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How the exposure to idealized advertisement affect young women's self-esteem and body satisfaction: testing for the influence of lifestyle

Master Thesis within Business Administration

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Abstract

Eating disorders and low self-esteem among young women is a growing concern in today's society. Due to this growing concern, this subject has been given a lot of attention both in media and through academic research during recent years. One area that has been highly criticized and examined is the idealized ideals often presented in media and advertisement today. These ideals can, according to literature, harm young women due to social comparison with these idealized images. According to previous research, this social comparison can have a negative effect on both self-esteem and body satisfaction. Research also show that continued exposure to such ideals can lead to internalization of thin and beauty ideals, which in turn is proven to be a strong predictor for these images negative affect on self-esteem and body satisfaction. Because of these findings and the critique of these ideals in media, this is an important subject to study both because of the ethical concerns with continuing to reinforce these ideals in advertisement, and from a society's perspective in order to learn who might need extra protection in order to not be harmed by these ideals. Therefore, this study will firstly examine if we can see a negative effect on high school student's self-esteem and body satisfaction, after being exposed to idealized images (in our case thin-models). Our study will also examine, in a second part, if we can see, depending on the lifestyle of the students, if some girls are more vulnerable than others to the exposure of idealized images. The second part of the study will contribute with information of which young women that need extra protection and attention to not develop low self-esteem due to the pressure of living up to the ideals.

The method of our study is mostly of a deductive nature since this is an extensively researched topic, where pre-established methods and theories can be found. However, as the second part of the study has not been previous research this part will use a combination of deductive and inductive strategy. To collect the primary data an experimental design is used, with pre-established measurements for self-esteem and body satisfaction. Moreover, statements regarding the participant's lifestyle are constructed with the help of AIOs lifestyle questionnaire as an inspiration. The experiment processes consists of two steps. First, the participants are exposed to two images, either thin-model images, normal sized woman images, or control images (which is images without any persons in it). After the exposure, the participants are asked to answer the questionnaire consisting of the self-esteem measurement, the body satisfaction measurement, and the lifestyle statements. The first part of our study did not show any sign of the thin-model image having any effect on the participant's self-esteem or body satisfaction. However, we found a significant difference between the girls of 15-17 years old and those who were 18-20 years old self-esteem and body satisfaction means. Where the girls 15-17 scored significantly lower in both. Our conclusion of these findings is that there still is a high internalization of unhealthy thin and beauty ideals especially among the younger girls. Therefore, idealized media still is harmful for these girls since they are reinforcing and contributing to these ideals in society. For the second part of the study, we found a significant difference between the Party lifestyle group and the Sport lifestyle group's self-esteem, where the Party Lifestyle group had a significantly lower self-esteem than the Sport lifestyle group. Further, we could also see a connection throw-out all of our results between self-esteem and body satisfaction, where those who scored low in self-esteem most often also scored low in body satisfaction and the other way around. This finding showed us that those with a party lifestyle are more vulnerable to idealized media exposure in that way that they are more likely to internalize unhealthy beauty and thin ideals.

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1 Introduction

In this introductory chapter you as a reader will get an overview of the thesis topic. The problem and purpose of this study will also be stated in this chapter.

Eating disorders and low self-esteem among young women has been a growing concern during recent years, especially in the western society. Research indicates that self-esteem generally drops to a larger extent for girls than for boys during pre-adolescence and adolescence (Moksnes & Espnes, 2012). One often mentioned explanation for this is the pressure put on girls to be thin and beautiful (e.g. Martin & Gentry, 1997). Moreover, studies show that the risk for girls compared to boys to develop eating disorders is two and a half times greater, and that eating disorders are most often developed during the adolescence years (Nimh.nih.gov, 2015). Another big part of this debate is how media and advertising is contributing to these concerns. The unrealistic media images of how a woman should look like are proven in repeated studies to affect young women's self-esteem and body satisfaction (e.g Botta, 2003; Hogg & Fragou, 2003; and Clay, Vignoles & Dittmar, 2005). These idealized images are thought, by many researchers, to be a part of what is creating and reinforcing the cultural perception of how a woman should look like and are thus contributing to the cultural pressure of what is a socially acceptable level of attractiveness among girls today (e.g. Martin & Kennedy, 1993). With all this in mind, it is not hard to understand why this debate raise a lot of ethical concerns and why companies and media has received a lot of critique due to these concerns.

As this subject has received a lot of media attention in recent years, this has resulted in a lot of academic attention as well. The question about if and how idealized media images and advertisements affect women's self-esteem and body satisfaction has been a popular research topic, both within the psychology, health, and the marketing field. Argued by repeated researchers, is that the exposure to idealized appearance in advertisement and media, can contribute and cause lowered self-esteem and even depression and eating disorders (e.g. Groesz, Levine & Murnen, 2001; Becker, Burwell, Gilman, Herzog, & Hamburg, 2002; and Engeln-Maddox, 2005). Social comparison theory is one theory that has been used to explain this effect of idealized images on young women. According to Hogg and Fragou (2003) idealized advertising images is a common source of social comparison among young women, and the exposure to such images is a great contributor to the internalization of thin ideals among young women, which in turn can lead to decreased body satisfaction and lowered self-esteem. Further, according to their research, depending on if the goal of the social comparison is self-evaluation, self-enhancement, or self-improvement; the advertisements can have different effect on the girls' self-esteem. Thus, depending on the goal of the social comparison, the exposure to idealized images can both have a negative or a positive effect on the self-esteem. Adding to this, Martin and Gentry (1997) suggests that the motives of social comparison with media images, is something that can have an effect on how girls are affected by media exposure. Thus according to their research, exposure to idealized images can both be negative or positive depending on the goal or motive of the comparison with the image. Other research states that the exposure to thin-model images, affects different age groups differently. When testing for girls between 11-16 years old, the older girls between 15-16 years old generally had a lower self-esteem and body satisfaction after being exposed to such advertisements compared to those between 11-14 years old (Clay et al., 2005).

As you can see, a lot of research is made on if and how media exposure affects young woman's self-esteem and body satisfaction. Moreover, research on how young women are affected differently by the exposure of idealized images is evident in literature. Most research found, groups the girls that are subject for the research by age. Some further attempts are made, for example as mentioned earlier, by testing if the goal and motive when looking at media images, can affect the outcome of the exposure (Hogg & Fragou, 2003; and Martin & Gentry, 1997). Thus, explaining that the goal and motive of social comparison in relation to media images affect how the person exposed to the images are affected. However, what we find missing in the extensive research made is why different groups of women are affected differently by the media exposure. In the research by Hogg and Fragou (2003) they suggest, to add to their research on goals' influences on girls' vulnerability to idealized media exposure, to test for the effect of cultural factors. Hence, to see if depending on their culture, young women might have different goals of taking in media and therefore be affected differently. We find this kind of research, testing for girls with different psychographic characteristics to be important; firstly for marketers to know, when targeting young women, who might be more vulnerable to the exposure than others. Secondly, from a social perspective, to understand which young woman that might need extra support and protection from the constant media exposure of today's society. Moreover, since most of the research conducted of the effect idealized media exposure has on self-esteem and body satisfaction is conducted outside Sweden, we find it interesting to see if a similar study conducted in Sweden show on any differences compared to these studies.

1.1 Perspective and contribution

Our research is conducted from the consumers' perspectives: who frequently in their everyday life are being exposed to media images showing idealized body images and appearances. The research also contributes from a society perspective since it creates an understanding of how young women in different ways can be vulnerable to this kind of exposure and in which ways different groups of young women might be more vulnerable than others. This research will be a contribution to the existing research, as it will provide possible explanations to why some people might have different goals or motivations when taking in advertisements, and thus might be affected in different ways. Our research also strives to help companies and organizations understand how appearance-related advertisements affect young female consumers. We consider there to be two major reasons for why this is important for companies. Firstly, the ethical issues concerning health problems, which can lead to depression and eating disorders for these young women. Secondly, this kind of marketing can have an unwanted negative effect on brand attachment and brand loyalty (Malär, Krohmer, Hoyer, & Nyffenegger, 2011). This research may help organizations to prevent harming vulnerable women's self-esteem and therefore prevent negative brand attachment.

In our study AIOs (activities, interests, and opinions) are used for grouping purposes in order to divide the participants in to different lifestyle groups based on their demographics, activities, interests, and opinions (Sathish & Rajamohan, 2012). The main reason for testing for lifestyle factors in our study is that lifestyle factors often are used in marketing to reach different groups (lifestyle marketing). Further lifestyles are a determinant for peoples purchase behavior (Sathish & Rajamohan, 2012), and thus we predict that it is something that can affect how consumers relate to and take in different types of media. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, no such research has been conducted and we therefore contribute by filling a gap in the existing academic literature.

1.2 Purpose

The purpose of this study is divided in to two parts. Firstly, the purpose is to examine in what way the exposure to idealized media images has an effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction among young women in Sweden. This part of the research will be examined through a strategy of deductive nature, where pre-established measurements and methods are used to test hypothesis concerning the effect idealized media exposure has on self-esteem and body satisfaction among young women.

Secondly, we will examine if different lifestyle factors can be a predictor for young women's vulnerability to the exposure of idealized media images. To do this, we will determine different lifestyle groups that exist among young women today, buy using AIO lifestyle segmentation statements. Further, we will test if these lifestyle groups differ in how and if, their self-esteem and body satisfaction is affected by the exposure to idealized media images. Hence, determine if some girls, depending on their lifestyle are more vulnerable to idealized image exposure, compared to others. As this part of the study is not previously research and no pre-established measurements and methods for examine this are established, this part of the study will take a more inductive form.

1.2.1 Research questions

For the first part of the study:

RQ1: In what way does the exposure to idealized media images affects young women's self-esteem and body satisfaction?

For the second part of the study:

RQ2: How can Lifestyle factors be a predictor for young women's vulnerability to the exposure of idealized media images?

2 Methodology

In this chapter, you as a reader will get an understanding of this study's strategic approach, research method, data presentation, and analysis. Further the experimental process together with limitations and ethical implications of the method will be presented.

2.1 Research design

The research design of this study will work as a framework for how our research will be conducted, and further it will explain how we will go about to answer our hypotheses and research question. We will explain the research strategy, research design classification, data collection process, as well as the research approach in order to give the big picture of how our research is formed and conducted.

2.1.1 Research strategy

Since our research questions are of a somewhat different nature, our research strategy is divided in to two different parts. Hence, one part of the strategy is implemented in order to answer the first research question and another to be able to answer the second research question. For the first part of the study, in order to answer the first research question, the research strategy takes on a deductive form. This part of the strategy is chosen since media's effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction has been extensively researched during recent years, and therefore both well-established theories and pre-existing measurements can be found. A deductive strategy is defined by Park and Allaby (2013), in *A Dictionary of Environment and Conservation*, as "Reasoning from the general to the particular, for example by developing a hypothesis based on theory and then testing it from an examination of facts". We find this type of strategy appropriate for this part of the study as we both have well-established theories to formulate hypotheses based on and pre-existing measurements to be able to test these hypotheses. The specific type of deductive reasoning which we find appropriate for this part of the study is called hypothetical-deductive reasoning. This strategy has as the deductive strategy, its foundation in general theory from which hypotheses are formed and predictions are made. These hypotheses are then examined by the use of experiments to test whether the hypotheses are confirmed or disconfirmed (Schwandt, 2007). Hence, the first of our research questions will be further formulated in to two hypotheses based on the theoretical framework in chapter three. Moreover, pre-existing measurements and experimental methods will be used to test these hypotheses. The analysis of the data will be based on existing and established theories (Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

For the second part of the study, there is not that extensive previous research to be found. Since the specific topic has not been researched before there are no pre-existing measurements and methods for examining this. Therefore, this part of the research will be of a more inductive nature. However, some applicable theories do exist, for example on lifestyle segmentation and more general lifestyle research, and thus this part of the strategy is not entirely inductive but also partly deductive. Inductive reasoning starts with an observed issue that the researcher wants to investigate, as opposite to for deduction reasoning where the issue is formulated based on theory (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Thus, as our second research question is based on a gap in the existing literature, we find inductive reasoning to be more applicable to this part of the study. Moreover, according to Malhotra & Birks, (2006) in inductive research, data is often collected through qualitative approaches such as observations, in-depth interviews, or focus groups, and are analyzed through model

development rather than by an existing theoretical framework. However, since theory for examining people's lifestyles can be found, this part will be of a more deductive nature where a quantitative data collection method will be used. However, the division of the participants in to different lifestyle groups has not been done before in relation to this subject, therefore this second part of the study will lean towards an inductive reasoning. The testing of the conducted data will be through a combination of pre-existing theory and model-development and the analysis of the findings will be through the eyes of existing theories.

Since the bigger part of our research is following a deductive reasoning, the foundation of the research lay in an existing well-established theoretical framework, in the form of previous measurements and theories stated in chapter three. As an outcome of this strategic choice, we developed hypothesis based on previous research for the first research question. Moreover, after collecting the data we draw conclusions from our empirical data by connecting it to the pre-existing literature and theories. Since this thesis is dealing with abstract concepts such as self-esteem and body-image, it is important to have a strong foundation. Thus, this part of the study is of a deductive nature with an extensive theoretical framework and pre-established measuring instruments. These strategic choices are preferable to us in order to analyze the results in a correct and reliable way. Therefore, this strategic choice strengthens our conclusions since it gives power to our findings. The second part of the study, which takes on a more inductive reasoning for testing the research question, is undertaken to be able to develop new measurements and to establish potential lifestyle factors that can have an effect on girls' vulnerability to media exposure. Thus, this inductive reasoning enables us to develop new methods and realize new factors in order to answer our research question. However, since this too is touching a rather abstract concept (lifestyle), we believe that using previous theories and measurements to the extent that is possible, strengthens the reliability of our findings. Thus, the second part of the study will be mainly, but not entirely inductive.

2.1.2 Research design classification

The research design for our study is also looking somewhat different for the different parts of the study. The reason for this separation is in order to answer the different research questions. The research design for the first part of our study is of a conclusive nature. A conclusive research design is used to describe phenomenon, to test specific hypothesis and to examine specific relationships (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Conclusive research design is characterized by the information needed to be clearly defined and the research to be structured and pre-planned, in contrast to exploratory research design that is more flexible and loose in its structure (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Thus, a conclusive research is the most suitable option when implementing a deductive strategy and therefore also for the first part of our study.

Moreover, a conclusive research design can be further divided in to either descriptive or causal research design. A casual research design aims to determine; the nature of relationships between variables; the predicted effects of these relationships; and to test specific hypothesis. Thus, the first part of the study will be of a conclusive, casual research nature as this part of the research is highly focused on describing the cause and effect of the specific relationships. Moreover, the main method for causal research is experimentation as the causal or independent variables need to be manipulated in a somewhat controlled environment. This is in order to control for other variables affecting the dependent variable and therefore avoid errors (e.g. Unnava, Burnkrant & Erevelles, 1994). Thus, a conclusive, casual research design

is a suitable design for this part of the research since we want to test the relationship of whether idealized media images affect young women's self-esteem and body satisfaction. As this is a sensitive subject to investigate, we find a controlled experimental method to be an appropriate choice. Experiment is further the most suitable choice for this topic as the effect media has on women can be unconscious matter for most people and thus be hard to investigate in any other way.

