



5-2012

When Comments About Looking Good Lead to Feeling Good: The Interactive Effects of Valuing Women for Their Sexual and Non-Sexual Attributes

Andrea L Meltzer
ameltzer@utk.edu

Recommended Citation

Meltzer, Andrea L, "When Comments About Looking Good Lead to Feeling Good: The Interactive Effects of Valuing Women for Their Sexual and Non-Sexual Attributes." PhD diss., University of Tennessee, 2012.
http://trace.tennessee.edu/utk_graddiss/1326

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at Trace: Tennessee Research and Creative Exchange. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Trace: Tennessee Research and Creative Exchange. For more information, please contact trace@utk.edu.

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Andrea L Meltzer entitled "When Comments About Looking Good Lead to Feeling Good: The Interactive Effects of Valuing Women for Their Sexual and Non-Sexual Attributes." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.

Cheryl B. Travis, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

Lowell Gaertner, Michael A. Olson, Suzanne B. Kurth

Accepted for the Council:

Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

(Original signatures are on file with official student records.)

**When Comments About Looking Good Lead to Feeling Good:
The Interactive Effects of Valuing Women for Their Sexual and Non-Sexual Attributes**

A Dissertation Presented for
the Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Andrea Leigh Meltzer
May 2012

Abstract

Previous objectification research investigates the negative *intrapersonal* implications of societal female sexual objectification. However, little research has examined the *interpersonal* implications of female sexual objectification. Given that female sexual objectification occurs in interpersonal encounters (Fredrickson, Roberts, Noll, Quinn & Twenge, 1998), and given that psychological phenomenon can vary across relational contexts (Reis, 2008), it is important to consider relevant factors of the intimate relationship context. The two studies reported here explored the proposition that women's esteem and affect might benefit from men's sexual valuation to the extent that women perceive those men as psychologically close. In the first study, a week-long, event-based diary study, women reported higher levels of state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect to the extent that close men rather than distant men drew attention to their sexuality and/or physical appearance. Notably, this effect (1) accounted for nearly 16% of the variance in women's state self-esteem, nearly 28% of the variance in women's state body esteem, and nearly 35% of the variance in women's state positive affect and (2) was not moderated by women's levels of self-objectification, male perceived physical attractiveness, or women's internalization of sociocultural attitudes toward appearance. In the second study, women were randomly assigned to receive positive and/or neutral evaluations of their sexual and non-sexual attributes by either a male stranger or their relationship partner. Results demonstrated that the effects of sexual valuation from a psychologically close or distant male on women's state self-esteem, body esteem, and affect depend on the extent to which they are also non-sexually valued. Specifically, women who were both sexually and non-sexually valued by their relationship partner reported increased state self-esteem and decreased negative affect. Additionally, women who were sexually valued but not non-sexually valued reported decreased

weight satisfaction. Thus, unlike objectification by male strangers, sexual valuation by psychologically close men can have a more positive impact, as long as those men also value those women for their non-sexual attributes. These findings join others to demonstrate that intimate relationships, and their various qualities, determine the implications various processes have for well-being.

Table of Contents

Chapter I: Introduction.....	1
Benefits of Being Valued for Sexuality	6
Sociocultural Perspectives	6
Evolutionary Perspectives.....	8
Reconciling Inconsistencies: The Role of Men’s Psychological Closeness.....	11
Overview of the Current Studies.....	14
Chapter II: Study 1	16
Method	16
Materials	18
Data Analyses	20
Results.....	21
Discussion.....	31
Chapter III: Study 2	33
Method	33
Materials	36
Data Analysis	38
Results.....	41
Discussion.....	55
Chapter IV: General Discussion	57
Summary of Results.....	57
Theoretical and Practical Implications.....	58
Future Directions	61
Strengths and Limitations	63
Chapter V: Conclusion.....	66
References.....	67
Appendices.....	81
Vita.....	114

List of Tables

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study 1	82
Table 2: Association Between Male Closeness and Women’s State Self-Esteem	83
Table 3: Association Between Male Closeness and Women’s State Body Esteem	84
Table 4: Association Between Male Closeness and Women’s State Affect.....	85
Table 5: Moderators of the Association Between Male Closeness and Women’s Well-Being.....	86
Table 6: Descriptive Statistics for Study 2	87
Table 7: Correlations for Study 2.....	88
Table 8: Association Between Male Closeness, Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Women’s State Self-Esteem	89
Table 9: Association Between Male Closeness, Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Women’s State Body Esteem.....	90
Table 10: Association Between Male Closeness, Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Women’s State Affect.....	91

List of Figures

Figure 1: Interactive Effects of Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Male Closeness on Women’s State Self-Esteem, Assessed by the Rosenberg (1965) Self-Esteem Scale	92
Figure 2: Interactive Effects of Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Male Closeness on Women’s State Self-Esteem, Assessed by the Heatherton and Polivy’s (1991) State Self-Esteem Scale	93
Figure 3: Interactive Effects of Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Male Closeness on Women’s State Weight Satisfaction	94
Figure 4: Interactive Effects of Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Male Closeness on Women’s State Negative Affect	95

Chapter I: Introduction

Western society values female attractiveness and sexuality. The media, for example, frequently sexualizes women by depicting them in sexually suggestive ways (Grauerholz & King, 1997; Peter & Valkenberg, 2007; Seidman, 1992; Ward, 2003), focusing on women's body parts rather than their whole bodies (Unger & Crawford, 1996), and depicting men gazing at women while those women are mentally detached from the image (e.g., daydreaming, looking off into the distance; Goffman, 1979; see Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Exposure to these sexualized media images leads both men and women to report increased beliefs that women are sex objects (Peter & Valkenberg, 2007). Additionally, men evaluate attractive women more positively and reward them more often than they evaluate and reward less attractive women (Davis, Claridge, & Fox, 2000; Fouts & Burggraf, 1999, 2000). For example, Fouts and Burggraf (1999, 2000) found that whereas female television characters who meet society's physical attractiveness standards are more likely to be rewarded (e.g., positive verbal comments regarding weight and body shape), female characters who do not meet society's physical attractiveness standards are more likely to be punished (e.g., ridiculed and teased) by male television characters. Women observe this vicarious punishment and consequently are more likely to internalize societal pressures and aim to meet those standards (Ogletree, Williams, Raffeld, Mason, & Fricke, 1990; see Fouts & Burggraf, 2000).

What are the implications of this high value society places on women's sexuality? Although most of the extant research highlights the negative implications of valuing women for their sexuality (e.g., Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Fredrickson, Roberts, Noll, Quinn, & Twenge, 1998; Moradi & Huang, 2008; Myers & Crowther, 2008; Tolman, Impett, Tracy, & Michael,

2006; Tylka & Hill, 2004), there is reason to believe that women may actually *benefit* from being valued for their sexuality by one aspect of society—men who are psychologically close (e.g., an intimate relationship partner) and who thus also value other non-sexual attributes. The goal of this dissertation is to address this issue.

In pursuit of this goal, the following introduction is divided into four sections. The first section provides an overview of the negative implications women experience when they are sexually valued. The second section, in contrast, reviews theory and research suggesting why women may sometimes *benefit* when men sexually value them. The third section describes why women's implications of such sexual valuation may vary depending on the psychological closeness of the man. The final section proposes two studies that draw upon both longitudinal and experimental data to address this issue.

Costs of Being Valued for Sexuality

Extant theory and research suggest that women are adversely affected by being valued for their sexuality. Objectification theory, for example, is the most predominant theory regarding the implications of Western society's tendency to value women for their sexuality (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). According to objectification theory, female sexual objectification involves evaluating women based on their bodies and occurs when a woman is reduced to her body parts (e.g., cleavage, buttocks, bare stomach, bare chest), with the misperception that her body or body parts are capable of representing the woman as a whole (Bartky, 1990; Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Gervais, 2007; Rudman & Hagiwara, 1992). For example, in one study, Gervais (2007) instructed 73 undergraduate students (45 females and 38 males) to view either isolated body parts or full-body images of both men and women and then later identify which images they

viewed. Whereas participants tended to demonstrate memory for the whole man rather than his parts (i.e., their memories of men were person-like), they tended to demonstrate memory for the woman's body parts rather than the whole woman (i.e., their memories of women were object-like or objectifying). Similarly, the media presents women in a more objectified manner.

Whereas images of men in the media are characterized by "face-ism," an emphasis on heads and faces with great facial detail that suggests power and dominance (see Archer, Iritani, Kimes, & Barrios, 1983), images of women in the media are characterized by "body-ism," an emphasis on bodies, or body parts, that sometimes completely eliminates heads and faces and thus suggests sexuality (see Unger & Crawford, 1996).

