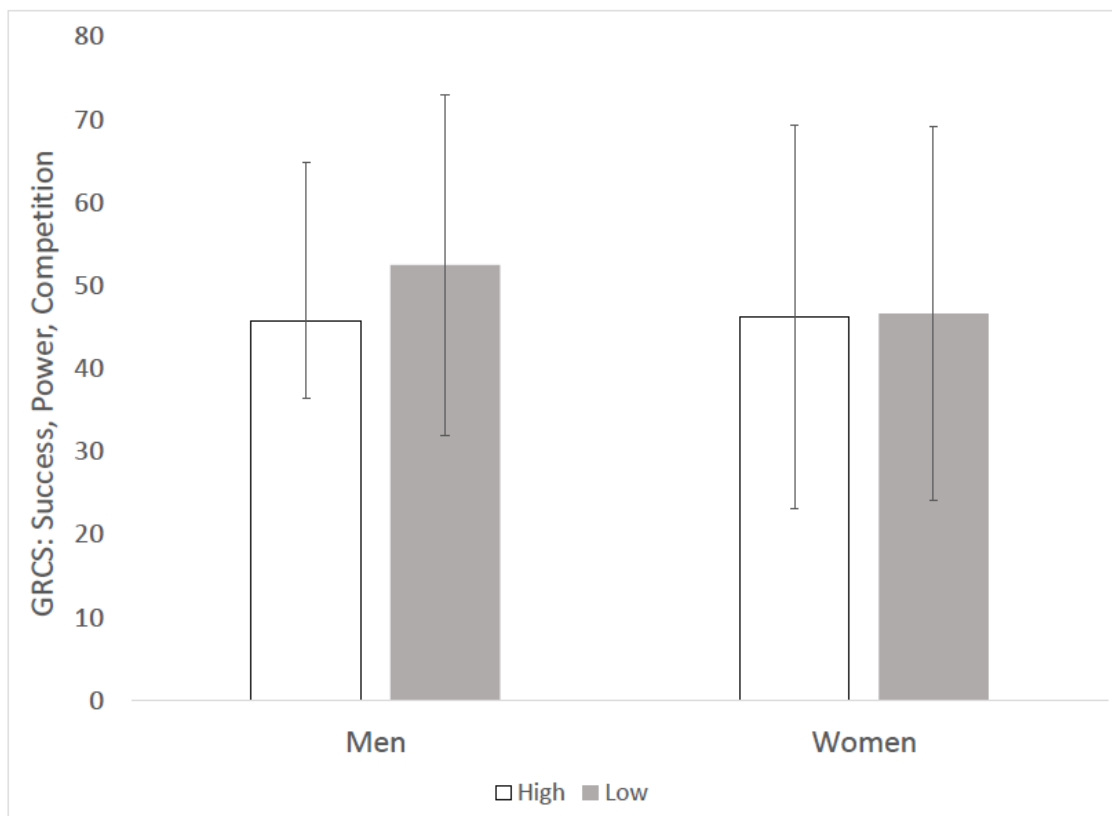


Figure 1. There was a main effect of condition on men's score on the Success, Power, Competition subscale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale such that those who viewed images of women with low objectification scored higher than those who viewed images with high objectification. Error bars represent *SD*.

Appendix A

Stimulus Images

High Objectification:



Low Objectification:



For each of these images participants were asked:

1. What type of magazine do you think this photo would be found in?
2. What type of product do you think this photo is advertising?

Appendix B

Magazine Questionnaire

We are interested in assessing magazine usage of college students. Please select one response for each of the questions below:

1. How often (on average) do you read magazines?
 - a. Every day
 - b. 3-6 times a week
 - c. Once a week
 - d. Once a month
 - e. Less than once a month

2. What type of magazines do you like to read?
 - a. Art and Photography
 - b. Auto and Cycles
 - c. Business and Finance
 - d. Food and Drink
 - e. Entertainment
 - f. Health and Fitness
 - g. Music
 - h. Sports and Recreation
 - i. News
 - j. Other

3. In the past 6 months, how many magazines have you purchased?
 - a. None
 - b. 1-2
 - c. 3-4
 - d. 5 or greater

4. Are you currently subscribed to any magazines?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

Appendix C

Demographics

For each of the following items, please select the answer with which you most closely identify.

1. Sex/Gender:
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
 - c. Transgender
 - d. Prefer not to respond

2. Sexual Orientation:
 - a. Heterosexual
 - b. Gay/Lesbian
 - c. Bisexual
 - d. Don't know/Unsure
 - e. Other _____
 - f. Prefer not to respond

3. Race/Ethnicity:
 - a. African American/Black
 - b. Asian/Pacific Islander
 - c. Hispanic/Latino
 - d. Multiracial
 - e. Native American/American Indian
 - f. White
 - g. Not Listed (please specify) _____
 - h. Prefer not to respond

4. Age:
 - a. Under 18
 - b. 18-19
 - c. 20-21
 - d. 22-24
 - e. 25 and above

5. Class status:
 - a. First year
 - b. Sophomore
 - c. Junior
 - d. Senior