The second part of our research takes on a more exploratory research design from the start, as the subject has not previously been researched. A research can start up as exploratory if the subject is under-researched in order to come up with hypothesis and research problem and then take a conclusive form later on (Malhotra and Birks, 2006). Thus, the exploratory research design is firstly implemented in order to formulate the research question. Moreover, an exploratory research design is implemented to develop a method for examining the research question (Malhotra and Birks, 2006). After developing a method to examine the research question, the research design for the second part of the study will take on a more conclusive research design. A conclusive research design is implemented in order to confirm the findings by examining specific relationships (Malhotra and Birks, 2006). The conclusive research design used for this part of the study is a descriptive conclusive research design, since the purpose of this part of the study is to describe “How can Lifestyle factors be a predictor for young women’s vulnerability to the exposure of idealized media images?”. Descriptive research design is as the name implies, more focused toward describe specific market characteristics and functions (Malhotra & Birks, 2006), and therefore suitable for this part of the study. Moreover, the descriptive research design used for the data collection is a cross-sectional design, meaning that the information needed is collected from any given sample of the population only once (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). The conclusive part of the research design differs from the exploratory design implemented in the beginning, because it requires the formulation of a research question as well as the information needed to be clearly defined, and further the design to be structured and pre-planned.

2.1.3 Data collection

To be able to investigate how young women are affected by idealized appearances in media together with specifying their lifestyles, both secondary and primary data will be collected and analyzed. To collect the primary data for this study an experiment is conducted, consisting of exposure to media images combined with a questionnaire using well-established measurements for self-esteem and body satisfaction (see Malhotra, & Birks, 2006; and Clay et al., 2005). The questionnaire also consists of a number of lifestyle questions to determine different lifestyle factors among the participants. All this will be further explained in the second part of this chapter.

The secondary data collected will be in form of a literature review, in order to find information to be able to analyze and interpret the results from our study. Literature review is an important part of a research as it helps to establish the importance of the subject as well as provide previous results within similar researches to compare with our findings (Creswell, 2014). Further, according to Boote and Beile (2005), good research is research that advances the collective understanding. In order to advance the collective understanding, it is important to know what previously has been done. Therefore, to be able to analyze our findings in a relevant way, an extensive literature review of previous research is conducted. Moreover, we have also used literature to find valid measurement for the construction of our experiment together with questionnaires, and to find methods for analyzing the results.

2.1.4 Approach

The main approaches often mentioned within marketing research are quantitative, qualitative, or mixed method approach. Quantitative research is characterized by large representative samples, where statistical conclusions can be drawn from the population. Qualitative research is characterized by smaller samples and a more open and flexible data collection process that often contributes to more richness of the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Qualitative research is recommended for research subjects where little research is done before, and thus the information needed is hard to identify on beforehand (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Further, qualitative research is often used in research that aim to explore such human behavior that can be hard to examine through quantitative measurements, e.g. exploring how consumer meanings are formed and to explore consumer experiences of products (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Quantitative research is recommended where the information needed is identified and where the research problem is clearly specified and there are clear hypothesis or research questions that aims to be tested (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). The main data collection methods for qualitative research are focus groups and in-depth interviews, whereas for quantitative research the most common data collection methods are questionnaires and experiments (Creswell, 2014).

Moreover, even though the two concepts; qualitative and quantitative, are defined separately and distinct from each other it can be difficult to conduct a study purely based on only one of the approaches separately (Punch, 1998). Even if the study is primarily of quantitative character, qualitative research may be needed in order to define the research problem, support the quantitative findings etc. (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Our primary research will consist of an experiment consisting of exposure to media images combined with a questionnaire; therefore, our study will be primary using quantitative data. Questionnaires with closed questions are quantitative in character (Creswell, 2014) and as you can see in *figure A*, use of primary quantitative data is the only data option treating data of such experimental character (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). The choice of quantitative data gives us the opportunity to collect a large amount of responses, which gives this study further power and opportunity to use statistical measurements in a valid way.

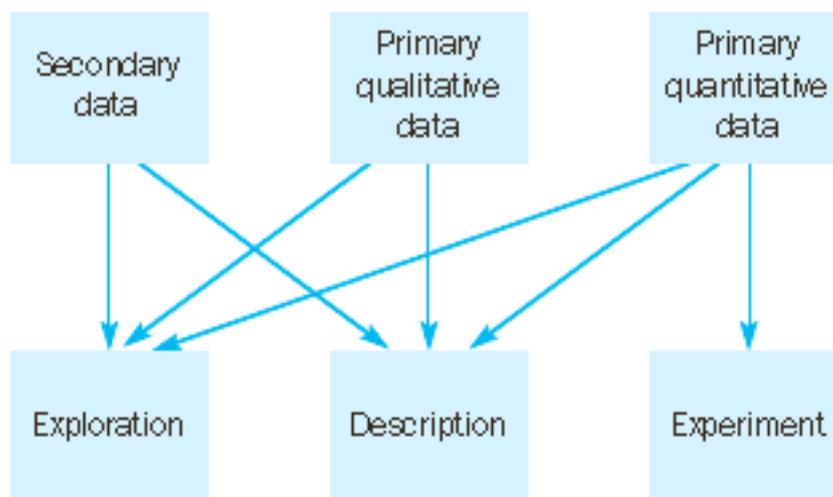


Figure A. Classification of research data (Malhotra & Birks, 2006, p.133).

Further, the main approach usually used for a conclusive research design, as previously established is the main research design of this study, is quantitative research. Moreover, the main quantitative research approach used for a casual conclusive research design is experimentation (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Hence, this is also the main approach chosen for this study. These methods are recommended for conclusive research as the information needed already is identified and because it allows for large samples where statistical conclusions can be drawn (Creswell, 2014). Hanson and Grimmer (2007), states in their research that one argument for why quantitative research is most often used in marketing research is because it allows for statistical measurements and generalizability to an extent that pure qualitative research cannot fulfill. Further, Punch (1998) argues that experimentation is a preferred quantitative research technique as it allows having control over dependent and independent variables affecting the results. Therefore, we have found a quantitative research approach to be suitable and fulfill the tasks we need to accomplish with our study.

2.2 Research method

The method to collect the primary data, is in form of an experimental design using the exposure of media images combined with measurements of body satisfaction, self-esteem, and lifestyle factors. The measurements used for self-esteem and body satisfaction are repeatedly tested in literature (see Rosenberg, 1965; and Brown, Cash, & Mikulka, 1990) and are recommended for these types of studies (e.g. Lennon et al., 1999; and Clay et al. 2005). The lifestyle measurement is inspired by the AIOs questionnaire by Wells and Tigert (1971) for lifestyle segmentation, but is less extensive and is adapted to fit the purpose of this research. The measurements will be conducted in form of a questionnaire that will be electronically handed out to the participants after the exposure of the media images. The questionnaire design will be further explained under the subheading 2.2.1. Moreover, as a part of the method for this study we will use statistical software in order to test the proposed relationship between media image exposure and its effect on perceived body-image and self-esteem (see RQ1), together with testing for lifestyle factors as a predictor for girls vulnerability to idealized media exposure (see RQ2).

The experimental design is developed in consistency with previous experimental studies using media image exposure to test its effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction (see Dittmar & Howard, 2004b; Dittmar & Howard, 2004; Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004; Lennon et al., 1999; and Clay et al. 2005). Further, the experiment design consists of three different experimental conditions. The different experimental conditions will be in form of three different “types” of media images; one thin model condition, one average sized women condition, and one no model image condition. Further, the images consist of two thin-model images, two average-sized woman image, and two images without any model (working as a control group). Thus, each condition will consist of two images. This number of images per experimental condition has been used before, and is recommended for this type of study (e.g. Dittmar & Howard, 2004; and Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004). The use of the control group (no model image) is in order to control for how the women feel about their body and self-esteem in the absence of appearances stimuli (Dittmar & Howard, 2004). The control images will be mainly in form of landscapes, also found in a magazine adds (Dittmar & Howard, 2004).

According to Halliwell and Dittmar (2004), many previous studies have used model images with both different body sizes and different variation in attractiveness. This, according to them, will make it unclear if it is the attractiveness or the body size of the model that is

affecting the self-esteem as well as body satisfaction. Thus, they recommend using the same model in both the thin and average-sized model image, and with the help of Photoshop (or other similar tool) alter the size of the model. However, because we find it to be too difficult to do this in a successful manner we will use models with as similar appearances as possible, but with differences in body size. The images used are taken from popular magazines here in Sweden, such as Elle, Veckorevyn and Cosmopolitan. The images are cut from their original place in advertisements in such a way that the information about the source is eliminated. This method is tested before and is recommended because it is a type of media images that the target group for the study is commonly exposed to (Martin & Gentry, 1997).

The model and landscape images chosen were scanned in to Adobe Photoshop in order to create new fictional advertisements (see Clay et al. 2005; and Dittmar & Howard, 2004b). The creation of fictional advertisements is suggested by previous research (see Dittmar & Howard, 2004; Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004; and Clay et al. 2005). This is in order to reduce the risk of the participants having pre-existing opinions about the ads they recognize, which in turn can affect the results of the stimuli. The advertisements for each experimental condition will be for two different products. The same two products and advertisement texts will be used in each condition (thin-model, average-sized woman and the control group). Both the text used and the name of the product will be fictional, and the same goes for all advertisements, in accordance with research by Dittmar and Howard (2004) and Halliwell and Dittmar (2004). The images can be seen in appendix 4, “experiment images”.

2.2.1 Questionnaire design

Existing well-established questionnaires will be used in this study, as a part of the quantitative deductive strategy, in order to measure self-esteem and body satisfaction. This since they are such complex concept and otherwise often difficult to measure in a correct and valid manner. There are existing questionnaires for segmenting AIOs as well, but these general questionnaires are of such broad character, and therefore we found them not suiting for our research topic. Therefore, we did not follow any complete existing questionnaire regarding AIO lifestyles. The three questionnaires were placed after each other in one electronic survey. The survey tool used was Qualtrics, and the JIBS logo was placed on the survey in order to create a simple and professional look (see figure B). The statements were translated into Swedish since all the participants are located in Sweden.

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Känn efter och svara så ärligt som möjligt på påståendet på skalan från "jag håller verkligen inte med" till "jag håller verkligen med"

	Jag håller verkligen inte med	Jag håller inte med	Jag håller med	Jag håller verkligen med
På det stora hela så är jag nöjd med mig själv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ibland så känner jag att jag inte duger som jag är	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Figure B. Questionnaire design.

2.2.1.1 Self-esteem

In order to collect and compare the participants' self-esteem, we have chosen to use the Rosenberg (1965) self-esteem scale. The scale is a four-point Likert scale where the participants are evaluating themselves by choosing to which extent they agree with certain statements concerning how they feel toward themselves. The scale ranges from strongly disagree, to disagree, to agree, to strongly agree. For some of the statements strongly agree have the score of 3 and strongly disagree have the score of 0, while for some of the statements strongly agree have the score of 0 and strongly disagree have the score of 3. The scale measures global self-esteem and are evaluated by combining the individual participants overall score. The score represent how high their self-esteem are; the higher their score are, the higher global self-esteem they have (Rosenberg, 1965). The possible combined self-esteem score range between 0 and 30. The main reason for our choice of questionnaire when measure self-esteem, is because the Rosenberg self-esteem scale is widely used within this subject, and known for its reliability and validity. The internal consistency of the scale (which measures reliability) is reported to be high at 0.77 to 0.88 (Rosenberg, 1965), e.g. Clay et al. (2005) who found their internal consistency to be 0.84. In our study, the internal consistency is 0.92. Rosenberg's self-esteem scale can be found in appendix 1.

2.2.1.2 Body satisfaction

For the data collection concerning body satisfaction, and thereby the evaluation of perceived body image, we chose to use the appearance evaluation subscale found in the multidimensional body-self relations questionnaire. This questionnaire was developed by Cash (Brown, Cash, & Mikulka, 1990) and consists of seven statements evaluated on a five-point Likert scale. The participants evaluates these statements from definitely disagree (1), to mostly disagree (2), to neither agree, nor disagree (3), to mostly agree (4), to definitely agree (5). For negative statements, the points are reversed. The level of body satisfaction is measured by combining the individual points for the statements into one final score. The higher the final score is, the higher the level of body satisfaction. The score can range between 7 and 35. The appearance evaluation subscale has, like Rosenbergs self-esteem scale, also been reported to be reliable and valid (Thompson, Penner, & Altabe, 1990), e.g. Muth and Cash (1997) found a high internal consistency of 0.88. The internal consistency in our study was found to be 0.927. The appearance subscale has been widely used for measuring of body satisfaction in studies similar to this (e.g. Lennon et al., 1999; Clay et al., 2005; and Engeln-Maddox, 2005). The appearance evaluation subscale of the multidimensional body-self relations questionnaire can be found in appendix 2.

2.2.1.3 AIO Lifestyles

There are already existing and tested questionnaires on the topic of lifestyles and AIOs approach, although they are quite extensive. One example is Wells and Tigert's (1971) AIO lifestyle questionnaire with 300 statements about activities, interests, opinions, and demographics. However, we found such questionnaires to be too general and not specific to our topic. Therefore, we chose to not use any complete and existing questionnaire. Furthermore, since there are no single correct rules for how an AIO questionnaire should be constructed (Mowen & Minor, 1998), and because of the fact that we needed a questionnaire specific to our research, we chose to construct most of the statements ourselves, and other statements were inspired from Wells and Tigert's (1971) lifestyle questionnaire. All of the statements however follow the four dimensions by Plummer (1974); activities, interests, opinions, and demographics. Moreover, the statements were evaluated using a five-point

Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1), to strongly agree (5). Our final questionnaire consists of 16 statements for the participants to evaluate themselves regarding their lifestyles, and will be used to segment the participants into distinct lifestyle groups. The questionnaire can be found in appendix 3.

2.2.2 Sample selection

The sample selection is a key component to creating a successful research (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Therefore, the sampling selection process and the sampling method is chosen with existing theories in mind. We will carefully discuss and determine the target group, sampling technique, sample size and the sampling process we found most appropriate for our research.

2.2.2.1 Target group

The target group for our study is young women. To specify this further we have chosen Swedish high school students, thus young women of an age between about 15-20 years old. The choice of this specific age group is made because this is a vulnerable age for young girls where many suffer from low self-esteem and body dissatisfaction (e.g. Clay et al., 2005; McCarthy & Hoge, 1982; Zigler et al., 1972; and Martin & Kennedy, 1993). Thus, we find it to be an interesting and relevant age group to study for the purpose of our research. Further, it is also an age group that is targeted in many previous studies, and thus to be able to compare our findings with these previous studies we have chosen the same age group.

As we want to target women with different lifestyles we will go to different schools and target girls within different field of study, in order to get a mix of girls with different activities, interests, and opinions (according to the AIOs model) (Plummer, 1974). The sampling frame for our research is thus high school student from different high schools in Sweden studying within any field of study. The majority of the chosen high schools will be located in either Jönköping or Linköping, as that is the residence of us conducting this research.

2.2.2.2 Sampling technique

Since our research is of a conclusive nature, a probability sampling technique would have been the most favorable option as it allows statistical assumptions to be made about the population (Kalton, 1983). However, we were not able to apply this sort of sampling technique in a successful manner, one reason for this is that a probability sampling technique requires some form of list over the population (Malhotra & Birks, 2006), that we were not able to get hold of. Further, we would have needed resources (such as money, more time, and preferably gifts for the participants) in order to use a probability sampling technique properly, to be able to get the sampled part of the population to feel motivated to participate. This would have been necessary, as the participants at the moment do not get anything out of participating in our study, and therefore most of those asked to participate are refusing or maybe not putting the effort required into the task. Because of this, we have chosen a non-probability sampling technique for our research.