This increased attention to and focus on women's body parts also leads women to sometimes focus more on their physical appearance than their physical health, functioning, and internal body states (i.e., self-objectification; Fredrickson et al., 1998; Moradi & Huang, 2008; Myers & Crowther, 2008; Nussbaum, 1995; Noll & Fredrickson, 1998; Roberts & Waters, 2004). Indeed, evidence demonstrates that comments from others, either complimentary or critical, may contribute to women's body image disturbance (McLaren, Kuh, Hardy, & Gauvin, 2004; Tantleff-Dunn, Thompson, & Dunn, 1995) because such comments serve as a reminder that others evaluate them based on their appearance (Herbozo & Thompson, 2006b). These comments can in turn lead to self-objectification (Calogero, Herbozo, & Thompsen, 2009). This self-objectification is often assessed with self-report measures of trait objectification (i.e., the extent to which women internalize societal messages that they are indeed sexual objects; see McKinley & Hyde, 1996; Noll & Fredrickson, 1998). For example, The Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS; McKinley & Hyde, 1996) is a trait self-objectification measure that

has three subscales: body surveillance, body shame, and perceptions of control. The body surveillance subscale of the OBCS measures the extent to which a person is attentive to their body and includes statement such as, “I often worry about whether the clothes I am wearing make me look good” and “During the day, I think about how I look many times.” The body shame subscale of the OBCS measures the extent to which a person feels guilty for not obtaining the cultural standard and includes statements such as, “I feel ashamed of myself when I haven’t made the effort to look my best” and “I feel like a bad person when I don’t look as good as I could.” The perceptions of control subscale of the OBCS measures the extent to which a person believes they have control over his/her appearance and is assessed with questions such as, “I think a person can look pretty much how they want to if they are willing to work at it” and “I can weigh what I am supposed to when I try hard enough.” Participants are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with each question on a 6-point Likert scale where 1 = “strongly disagree” and 6 = “strongly agree.” Higher scores indicate higher levels of trait self-objectification.

Likewise, Noll and Fredrickson’s (1998) Self-Objectification Questionnaire (SOQ) is a trait objectification measure that quantitatively assesses the extent to which people view their body in an objectified, appearance-based manner versus a non-objectified, competence-based manner. Individuals completing the SOQ rank order 6 different appearance-based traits (weight, physical attractiveness, measurements, sex appeal, firm/sculpted muscle, coloring) and 6 different competence-based traits (strength, health, energy level, stamina, physical coordination, physical fitness). The sum of the competence-based traits is subtracted from the sum of the appearance-based traits and higher scores indicate higher levels of trait self-objectification.

This tendency for women to sexually value themselves can lead to numerous negative physical and mental health implications. Regarding physical health, self-objectification is associated with increased eating disorders and sexual dysfunction. Myers and Crowther (2008), for example, had 195 college women complete measures of self-objectification, interoceptive awareness, and disordered eating attitudes, and using logistic regression, they found that women's lack of interoceptive awareness (i.e., difficulty in the recognition of feelings of hunger and satiety) partially mediated the association between self-objectification and disordered eating (also see, Tylka & Hill, 2004). Likewise, when Fredrickson and colleagues (1998) manipulated state self-objectification by having female participants sit in front of a mirror and complete a variety of tasks while wearing either a swimsuit or a sweater, they found that women who wore a swimsuit reported increased body shame, which in turn predicted restrained eating.

Regarding mental health, self-objectification often leads women to demonstrate low levels of insight into their own feeling, thoughts, and desires (MacKinnon, 1989, 2006). For example, Fredrickson and Roberts (1997) found that women's lack of attention and responsiveness to their internal signals of arousal mediates the association between women's increased attentiveness to their external physical appearance and women's decreased sexual pleasure (also see, Moradi & Huang, 2008). Additionally, women who score high on measures of self-objectification experience increased body shame, disgust, anxiety, and depression (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Fredrickson et al., 1998; Tolman et al., 2006) and decreased self-esteem (Tolman et al., 2006). In the Fredrickson et al. (1998) study described previously, for example, the women who wore a swimsuit also demonstrated decreased cognitive functioning

(e.g., performed more poorly on a math-related task) compared to those participants who wore a sweater (see also Noll & Fredrickson, 1998).

Benefits of Being Valued for Sexuality

Sociocultural Perspectives

Although the extant objectification research suggests that sexual objectification has numerous negative consequences for women, there are also theoretical reasons to believe that such sexual valuation should not always lead to negative consequences for women. In fact, two perspectives—sociocultural and evolutionary perspective—suggest that women should *benefit* from men's sexual valuation. Sociocultural theory focuses on how societal and cultural expectations affect different races, social classes, and genders. The general research paradigm of sociocultural theory involves comparing one group of people who face a particular situation or phenomenon against another group of people who face the same situation or phenomenon. For example, comparing the effects of objectification among Western women and Eastern women aims to investigate the cultural effects of objectification. Often, the data that is collected and analyzed according to sociocultural and feminist theories are correlational in nature, though experimental methods are sometimes employed.

According to sociocultural perspectives (see Bartky, 2003; Calogero, Boroughs, & Thompson, 2007; Jackson, 1992, 2002), society dictates that women should be beautiful and physically appealing rather than physically active or assertive and to be available to men to be enjoyed both visually and physically (though not promiscuously; Smolak & Striegel-Moore, 2001). Given that people generally are motivated to conform to norms and expectations set forth by society (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955; Kelley, 1955; Miller & Prentice, 1996; Nail, McDonald, &

Levy, 2000), women should be motivated to meet these societal expectations and be valued for their sexuality. Indeed, sociocultural perspectives suggest that women eventually accept, and may even welcome, sexually objectifying messages because they have come to adopt self-views that they are physical objects and therefore should be acknowledged as such. For example, in a study of 132 participants, Strelan and Hargreaves (2005) found that women reported objectifying other women such that they evaluated other women's physical attributes (e.g., physical attractiveness, sex appeal) as more important than competency attributes (e.g., strength, physical coordination). Additionally, women who engaged in more self-objectification were more likely to objectify other women than those who engaged in less self-objectification.

Several facts are consistent with this idea that women expect to be sexually valued. For example, women often participate in excessive exercise and engage in disordered eating to achieve their ideal body at the potential expense to their health (Bastian, 1999). Likewise, 88% of women over the age of 18 report using make-up of some kind (Dortch, 1997). Further, throughout modern history, women have used a variety of accessories and clothing to enhance their sexual appeal and attractiveness (Buss, 1988; Walters & Crawford, 1994). Finally, evidencing a rather strong desire to look beautiful, the most recent estimates suggest that nearly 1.7 million women receive elective cosmetic surgery procedures annually (American Society of Plastic Surgeons, 2009a; American Society of Plastic Surgeons, 2009b).

Given this strong motivation to be noticed by men for their sexuality, women should psychologically benefit when they *are* sexually valued. Indeed, although no research has directly examined whether or not women benefit from men's sexual valuation, a robust literature demonstrates that people who conform to societal norms experience psychological benefits such

as positive affect, increased self-esteem, feelings of social acceptance, and a positive self-concept (see Brewer & Roccas, 2001; Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004; Pool, Wood, & Leck, 1998). For example, in one study, women experienced more positive affect and higher self-esteem to the extent that they met society's sex-role expectations (Wood, Christensen, Hebl, & Rothgerber, 1997).

In sum, sociocultural perspectives and research on social influence and conformity suggest that women who are sexually valued should feel that they are meeting societal expectations and thus may experience some psychological benefits such as increased self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect. In contrast, women who are not sexually valued may feel that they are failing to meet societal expectations and thus may experience some psychological costs such as decreased self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect.

Evolutionary Perspectives

Evolutionary perspectives also provide reason to expect women to benefit from men's sexual valuation. A robust literature demonstrates that evolution may have favored women who demonstrated specific strategies, preferences, and psychological mechanisms of obtaining viable mates (Gangestad, Garver-Apgar, Simpson, & Cousins, 2007; Gangestad, Simpson, Cousins, Garver-Apgar, & Christensen, 2004; Havlicek, Roberts, & Flegr, 2005; Johnston, Hagel, Franklin, Fink, & Grammer, 2001; Penton-Voak & Perret, 2001; see Garver-Apgar, Gangestad, & Thornhill, 2008). Given that ancestral women should have been more likely to successfully reproduce to the extent that they favored mates who sexually valued them (because such mates should have been more likely to engage in behaviors that would have led to offspring) and should have been unlikely to reproduce to the extent that they favored mates who did not

sexually value them (because such mates should have been less likely to engage in behaviors that would have led to offspring), women may have evolved to engage in specific strategies that helped them attract such mates.