The non-probability sampling technique chosen for our research is a convenient sampling technique. A convenient sampling technique is preferably used, as it is not so expensive or time consuming. Further, as we are dependent on the schools to help us, we are not really in control over what participants we will be able to get, and thus this was the only technique we were able to use in our study. With a convenient sampling technique, the sample chosen

out of the population is chosen based on what is the most convenient for the research (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). However, we try to increase the generalizability by trying to control for age as well as mix of students from different fields of study. Even though this technique is not the most optimal from a statistical point of view, it is a very common sampling technique in these types of studies according to Dittmar and Howard (2004).

2.2.2.3 Sample size

When conducting a mainly quantitative study, the sample size is typically required to be larger than for a qualitative study. For quantitative research, the sample-size is often calculated by various pre-established techniques, but qualitative factors have to be considered as well (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Since we use a non-probability sampling technique that is most often used for qualitative studies, we will consider qualitative factors when choosing our sample size. One such factor mentioned by Malhotra and Birks (2006), is the sample size used in similar researches. We consider this factor to be a valid estimate since there is extensive research done on this subject.

The sample size in similar research we found was ranging between 75 to 275 participants (e.g. Chaplin & John, 2007; Clay et al., 2005; Martin & Gentry, 1997; Lennon et al., 1999; Darlow & Lobel, 2010; and Engeln-Maddox, 2005). Due to these facts and with our time limit in mind, we decided on a sample size of approximately 100 students (with at least 30 respondents in each experimental condition) to be an appropriate number.

2.2.2.4 Sampling process

To gather participants to our experiment, we started by contacting principals at all public high schools in Jönköping and Linköping. We only got a few responses, where most were negative toward us coming due to the tight schedule for the pupils during the spring semester. In total, we were allowed to come to two classes at Per Brahe Gymnasium (Jönköping), two classes at Bäckadahlsgymnasiet (Jönköping) and one class at Katedalskolan (Linköping), to perform the experiment in class during lectures. From performing the experiment in class, we got a total of 73 participants.

However, since we still needed more participants we continued by contacting all private schools as well as all teachers we knew from when we went to high school. From the private schools we got no positive replies, with the exception of one teacher who agreed to perform the experiment by herself in class. As we still needed more participants, we contacted people we knew that is studying in high school and asked them if they were willing to be part of the experiment. In total, we were able to get 99 participants to the experiment. The distribution between the different experimental groups was 37 participants in the thin-model group, 33 participants in the control group, and 29 participants in the average sized woman group. Thus, the goal of at least 30 participants in each experimental group was not fulfilled for the average sized woman group.

2.3 Experiment procedure

Most of the experiments took place in classrooms during lectures at different high schools in Jönköping and Linköping. There were only girls present in the classroom during the experiment process, hence all boys were asked to leave the classroom. Before the girls started the experiment they were told that they were going to look at two images and after that,

answer a questionnaire about self-esteem, body satisfaction, and their lifestyle, in order to help us with a project about media exposures effect on young women. The whole purpose of the experiment was not revealed until after the experiment. The reason for why the whole purpose was not revealed on beforehand was since this could have had an impact on the outcome of the experiment (e.g. Dittmar & Howard, 2004).

The experiment started with the exposure of the media images (see appendix 4). Because we had a limited amount of time in the classrooms we were not able to divide the class into different “experimental condition groups” and thus all girls in the classroom were exposed to the same pictures (either thin-model, normal-sized model, or control group). After the exposure of the images, they were asked to start answering the questionnaire, that they got access to through a link. All girls had access to their own computer or smartphone where they answered the questionnaire. They were asked to position themselves in the classroom so they were not able to look at each other’s answers. However, some classrooms were small with many students, and therefore this was not entirely possible for all groups.

For the remaining part of the experiment we were not able to perform the experiment in a classroom or meet with the participants, therefore we added the images at the beginning of the questionnaire together with an introducing text explaining the experiment procedure (see appendix 5). After that, we send the link for experiment to the participant, together with a notification that they should do the experiment when they were alone since it contained personal questions. Further, all questionnaire statements were translated to Swedish, as all participants were Swedish high school students.

2.4 Data presentation and analysis

For the quantitative part of our research we used the statistical analysis software SPSS. The first step before we could analyze our data was to enter all the questionnaire results from the electronic survey program used (Qualtrics) into SPSS. After that, we excluded participants that did not complete the entire questionnaires and reversed the points for negatively asked questions to be able to calculate mean values later on. Moreover, internal consistency was controlled for by the use of Cronbach’s Alpha.

The next step was to create mean values for each experimental condition groups. After that, the mean values were compared between the different lifestyle groups. The lifestyle groups were divided depending on the participants answer in the lifestyle part of the questionnaire. From the statements in our lifestyle questionnaire, we could determine five different lifestyle groups, these five groups were; fashion interest, health and working out, sport interest, prepare for the future, and party. Each statement from our lifestyle questionnaire was addressed to one lifestyle group, and the participants were assigned to the group in which they had the highest mean score. In case of an equal highest mean score between two groups, the participants were assigned to both groups. In order to answer our research questions it was necessary to compare these means with each other. To better understand what influence advertisement portraying idealized women had on young women’s self-esteem and body satisfaction, we found it necessary to compare the means from the different experimental groups with each other.

Further, as we know from previous research that age is a predictor for the score in both self-esteem as well as body satisfaction, we also checked for the average age in each of the experimental and lifestyle groups, to be able to control for this affect (e.g. Clay et al., 2005).

We also calculated the mean self-esteem and body satisfaction value for different age groups to see if this prediction was accurate according to our findings. It was further necessary to test for significance among the means in order to conclude whether the means were significantly different from each other or not. Further, the majority of the significance tests was conducted with ANOVA tables. Two assumptions for ANOVA is normal distribution and equality in variance. Therefore, prior to the significance tests, tests to check for these two assumptions were performed. In case of non-normal distribution, we can still assume normality when the sample is large enough, this according to the Central Limit Theorem (Aczel & Sounderpandian, 2008). A sample is said to be large enough if it consists of more than 25-30 participants (Hogg & Tanis, 2005). All significance tests were performed at a 95% confidence level, which provides us with an alpha of 5%. Thus, in the cases where the means were not proven significant, we cannot with 95% certainty conclude that the differences in these mean values are not created by chance.

All relevant results from the quantitative data collected from the questionnaires are presented in tables in chapter four of this study. This is done in order to get an overview and to, in an easier way, be able to compare the findings. As a final part of our study we will in the analysis (chapter five) connected our findings to the existing literature and theories from the theoretical background (chapter three). Conclusions are drawn based on the results of our study, combined with these earlier stated theories. This combination gives our findings further trustworthiness since it combines the strength of our quantitative part with proven and pre-existing knowledge.

2.5 Limitations of chosen method and ethical implications

According to Halliwell and Dittmar (2004), when using different models in the different experimental conditions, the results will be unclear as you cannot determine if it is the models attractiveness or the body size that is affecting the participants' self-esteem and body satisfaction. Thus, they recommend using the same model in all experimental conditions and altering the size with computer software such as Photoshop. As we do not possess the skills to be able to do this in a believable way, we have chosen to use different models in the thin-model and the average-sized woman advertisements. Hence, we stand the risk that it is the attractiveness and not the size of the model that is affecting the participants. This can thus be a limitation in our study as our results of the body size effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction will not be entirely certain. However, to control for this we have tried to use models that are similar in appearances but that differ in body size.

Furthermore, as the second research question of the study has not been researched before, there can be limitations in the developed method. One such limitation could be that there are other underlying factors that affect the results besides those lifestyle factors we have determined. This potential limitation gives room for further studies within this field. Moreover, the choice of sampling technique can be seen as a limitation. With greater resources and a larger timeframe, a probability-sampling technique would have been preferred. However, due to the limited time and resources, we consider the convenient sampling technique to be the most appropriate technique that we were able to apply. Another concern with the actual performance of the experiment was that there were a lot of restrictions from the teachers in how we were able to perform the experiments. As most experiments were performed in class, and we had limited time to conduct the results, there might have been factors of the experiment process that were not performed in the most

appropriate way. One such factor can be that we in some classes had to show the pictures to everyone at once on the big screen in the front of the classroom. This exposure of the images could have led to the participants not processing the picture in the necessary way due to the surrounding, and hence the results of the experiment might have been affected. Further, that the participants did not get any privacy due to the fact that it was relatively many people in the class room, can have affected both the honesty in their answers and their focus on the experiment. However, similar studies have been conducted in groups during similar conditions, with successful outcomes (e.g. Dittmar & Howard, 2004; and Engeln–Maddox, 2005).

There are also ethical concerns associated with this type of research. One important ethical implication mentioned by Fink (2003) is the protection of the participant's identity. To control for this, all participation will be 100% confidential from our side, and no names will be able to track to the results. The participants will also be notified about this before the experiment takes place. However, one problem in relation to this can still be that most of the experiments took place in a classroom. Thus, the presence of other students can have affected the participants' answers and they might have felt worried that other students noticed their answers to the questions. To control for this issue we tried to place the students in the classroom in such a way that this was not possible. However, we were not able to do this during all experimental groups due to lack of space.

Another ethical concern is the fact that a part of the target group is underage and therefore need their parent's permission to be able to participate in the study. Hence, to approach the participants in a correct way one could argue that we would have needed to contact the participants' parents in some way prior to the experiment, which would have been difficult and very time consuming. Further, this fact could have limited the number of participants under the age of 18. However to prevent this from happening, we informed the schools about this concern in order to let them help us get the permissions if needed.

Fink (2003) mentions the importance of giving the participants background information before taking part in a survey or experiment, so the participants know what they are agreeing to be a part of. This concern can be hard to fulfill to a full extent, as explaining the whole purpose of the experiment can influence the participants in such a way that the results will not be accurate. Hence, if we tell the participants about that they will be exposed to an image and then be tested if this image affects their self-esteem and body-satisfaction, the awareness of the purpose can alter the affect the exposure should have had on them if they did not know. Thus, the participants will be informed of the field of our research but not the exact research purpose or purpose of the experiment. However, they will be notified after they fulfilled the questionnaire, what the purpose of the experiment is.

3 Theoretical framework

In this chapter you as a reader will be provided with an overview of relevant information, existing theories, and current literature concerning self-esteem, body image, and lifestyles.

The topic of idealized media images effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction is an excessively research topic, especially during the recent years. Thus, when trying to investigate this topic, it is important to have an understanding of what has previously been found. In this chapter, we will go through definitions of self-esteem and body image, as well as the concepts that most often are used to explain media's effect on perceived body image and self-esteem. These concepts are social comparison theory, internalization of thin/beauty ideals, and critical processing of idealized images. Further, since this study also test for the influence of lifestyle factors, it is also important that the reader get an understanding of this connection. Hence, this connection and previous research of importance within this field is stated, followed by definitions of lifestyle and the lifestyle segmentation approach AIO. Finally, the chapter will be summed-up at the end of the chapter together with a presentation and explanation of the hypotheses of the study.

3.1 Self Esteem and Body Image

Chandler and Munday (2011) define self-esteem in *A Dictionary of Media and Communication* as "The extent to which individuals value or respect themselves". They further state factors on which self-esteem primarily are based upon, these are social comparison, self-perception, and in some cases social identity.

According to Brown (1998), there are two different types of self-esteem; global and specific. Global self-esteem is described as the feelings people has toward themselves, or how much people evaluate themselves to be worth (Epstein, 1973). On the contrary to global self-esteem that is an evaluation of the whole self, the specific self-esteem is only connected to certain parts of our self. Meaning that the specific self-esteem links to how people value certain abilities or attributes of themselves (Brown, 1998).

Research has proven that self-esteem is both age and gender related. There is evidence that indicates a decline in self-esteem around the ages 12 or 13 (e.g. Harter, 1983; Rosenberg, 1979), but then starts to increase again somewhere around ages 16 to 19 (e.g. McCarthy & Hoge, 1982). Research by Zigler, Balla, and Watson (1972) further defines factors such as puberty, physical changes, and school change as causing factors to the self-esteem decrease among young adolescences. Puberty along with physical changes causes young teenagers to be highly critical toward themselves and affects the way they create an unrealistic ideal self. Moreover, the change into junior high and being the youngest at the school further creates insecurity among adolescences. As these changes settle and the adolescences develop a more realistic view on their selves, they can become more relaxed with their environment, and thus less insecure about themselves and their physical appearance. This can result in their self-esteem starting to increase (McCarthy & Hoge, 1982). As previously mentioned, self-esteem is not only related to age, but also to gender. Research by Franzoi (1995) confirms that females are more likely to be negatively affected by beauty ideals than males. Harter (1993) has also concluded similar results in her study of self-esteem among boys and girls between the ages nine to 17. The study shows that there are a systematic pattern between age and the level of global self-esteem for the female participants but not for the male. This pattern is

supported by several other studies e.g. Simmons and Blyth (1987), and Block and Robins (1993). Harter (1993) further concludes that there are tendencies for male adolescences' self-esteem to increase during the same time-period as where the females' self-esteem decreases.

Further, there is also suggested that self-esteem is highly correlated to body image. Research has found a relationship between body image and self-esteem that is positive and significant for both male and female (Mintz & Betz, 1986). Meaning that the feelings toward ourselves relate with the feelings we have toward our own body. According to Oxford University Press (2010), body image is the mental image of our own body, meaning how we view our physical self. Moreover, higher self-esteem is related to a positive mental image of our body (Mintz & Betz, 1986).

Even though some research means that self-esteem is unconscious and therefore difficult to measure, repeated research on the other hand proves that it is both conscious and measurable (Durgee, 1986). Rosenberg (1965) for example has developed a self-esteem scale to measure self-esteem. The scale is a ten-item measure using a four-point scale. Moreover, Cash (Brown, Cash & Mikulka, 1990) has created a scale for measuring body satisfaction and thereby body image.

3.2 Social comparison and idealized media images

Social comparison theory is often used in research to explain how idealized media images affect young women's self-esteem and perceived body images (e.g. Tiggemann & McGill, 2004; Martin & Gentry, 1997; and Engeln-Maddox, 2005). Festinger's (1954) classical early research on social comparison, suggests that self-evaluation is a result of social comparison with others. Further, he suggests that this in turn is done in order to associate one-self with groups or in order to feel belongingness to a specific group. Thus, social comparison lead to self-evaluation and the reason why people evaluate themselves is in order to belong or feel belongingness to specific groups. Further Festinger (1954) suggests that such social comparison most often is made with people who are similar to us. However, more recent research points out several factors toward why idealized media images often are targets for social comparison (Engeln-Maddox, 2005) and thus that social comparison not only is done with those similar to oneself.

A lot of research has been made during the recent decades that is showing on a negative effect on young women's perceived body images after being exposed to thin model images due to social comparison (e.g. Dittmar & Howard, 2004; Martin & Gentry, 1997; Kruglanski & Mayseless, 1990; and Martin & Kennedy, 1993). Kruglanski and Mayseless (1990) states that the early study by Festinger (1954) is too fixed and narrow according to contemporary research within the topic. According to their research social comparison does not necessarily have to be with people similar to one self, but rather done if a person believe that the target of the social comparison is likely to provide valuable information. They state that if a person wants to perceive accurate information (e.g. about their appearance) the social comparison can be targeted toward dissimilar others (e.g. media images) if they believe this is an accurate view of what they are looking for (how a beautiful women should look like). This theory can be one explanation for why young women would seek up and compare themselves to media images even if they know it will make them feel bad about themselves.

Other contemporary research within social comparison theory and idealized media images, suggests that the goal and motivation of the social comparison will have an effect on the outcome of the comparison (e.g. Martin & Gentry, 1997; and Van Yperen & Leander, 2014).

In research made by Hogg and Fragou (2003) they test how the goal of social comparison plays an important role in the outcome of the consumption of advertising images among young women. According to their research, depending on if the goal of the social comparison is self-evaluation, self-enhancement, or self-improvement the advertisements can have different effect on the self-perception of physical attractiveness among those exposed to the advertisements. According to their results, the advertisements where the largest threat to the perceived physical attractiveness among the consumers if the goal was self-evaluation. If the goal was self-improvement, it could either harm the self-esteem or be inspiring, and if the goal was self-enhancement, the comparison was often both inspiring and protective of the self-esteem. Adding to this, Martin and Gentry (1997) suggests that the motives of social comparison are something that can have an effect on how girls are affected by media exposure. Their research suggests that depending on whether the motive of the comparison is self-evaluation, self-improvement, or self-enhancement, comparison with models in ads can have different effects on self-esteem and self-perception. In their findings they further suggests that if the motive of the comparison is self-evaluation the comparison has a negative effect on young women's self-esteem and self-perception. Contradictive when the motive for the comparison is self-improvement or self-enhancement there is a positive temporary effect on self-esteem and self-perception (Martin & Gentry, 1997). Another research made by Mills, Polivy, Herman and Tiggemann (2002) suggest that restrained eaters often self-enhance when being exposed to thin idealized body images and thus feeling inspired by looking at the pictures. According to their findings chronic dieters (without eating disorders) being exposed to thin model images, actually perceived themselves as thinner after being exposed to the idealized pictures. Thus, the exposure had a positive effect on their self-esteem and body perception (Mills et al., 2002).

Counterarguments toward the importance of social comparison when explaining the effects of idealized media images on women can although be found in literacy. According to Dittmar and Howard (2004), both thin-ideal internalization and social comparison is moderators for the effect media has on women. However, they also state that internalization is a more proximal and specific predictor of women's anxiety when being exposed to such media images. According to their study, high thin-ideal internalization undermines the positive effect of average-sized models when combined with habitual social comparison and thus they state that negative reactions to thin models are conditional only on internalization (Dittmar & Howard, 2004). Further, in research by Lennon, Lillethun and Buckland (1999), they did not find any evidence of social comparison having an effect on self-esteem or perceived body image when exposing their targets to idealized images. Their explanation for this finding is that the self-esteem level among the women being exposed to idealized images has an effect on whether the exposure will have a negative effect on their self-esteem or not. Hence, if the targets being exposed to the images have a high self-esteem, social comparison with the images may not have any effect on their self-esteem and perceived body image (Lennon et al., 1999). However, a lot of research disagree with these finding and states that social comparison is in fact a main factor to why idealized images has a negative effect on young women's body satisfaction. For example in research by Tiggemann and McGill (2004), they find evidence for that the amount of comparison the women engage in when looking at the images can be linked to which degree the exposure had a negative effect on their perceived body image. Thus, this indicates that social comparison in fact can be an important link to understand the negative effect the images has on women.

3.3 Internalization of thin/beauty ideals

Eating disorders, negative self-esteem, and perceived body image is a growing concern (Moksnes & Espnes, 2012), and it is therefore important to know the connection between these concerns and thin/beauty ideals. Internalization of thin- and beauty ideals is a measure of risk and predicts the connection between these factors (Thompson, van den Berg, Roehrig, Guarda & Heinberg, 2004). Hartner (1999) found that internalization not only is a predictor of self-esteem, but the strongest predictor of self-esteem when it comes to young adults. Stice (1994) moreover found that internalization is highly useful as a predictor of negative body image. Furthermore, Thompson and Stice (2001) states the fact that internalization of thin ideals is such a critical predictor of eating disorders that there are prevention programs for eating disorders that solely focuses on reducing such internalization.

Internalization of thin- and beauty ideals is defined as to the degree or extent people accept the thin- and beauty ideals and further desires and wishes to adopt those physical appearances (Stice, 1994; and Heinberg, Thompson, & Stormer, 1995). Internalization could also be described as to which extent people attempts to change their body, weight, and appearance as a result of changed personal standards due to cultural or media beauty ideals (Thompson & Stice, 2001; and Thompson et al., 2004). As implied in these definitions there are a difference between internalization and awareness of these ideals. It is highly possible that you are aware of the existing beauty ideals, but still not incorporate them into your own beliefs (Balcetis, Cole, Chelberg & Alicke, 2013).

Most of the conducted studies on this subject have been made on adolescents and adults (Stice, 2002), but there has been some similar studies made on children as well (e.g. Eddy, Tanofsky-Kraff, Thompson-Brenner, Herzog, Brown & Ludwig, 2007). Klaczynski, Goold, and Mudry (2004) prove in their research that women are more likely than men to internalize beauty ideals. The internalization among women often leads to a negative self-perspective since the beauty ideals they are trying to achieve are almost impossible to reach (Thompson & Stice, 2001). Dittmar and Howard (2004) found that the internalization among women had a negative effect on body image after being presented with images of perfect thin women. Engeln-Maddox (2005) also found a similar result when concluding that women made more comparison between themselves and thin women after being exposed to images of such ideal women. Other research proved that young adolescent females who felt pressure from media to follow the thin beauty ideals were more dissatisfied with their body (Blowers, Lozton, Grady-Flessner, Occhipinti & Dawe, 2003). However, Waller, Hamilton & Shaw (1992) found no direct causal relationship between idealized images and self-esteem or body satisfaction. Although, they suggest that these kinds of images maintain and worsen the unrealistic body perception in today's society.

Internalization is typically measured by questionnaires, but there are one big problem with this; the distinction between internalization and awareness. There are difficult to distinguish between these concepts as a participant in a study (Balcetis et al., 2013). As a solution to this, Heinberg et al. (1995) developed the SATAQ (Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire) that covers both awareness and internalization in two separate subscales. However, there is still one minor issue with this kind of measurement, the participants may have difficulties to know if and how they have internalized the beauty ideal. Balcetis et al. (2013) therefore chose to measure eye movements as a supplement to the SATAQ. Other methods may also be used if testing internalization of thin- and beauty ideals on young children since they not yet is capable to provide such deep information about themselves (Harriger, Calogero, Witherington & Smith, 2010).

3.4 Critical processing of idealized media images

As established earlier the relationship between idealized media images and young women's body dissatisfaction has been proven through repeated research. Thus, research has also been done on how these negative effects can be limited for women when exposed to such images. From a social comparison point of view, research suggests that learning women to reflect and criticize idealized media images could interrupt the social comparison with the pictures and therefore decrease the negative effect of being exposed to them (Engeln–Maddox, 2005). Proof of 'psycho-educational interventions' (Engeln–Maddox, 2005) in schools, which focus on reinforcing a healthier critical view of female beauty, to work has been found in repeated studies. In a study by Irving, Dupen, and Berel (1998), they introduced a media literacy program for 24 female high school students in order to teach them to be more critical toward appearance-related media. The results of the study showed that the media literacy program resulted in lower internalization of thin-ideals for those girls that took part in the program compared to the girls that did not. However, their results did not show any difference in body dissatisfaction in the two groups. However, another research made by O'Dea, (2001), introducing a program that was focusing on improving young women's self-appreciation around weight and body image, showed both short and long-term improvements in self-esteem. Posavac, H., Posavac, S. and Weigel (2001), further found evidence for three interventions tested in the study, to decrease the likelihood for the girls to compare themselves with media images and thus decrease the likelihood for body image dissatisfactions. Further, in a study by Clay et al. (2005) they found that body dissatisfaction, internalization of thin-ideals, and awareness of sociocultural attitudes about beauty, was significantly higher for older girls when testing for girls between 11 and 16 years old. Hence, this indicates that if teaching girls to have a critical view toward media images, this should beneficially start at a young age to prevent internalization of thin ideals.

However contradictory, there is research that questions the degree to which learning girls to be critical towards idealized media images actually work. Evidence from research has been found that critically viewing idealized media images might not help the potential harm to body perception and self-esteem (Botta, 1999 & 2003; Milkie, 1999; and Nathanson & Botta, 2003). Explaining this can be that critically viewing idealized media images will increase the extent to which the images are processed and thus increase body dissatisfaction (e.g. Nathanson & Botta, 2003). What these studies have in common are though, that they did not manipulate or teach the women how to criticize the images before the study. Studies that directly and actively have encouraged the women to challenge the images has found different results (Engeln–Maddox, 2005) as exemplified previously. Thus, it seems like there are many factors that can play a role for if criticizing the media images will help to protect women from body dissatisfaction. For example, according to Engeln–Maddox (2005), one counterargument used when looking at the images that seemed to work was for the women to focus on the parts of the pictures they were more satisfied with than what they saw in the picture.

3.5 Lifestyle and its effect on self-esteem, body satisfaction, and critical processing

As mentioned earlier when discussing social comparison, self-esteem is something that is thought to affect to what degree girls are affected by media images (Lennon et al., 1999). In addition, the motives and goals of social comparison with idealized images are suggested to

have an effect on the outcome for girls exposed to media images (Martin & Gentry, 1997; and Hogg & Fragou, 2003). Furthermore, some techniques of critical processing seem to help protect girls from being harmed by idealized images (e.g. Dupen & Berel, 1998; and Posavac et al. 2001). Thus, having findings such as these in mind, one can understand that some girls will be more vulnerable than others to the exposure of idealized images, depending on for example their self-esteem or critical processing skills.

Further, in a study by Schraml, Perski, Grossi and Simonsson-Sarnecki (2011) they found that self-esteem and stress-symptoms were significantly worse for Swedish high-school girls than for boys. Some explanations for these differences were that there is more pressure put on girls to be ambitious and polite (Sandmark & Renstig, 2010), whereas boys are more encouraged to be independent and assertive (Ruble, 1993). Further adolescence girls are also found to be more sensitive than boys to opinions and feedback from others (e.g. Ruble, 1993; and Rudolph, 2002). The experienced social demands put on girls, which can feel impossible to fulfill, such as expectations of appearances are also found to play a big part in the differences between young girls' and boys' self-esteem (Dedovic, Wadiwalla, Engert & Pruessner, 2009; and Rudolph, 2002). Hence, the opinions of how a girl should be, together with pressure put on girls to be ambitious and live up to expectations, is something that to a high degree seem to have an effect on young girls' self-esteem.

However not much research can be found on why some girls are more vulnerable than others. By examine different lifestyle factors among young women, together with how they are affected by idealized images this could be tested. Such findings could be important, in order to learn which girls that might need extra support or who are at risk for developing eating disorders. It could also give information on what could be done to protect girls from an early age. Some findings within this field can though be found in existing literature. For example, research suggests that dieters (without eating disorders) are inspired by the exposure of idealized images and thus the exposure does not have a negative effect on their self-esteem and perceived body-image (Herman & Tiggemann, 2002). Hamilton and Waller (1993) further found that "normal people" (people without eating disorders) are not affected by idealized images, but that people with an eating disorder were affected negatively by this kind of media images. In research by Rote, Swartz and Klos (2013) they found that an active lifestyle is not related to having a more positive body image perception. Further, in a study by Lennon, Lillethun and Buckland (1999), they found that when testing for the effect of idealized media images among students with textiles and clothing majors, the exposure of the images did not have a negative effect on self-esteem or body image. Their explanation for this was that they through their education could have learned them about body image in relation to fashion advertisement. Other explanations could be that they are so used to such images that they did not compare themselves with the images anymore. All these findings indicate that different lifestyles are something that can be an indicator for how women process media images.

3.6 Lifestyle definition

According to Ahmad, Omar, and Ramayah (2010) lifestyle can be described as how consumers live; how they spend their time and how they spend their money. Zablocki and Kanter (1976) also defines lifestyle, but from an economic perspective as the consumers' choices and how they spend their income. Moreover, Horley, Carroll, and Little (1988) identify lifestyle as the characteristics that affect how we live our lives. These characteristics can for example be how people interact with others, how people behave, what their interests are, participation in social groups or activities, peoples' religion, their social class, etc.

(Feldman & Theilbar, 1971). Such lifestyle characteristics, along with demographics, are proven to have a huge impact on consumer behavior (Mahmood, Bagchi, & Ford, 2004). Furthermore, in research by Plummer (1974) there is also concluded that demographics and lifestyle characteristics are useful and have been frequently used in order to better understand consumers' behavior.

Demographic characteristics, such as geography, age, and income, are almost always used when examine consumer behavior. It is easy to use and classify, but lack richness of the data. Although, demographics are an important factor when examining behavior, it is often not sufficient on its own. Therefore, the concept of lifestyle is one of the most widely used supplements when explaining consumer behavior. In order to research and define lifestyles, the concept needs to be broken down in observable psychological characteristics (Plummer, 1974). According to Wells (1975) there are no single generally accepted definition of psychographics, but the most commonly used psychological characteristics when explaining consumers' behavior includes activities, interests, and opinions (AIO) (Ahmad et al., 2010). One drawback with the use of psychological characteristics are that it is difficult to obtain reliable results. So, demographics are an important foundation for behavior analysis, but not sufficient due to its lack of depth. Psychographics on the other hand creates a richness and depth to the data, but are not reliable enough to be used on its own (Plummer, 1974). Therefore, psychographics and demographics are working best together since they correlate to and complement each other (Sathish & Rajamohan, 2012; and Plummer, 1974).

There are several different approaches in lifestyle research, but as previously mentioned one of the most widely used approaches are AIOs, which is an acronym for activities, interests, and opinions (Sathish & Rajamohan, 2012). The AIOs approach combines the psychological dimensions of activities, interests, and opinions with demographic dimensions and is therefore a deep and reliable approach.

3.6.1 AIOs lifestyle approach

The AIOs approach is attempting to capture what people do with their time, what their interests are, their opinions, and priorities. Further, it is also capturing their demographic characteristics (Plummer, 1974). As mentioned above, the AIOs consists of four dimensions; activities, interests, opinions, and demographic.

The activities dimension is defining how a person spends both his/her time and money, thus what they do with their time and income. This should not be confused with the interests' dimension that refers to the psychology behind the activity. This means preferences, priorities, and feelings behind what they do with their time and income. Opinions are also connected to feelings, but are rather an evaluation of how important the participant believes certain things or events are (Ahmad et al., 2010).

The AIOs approach are conducted by giving the respondents a questionnaire of statements which they are supposed to answer on a scale of how much they agree or disagree with these statements (Sathish & Rajamohan, 2012). The statements can vary depending on the research and there are no exact rules for what statements should be used (Mowen & Minor, 1998). Although, in 1971 Wells and Tigert developed a general questionnaire for examine lifestyles with an AIO approach including 300 statements covering the four dimensions of activities, interests, opinions, and demographics. These four dimensions where later defined by Plummer (1974), which you can see in the table below.

Table 3.1. Lifestyle dimensions

Activities	Interests	Opinion	Demographics
Work	Family	Themselves	Age
Hobbies	Home	Social issues	Education
Social events	Job	Politics	Income
Vacation	Community	Business	Occupation
Entertainment	Recreation	Economics	Family size
Club membership	Fashion	Education	Dwelling
Community	Food	Products	Geography
Shopping	Media	Future	City size
Sports	Achievements	Culture	Stage in life cycle

Source: Plummer (1974)

3.7 Theoretical summary

The following sections work as a summary of this thesis' theoretical framework. It will give you as a reader the full picture of the subjects and theories on which this thesis is based upon. Theories and important previous research connecting to our first research question will be stated. The first of our two research questions will further be divided into two hypotheses which will be tested in chapter four. Moreover, important theories and previous research concerning our second research question will also be stated below.