Empirical evidence is consistent with this possibility. For example, women report feeling more physically attractive and experience an increased interest in attending social gatherings during their most fertile stage of the menstrual cycle (Haselton & Gangestad, 2006). By focusing on their appearance and sexuality in this way, at a time when they are most fertile, women may be increasing the likelihood of carrying on their genes. Likewise, women engage in increased locomotion and consume fewer calories while ovulating (Fessler, 2003). This increased movement and decreased motivation to consume calories may allow women more time and opportunity to seek out and attract viable mates at a time when they are most likely to reproduce (Fessler, 2003). Additionally, women are more likely to wear sexy and revealing clothing (e.g., skin display and clothing tightness) when they are most fertile (Durante, Li, & Haselton, 2008; Grammer, Renninger, & Fischer, 2004).

If women indeed evolved a tendency to attract sexually valuing mates, then evolutionary perspectives regarding the role of emotions (see Nesse & Ellsworth, 2009; Oatley & Jenkins, 1999; Plutchik, 1993) suggest that women today may respond positively to the extent that they are able to attract such mates. Nesse and Ellsworth (2009), for instance, argued that emotions are special modes of operation that alert individuals to behave in adaptive manners; whereas positive emotions are useful in situations that promote fitness, Nesse and Ellsworth (p. 129) argue that “in situations that decreases fitness, negative emotions are useful and positive emotions are harmful.” For example, whereas people experience negative emotions (e.g., fear, anger, sadness) in

situations that are harmful, they experience more positive emotions (e.g., happiness, love, joy) in situations that are safe. Because male sexual valuation should have similarly promoted women's reproductive fitness throughout their evolutionary history, women should experience positive affect when men sexually value them. In contrast, because a lack of male sexual valuation should have decreased fitness, women should experience negative affect when they are not sexually valued by men.

Another perspective suggests women likely evolved the tendency to experience levels of self-esteem that respond to being valued for their sexuality in similar ways. Leary and colleagues' sociometer theory argues that individuals' self-esteem reflects an evolved mechanism that gauges the quality of their interpersonal relationships, such that people who experience social acceptance report increased self-esteem whereas people who experience social rejection report decreased self-esteem (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Leary & Downs, 1995; Leary, Haupt, Strausser, & Chokel, 1998). Indeed, Leary, Tambor, Terdal, and Downs (1995) reported that the degree to which people believe they are generally socially excluded is negatively associated with global self-esteem. Accordingly, male sexual valuation should signal women's social acceptance, women should report increased self-esteem when they are sexually valued but decreased self-esteem when they are not sexually valued. Furthermore, similar effects should occur regarding women's esteem in the specific context in which they are being accepted/rejected—their bodies and sexuality. In other words, women should report increase body esteem when they are sexually valued but decreased body esteem when they are not sexually valued.

In sum, like sociocultural perspectives, evolutionary perspectives suggest that women who are sexually valued by men should experience increased self-esteem, body esteem, and

positive affect, likely because it was evolutionarily adaptive, whereas women who are not valued by men for their sexuality should report decreased well-being, likely because it was evolutionarily maladaptive.

Reconciling Inconsistencies: The Role of Men's Psychological Closeness

Given that both sociocultural and evolutionary perspectives suggest that women should benefit from being valued by men for their sexuality, why does current research suggest that such sexual valuation is harmful for women's mental health? One reason may be the context in which previous studies have examined sexual valuation. Specifically, the effects of the extent to which women are valued for their sexuality are often examined either in the context of broad, societal messages (see Aubrey, 2010; Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Fredrickson et al., 1998; Moradi & Huang, 2008; Tylka & Hill, 2004) or in interactions with men who are strangers (e.g., psychologically distant; see Calogero, 2004). Aubrey (2010), for example, conducted a 2-year panel study in which college women were randomly assigned to view appearance-related media or health-related media. Aubrey (2010) found, using cross-lagged path models, that women who were exposed to appearance-related media reported higher levels of body shame and increased motivation to exercise compared to women who were exposed to health-related media. Likewise, Calogero (2004) randomly assigned 105 female undergraduates to believe they would be engaging in a conversation with either a female stranger or a male stranger. A multivariate analysis of covariance found that women who anticipated the male stranger's gaze reported increased body shame and anxiety compared to women who anticipated the female stranger's gaze, controlling for both women's body size and self-objectification. In other words, simply anticipating contact with a male and thus anticipating male gaze can lead women to experience

increased physical awareness, independent of their physical appearance and self-awareness. Because real or imagined strangers, like those used in these studies, only have information regarding women's outer, physical appearance, when women are sexually valued by such strangers, they are valued *only* for their sexuality. Accordingly, the harmful effects documented in previous research may have emerged not because women were sexually valued, but because they were *only* sexually valued.

But what happens when women are sexually valued by men who *do* have information about those women beyond their outer, physical appearance? There are theoretical reasons to believe that the extent to which those men value women for their non-sexual qualities should moderate the association between sexual valuation and women's self-esteem, body esteem, and affect. Indeed, according to the same evolutionary perspectives described previously, it would not be adaptive for women to benefit from responding positively to *all* men who value them for their sexuality but rather to benefit from responding positively only to those men who are viable mates.

What qualities should determine whether men are viable mates? Although short-term mating can sometimes be adaptive for women (Lancaster, 1989; Smuts, 1992), women are most likely to benefit from long-term mating because bonded couples are more likely to produce and successfully rear offspring (Buss & Schmitt, 1993; Trivers, 1972; for a review see Schmitt, Shackelford, & Buss, 2001). Indeed, evolutionary perspectives suggest that the most successful reproductive and child-rearing practices require two distinctly different psychological motives—sexual desire *and* emotional attachment (Diamond, 2003, 2004). Although sexual desire is generally adaptive for producing offspring, Diamond (2003) argues that successful reproduction

also requires emotional attachment between mates that keeps them together long enough to successfully rear those offspring. That is, the costs associated with rearing offspring alone led women to evolve to desire mates who were committed to a long-term relationship and thus willing to provide resources to help offset those costs (also see Buss, 2003; Thornhill & Gangestad, 2008). Whereas uncommitted partners would have been unwilling to invest in their offspring and instead would have abandoned women and thus unlikely to successfully rear those offspring, committed partners would have been most likely to help women successfully rear their offspring. Indeed, empirical evidence indicates that marital status (a form of sexual desire and emotional commitment) predicts reproductive success in the United States (Elder, 1969; Jackson, 1992). Thus, one quality of men that should have determined whether they were viable mates is whether they were committed to long-term relationships—men who valued women for their sexuality *and* for their non-sexual qualities may have been most committed. Accordingly, because women likely evolved the tendency to respond positively to being sexually valued only when it was adaptive, women may demonstrate a tendency to respond positively to men who both sexually *and* non-sexually value them because that response should have been most likely to promote successful reproduction among women throughout evolutionary history. In contrast, women may demonstrate a tendency to respond more negatively to men who *only* sexually value them or *only* non-sexually value them because that response should have been least likely to promote successful reproduction among women throughout evolutionary history.

Sociocultural perspectives can be used to make similar predictions. Although women are expected to be available to men to be enjoyed sexually (Smolak & Striegel-Moore, 2001), they are also expected to offer men non-sexual qualities (e.g., nurturance, care; Bem, 1974; Diekman

& Eagly, 2000; Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Glick & Fiske, 1996). Accordingly, whereas women who are meeting both of these societal expectations may respond positively, women who are meeting only one or neither of these expectations (i.e., women who are *only* sexually valued by men, women who are *only* non-sexually valued by men, or women who are neither sexually nor non-sexually valued by men) may respond more negatively.

In sum, both sociocultural and evolutionary perspectives suggest that the effects of male sexual valuation on women's self-esteem, body esteem and affect may be moderated by the extent to which those men also value those women for other non-sexual attributes. I propose the following two studies to examine this issue.