3.7.1 The effect of idealized media images on self-esteem and body satisfaction

Self-esteem can be defined as to which extent people value and respect themselves, and can be further understood through concepts such as self-perception and social comparison (Chandler & Munday, 2011). Self-esteem is in general lowest for girls during their adolescence years (e.g. Harter, 1983), and according to research, females are more likely than males to have low self-esteem during these years (e.g. Franzoi, 1995). It is also proven that self-esteem and body image, which is the mental image of our physical selves, are highly correlated to each other (Mintz & Betz, 1986).

Social comparison is, as mentioned, one of the concepts often mentioned when trying to understand effects on self-esteem and is often used in research to explain how idealized media images affect both self-esteem and body satisfaction (e.g. Engeln-Maddox, 2005). Moreover, even though some research has not found proof for social comparison being a predictor for media images effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction (Lennon et al., 1999), most research agree on the existence of the connection (e.g. Dittmar & Howard, 2004). Internalization of thin/beauty ideals is another concept used to explain how idealized images affect self-esteem and body image. The level of internalization of the ideals can be seen as a measure of how far a person is affected by the ideals. Further explained, internalization is to which extent people are accepting and strives toward adopting the idealized media image

ideals (Stice, 1994). Harter (1999) found that internalization not only is a predictor of the effect on self-esteem, but the strongest predictor when it comes to media images effect on self-esteem. Moreover, even though there are different theories for how idealized images affect self-esteem and body satisfaction most of the researches we have found agree on that idealized media images have a negative effect on women's self-esteem and body satisfaction (e.g. Dittmar & Howard, 2004; and Martin & Gentry, 1997). Thus, with these previous findings in mind two hypotheses are formulated in order to answer the first research question of; "In what way the exposure to idealized media images affects young women's self-esteem and body satisfaction".

H1: The exposure of advertisement showing idealized appearances and body images will have a negative effect on young women's self-esteem.

H2: The exposure of advertisement showing idealized appearances and body images will have a negative effect on young women's body satisfaction.

3.7.2 Critical processing

Research has also been conducted on how the negative effects of idealized media images on self-esteem and body satisfaction can be limited. Some of the prevention techniques might not work, and even harm the self-esteem and perceived body image (e.g. Botta, 1999), but there are techniques that have been proven to work. Engeln-Maddox (2005) showed that by teaching women to criticize idealized media images, the social comparison with the images could be interrupted and thus reducing the negative effects on self-esteem and body satisfaction. Programs focusing on improving self-appreciation and thereby body satisfaction have also been proven to reduce the negative effect on self-esteem (O'Dea, 2001).

3.7.3 Lifestyles as a predictor for young women's vulnerability to media exposure

As we have learned from this literature review, depending on for example women's critical processing skills, they have different levels of vulnerability to exposure of idealized media images. Because of the findings we further predict, depending on young women's background and personality, their vulnerability might differ. However, not much research can be found explaining this. By examine the effects of idealized images on self-esteem and body image along with lifestyle factors an explanation might be given. Lifestyle can be defined as how consumers live; how they spend their time and how they spend their money (Ahmad et al., 2010). Several different approaches to examine lifestyle factors are available, but one of the most widely used ones is the AIOs approach (Sathish & Rajamohan, 2012). The AIOs approach combines the psychological dimensions of activities, interests, and opinions with a demographics dimension and is therefore a deep and reliable approach (Plummer, 1974). Hence, our contribution to the literature will be to examine if lifestyle factors (chosen based on the AIOs approach) can be an explanation for young women's vulnerability to the exposure of media images. Thus the second research question of this study is, as presented in chapter one; "How can Lifestyle factors be a predictor for young women's vulnerability to the exposure of idealized media images?".

4 Empirical findings

In this chapter, the empirical findings of the experiment will be presented. The statistical analysis software SPSS is used in order to interpret the findings and compare the results through different statistical measurements.

4.1 Reliability testing

Before further analyzing the collected data from the self-esteem and body satisfaction measurements, the reliability of the measurements is tested. By the use of Cornbach's Alpha the internal consistency was found to be 0.92 for Rosenberg self-esteem scale and 0.927 for the body satisfaction measurement (see appendix 6). Both these values indicate that the scales are reliable since the values are greater than 0.7 (Pallant, 2001). Thus, we find the results from these surveys to be reliable estimates for self-esteem and body satisfaction.

4.2 Media images effect on self-esteem

After excluding the participants that had not completed the entire self-esteem questionnaire, we ended up with 99 participants whose answers were further analyzed for the self-esteem

Table 4.1 Total Self-esteem

N	99
Mean	16.91
Minimum	0
Maximum	29
Std. Deviation	6.468

Note: Possible scores range between 0 and 30.

measurement. By combining the individual points for the Rosenberg self-esteem statements the participants got an individual self-esteem value. A high self-esteem value indicates a high self-esteem, and a low self-esteem value indicates a low self-esteem. The maximum self-esteem value among the participants in this study was 29 while the lowest score was 0. This should be compared to the maximum and minimum scores of the self-esteem scale, which is 30 and 0. Among all 99 participants, the mean value was 16.91 with a standard deviation of 6.468 (Table 4.1).

When comparing the mean between the different experimental groups the results showed that all three experimental groups scored relatively similar (Figure C). The control group had the lowest mean value of 16.67, compared to average sized woman group who scored highest with a mean score of 17.59. In between was the thin-model group with a mean score of 16.81 (appendix 7). However, when looking at the standard deviation this differed more between the experimental groups. The control group had the lowest standard deviation of 5.802, compared to the average sized woman group who had a standard deviation of 6.124 and the thin-model group that had a standard deviation of 7.389 (appendix 7).

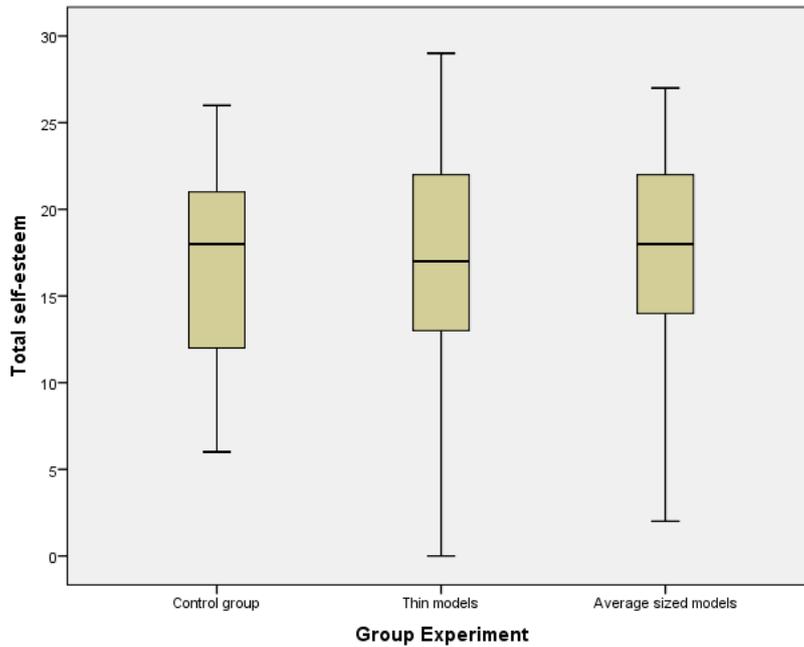


Figure C. Self-esteem experimental groups.

Moreover, the distribution of number of participants in each experimental group was somewhat uneven. In the thin-model group and the control group there was 37 respectively 33 participants, compared to the average sized woman group that only had 29 participants (appendix 7). We tested for normality within the sample and found that all the experimental groups were normally distributed (appendix 8). A variance test was also conducted which revealed that the variance was not significantly different between the different groups (appendix 9). Thus, we could continue with an ANOVA test, which requires normality and equality in variance, to test the significance of the means.

For the ANOVA test, the results showed a p-value of 0.922, which is greater than our chosen alpha at 0.05 (table 4.2). Hence, we cannot reject that the mean values between the different experimental groups are not significantly different from each other. Thus, we cannot conclude that the differences between the different experimental groups (Figure C) are not created by chance.

Table 4.2 ANOVA - Self-esteem in experimental groups

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.966	2	3.483	.082	.922
Within Groups	4093.216	96	42.638		
Total	4100.182	98			

As stated in chapter three, the first of the two research hypotheses for this study is:

H1: The exposure of advertisement showing idealized appearances and body images will have a negative effect on young women's self-esteem.

By connecting the empirical results to this hypothesis we conclude that since the mean for the experimental groups are not significantly different from each other we have to reject our first hypothesis. Thus, we cannot see any evidence of that advertisement showing idealized appearances and body images have a negative effect at all on young women's self-esteem through our experiment.

4.3 Media images effect on body satisfaction

After excluding the participants who did not complete the entire body satisfaction questionnaire, 99 participants remained (Table 4.3). In order to compare the body satisfaction between the participants, the scores for each statement were added up in order

Table 4.3 Total Body Satisfaction

N	99
Mean	20.79
Minimum	7
Maximum	35
Std. Deviation	6.644

Note: Possible scores range between 7 and 35.

to create a total body satisfaction score for each of the participants. A high body satisfaction score indicates a positive perceived body image and a low score indicates a negative perceived body image. The lowest score among all the participants was 7 and the highest score among the participants was 35, this is also the range of the total score of the body satisfaction measurement (Table 4.3). Further, the mean body satisfaction score for all the participants was 20.79 and the standard deviation was 6.644 (Table 4.3).

The experimental group with the lowest body satisfaction score was the control group, who had a mean value of 19.61 (Table 4.4). The thin-model group and the average sized woman group's mean values were relatively similar, with a score of 21.66 for the average sized woman group compared to a mean value of 21.16 for the thin-model group (Table 4.4). The standard deviation between the three groups was also relatively similar (Table 4.4).

The experimental group with the lowest body satisfaction score was the control group, who had a mean value of 19.61 (Table 4.4). The thin-model group and the average sized woman group's mean values were relatively similar, with a score of 21.66 for the average sized woman group compared to a mean value of 21.16 for the thin-model group (Table 4.4). The standard deviation between the three groups was also relatively similar (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4 Body satisfaction in experimental groups

	Control group	Average sized women	Thin models
Mean	19.61	21.66	21.16
N	33	29	37
Average age	17.30	17.50	17.75
Std. Deviation	6.787	6.526	6.640

Tests for normality (appendix 8) and homogeneity in variance (appendix 9) were conducted prior to testing for significance. The data was normally distributed with an exception for the average sized women group. Although, since the sample size is relatively large we can still assume normality according to the Central Limit Theorem. Further, a test for equality in variance was conducted and the variance was found to be equal. For the ANOVA test (table 4.5), the results showed a p-value of 0.441. This is greater than our chosen alpha of 0.05 and therefore we cannot reject that the mean values between the different experimental groups are not significantly different from each other. Thus, the differences between our experimental groups are not significant and can therefore have been created by chance.

Table 4.5 ANOVA - Body Satisfaction in experimental groups

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	73.088	2	36.544	.825	.441
Within Groups	4253.458	96	44.307		
Total	4326.545	98			

The second of research hypotheses formulated in chapter three of this study is:

H2: The exposure of advertisement showing idealized appearances and body images will have a negative effect on young women's body satisfaction.

When connecting the empirical results to this second hypothesis we conclude that since the mean for the experimental groups are not significantly different from each other we also have to reject this second hypothesis. Thus, we cannot see any evidence of that advertisement showing idealized appearances and body images have any effect at all on young women's self-esteem through the experiment.

4.4 Differences in self-esteem and body satisfaction between age groups

The means were also compared for two different age groups. One age group with ages 15-17 and the other group with ages 18-20. The means differed for both body satisfaction and for self-esteem, and in both cases the age group 18-20 had the highest mean. As you can see in table 4.6 the mean for body satisfaction in ages 18-20 was 22.08 compared to the mean of 19.16 for the age group 15-17. A similar result was found for the self-esteem where the mean for age group 18-20 was found to be 18.45 while for the age group 15-17 the mean was only 15.07.

Table 4.6 Body satisfaction by age groups

	Age:	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Total Body Satisfaction	18-20	53	22.08*	6.589	.905
	15-17	45	19.16*	6.456	.962
Total Self-esteem	18-20	53	18.45**	6.320	.868
	15-17	45	15.07**	6.294	.938

* Significant at the 5% level.

** Significant at the 1% level.

Note: The self-esteem scores range between 0 and 30, while the body satisfaction scores range between 7 and 35.

An independent t-test was conducted in order to see if the means are significant or not. The test revealed that, both in the case of self-esteem and in body satisfaction the means were significantly different from each other. This since both p-values were lower than our chosen alpha of 5% (table 4.7). We can therefore with 95% confidence conclude that our results are not created by chance and that the means are in fact different from each other. The self-esteem means were even significant at 1% level of significant.

Table 4.7 Independent t-test – Self-esteem and Body satisfaction by age groups

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Total self-esteem	Equal variances assumed	.024	.877	2.648	96	.009	3.386
	Equal variances not assumed			2.649	93.565	.009	3.386
Total Body Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	.036	.850	2.206	96	.030	2.920
	Equal variances not assumed			2.210	94.019	.030	2.920

4.5 Lifestyle factors influence on girls vulnerability to media exposure

When testing for the influence of lifestyle factors, the mean value in self-esteem as well as body satisfaction was calculated for the five different lifestyle groups; *Fashion interest*, *Health and working out*, *Sport interest*, *Prepare for the future*, and *Party*. The participants were assigned to the lifestyle group in which they scored the highest in mean on the lifestyle questionnaire. Those who scored equally high on two different groups were assigned both groups. After

the participants had been assigned lifestyle groups, the mean self-esteem and body satisfaction scores were calculated for each lifestyle group.

As seen in table 4.8 the mean scores in self-esteem differed quite a lot between the different lifestyle groups. The Health and working out-group had the lowest self-esteem mean of 14.91, this group also had the second lowest score in body satisfaction with a score of 20.09 (table 4.8). The Party lifestyle group had the second lowest score in self-esteem and the lowest body satisfaction with a score of 15.32 in self-esteem and 19.94 in body satisfaction. In the middle was the Fashion interest lifestyle group, with a mean self-esteem of 16.50 and a mean in body satisfaction of 20.50. The Sport interest group had the highest scores with a self-esteem mean of 18.90 and a body satisfaction mean of 21.67. The lifestyle group Prepare for future also scored the highest in body satisfaction with a score of 21.76. Their self-esteem mean was also relatively high compared to other means, with a score of 17.86.

Table 4.8 Self-esteem and Body satisfaction for lifestyle groups

	AIO Fashion interest	AIO Health and working out	AIO Sport interest	AIO Prepare for future	AIO Party
Self-esteem mean	16.50	14.91	18.90*	17.86	15.32*
Body satisfaction mean	20.50	20.09	21.67	21.76	19.94
N	16	10	30	29	31
Average age	17.09	17.43	17.72	17.68	17.40
Self-esteem std. deviation	6.121	7.993	6.189	6.413	6.030
Body satisfaction std. deviation	6.272	6.139	7.256	6.631	6.324

** The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.*

Note: The self-esteem scores range between 0 and 30, while the body satisfaction scores range between 7 and 35.

The standard deviation in both self-esteem mean and body satisfaction was relatively similar between all groups with an exception of the standard deviation in body satisfaction for the Sport interest and standard deviation in self-esteem for Health and working out group that stood out and was a bit higher than the other groups. The average age for the lifestyle groups did not differ that much but the Sport interest and the group Prepare for future had a slightly higher average age. The lowest average age was found in the Fashion interest group with an average age of 17.09.

Further, the normality was tested within the lifestyle groups for both the body satisfaction and self-esteem measurements. We found that all groups were normally distributed except the group Prepare for the future for self-esteem that had a p-value of 0.008 which is lower than our alpha (0.05) (appendix 8). However, since this group had 29 participants, which is relatively high according to the Central Limit Theorem, and much higher than the number of elements in two of the other groups, we could still assumed normality and continue with the significance testing.

The ANOVA test for the self-esteem and the body satisfaction showed a p-value of 0.779 (Table 4.9) respectively 0.166 (Table 4.10). Both these values are greater than alpha (0.05) and thus we cannot reject that all the mean values are equal. Hence, there seem to be no significant difference between the means.

Table 4.9 ANOVA - Body Satisfaction in lifestyle groups

Total Body Satisfaction

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	77.551	4	19.388	.441	.779
Within Groups	4924.757	112	43.971		
Total	5002.308	116			

Table 4.10 ANOVA - Self-esteem in lifestyle groups

Total self-esteem

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	269.160	4	67.290	1.655	.166
Within Groups	4553.832	112	40.659		
Total	4822.991	116			

However, a multiple comparison indicated that there were a significant difference among the means for the lifestyle groups Sport, and Party. Therefore, we conducted an independent t-test in which the p-value was found to be 0.026 (Table 4.11). This is lower than alpha at 0.05. Thus, we can reject that the two means are equal. Hence, we found that there is a significant difference between the self-esteem mean between the two lifestyle groups Sport, and Party. No other indications of significance between the means for any other lifestyle groups were found.

Table 4.11 Independent t-test - Self-esteem in lifestyle groups Sport and Party

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Total self-esteem	Equal variances assumed	.008	.927	2.287	59	.026	3.577
	Equal variances not assumed			2.286	58.793	.026	3.577

4.6 Summary of the empirical findings

A summary of the empirical findings of this thesis can be seen in table 4.12. Since neither the means for self-esteem nor the means of the body satisfaction measurement in the different experimental groups were found to be significant, we rejected both our hypotheses. With the rejection of our hypotheses we concluded that no evidence were found that advertisement showing idealized appearances and body images had any effect on young women's self-esteem or body satisfaction.

However, significant differences in mean values were present between different age groups in both self-esteem and in body satisfaction. Significant results were also found in the mean self-esteem value between the lifestyle groups Sport interest and Party. Although, no such results were found for body satisfaction. Furthermore, no other mean differences were of significance between the other lifestyle groups in neither self-esteem or body satisfaction.

Table 4.12 Summary Self-esteem and Body satisfaction

	Self-esteem mean	Body satisfaction mean	N	Average age	Self-esteem std. deviation	Body satisfaction std. deviation
Control group	16.67	19.61	33	17.30	5.802	6.787
Average sized women	16.59	21.66	29	17.50	6.124	6.526
Thin models	16.81	21.16	37	17.75	7.389	6.640
Ages 18-20	<u>18.45**</u>	<u>22.08*</u>	53		6.320	6.589
Ages 15-17	<u>15.07**</u>	<u>19.16*</u>	45		6.294	6.456
AIO Fashion interest	16.50	20.50	16	17.09	6.121	6.272
AIO Health and working out	14.91	20.09	11	17.43	7.993	6.139
AIO Sport interest	<u>18.90*</u>	21.67	30	17.72	6.189	7.256
AIO Prepare for future	17.86	21.76	29	17.68	6.413	6.631
AIO Party	<u>15.32*</u>	19.94	31	17.40	6.030	6.324

* Significant at the 5% level.

** Significant at the 1% level.

Note: The self-esteem scores range between 0 and 30, while the body satisfaction scores range between 7 and 35.

5 Analysis

In this chapter, we will analyze our findings in order to discuss why we reject or accept our hypotheses as well as answer our research question. The analysis of the results will be done through the eyes of the previous research and theories presented in chapter three.

5.1 Idealized media images impact on self-esteem and body satisfaction

When looking at the results of our experiment, what first struck us was the differences in girls' self-esteem and body satisfaction and how many high-school girls that suffer from low self-esteem and body satisfaction. Further, we found the result that the younger girls scored much lower in both self-esteem and body satisfaction surprising. Even if we did not find any evidence of idealized media images having an effect on girls' self-esteem and body satisfaction in our experiment, it is clear that something is leading to many young women suffering from low self-esteem and low body satisfaction in Sweden today.

As neither the differences between the experimental groups for the body satisfaction measurement or for the self-esteem measurements was significant, we cannot support our hypotheses. Thus, both H1 and H2 for this study are rejected. Hence, we did not find any evidence for idealized media image exposure having a negative effect on self-esteem or body satisfaction in our experiment. This finding indicates that either previous similar research mentioned in chapter three are wrong in their findings, or that there is a difference in our research compared to previously research that has led us to receiving different results.

One explanation for why our results did not show any significant difference between the self-esteem and body satisfaction means can be that the experiment was not performed during appropriate circumstances. For the experiment to be successfully carried out, one thing that is enquired is that the participants process the media images for some time. Exactly what time-frame that is necessary is uncertain and differ between different researchers and methods. Furthermore, that the participants are looking at the pictures do not necessary mean that they are processing the pictures. In the research by Dittmar and Howard (2004), they handed out the pictures to each of the participants as well as had follow-up questions about the pictures in the questionnaire. This type of process probably leads to more processing of the pictures and thus this could have led to their participants being more affected by the images. Hence, what could have been missing in our experiment procedure is the extent to which the participants processed our images. As we did not have any procedure or method controlling for if the participants really did process the pictures this is one possible explanation to why there were no significant difference between the experimental groups.

As we found that, there were significant differences between the different age groups' self-esteem and body satisfaction means, uneven distribution of age within the samples can be another reason for possibly receiving inaccurate results. The mean age was relatively similar for the three experimental groups. However, since we found such great differences between the age groups even though they were not so far apart in age, even small differences in age could have affected the results. Thus, to get truly fair results we should have had samples where the distribution between the age groups was even more similar.

Another factor that could be an explanation for why our results differ from previous research could be that our target group is different compared to previous studies. Firstly, our study is conducted in Sweden, which no one of the other studies are. Secondly, our age groups differ from some of the other studies we looked at. One reason for why high school girls, of an age between 15-20, might be less affected by media image exposure can be that they are regularly exposed to these kinds of images. This could lead to them not really processing the images as they look like images they have seen many times before. Thus, this might have led to the experiment not having any effect on the participants. Moreover, the fact that the study is conducted in Sweden can affect the results, as the debate about idealized media images is a subject that is present in Sweden even from an early age. This fact could increase people's critical processing skills, which in turn could lead to the idealized media not having that great effect on them. However, most of the critical processing research states that this requires special techniques when looking at images, in order for it to work. One such technique proven to work is for example focusing on the parts of the picture that the people looking at are more satisfied with for themselves compared to the picture (Engeln–Maddox, 2005). Hence, with previous research in mind, the fact that idealized media images is an issue that is well talked about in schools and media, thus not necessarily lead to young girls being better at critically processing these images.

Another aspect of the Swedish culture that could make the women here less sensitive toward idealized media image exposure could be the high focus on female rights and that men and women should be treated equal. This is something Sweden is known for, and this might lead to people being less impressed of idealized images or even upset by the exposure. That such a difference in feelings toward the images affect how the people exposed to them are affected, is not something we have found any proof of in previous research. However, one could imagine that such a factor might affect people's attitude, and that this attitude in turn could lead to the exposure not having the same affect.

Since our study is more recent than all other studies we looked at, another factor that could lead us to receiving different results than most previous research, can be due to the younger generation being more used to media exposure, and therefore also being more "media-trained". Since the evolution of the Internet and different social media, the younger generation that has been growing up with these new platforms, are being exposed to idealized images through media and advertisements to a greater extent. Therefore, it is likely that this extensive exposure can lead to these young women not processing the images to the same extent, simply as the extensive exposure is much for them to take in. Thus, this generation might be more affected by advertisement of a more personal type, and therefore process the information to a greater extent with this kind of media. For example by bloggers, or such media where they can get a more personal attachment to the media they are being exposed to. With this argument in mind, it is further possible that idealized media images still are affecting these young women, but that more is required in order to get these girls to process the images. Thus in this case, since these media images and advertisements still exist, for example through fashion blogs, this mostly means that the platform for where these girls are affected, and process this type of images, has moved.

5.1.1 Social comparison, internalization, and idealized media images

According to most social comparison theory, social comparison with idealized media images has a negative effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction. However, some research did not find this effect. Dittmar and Howard (2004), found in their research that internalization of

thin ideals was a more dominant predictor for how women are affected by media exposure. According to them, thin-ideal internalization among women takes away the positive affect of being exposed to normal sized women images. Thus, one explanation to why the different experimental groups did not differ in self-esteem and body satisfaction score could be that the internalization of thin ideals, has a more dominant effect on their self-esteem and body satisfaction than the social comparison with the images. Hence, idealized media images can still affect young women in creating thin-ideals, but this might be a more long-term process. However, this does not necessarily mean that idealized media images do not affect young women's self-esteem and body satisfaction. Media images are still a part of the culture that is creating thin-ideals, and some girls might internalize these thin-ideals.

However, this does not have to result in that just looking at an image one time will affect your self-esteem and body satisfaction. Hence, this can explain why the experimental groups did not score any significant differences. This is further confirmed in research by Waller et al. (1992), who states that it is likely that there is no direct causal relationship between the images and its effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction, but rather that the images maintain or even worsen the unrealistic body size perception in today's society. Thus, that idealized images do enhance or maintain unhealthy ideals in the society, but that idealized media exposure does not have a direct negative affect on women's self-esteem and body satisfaction. This argument seem logical when explaining our results, as the lack of social comparison with the images can explain why the different experimental groups scored similar means in self-esteem and body satisfaction. Moreover, internalization of thin ideals as a result of idealized appearances in media could further explain why so many girls suffer from low self-esteem and a negative perceived body image. On the other hand, if this is the case, one could also argue if idealized media images, such as the thin models often used in media today, really are affecting young women's self-esteem and body satisfaction. There could also be other reasons for why so many young women are suffering from low self-esteem and a negative self-image, which are much more dominant in reinforcing this negative state among many young women today. However, that the ideals in media today is at least part of creating the cultural ideal that is contributing to the pressure girls feel to be thin and beautiful, is something most research points toward and would agree on.

Moreover, Lennon et al. (1999) did not either find any evidence for idealized media exposure having a negative effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction in their research. Their explanation for this was that girls with high self-esteem are not comparing themselves with these images and thus the images do not have any effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction for these women. However, since there were many girls in all experimental group of our experiment that scored very low in self-esteem, and we did not find a significant difference in the images affect for neither one of these groups, we do not find this isolated explanation to be a likely explanation to why the three groups did not differ in self-esteem and body satisfaction. In further research by Hamilton and Waller (1993) they found that idealized media images did not have a significant effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction for "normal people". However, they found that idealized media images had a significant effect on people with eating disorders such as anorexia or bulimia. Moreover, thin-model images had a negative effect on these girls' body image. This results somewhat corresponds to those of Lennon et al. (1999), but do not state that those not affected by the images are due to them having high self-esteem but rather just being people without any extreme case of thin ideal internalization. This theory is more corresponding to our findings and since we did not have any participants (that we are aware of) that had anorexia or bulimia. The research by Hamilton and Waller (1993) for "normal people" further showed on the same results as ours.

To take this previous research further and analyze how girls with anorexia and bulimia (or with low self-esteem) can be affected by idealized media images and not others, one explanation could be that they have a higher internalization of thin ideals and therefore relate more or process thin-model images to a higher extent.

Another explanation to why there were no differences between the experimental groups could be that the amount of social comparison when the participants were looking at the images was not great enough. This would correspond to the theory by Tiggemann and McGill (2004), that the amount of the social comparison the women engage when looking at the images is linked to the degree to which the exposure has a negative effect on the perceived body image. Because the circumstances during our experiment was not optimal, and further about a third of our experiments were conducted when we were not present and thus did not have any control over the process, this could be one possible explanation. As the media image exposure in the classrooms was through showing the images on a big screen in the front of the class room we could not really control if each individual participant did or did not process the image. Further, in the online experiment when the images was accessed at the beginning of the questionnaire, it is possible that the participants just scrolled past the pictures without really looking at them.

5.1.1.1 Goals and motives in relation to social comparison

Something that accordingly to the research of Hogg and Frago (2003) and Martin and Gentry (1997) could affect the results of the media exposure is what goal or motive the participants had when looking at the images. According to the research by Hogg and Frago (2003), if the goal when looking at an image was self-evaluation, the media exposure often resulted in a negative effect on self-esteem among the participants. However, if the goal was self-improvement or self-enhancement it could either have a positive or negative affect on self-esteem, and for self-enhancement it was most often protective of the self-esteem. Thus, if our participants had different goals when processing the image, and especially if most of the participant's goal was self-improvement or self-enhancement, this could be an explanation to why the idealized media exposure did not show a negative effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction. If this is the case, then our findings can be explained by that most participants do not self-evaluate themselves when looking at idealized media images, as this at least according to Hogg and Frago (2003) should have resulted in a lower mean for the thin-model group compared to the other groups. Furthermore, since our experimental groups did not differ in self-esteem and body satisfaction mean, one explanation for this could be that the participants were equally inspired by the images. This as if the goal among the participants is self-enhancement, this often results in idealized image exposure being inspiring for those being exposed. However, this theory does not seem that likely, as the control images hardly was inspiring and therefore the thin-model group and average women group should have scored a higher mean than the control group according to this theory.

If looking at most similar previous research the control group were the group that was expected to have the highest or at least the middle mean in self-esteem and body satisfaction and the thin-model group was expected to have the lowest. According to the goal theory by Martin and Gentry (1997), instead of the participants self-evaluating when looking at the media images, they might have self-enhanced and thus giving the thin-model group an equally high mean as the control group, or even a bit higher. The goal could also have been self-improvement for the participants when looking at the thin-model image and the average sized woman image (which can both be inspiring and harmful) and thus resulting in an equal

mean as the control group because of the calculation of the mean. This last theory could explain why the thin-model and the average sized women group has a higher standard deviation in self-esteem mean than the control group as having different goal for this images should give more spread in the results compared to the control group where the goals should not have that much affect.

If the answer is that some of the participants goal is self-improvement when looking at the idealized images, this means that the idealized images still could have a negative effect on some of the participants even if this do not show in the mean score. However, if most people self-enthrall when looking at the images, this can be an argument for idealized media images not having a negative effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction or even further being inspiring and protective. Moreover, Martin and Gentry (1997) adds to this theory that if the motive when looking at the media image is self-improvement or self-enthrallment it has a positive effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction. However, they state that this effect only is temporary. If adding the internalization of thin ideals theory to this, we can ask ourselves if even though it has a short term positive effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction when the motives and goals are self-improvement or self-enhancement, the image exposure might still lead to thin and beauty ideals internalization. Hence, can the images still be harmful in that way that it creates unrealistic ideals among young women even though they feel a bit better after looking at the images? This theory would correspond to Mills, Polivy, Herman and Tiggemann (2002), findings that restrained eaters often feel inspired by thin-model images and thus self-enthrall when looking at such images. Hence, they might have unhealthy eating habits and a deep internalization of thin-ideals but still enthralling when looking at the images.