Overview of the Current Studies

Previous research has examined the effects of male strangers valuing women *only* for their sexuality and generally has found negative reactions among women. The two studies reported here explored the proposition that women's self-esteem, body esteem, and affect might benefit from men's sexual valuation as long as they are also non-sexually valued (e.g., valued for their kindness, intelligence, sensitivity). The two studies examine (a) women's psychological and emotional effects of distant versus close men drawing attention to their bodies and (b) whether or not the beneficial effects of such sexual valuation depends on those women also experiencing non-sexual valuation. In the first study, women completed a week-long, event-based diary each time that men drew attention to their sexuality, bodies, or physical attractiveness to determine if the effects of being sexually valued by distant men (e.g., strangers) on women's well-being differ from the effects of being valued by close men (e.g., close relationship partner) on women's well-being. Given that close men presumably sexually and non-sexually value women, Study 1

examined the effects of sexual valuation on women's self-esteem, body esteem, and affect across levels of men's closeness. To determine whether the effect of male closeness is due to men valuing women for both their sexual and non-sexual attributes, Study 2 directly manipulated (1) male sexual and non-sexual valuation and (2) the man's psychological closeness (e.g., neutral stranger or romantic partner) allowing examination of whether both sexual and non-sexual valuation, but not closeness, impact women's well-being. Specifically, female participants were randomly assigned to receive information from either a neutral stranger (i.e., distant male) or a romantic partner (i.e., close male) indicating that they were (1) sexually *and* non-sexually valued, (2) *only* sexually valued, (3) *only* non-sexually valued, or (4) neither sexually nor non-sexually valued. I predicted that women who were sexually and non-sexually valued would report higher levels of self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect than women who were only sexually valued—regardless of whether that male was a stranger or romantic partner.

Chapter II: Study 1

Study 1 examined the impact of male closeness (e.g., strangers versus relationship partners) on reported levels of well-being. Women who were involved in close, intimate relationships that had lasted at least one month completed a week-long, event-based diary in which they indicated each time that “a male [drew] attention to [their] sexuality, attractiveness, and/or physical appearance” and reported their state self-esteem, body esteem, and affect associated with that event. I predicted that in contrast to instances when strangers (who are presumably only sexually valuing them) drew attention to their bodies, women would report relatively higher levels of state body esteem, self-esteem, and positive affect when psychologically close men drew attention to their bodies (and thus are presumably both sexually and non-sexually valuing them).

Method

Participants. Participants were 44 heterosexual, female undergraduate students at the University of Tennessee who were (1) enrolled in psychology courses, (2) at least 18 years of age, and (3) were currently involved in a romantic relationship that has lasted at least one month (to ensure that sexual valuation could potentially come from a psychologically close man). Participants signed up to participate via the online sign-up website and received 90 minutes of participation credit in their psychology course.

Three participants were removed from the analysis for not correctly following directions. Thus, final analyses were based on 41 female participants. Women reported a mean age 18.88 ($SD = 2.73$) and most reported Caucasian ethnicity (78.0%). Additionally, although there was substantial variability in the length of these women’s relationships (ranging from 1 month to 15

years; $SD = 29.18$), these women were involved in relatively long-term relationships that had lasted, on average, 17.01 months

Procedure. After signing up for the study, participants read and signed an informed consent form (see Appendix B) via the online sign-up website. Then, all participants completed baseline measures (self-esteem, body esteem, self-objectification, internalization of appearance norms, and demographic information) that were used as potential moderators of the predicted effects. Finally, participants signed up for a time to come into the laboratory. This process took approximately 15 minutes and participants received 15 minutes of participation credit.

Upon arrival at the laboratory, two photographs were taken of each participant [one close-up (i.e., head and shoulders) and one full-length (i.e., head to toes)] and rated for physical attractiveness by two independent coders. Next, participants were given a daily diary and received instructions regarding how to complete and return the pocket-sized, paper-and-pencil diary. Each participant was told to complete one entry page of the diary following each time (i.e., event-based diary) “a male draws attention to your sexuality, attractiveness, and/or physical appearance.” Each diary included a personalized subject number in order to ensure the anonymity of individual participants’ responses. Participants received an additional 15 minutes of participation credit for this phase of the study. In order to promote participation, participants received daily emails reminding them that they were participating in the study and that they should record each instance that a male “draws attention to their sexuality, attractiveness, and/or physical appearance.”

After completing the event-based diary for one week, participants returned their diaries and were thoroughly debriefed (see Appendix C). Participants received 60 minutes worth of participation credit for this final phase of the study for a total of 90 minutes of participation credit.

Materials

Body esteem. After signing the consent form, participants completed the Body Esteem Scale (BES; Franzoi & Shields, 1984; see Appendix D). The BES is a 35-question scale with 3 subscales: sexual attractiveness (13 questions; e.g., chest or breasts, buttocks, sex organs), weight satisfaction (10 questions; e.g., waist, thighs, weight), and physical condition (9 questions; e.g., physical stamina, reflexes, muscular strength). Individuals responded to all items on the scale from 1 = “have strong negative feelings for” to 7 = “have strong positive feelings for.” Scores were formed for each subscale by averaging the appropriate items. Higher scores indicate higher levels of satisfaction. In the current study, coefficient alphas were 0.77 for the sexual attractiveness subscale, 0.87 for the weight satisfaction scale, and 0.77 for the physical condition scale.

Self-esteem. The Rosenberg (1965) Self-Esteem Scale (RSE; see Appendix E) was used to assess participants’ global self-esteem. The RSE is a widely used questionnaire with well-established reliability and validity. It is a 10-item, Likert-type scale and participants responded from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 4 = “strongly agree.” Responses to each item were averaged and higher scores indicate higher global self-esteem. In the current study, coefficient alpha was 0.89.

Daily diary. A seventeen-paged, pocket-sized, paper-and-pencil diary (see Appendix F) was given to all participants to complete for one week. Participants were instructed to complete

one page of the diary *each time* that they were in a “situation in which a male draws attention to [their] sexuality, attractiveness, and/or physical appearance.” For each entry, participants were asked to rate how psychologically close they were with the man and complete measures assessing their state body satisfaction [three appearance/body-related items adapted from the State Self-Esteem Scale (SSES; Heatherton & Polivy, 1991) and one face-valid item], self-esteem (adapted from the seven self-specific items adapted from the SSES and one face-valid item), and state affect [adapted from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)]. On average, participants completed 8 diary entries, although there was substantial variability in the number of diary entries that participants completed ($SD = 3.41$, range = 1-17).

Psychological closeness. While completing each diary entry, participants indicated how psychologically close they perceived the man who drew attention to their sexuality, attractiveness, or physical appearance. Specifically, women indicated their perceived closeness on a scale from 0 = “not at all close” to 6 = “extremely close.”

Self-objectification. The Self-Objectification Questionnaire (SOQ; Noll & Fredrickson, 1998; see Appendix G) was used to assess whether participants’ value their physical appearance more than their physical functioning. As previously described, the SOQ is a rank order measure in which participants rank 6 appearance-related aspects of the body (weight, measurements, physical attractiveness, firm/sculpted muscle, sex appeal, coloring) and 6 competence-related aspects of the body (strength, health, energy level, stamina, physical coordination, physical fitness) in ascending order according to how important they think each are in the overall evaluation of their bodies. The sum of the competence-based traits is subtracted from the sum of

the appearance-based traits with scores ranging from -36 to +36. Higher scores indicate higher levels of trait self-objectification.

Attractiveness ratings. Two independent coders rated each participant on their level of overall attractiveness on a 10-point rating scale, where 1 = not at all attractive and 10 = incredibly attractive (in the current study, $ICC = 0.85$).

Appearance internalization. Participants completed the General Internalization subscale of the Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Scale-3 (SATAQ-3; Thompson, van den Berg, Roehrig, Guarda, & Heinberg, 2004; see Appendix H) to assess how much they internalize society's appearance expectations. The General Internalization subscale of the SATAQ-3 consists of 9 items including "I compare my body to the bodies of people who are on TV," "I would like my body to look like the models who appear in magazines," and "I compare my appearance to the appearance of TV and movie stars." Participant indicated how much they agreed with each statement on a scale from 1 = "definitely disagree" to 5 = "definitely agree." Responses to each item were averaged and higher scores indicate higher internalization of social expectations regarding physical appearance. In the current study, coefficient alpha was 0.93.

Demographic information. The demographics form (see Appendix I) included participants' age, ethnicity, and questions pertaining to their current romantic relationship.