To summarize this part of the analysis, when it comes to goals and motive theory in relation to social comparison, we do find it likely that some girls might have self-enhancement or self-improvement goals when looking at the idealized images. However, we do not find it very likely that this would be the only explanation to why we did not find any negative affect for the thin-model group, as it seem unlikely that all three groups then would have scored the same. What we find more likely is that most of the participants did not compare themselves at all to the images and thus did not have any goal or motive when looking at the images. Thus, the goal and motive theory can be a part of the explanation to why the thin-model group scored higher than expected, due to people having self-enhancing or self-improving goals and motives, but we do not find it likely that this is the only reason for these results. Moreover, since we did not have any questions about the participants' goals and motivations we cannot control for this and thus we can only speculate. However, we find it more likely to assume that most participants did not have any motives or goals when looking at the images. Furthermore it is more likely that they did not process the images that much, than that no participants self-evaluated when looking at the idealized images.

5.1.2 Critical processing of media images

A further potential explanation to why the participants' self-esteem and body satisfaction was not affect by the exposure to the idealized media images can be that they have learned to critically process such images. According to Engeln–Maddox (2005), to criticize idealized images can interrupt the social comparison process with the image and thus decrease the effect the images have on the person's self-esteem and body satisfaction. However, according to what we have seen in previous research this requires that the girls learned functioning well-established techniques for this type of critical processing. As the girls in the younger age

group had so much lower self-esteem and body satisfaction, it do not seem like they have learned such techniques at a young age, which is what is recommended in order to avoid internalization of thin ideals (Clay et al., 2005) . However, it is possible that most girls learn this during high school. This could explain why the older girls had higher self-esteem as according to Irving, Dupen, and Berel (1998), learning to criticize media images could lead to lower internalization of thin-ideals. However according their research this did not result in any changes in body satisfaction and thus this do not explain why the older age groups would have higher body satisfaction mean as well. On the other hand, there are other research by O’Dea, (2001), that show learning to be critical in the right way can have a long-term improvement on self-esteem. Further, this could be an explanation for the founding that girls’ self-esteem normally drops around 12 to 13 and then starts to increase again around 16 to 19 (Harter, 1983; Rosenberg, 1979; and McCarthy & Hoge, 1982). The younger girls might not have learned to be critical in their thinking and are therefore more affected by the cultural pressure towards their appearances.

However, there is also the possibility that all girls are able to critical process the pictures as we cannot find any evidence for the idealized images having an effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction. Thus, the explanation to why the different age groups differed so much in self-esteem and body satisfaction could be something completely different from their abilities to be critical toward appearances ideals. One such explanation could for example be that there is more pressure put on girls to be ambitious and polite, as mentioned by, Sandmark and Renstig (2010), and that this pressure is more difficult for the younger girls to deal with.

Further, there could also be other sociocultural factors that are affecting the low self-esteem among young girls today, which are more dominant than the pressure to be thin and beautiful. However, since the differences in body satisfaction differ so much as well between the age groups, it is likely that the cultural pressure of how girls should look like is affecting girls today. However, since we did not see any differences between our experimental groups, it is possible that a higher level of critical processing skills among our participants, could be an explanation to why we did not see such an affect in our experiment. Since critical processing skills, according to research within this field, takes away the affect the exposure has on self-esteem. However this does not necessarily mean that the cultural ideals these images contribute to are not affecting the girls in the long-term.

5.2 Lifestyle factors as a predictor for young women’s vulnerability

The findings for the second part of the research, in order to answer the second research question of; *“How can Lifestyle factors be a predictor for young women’s vulnerability to the exposure of idealized media images?”*, showed a lot of interesting results in the differences between the lifestyle groups’ self-esteem and body satisfaction means. However, since we cannot determine for sure that the exposure to idealized media images have a negative effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction in the first part of the study, we cannot state that differences between the lifestyle groups’ self-esteem and body satisfaction means are due to them being more vulnerable to idealized media exposure. However, we can see that there is a significant difference in self-esteem for those who like to party and those who have a sports interest. No other significant differences were found among the lifestyle groups. We found indications of differences between most lifestyle groups’ self-esteem and body satisfaction

means, but as these differences were not significant, we cannot determine with certainty that there in fact is a differences.

The finding that the Sport lifestyle group compared to the Party lifestyle group had such a significantly higher self-esteem, can however give an indication on that lifestyle do affect how we feel about ourselves. Thus, in order to try to answer our research question “In what way can Lifestyle factors be a predictor for young women’s vulnerability to the exposure of idealized media images?” we can first determine that girls with certain lifestyles are more likely to develop a lower self-esteem. This does not necessarily mean that they because of this lifestyle are more vulnerable to idealized media exposure. Another explanation to why the Sport lifestyle group had a higher self-esteem could for example be that they feel that they are performing something, compared to the Party group that might not get the same affirmation for their performance.

According to the research by Mintz and Betz (1986) self-esteem is highly related to body satisfaction. This is something we can further see in the results from our experiment since the experiment groups as well as the lifestyle groups’ self-esteem and body satisfaction means were related to each other for all of our lifestyle groups. Thus, meaning that the lifestyle groups with high self-esteem also had a high level of body satisfaction and the lifestyle groups with a low self-esteem also scored low in body satisfaction. This finding indicates that those with low self-esteem are more likely to have a more negative perceived body image as well. Furthermore, this finding can thus indicate that even if there was no significant difference between the Party group and the other lifestyle groups’ body satisfaction mean, their seem to be a connection between self-esteem and body satisfaction. Thus, the Party lifestyle group both seems to have a low self-esteem and body satisfaction. With this in mind one can argue that these girls probable have an internalization of beauty ideals that is harmful to their self-esteem and body satisfaction.

5.2.1 Lifestyle factors in relation to internalization

Due to the connection we see between self-esteem and perceived body image, we can argue that the Party lifestyle group is more vulnerable to idealized media exposure since this can cause thin-ideal internalization. This is in line with research by for example Hartner (1999) and Stice (1994) who states that internalization of thin-ideals is the strongest predictor for low self-esteem and body satisfaction among young adults. Since the Party interest group had a significantly lower self-esteem than the Sport interest group, it is likely that they therefore to a greater extent also internalize thin ideals. Hence, internalization of thin ideals is something these girls with low self-esteem are likely to suffer from since most of them also scored a low mean in body satisfaction.

If arguing that the Party lifestyle group is extra vulnerable to idealized media exposure due to the risk of thin-ideal internalization one can further analyze if the young women in the Sport lifestyle group are vulnerable or not to idealized media exposure. As self-esteem and body satisfaction seem to be related, and if looking at our findings, the Sports lifestyle group seem to have relatively high body satisfaction mean as well. Thus, it is likely that they do not have internalized thin-ideals to any significant extent. However, they are most likely still exposed to thin idealized media to the same extent as most other girls of the same age, or at least exposed to some idealized media. Hence, the Sports interest group is not as vulnerable to internalization of thin ideals as the Party interest group. Therefore, it is likely that lifestyles can be a predictor to young women’s internalization of thin ideals.

5.2.2 Lifestyle factors in relation to social comparison

One explanation to why the Sport lifestyle group could be more protected to idealized media image exposure leading to internalization of thin ideals can be that they surround themselves with people who have other ideals. Moreover, this could lead to them having different motivations or goal when looking at idealized images. Thus, the exposure could have a positive or no effect at all for these girls as they might be more likely to have a self-improvement or self-entertainment goal or motivation when looking at the image. Another explanation could be that the girls in the Sport lifestyle group do not compare themselves to idealized media images to the same extent as those in the Party lifestyle group. One reason for why the Sport lifestyle group would not compare themselves to idealized images could be that they do not have the same interest in these types of images. Another reason could be, in accordance to Festinger (1954) that social comparison often is made with those who are similar to one self, and thus that the girls in the Sport lifestyle group do not feel resemblance to such images and thus do not compare themselves to the images. However, this theory is debatable as much research points toward people comparing themselves to other people who are not similar to themselves. However, these later research also states that social comparison often is made with those who can contribute with valuable information. Thus, another potential explanation could be that the girls in the sports interest group do not get valuable information from the media who most often show idealized media images and therefore do not compare themselves to such media to the same extent.

The theory that people compare themselves to those who are probable to give them valuable information (Kruglanski & Maysel, 1990) could also explain why the Party lifestyle group do compare themselves to idealized media images. One potential argument for this is that the Party lifestyle group might find being attractive to be more valuable for their lifestyle compared to the Sport interest lifestyle. Moreover, they might surround themselves with people who are reinforcing these ideals that also can contribute to the internalization of the ideals.

5.2.3 Lifestyle factors in relation to critical processing

Lennon et al. (1999) discusses in their research that those who already have a high level of self-esteem are not significantly affected by idealized images. Hamilton and Waller (1993) came to somewhat the same conclusion where they found idealized images to have a significant negative effect on those with an eating disorder and a likely already low level of self-esteem. Comparing these findings to our lifestyle factors we therefore have a strong reason to believe that those with a party interest is of a greater risk to be negatively affected by idealized images and at worst develop eating disorders. Furthermore, this lifestyle group is therefore in need of extra support on how to reduce the negative effects of this kind of media images. Moreover to add the critical processing theory to this, it seems like those girls with a party interest most likely have not developed functioning critical processing skills toward idealized media images. Moreover, it is possible that the girls in the Sports interest group have developed such skills. However since all participants were high school girls from the same high schools in Sweden, they most likely have been given the same education in school about this subject. Thus if they have developed such skills it is likely to assume that they then have developed these by themselves.

Engeln-Maddox (2005) recommends that young women should learn to reflect and criticize media images in order to interrupt the social comparison to the images, which causes a lowered self-esteem. Irving et al. (1998) also recommend learning to be critical to media images in order to lower the internalization of idealized images, this in the form of a media literacy program. Self-esteem and internalization is as mention in chapter three highly related and internalization is seen as one of the greatest predictors of self-esteem (Thompson et al., 2004). With connection to our findings, these kinds of programs would therefore be most successful and would be most needed for the young women who have a party interest. Since the students with a sport interests already had a relatively high level of self-esteem, these kinds of media criticizing programs would neither be needed in the same way nor would it have any significant effect. This in accordance with the findings by Lennon et al. (1999), that those with an already high level of self-esteem are not affected by idealized images.

5.3 The findings in relation to previous research

If looking back at the previous research presented in chapter three, what we can see in relation to our findings, is that contrary to most other social comparison theory, we did not find any evidence for our participants' self-esteem and body satisfaction being affected by the idealized media exposure. Since all of our experimental groups scored almost identical means in both self-esteem and body satisfaction, we found the most likely explanation for this to be that the participants did not engage in any social comparison at all with the images. The most probable explanation for this is that the participants did not process the images enough to compare themselves with the images. However, the reason for why they did not compare themselves with the images can both be due to the circumstances under which the experiment was performed and other factors among the participants. Since we did not control for the participants actually processing the images we cannot state that the previous research showing a negative effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction after idealized media exposure is wrong. Thus, it could have been that differences in the images or experimental procedure resulted in their participants processing and comparing themselves to the images to a higher degree. This argument is further in accordance with the findings of Tiggemann and McGill (2004), who state in their research that the amount of social comparison is a predictor for what effect the exposure will have on the participant's self-esteem and body satisfaction. Hence, there might be circumstances where idealized media exposure can have a negative effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction.

Despite this, there still has to be factors that contributed to our participants not processing our images. One such factor could be in accordance with Festinger's (1954) theory, that social comparison only occurs with those similar to one self. Thus, the participants therefore do not compare themselves with the images, since they do not feel any resemblance with the images. However, since the girls in the advertisement images were quite anonymous in character it does not seem like a possible explanation, because most girls should be able to at least feel some resemblance to the images. Moreover, this is a theory that has been rejected by a lot of later research and thus do not seem that valid. Another theory by Kruglanski and Mayseless (1990) states that social comparisons occur with those we believe can give us valuable information. This theory is a very possible explanation to why the participants in our experiment did not process the image, this since the images were quite anonymous in character and it was clear for the participants that it was not real advertisements. Both the fact that they could not get any valuable information by processing the images and that they have seen similar images before and therefore did not get any new information by processing

these images, could have contributed to them not comparing themselves with the images. If arguing that this is the case, which it most likely at least to some extent are, this contributes with the insight that most media images that do not lead to a longer processing of the images, do not affect young girl's self-esteem and body satisfaction. This most likely because of the high amount of media exposure and that many of these images do not contribute with any new information and therefore does not catch peoples' attention.

However, since we furthermore found in our results that there were a significant difference between the younger age group's (15-17) and the older age group's (18-20) self-esteem and body satisfaction means, there is likely that many girls has a high internalization of unhealthy thin and beauty ideals. This finding is moreover confirmed by the relation we found in our results between self-esteem and body satisfaction, where almost all girls with a low self-esteem also scored low in body satisfaction. This argument is also strengthened by previous research by for example Hartner (1999) and Stice (1994), who states that internalization is a strong predictor for both low self-esteem and a negative perceived body image among young adults. How this internalization occurs cannot be fully explained by our research, but due to the high exposure of idealized media, especially through the fashion industry, these images are most definitely a big part of what is causing these ideals in society. Evidence of this is further found in the research by Engeln-Maddox (2005) who states that after being exposed to thin model images, women tend to compare themselves to other thin people to a higher extent. Thus, even if these images do not affect self-esteem and body satisfaction in the short-run, it can contribute to the starting of a behavior that will be harmful for these young women in the long-run. Furthermore, these ideals are probably more present during the early years since many of these commercials often are targeted toward younger girls.

Moreover, many young women feel a strong pressure to fit in, especially during the earlier years in school, and therefore might these ideals feel extra important to live up to for these girls. Since we found that self-esteem and body satisfaction was very low for many young women, especially those in their first year of high school, we find teaching critical processing of ideals at an early age in school to be something that these girls could highly benefit from. This is further supported by Clay et al. (2005) who sate that body dissatisfaction, internalization of thin-ideals, and awareness of sociocultural attitudes about beauty, was significantly higher for older girls when testing for girls between 11 and 16 years old. Thus, they found that self-esteem and body satisfaction was the lowest for those who were 15-16, which in turn was the youngest girls in our study who also scored the lowest in self-esteem and body satisfaction. With these findings in mind, there seem to be a general drop in girls' self-esteem and body satisfaction from the age of 11 to the age of 16 and then many girls' self-esteem and body satisfaction start to increase again until the age of 20 (as far as we can see through our study). Hence, we would recommend that there should be more education in critical processing of idealized media images as well as about unrealistic ideals in society, from an early age of about 11 and 12.

For these ideals to change the media has to take on the responsibility of showing more realistic and a wider range of appearances. Furthermore, the reason for why the self-esteem and body satisfaction among young women tend to increase during high school we can only speculate. But one possible explanation could be that the pressure girls feel during elementary school, to live up to the ideals in society, are greater than in high school. It is also possible that the older girls have developed more functioning critical processing skills that can strengthen their self-esteem and body satisfaction during their high school years.

For the second part of our study; since this part of the study has not been previous researched in this context, our findings will be compared in relation to previous research within lifestyle

studies together with theories within idealized images' effect on young women. Similar findings were found in previous research where a connection between who we are and how our self-esteem is affected by idealized images was examined. Herman and Tiggeman (2002) for example found that people who go on a diet (but does not have an eating disorder) actually gets an increased self-esteem after being exposed to idealized images. Martin and Gentry (1997) and Hogg and Fargou (2003) found that the goals and motives of social comparison affect if the effect of idealized image exposure will be negative or actually positive. However, as previous mentioned we did not find any evidence for social comparison with our images and thus we cannot support these findings. However, as further previous stated it is likely that this difference in self-esteem is at least partly due to the Party lifestyle group having a higher internalization of thin ideals. This is further supported by our results since we found that the Party lifestyle group also scored low in body satisfaction. Even though we could not statistically state that there were a significant difference between the Party lifestyle group's, and the Sport lifestyle group's body satisfaction means, we argue that this is the case since we all through our results, did find a relationship between the self-esteem mean and the body satisfaction mean. Moreover, this connection was statistically significant for the age groups and further supported by research of for example Mintz and Betz (1986) who also found this relationship. Thus, it is highly likely that the girls with a party interest have a higher internalization of unhealthy thin and beauty ideals than the Sport lifestyle groups, due to this connection. This argument is further in line with research by Thompson and Stice (2001) who state that internalization of thin and beauty ideals often lead to a negative self-perception because these ideals are too hard to live up to. Hogg and Fragou (2003) further found that idealized media exposure is a great contributor to internalization of thin and beauty ideals, which in turn can lead to low self-esteem and body satisfaction among young women.

As the Party lifestyle group, had a lower self-esteem and therefore probably a higher internalization of thin and beauty ideals, this difference has to be due to some differences between these lifestyles. Even though we could not see any evidence for social comparison with idealized images through our experiment, it is highly likely that such comparison still occurs among these young women. However, this comparison can be between other girls, celebrities, or just the cultural ideal of how they think a woman should look like. This does not mean that these girls are not more vulnerable to idealized media exposure. On the contrary, we argue that these girls are more vulnerable to such images since those are a big part of creating the ideal young girls internalize and feel they have to live up to. Moreover, it is likely that they do compare themselves to some idealized images and that this in turn reinforces the internalization of the ideals and thus harms their self-esteem and body satisfaction. This is in line with research by for example Blowers et al. (2003) that found that perceived pressure to live up to ideals among young women causes dissatisfaction with one self.

Another argument for why the Party lifestyle group has a lower self-esteem could be that when you party a lot you put yourself in situations where you are constantly judged by your appearance, which may cause pressure towards your appearance to a greater extent than for the Sport interest group. This finding is supported by for example the by study Blowers et al. (2005) which concludes that those who feel the most pressure to be thin and beautiful are also most dissatisfied with themselves. This could partly be an explanation to the difference between the Party lifestyle group and the Sport lifestyle group. Dedovic et al. (2009) found similar results in their study concluding that the social demands put on girls to be thin and beautiful are having a negative effect on self-esteem. As mentioned above, there is reason to believe that such demands are greater for some lifestyles than for others. It is likely that these

type of pressures are affecting these girls, and further that some girls has internalized these ideals since there is a clear difference between some girls' self-esteem and body satisfaction compared to others.

As earlier stated, even though we did not find any evidence for social comparison with our idealized images, it is still likely that the girls in the Party lifestyle group compare themselves to idealized ideals to a greater extent than the Sport lifestyle group. Therefore, when arguing for this, using the social comparison theory by Kruglanski and Mayseless (1990), which states that social comparison often occurs with those who can give us valuable information, and this is a theory that partly could explain the low self-esteem among those with a party lifestyle. This since it is probable that girls with a party lifestyle are in an environment where these ideals are more present and therefore valuable for them to live up to in order to get attention and fit in. However, this is off course not the entire explanation to the lower self-esteem among this group. There could also be other factors outside the pressure to live up to ideals affecting these girls, such as that those with a party lifestyle do not get as much affirmation for their performance as the Sport lifestyle group. Even though, it is most likely that the pressure to live up to beauty- and thin ideals, is more present for the Party lifestyle group than the Sport lifestyle group. To further explain why they would be more vulnerable, the finding by Martin and Gentry (1997) and Hogg and Fargou (2003) states that those who has a self-evaluation goal and motive are more negatively affected by social comparison with idealized images, can be a very possible further explanation to why these girls have a lower self-esteem. If arguing that the beauty- and thin ideals are more important for these girls to live up to, it is also highly likely that they evaluate themselves in relation to such ideals. However, as previous mentioned, we cannot find proof from our experiment that this comparison is necessarily done with idealized media images. Although, we dare with confidence state that these comparisons occur with these ideals in some form. Moreover, as previously stated, idealized media is contributing and reinforcing these ideals and thus is a part of this issue.

With this in mind, as we stated for the younger age group, critical processing programs is something that could help young women with certain lifestyles. Further, for marketers to target girls with a party lifestyle using idealized images could be extra harmful since it is reinforcing such ideals among these girls. Thus, both to create a party scene where the focus on appearances are not as great and to learn girls to be more critical to such ideals are two recommendations likely to strengthen these girls' self-perception. This due to previous findings of the positive effects of critical processing techniques, and the negative effect of the pressure put on appearances and ideals to live up, on self-esteem and body satisfaction.

6 Conclusion

In this chapter, we will through the discussions in our analysis come to conclusions of our research. We will answer the two research questions and further reach the two-folded purpose of this study. As a final part of this chapter our contribution with this research will be stated along with suggested further research.

To answer our first research question; *“In what way does the exposure to idealized media images affects young women’s self-esteem and body satisfaction?”*, we can first state that since we could not determine any significant differences between our experimental groups we cannot see that idealized media exposure has any effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction for young women through our experiment. Hence both our hypotheses; *“The exposure of advertisement showing idealized appearances and body images will have a negative effect on young women’s self-esteem”* and *“The exposure of advertisement showing idealized appearances and body images will have a negative effect on young women’s body satisfaction.”* were rejected. However, since we could see that many young girls suffer from both low self-esteem and a negative perceived body image we can determine that something is affecting these girls. Moreover, we found a strong connection between self-esteem and body satisfaction that is corresponding to previous findings in literature. By looking at these findings together, we argue that most of these girls with low self-esteem and body satisfaction probable suffer from internalization of thin- and beauty ideals that is harmful to their self-esteem and body satisfaction. We also argue that this internalization is stronger for the young women in their first years of high school, since they scored lower in both self-esteem and body satisfaction compared to the older girls.

Because we could not determine that the idealized pictures in our experiment (the thin-model condition) had a negative effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction, we cannot find proof through the experiment that the internalization of thin- and beauty ideals are due to idealized media exposure. However, since these images are such a great part of our culture today, we argue that they at least are contributing to, and reinforcing these ideals in society. Moreover, since we did not see any differences at all between the means of the three different experimental groups, one conclusion likely to be the explanation for this, is that our participants did not compare themselves to the images. One potential reason for this is that they did not process the images enough. Some potential explanations to why they did not compare themselves to the images could be the circumstances of how the experiment was performed. Another explanation could be that they did not find any valuable information in comparing themselves to the images. A third potential explanation could be that they are so used to such images that they did not reflect over them. Whatever the reason for this is, there is still a risk that idealized media images could have a negative effect if the participants where to process the images more. Therefore, we do not want to draw to strong conclusions on that idealized media images cannot have a negative effect on girls’ self-esteem and body satisfaction. Moreover, as the older girls in our experiment scored a relatively high mean in self-esteem and body satisfaction, we recommend that if implementing programs to teach girls to be more critical towards idealized media images, such programs should be implemented at an early age, preferable around 11-12 years old.

In order to answer the second research question; *“How can Lifestyle factors be a predictor for young women’s vulnerability to the exposure of idealized media images?”*, we first have to go back to the findings of the first part of the study. Since we did not find any evidence for idealized media exposure having a negative effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction through our experiment, we cannot conclude that the differences between the lifestyle groups’ self-esteem are due to the idealized media exposure. However, if looking at previous research it is likely that internalization of thin- and beauty ideals are something that is contributing to this low

self-esteem and body satisfaction. Therefore, if looking at our findings, we can argue that the girls with a party interest still are more vulnerable to idealized media exposure due to the higher risk of unhealthy thin- and beauty ideal internalization. Moreover, even though we could not see any evidence of social comparison with idealized media images through our experiment, as previously mentioned, we still cannot with certainty state that this is not due to circumstances under how our experiment was performed. Thus, with previous findings in mind, it is possible that the Party lifestyle group also is more likely to compare themselves with idealized media images.

Therefore as an answer to our second research question, we can determine that there most probably, are lifestyle groups that are more vulnerable to idealized media exposure compared to other. Furthermore, Party interest is one lifestyle factor that can predict that girls are more vulnerable to idealized media exposure. The Sports lifestyle group can further be determined as a lifestyle factor that is not as vulnerable to idealized media exposure. Hence, depending on young women's lifestyle one can predict if some girls are more likely to develop a low self-esteem and body satisfaction and furthermore internalize unhealthy ideals.

6.1 Contribution and further research

Our study contributes to previous research as it helps marketers to better understand their target groups. Further, it highlights ethical concerns associated with using idealized appearances in media. Although we also question if the exposure to such images has a negative effect on self-esteem and body satisfaction when exposed to them, we highlight the ethical concerns with being part in creating the cultural pressure toward appearances as this can affect young women negatively. As we found that girls with certain lifestyles as well as girls within certain age groups suffer from very low self-esteem and body satisfaction, we still see a risk of exposing these girls to idealized images due to the risk of internalization of such ideals. Moreover, our research suggests in what ways girls with different lifestyles could be more or less vulnerable to images that are enforcing idealized ideals.

Further, as our research show that young girls, in their first years of high school, often suffer from low self-esteem this study contributes from society's perspective. Because, previous research has found evidence that learning girls to be critical toward idealized media can decrease internalization of thin-ideals and thus have a long-term effect on self-esteem. This is something that could help many girls today if implemented at an early age. However, these critical processing techniques need to be taught in a professional way and only some techniques have been proven to work.

Since we found a strong indication that those with a party interest are of a greater risk to be negatively affected by idealized images, companies should be careful using these kinds of images in advertisements targeting this consumer group. Further Malär et al. (2011) states in his research that advertisements using idealized images and targeting a group with a low level of self-esteem, can actually cause a decrease in brand attachment and brand loyalty. As the lifestyle group Party interest, is a vulnerable consumer group, and with mentioned research in mind companies and organizations need to proceed with caution in order to have positive brand attachment and brand loyalty. There are also ethical concerns with using these types of images as they are contributing to the unhealthy cultural perception of how women should look like. Thus, the recommending conclusion still is that there should be a more diverse use of appearances in media today. Even if we cannot control all media, at least our findings can contribute to the understanding of which girls that might need extra protection.

For further research within the subject, we would firstly recommend redoing the experiment, but using a method to control for that the girls are processing the pictures. Further, we would recommend using a larger sample, where the age of the participants are more equally distributed within the different segments. Moreover, it would be interesting to further investigate how the different lifestyle groups look at idealized images. Thus, a qualitative study when examining what motivations and goals girls of different lifestyle groups has when looking at idealized images would be interesting. Also to examine if the different lifestyle groups differ in their opinions and attitudes toward idealized media would be valuable, in order to further see how these lifestyles affect those girls' potential vulnerability to media exposure.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.* At times, I think I am no good at all.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.* I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.* I certainly feel useless at times.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I feel that I'm a person worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.* I wish I could have more respect for myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.* All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 2. The Appearance Evaluation Subscale of the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire

	Definitely Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Mostly Agree	Definitely Agree
1. Includes statements such as	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. "My body is sexually appealing."	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. and	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. "I like my looks just the way they are."	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 3. AIO Lifestyle Questionnaire

Age:

School:

Program:

Year:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I have several outfits of the very latest style.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. If I have to choose, I'd rather dress for fashion than for comfort.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. My clothing style is an important part of my life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I often try new stores and brands before my friends and classmates.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. When talking to my friends, I often talk about brands and products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I actively participate in sports activities on a regular basis.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I go to the gym every week.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Health and training is really important for me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I often drink low-calorie soft drinks.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I eat more low-calorie foods than average.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. I think it is important that people vote in political election.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I often enjoy my homework.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. I think it is important to prepare for my future career.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. I like to go to parties.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. If I have to choose, I'd rather spend a cozy evening at home than to go to a party.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. I like to watch sport games.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 4. Experiment images



Images experimental group *average sized women*.



Images experimental groups *thin models*.



Images experimental group *control group*.

Appendix 5. Online experiment

Hej,

Först vill vi bara tacka för ni är med och hjälper oss i vårt examensarbete om hur unga tjejers självförtroende och kroppsuppfattning påverkas av bilder i media. Det här frågeformuläret är 100% anonymt och inga svar kommer kunna gå att spåra till dig som person. Frågeformuläret kommer börja med att visa två bilder som representerar hur reklam kan se ut i media idag. Kolla noga på bilderna och svara sedan på frågorna som rör självförtroende, kroppsuppfattning och livsstil. Ta gärna tid på dig och kännefter innan du svarar.

Tack på förhand,
Linda & Lis!



3 för 2 **Tag 3 betala för 2**
på alla trosor och BH hela mars

Appendix 6. Cronbach's Alpha

Reliability Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Self-esteem	.920	10
Body satisfaction	.927	7

Appendix 7. Self-esteem experimental groups

	Control group	Average sized woman	Thin models
Mean	16.67	17.59	16.81
N	33	29	37
Average age	17.30	17.50	17.75
Std. Deviation	5.802	6.124	7.389

Appendix 8. Normality tests

Experimental groups: Tests of Normality (self-esteem)

Group Experiment	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Control group	.106	33	.200 [*]	.955	33	.190
Thin models	.132	37	.104	.958	37	.169
Average sized models	.103	29	.200 [*]	.961	29	.345

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

Lifestyle groups: Tests of Normality (self-esteem)

Group AIO	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Fashion	.154	16	.200 [*]	.948	16	.454
Health	.141	11	.200 [*]	.975	11	.930
Sport	.113	30	.200 [*]	.953	30	.205
Prepare for future	.129	29	.200 [*]	.935	29	.075
Party	.126	31	.200 [*]	.953	31	.193

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Lifestyle groups: Tests of Normality (body satisfaction)

Group AIO	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Fashion	.157	16	.200*	.925	16	.205
Health	.221	11	.138	.932	11	.431
Sport	.126	30	.200*	.969	30	.508
Prepare for future	.184	29	.013	.896	29	.008
Party	.119	31	.200*	.949	31	.142

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Experimental groups: Tests of Normality (body satisfaction)

Group Experiment	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Control group	.070	33	.200*	.981	33	.817
Thin models	.098	37	.200*	.957	37	.166
Average sized models	.159	29	.060	.914	29	.022

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Appendix 9. Homogeneity of Variances

Test of Homogeneity of Variances in experiment groups

Total self-esteem

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.501	2	96	.607

Test of Homogeneity of Variances in experiment groups

Total Body Satisfaction

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.142	2	96	.868

Test of Homogeneity of Variances in lifestyle groups

Total self-esteem

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.210	4	112	.932

Test of Homogeneity of Variances in lifestyle groups

Total Body Satisfaction

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.388	4	112	.817