Data Analyses

Main analysis. The data involved repeated observations of the same participants and there were an unbalanced number of events per participant (i.e., some participants experienced more situations in which men drew attention to their bodies than was true for other participants). Thus, I used the following first level of a multilevel model to estimate associations despite these

unbalanced data, control for the dependent nature of the nested data, and determine the effects of the psychological closeness of men who valued women for their sexuality on women's state body esteem, self-esteem, and affect:

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0j} + \pi_{1j}(\text{closeness}) + e_j$$

[Equation 1]

where the closeness of the man was centered around the sample mean. In this equation, Y_{ij} is the state self-esteem (or body esteem, or affect) of participant j at event i ; π_{0j} is the body esteem, self-esteem, or affect of participant j when closeness is at the sample mean; π_{1j} is the association between state self-esteem (or body esteem, or affect) and the closeness of the men for participant j ; and e_j is the residual variance for participant j . In other words, the test of the hypothesis is whether the value of π_{1j} is significantly greater than 0.

Additional analyses. In addition to my main prediction described above, I included a number of other measures to be used as potential covariates and moderators (e.g., self-objectification, objective male ratings of participants' physical attractiveness, and internalization of appearance norms). For example, participants' internalization of appearance norms may moderate the extent to which they benefit from being sexually valued, such that women who highly internalize appearance norms may be more motivated to achieve appearance standards and thus may benefit more when men notice their appearance compared to women who internalize appearance norms to a lesser extent.

Results

Preliminary analyses. The bottom three rows of Table 1 present between-person descriptive statistics for all of the variables examined in the study. As can be seen, women on

average reported relatively high levels of self-esteem and relatively moderate levels of body esteem. Women also reported relatively moderate levels of positive affect and relatively low levels of negative affect. Nevertheless, the *SDs* of self-esteem, body esteem, positive affect, and negative affect indicated that there was substantial variability in these reports.

The top of Table 1 presents correlations among the variables examined. Two noteworthy results are worth highlighting. First, as has been true in other samples (e.g., Franzoi & Shields, 1984), women's reports of self-esteem and body esteem were positively associated with one another. Women who reported positive attitudes toward themselves also reported positive attitudes toward their bodies. Second, as has also been true in other samples (e.g., Crawford & Henry, 2004; Watson 1998a, 1998b), women's reports of positive affect and negative affect were negatively associated with one another. Women who reported higher levels of positive affect also reported lower levels of negative affect. Overall, the correlations indicated that all variables were performing as expected, justifying further analyses examining the interrelationships among these variables.

Is the psychological closeness of men who value women for their sexuality associated with women's state self-esteem? To determine the extent to which the psychological closeness of the sexually valuing male was associated with women's state self-esteem, I conducted two analyses. In both analyses, the dependent variable was within-person reports of state self-esteem over the one-week period of time during which the diary was completed. Specifically, I conducted two multilevel analyses (one for each measure of state self-esteem; Bryk & Raudenbush, 2002) with the following level-1 equation, using the Hierarchical Linear Modeling 6.08 computer program:

$$Y_{ij}(\text{Self-Esteem}) = \pi_{0j} + \pi_{1j}(\text{Diary Entry}) + \pi_{2j}(\text{Male Closeness}) + e_j$$

[Equation 2]

where the diary entry was grand-mean centered and the closeness of the man was centered around the individual mean. Following the recommendations of Bryk and Raudenbush (2002), individual means of male closeness were controlled on the level-2 intercept.

The first two-level model estimated the association between the psychological closeness of the sexually valuing man and women's state self-esteem, assessed by the single-item state self-esteem measure. Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects (West, Welch, & Galecki, 2007) indicated that the best model allowed only the intercept and male closeness to vary across individuals. The results from this analysis are reported in the top half of Table 2. As can be seen, between-person differences in the closeness of the man were not associated with women's state self-esteem. That is, the extent to which a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer or more distant to her than the average man in the sample was not associated with her state self-esteem. However, within-person differences in the closeness of the man were positively associated with women's state self-esteem. Specifically, when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer to her than usual, she felt more positive about herself as a whole; when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was more distant from her than usual, she felt more negative about herself as a whole. Notably, these within-person differences in the closeness of the man accounted for approximately 16% of the variance in women's state self-esteem, assessed by the single-item state self-esteem measure.

Given that self-esteem is positively correlated with body esteem, I conducted a subsequent multilevel analysis controlling women's state body esteem at level-1, assessed by the single-item state body esteem measure (centered around the individual mean; individual means were controlled on the level-2 intercept). Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects indicated that the best model allowed all variables at level 1 to vary across individuals. According to that analysis, controlling women's body esteem, within-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man was no longer associated with women's state self-esteem, $B = 0.19$, $SE = 0.16$, $t = 1.15$, *ns*.

The second two-level model estimated the association between the psychological closeness of the sexually valuing man and women's state self-esteem, assessed by the seven-item state self-esteem measure. Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects indicated that the best model allowed only the intercept and male closeness to vary across individuals. The results from this analysis are reported in the bottom half of Table 2. As can be seen, between-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man were not associated with women's state self-esteem. That is, the extent to which a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer or more distant to her than the average man in the sample was not associated with her state self-esteem. However, within-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man were positively associated with women's state self-esteem. Specifically, when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer to her than usual, she felt more positive about herself as a whole; when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was more distant from her than usual, she felt more negative about herself as a whole. Notably, these within-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man accounted for

approximately 16% of the variance in women's state self-esteem, assessed by the seven-item state self-esteem measure.

Again, given that self-esteem is positively correlated with body esteem, I conducted a subsequent multilevel analysis controlling women's state body esteem at level 1, assessed by the three-item body esteem measure (centered around the individual mean; individual means were controlled on the level-2 intercept). Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects indicated that the best model allowed all level-1 variables to vary across individuals. According to that analysis, controlling women's body esteem, within-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man was still positively associated with women's state self-esteem, $B = 0.03$, $SE = 0.01$, $t = 2.30$, $p = 0.03$, *effect size* $r = 0.34$.

Is the psychological closeness of men who value women for their sexuality associated with women's state body esteem? To determine the extent to which the psychological closeness of the male was associated with women's state body esteem, I again conducted two analyses. In both analyses, the dependent variable was within-person reports of state body esteem over the one-week period of time during which the diary was completed. Specifically, I conducted two multilevel analyses (one for each measure of state body esteem; Bryk & Raudenbush, 2002) with the following level-1 equation, using the Hierarchical Linear Modeling 6.08 software:

$$Y_{ij}(\text{Body Esteem}) = \pi_{0j} + \pi_{1j}(\text{Diary Entry}) + \pi_{2j}(\text{Male Closeness}) + e_j$$

[Equation 3]

where the diary entry was grand-mean centered and the closeness of the man was centered around the individual mean. Following the recommendations of Bryk and Raudenbush (2002), individual means of male closeness were controlled on the level-2 intercept.

The first two-level model estimated the association between the psychological closeness of the man and women's state body esteem, assessed by the single-item state body esteem measure. Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects indicated that the best model allowed only the intercept and male closeness to vary across individuals. The results from that analysis are reported in the top half of Table 3. As can be seen, between-person differences in the closeness of the man were not associated with women's state body esteem. That is, the extent to which a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer or more distant to her than the average man in the sample was not associated with her state body esteem. However, within-person differences in the closeness of the man were positively associated with women's state body esteem. Specifically, when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer to her than usual, she felt more positive about her body; when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was more distant from her than usual, she felt more negative about her body. Notably, these within-person differences in the closeness of the man accounted for approximately 17% of the variance in women's state body esteem, assessed by the single-item state body esteem measure.

Given that body esteem is positively correlated with self-esteem, I conducted a subsequent multilevel analysis controlling women's state self-esteem at level 1, assessed by the single-item state self-esteem measure (centered around the individual mean; individual means were controlled on the level-2 intercept). Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects indicated that the best model allowed the intercept, the diary entry, and state self-esteem to vary across individuals. According to that analysis, controlling women's state self-esteem, within-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man remained

positively associated with women's state body esteem, $B = 0.26$, $SE = 0.13$, $t = 2.02$, $p = 0.04$, effect size $r = 0.11$.

The second two-level model estimated the association between the psychological closeness of the man and women's state body esteem, assessed by the three-item state body esteem measure. Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects indicated that the best model allowed only the intercept and male closeness to vary across individuals. The results from this analysis are reported in the bottom half of Table 3. As can be seen, between-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man were not associated with women's state body esteem. That is, the extent to which a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer or more distant to her than the average man in the sample was not associated with her state body esteem. However, within-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man were positively associated with women's state body esteem. Specifically, when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer to her than usual, she felt more positive about her body; when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was more distant from her than usual, she felt more negative about her body. Notably, these within-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man accounted for approximately 28% of the variance in women's state body esteem, assessed by the three-item state body esteem measure.

Again, given that body esteem is positively correlated with self-esteem, I conducted a subsequent multilevel analysis controlling women's state self-esteem at level-1, assessed by the seven-item state self-esteem measure (centered around the individual mean; individual means were controlled on the level-2 intercept). Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects indicated that the best model allowed only the intercept and state

self-esteem to vary across individuals. According to that analysis, controlling women's state self-esteem, within-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man remained positively associated with women's state body esteem, $B = 0.03$, $SE = 0.01$, $t = 2.57$, $p = 0.01$, *effect size* $r = 0.14$.

Is the psychological closeness of men who value women for their sexuality associated with women's state affect? To determine the extent to which the psychological closeness of the male was associated with women's state affect, I again conducted two analyses. In both analyses, the dependent variable was within-person reports of state affect over the one-week period of time during which the diary was completed. Specifically, I conducted two multilevel analyses (one for positive affect and one for negative affect; Bryk & Raudenbush, 2002) with the following level-1 equation, using the Hierarchical Linear Modeling 6.08 software:

$$Y_{ij}(\text{Affect}) = \pi_{0j} + \pi_{1j}(\text{Diary Entry}) + \pi_{2j}(\text{Male Closeness}) + e_j$$

[Equation 4]

where the diary entry was grand-mean centered and the closeness of the man was centered around the individual mean. Following the recommendations of Bryk and Raudenbush (2002), individual means of male closeness were controlled on the level-2 intercept.

The first two-level model estimated the association between the psychological closeness of the man and women's state positive affect. Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects indicated that the best model allowed only the intercept and male closeness to vary across individuals. The results from this analysis are reported in the top half of Table 4. As can be seen, unlike self-esteem or body esteem, between-person differences in the closeness of the man were positively associated with women's state positive affect. That is,

the extent to which a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer or more distant to her than the average man in the sample was positively associated with her state positive affect. Moreover, within-person differences in the closeness of the man were also positively associated with women's state positive affect. Specifically, when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer to her than usual, she felt more positive affect; when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was more distant from her than usual, she felt less positive affect. Notably, these between-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man accounted for approximately 10% of the variance in women's state positive affect and these within-person differences in the closeness of the man accounted for approximately 35% of the variance in women's state positive affect.

Given that positive affect was negatively correlated with negative affect in the sample, I conducted a subsequent multilevel analysis controlling women's state negative affect at level 1 (centered around the individual mean; individual means were controlled on the level-2 intercept). Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects indicated that the best model allowed the intercept, the closeness of the man, and negative affect to vary across individuals. According to that analysis, controlling women's state negative affect, between-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man became marginally associated with women's state positive affect, $B = 0.11$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = 1.865$, $p = 0.07$, *effect size* $r = 0.29$, and within-person difference in the psychological closeness of the man remained positively associated with women's state positive affect, $B = 0.15$, $SE = 0.04$, $t = 4.04$, $p > 0.001$, *effect size* $r = 0.54$.

The second two-level model estimated the association between the psychological closeness of the man and women's state negative affect. Deviance tests that compared the fit of different models with various random effects indicated that the best model allowed only the intercept and male closeness to vary across individuals. The results from that analysis are reported in the bottom half of Table 4. As can be seen, unlike state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect, neither between-person differences nor within-person differences in the psychological closeness of the man were associated with women's negative affect. That is, the extent to which a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer or more distant to her than the average man in the sample or was closer or more distant to her than usual was not associated with her state negative affect.

Additional analyses. I conducted several additional analyses to examine various potential moderators of each association. Specifically, I examined the extent to which each effect was moderated by participants' level of self-objectification, attractiveness, or internalization of sociocultural attitudes toward appearance. The results of these analyses can be seen in Table 5. As can be seen, there was a main effect of male closeness on women's self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect and a main effect of internalization of sociocultural attitudes toward appearance on women's body esteem. Nevertheless, none of these variables moderated the effects of male closeness on women's state self-esteem, body esteem, or positive affect. In other words, when a woman was sexually valued by a man who was closer to her than usual, she reported higher state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect, regardless of (1) the extent to which she engages in self-objectification, (2) her level of physical attractiveness, as perceived by male raters, or (3) the extent to which she internalizes sociocultural attitudes toward appearance.

When a woman was sexually valued by a man who was more distant from her than usual, she reported lower state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect, regardless of (1) the extent to which she engages in self-objectification, (2) her level of physical attractiveness, as perceived by male raters, or (3) the extent to which she internalizes sociocultural attitudes toward appearance.

Discussion

Study 1 provided preliminary evidence that the effects of male sexual valuation on women's self-esteem, body esteem, and affect depend on how psychologically close she perceives the man. As predicted, when a woman experienced sexual valuation from a man she perceived to be psychologically close, she reported higher levels of state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect; when a woman experienced sexual valuation from a man she perceived to be psychologically distant, she reported lower levels of self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect. Notably, this effect accounted for nearly 16% of the variance in women's state self-esteem, nearly 28% of the variance in women's state body esteem, and nearly 35% of the variance in women's state positive affect. Moreover, women's levels of self-objectification, male perceived physical attractiveness, or the extent to which those women internalize sociocultural attitudes toward appearance did not further moderate the effect.

One noteworthy difference between sexual valuation from psychologically distant men versus psychologically close men may be the extent to which those men also non-sexually value women. Given that psychologically close men, specifically romantic partners, typically have more information about women than just their sexual attributes, they have the opportunity to also non-sexually value those women. Thus, women's perceived closeness of sexually valuing men may be a proxy for the extent to which those men also value those women for their non-sexual

attributes. Study 2 sought to replicate the findings from Study 1 as well as determine the extent to which the effect is being driven by non-sexual valuation rather than male closeness.

Chapter III: Study 2

Study 2 examined whether the differences in women's esteem and affect associated with the sexual valuation of distant versus close men is in fact dependent on simultaneously being valued for their non-physical attributes. To test this notion, women who were involved in close, intimate relationships that had lasted at least one month completed a variety of baseline measures to assess various individual differences such as state self-esteem, body esteem, affect, self-objectification, and internalization of appearance norms. All women were randomly assigned to receive information indicating that either a male stranger or their romantic relationship partner only sexually valued them, only non-sexually valued them, both sexually and non-sexually valued them, or neither sexually nor non-sexually valued them. Based on sociocultural and evolutionary perspectives, I predicted that women who were sexually and non-sexually valued by men should report higher state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect compared to women who are only sexually valued, only non-sexually valued, or neither sexually nor non-sexually valued, independent of whether those men are psychologically close or distant. Thus, Study 2 was designed to determine (1) whether the effects of male closeness on women's esteem and affect in Study 1 could be replicated and (2) whether this pattern could be explained by the fact that close men may be more likely to *both* sexually and non-sexually value women.

Method

Participants. Independent from the sample used in Study 1, participants in Study 2 were 139 heterosexual, female undergraduate students at the University of Tennessee who were enrolled in psychology courses, at least 18 years of age, and were currently involved in a romantic relationship that had lasted at least one month. Participants signed up to participate via

the online sign-up website and received 60 minutes of participation credit in their psychology course.

These women reported a mean age 18.64 ($SD = 1.11$) and most reported a Caucasian ethnicity (84.2%). Additionally, although there was substantial variability in the length of these women's relationships (ranging from 1 month to 5 years; $SD = 29.18$), these women were involved in relatively long-term relationships that had lasted, on average, 17.57 months.

Procedure. After signing up for the study, all participants completed online baseline measures (state self-esteem, body esteem, and affect, self-objectification, and internalization of appearance norms). Additionally, they emailed an electronic copy of a full-length (i.e., head-to-toe) photograph of themselves, ostensibly to be used as part of the study. Although participants were led to believe that this photograph would be seen by the experimenter and one other individual, in actuality, the photograph was only available to the experimenter. At this stage, participants also scheduled a time to come into the laboratory.

Upon arrival at the laboratory, participants read and signed an informed consent form (see Appendix J). They were informed that by participating in this study they were required to complete a variety of questionnaires. Then, two photographs were taken of the participant (one close-up and one full-length that was rated for overall physical attractiveness by two independent coders) that would be used as a potential moderator of the predicted effects. These photographs were used rather than the photographs participants submitted because they were standardized (i.e., taken against the same backdrop, capturing the same body proportions). Next, participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions (psychologically close condition, psychologically distant condition; a between-subject design).

Psychologically close condition. In the psychologically close condition, each participant was informed that the experimenter emailed their previously-supplied full-length photograph and brief self-description to their romantic partner prior to the experimental session and asked the partner to indicate how attracted he is to her based on a variety of physical and interpersonal attributes. Participants were randomly assigned to receive a hypothetical evaluation (see Appendix K) in which their partner either favorably or neutrally evaluated the participant's physical attributes (e.g., nice body, sexy, attractive, good for sex) and either favorably or neutrally evaluated the participant's interpersonal attributes (e.g., supportive, considerate, kind, sensitive). Finally, participants completed a variety of state dependent measures (self-esteem, body esteem, and affect).

Psychologically distant condition. In the psychologically distant condition, each participant was informed that the experimenter emailed their previously-supplied full-length photograph and brief self-description to a male stranger prior to the experimental session and asked the stranger to indicate how attracted he is to her based on a variety of physical and interpersonal attributes. Participants were randomly assigned to receive a hypothetical evaluation (see Appendix K) in which the stranger either favorably or neutrally evaluated the participant's physical attributes (e.g., nice body, sexy, attractive, good for sex) and either favorably or neutrally evaluated the participant's interpersonal attributes (e.g., supportive, considerate, kind, sensitive). Finally, participants completed the same state dependent measures as the participants in the psychologically close condition.

After completing their randomly assigned condition, all participants were thoroughly debriefed (see Appendix L) and were asked to indicate their thoughts regarding the purpose of

the study. No participant indicated that they knew what the study was actually about. Each participant received a total of 90 minutes of participation credit.

Materials

Self-esteem. After the manipulation, similar to Study 1, the RSE (see Appendix E) was administered to assess participants' state self-esteem. However, unlike Study 1 where participants responded to each question indicating global attitudes towards the self, participants responded to each question indicating how they felt toward themselves "at the current moment." Responses were averaged and higher scores indicate higher state self-esteem. In the current study, coefficient alpha was 0.88.

Additionally, participants completed the SSES (see Appendix M) to assess their attitudes towards themselves at the current moment. The SSES is a 20-item Likert-type scale in which participants indicated the extent to which each statement was true for them at the current moment on a scale from 1 = "not at all true" to 5 = "extremely true." Appropriate items were reverse scored and all items were summed. Higher scores indicate higher state self-esteem. In the current study, the coefficient alpha 0.87

Body esteem. Similar to Study 1, participants completed the BES (see Appendix D) to assess self-perceived levels of sexual attractiveness, weight satisfaction, and physical condition. However, unlike Study 1 where participants responded to each question indicating global attitudes towards their bodies, participants responded to each question indicating their personal feelings regarding their bodies "at the current moment." Items for each subscale were averaged and higher scores indicate higher satisfaction. In the current study, coefficient alpha was 0.88 for

the sexual attractiveness subscale, 0.91 for the weight satisfaction subscale, and 0.88 for the physical condition subscale.

Positive and negative affect. Participants completed the 20-item state version of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988; see Appendix N) to assess their current positive and negative emotions. Participants indicated the extent to which they were experiencing 10 positive emotions (e.g., interested, excited, proud) and 10 negative emotions (e.g., upset, ashamed, afraid) at the current moment on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = “very slightly or not at all” to 5 = “extremely.” Appropriate items were averaged and high scores indicate more positive or negative affect. In the current study, the coefficient alpha was 0.87 for positive affect and 0.83 for negative affect.

Self-objectification. As in Study 1, participants completed the SOQ (see Appendix G) at baseline to assess whether participants value their physical appearance more than their physical functioning. Higher scores indicate higher levels of trait self-objectification.

Attractiveness ratings. As in Study 1, two independent coders rated each participant on their level of overall attractiveness on a 10-point rating scale, where 1 = “not at all attractive” and 10 = “incredibly attractive” ($ICC = 0.72$).

Appearance internalization. As in Study 1, participants completed the General Internalization subscale of the SATAQ-3 (see Appendix H) to assess the extent to which they internalize society’s appearance expectations. Responses to each item were averaged and higher scores indicate higher appearance internalization. In the current study, coefficient alpha was 0.93.

Demographic information. Demographics (see Appendix O) included participants' age, ethnicity, and questions pertaining to their current romantic relationship including participants' romantic partner's email addresses.

Data Analysis

Main analyses. The statistical design was a 2 (psychologically close man versus psychologically distant man) X 2 (favorable sexual evaluation versus neutral sexual evaluation) X 2 (favorable interpersonal evaluation versus neutral interpersonal evaluation) full-factorial linear regression on each dependent variable (state self-esteem, body esteem, and affect) measured after the manipulation, controlling for each dependent variable measured at baseline. I used the following regression model:

$$Y = B_0 + B_1(\text{DV at baseline}) + B_2(\text{sexuality}) + B_3(\text{interpersonal}) + B_4(\text{closeness}) + B_5(\text{sexuality} * \text{interpersonal}) + B_6(\text{sexuality} * \text{closeness}) + B_7(\text{interpersonal} * \text{closeness}) + B_8(\text{sexuality} * \text{interpersonal} * \text{closeness}) + r$$

[Equation 5]

where body esteem, self-esteem, and affect were centered around the sample mean, evaluative information regarding sexual attributes were dummy coded such that 0 = neutral evaluation and 1 = favorable evaluation, evaluative information regarding interpersonal attributes were dummy coded such that 0 = neutral evaluation and 1 = favorable evaluation, and closeness of the man was dummy coded such that 0 = stranger and 1 = romantic partner. In this equation, Y is the state self-esteem, body esteem, or affect of a given participant; B_0 represents the state self-esteem, body esteem, or affect for people whose self-esteem, body esteem, or affect is at the mean at baseline, for whom sexual and interpersonal evaluations are neutral (rather than favorable), and

who are in the psychologically distant condition (rather than the psychologically close condition); B_1 is the association between self-esteem, body esteem, or affect at baseline and self-esteem, body esteem, or affect after the manipulation, controlling for everything else in the model; B_2 is the extent to which neutral or favorable sexual evaluations predict changes in self-esteem, body esteem, or affect, controlling for everything else in the model; B_3 is the extent to which neutral or favorable interpersonal evaluations predict changes in self-esteem, body esteem, or affect, controlling for everything else in the model; B_4 is the extent to which the closeness of the male predicts changes in self-esteem, body esteem, or affect, controlling for everything else in the model; B_5 is the extent to which the association between neutral or favorable sexual evaluations predict changes in self-esteem, body esteem, or affect depends on neutral or favorable interpersonal evaluations, controlling for everything else in the model; B_6 is the extent to which the association between neutral or favorable sexual evaluations predict changes in self-esteem, body esteem, or affect depends on the closeness of the male, controlling for everything else in the model; B_7 is the extent to which the association between neutral or favorable interpersonal evaluations predict changes in self-esteem, body esteem, or affect depends on the closeness of the male, controlling for everything else in the model; B_8 is the extent to which the association between neutral or favorable sexual evaluations predict changes in self-esteem, body esteem, or affect depends on neutral or favorable interpersonal evaluations and the closeness of the male, controlling for everything else in the model; and r is the variance in the self-esteem, body esteem, or affect that is left over after removing the influence of all the other variables. In this model, all associations were assumed to be constant across all baseline levels of self-esteem, body esteem, and affect.

A significant 3-way interaction would indicate that the effects of sexual and interpersonal valuation differ depending on the closeness of the man. However, based on both sociocultural and evolutionary perspectives, I predicted that the 3-way interaction would not be significant because women who are sexually and non-sexually valued should report higher levels of state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect, regardless of the psychological closeness of the man. Accordingly, once the 3-way interaction is removed from the model, I predicted that the Sexual X Non-Sexual interaction would be significant, such that women who are both sexually and non-sexually valued would report higher levels of state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect than women who were only sexually valued, only non-sexually valued, or neither sexually nor non-sexually valued. Such a result would suggest that the reason closeness predicted self-esteem, body-esteem, and/or affect in Study 1 was because women tended to perceive that psychologically close men who sexually valued them also non-sexually valued them whereas they tended to assume that male strangers who sexually valued them did not.

Further, to determine if women's self-esteem, body esteem, and affect at baseline moderated the above effect, I used the following regression model:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y = & B_0 + B_1(\text{DV at baseline}) + B_2(\text{sexuality}) + B_3(\text{interpersonal}) + B_4(\text{closeness}) + B_5(\text{baseline} \\
 & \text{DV*sexuality}) + B_6(\text{baseline DV* interpersonal}) + B_7(\text{baseline DV*closeness}) + B_8(\text{sexuality*} \\
 & \text{interpersonal}) + B_9(\text{sexuality*closeness}) + B_{10}(\text{interpersonal *closeness}) + B_{11}(\text{baseline} \\
 & \text{DV*sexuality* interpersonal}) + B_{12}(\text{baseline DV*sexuality*closeness}) + B_{13}(\text{baseline DV*} \\
 & \text{interpersonal *closeness}) + B_{14}(\text{sexuality* interpersonal *closeness}) + B_{15}(\text{baseline} \\
 & \text{DV*sexuality* interpersonal *closeness}) + r
 \end{aligned}$$

[Equation 6]

Although I did not make formal predictions regarding the 4-way interaction, it was interesting to examine whether or not women with higher self-esteem, body esteem, and affect at baseline reported a smaller increase in self-esteem, body esteem, and affect following the manipulation when men both sexually and non-sexually value them (B_{15}).

Additional analyses. As in Study 1, in addition to my main predictions described above, I included a number of other measures to be used as potential covariates and moderators (i.e., self-objectification, objective male ratings of participants' physical attractiveness, and internalization of appearance norms).

Results

Preliminary analyses. Table 6 presents descriptive statistics for all of the covariates and dependent variables examined. As can be seen, women on average reported relatively high levels of self-esteem assessed by both the RSE and the SSES at both baseline and post-manipulation. Additionally, women on average reported relatively moderate levels of self-perceived sexual attractiveness, weight satisfaction, and self-perceived physical condition, as assessed by the BES at both baseline and post-manipulation. Women also reported relatively moderate levels of positive affect and relatively low levels of negative affect at both baseline and post-manipulation. Nevertheless, the *SDs* of self-esteem, self-perceived sexual attractiveness, weight satisfaction, self-perceived physical condition, positive affect, and negative affect indicated that there was substantial variability in these reports, justifying further examination of various factors that may explain such variability. These patterns were similar to those reported in Study 1.

Table 7 presents correlations among the covariates and dependent variables. Several noteworthy results are worth highlighting. First, both measures of self-esteem were highly,

positively correlated at both baseline and post-manipulation, indicating that they were measuring the same construct. Second, all body esteem subscales were positively correlated suggesting that all subscales should be controlled in body esteem-related analyses. Third, consistent with other samples (e.g., Warr, Barter, & Brownbridge, 1983) but unlike Study 1, positive affect was not correlated with negative affect. In other words, the positive emotions that women reported were independent of their negative emotions. Finally, reports of each measure at baseline were highly, positively correlated, but not perfectly correlated, with reports of each measure post-manipulation. Thus, women reported similar, but not identical, levels of self-esteem, body esteem, and affect at both time points, suggesting the manipulation had an effect on women's esteem and affect.

Does the psychological closeness of the man interact with sexual and non-sexual valuation to predict women's state self-esteem? Given that male closeness should be a proxy for the extent to which women are also non-sexually valued, I predicted that male closeness would not interact with sexual and non-sexual valuation to predict women's self-esteem because women who are sexually and non-sexually valued should report higher state self-esteem, regardless of male closeness. Accordingly, I predicted that, once male closeness was removed from the model, the Sexual X Non-Sexual interaction would predict women's state self-esteem. To test this prediction, I conducted two analyses (one for each measure of state self-esteem). Specifically, I conducted two 2 (Male Closeness) X 2 (Sexual Valuation) X 2 (Non-Sexual Valuation) ANCOVAs to predict participant's state self-esteem, controlling for their baseline self-esteem.

The first ANCOVA estimated the extent to which the three-way interaction predicted women's state self-esteem, assessed by the RSE. Results from that analysis are reported in the left half of Table 8. As can be seen, there was an unexpected significant main effect of male closeness such that women reported higher self-esteem when they were evaluated by a male stranger, regardless of how that stranger evaluated them. Additionally, there was a marginal main effect of sexual valuation such that women reported higher self-esteem when they were positively sexually evaluated, regardless of who evaluated them or the extent to which they were non-sexually valued. Nevertheless, this main effect was qualified by a significant three-way interaction. Indeed, inconsistent with predictions, the three-way interaction predicted women's state self-esteem, controlling women's baseline self-esteem. In other words, the effects of the extent to which women were sexually and non-sexually valued on their state self-esteem varied depending on whether the man was a stranger or romantic partner, controlling their typical level of self-esteem. To interpret the significant Male Closeness X Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction, I decomposed it statistically using a series of ANCOVAs, where specific variables were dummy coded and the simple two-way interactions and simple main effects were examined. First, I examined whether the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction predicted women's state self-esteem, controlling their baseline self-esteem, for women whose non-sexual attributes were evaluated either positively or neutrally (see the top half of Figure 1). Among women whose non-sexual attributes were ostensibly positively evaluated, the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction did not reach significance, $F(1,130) = 2.12, ns$. In contrast, among women whose non-sexual attributes were ostensibly neutrally evaluated, the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction was significant, $F(1,130) = 4.73, p = .031$.

Whereas sexual valuation had no effect on women's state self-esteem when their romantic partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes neutrally, $F(1,130) = 1.29$, *ns*, sexual valuation was marginally positively associated with women's state self-esteem when a male stranger ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes neutrally, $F(1,130) = 3.73$, $p = .056$. In other words, controlling for their typical level of self-esteem, women reported increased self-esteem when a male stranger positively evaluated their sexual attributes and neutrally evaluated their non-sexual attributes.

Another way to decompose and understand this significant three-way interaction is to examine whether the Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction predicted women's state self-esteem, controlling their baseline self-esteem, for both strangers and relationship partners (see the bottom half of Figure 1). Among women who were ostensibly evaluated by male strangers, the simple Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction did not reach significance, $F(1,130) = 1.53$, *ns*. In contrast, among women who were ostensibly evaluated by their romantic partners, the simple Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction was significant, $F(1,130) = 5.83$, $p = .017$. Whereas sexual valuation had no effect on women's state self-esteem when their relationship partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes neutrally, $F(1,131) = 1.29$, *ns*, sexual valuation was positively associated with women's state self-esteem when their relationship partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes positively, $F(1,131) = 5.07$, $p = .026$. In other words, controlling for their typical level of self-esteem, women reported increased self-esteem when their partners highly evaluated both their sexual and non-sexual attributes.

The second ANCOVA estimated the extent to which the three-way interaction predicted women's state self-esteem, assessed by the SSES. Results from that analysis are reported in the right half of Table 8. As can be seen, there was again an unexpected significant main effect of male closeness such that women reported higher self-esteem when they were evaluated by a male stranger, regardless of how that stranger evaluated them. Nevertheless, this main effect was again qualified by a significant three-way interaction. Indeed, inconsistent with predictions, the three-way interaction actually predicted women's state self-esteem, controlling women's baseline self-esteem. In other words, the effects of the extent to which women were sexually and non-sexually valued on their self-esteem varied depending on whether the man was a stranger or romantic partner, controlling for their typical level of self-esteem. To interpret the significant Male Closeness X Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction, I decomposed it statistically using a series of ANCOVAs, where specific variables were dummy coded and the simple two-way interactions and simple main effects were examined. First, I examined whether the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction predicted women's state self-esteem, controlling their baseline self-esteem, for women whose non-sexual attributes were evaluated either positively or neutrally (see the top half of Figure 2). Among women whose non-sexual attributes were ostensibly neutrally evaluated, the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction did not reach significance, $F(1,130) = 1.50, ns$. In contrast, among women whose non-sexual attributes were ostensibly positively evaluated, the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction was significant, $F(1,130) = 7.18, p = .008$. Whereas sexual valuation had no effect on women's state self-esteem when a male stranger ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes positively, $F(1,130) = 0.81, ns$, sexual valuation was positively associated with

women's state self-esteem when their romantic partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes positively, $F(1,130) = 7.90, p = .006$. In other words, controlling for their typical level of self-esteem, women reported increased self-esteem when their romantic partner positively evaluated both their sexual and non-sexual attributes.

Another way to decompose and understand this significant three-way interaction is to examine whether the Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction predicted women's state self-esteem, controlling their baseline self-esteem, for both strangers and relationship partners (see bottom half of Figure 2). Among women who were ostensibly evaluated by male strangers, the simple Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction did not reach significance, $F(1,130) = 1.35, ns$. In contrast, among women who were ostensibly evaluated by their romantic partners, the simple Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction was significant, $F(1,130) = 7.41, p = .007$. Whereas sexual valuation had no effect on women's state self-esteem when their relationship partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes neutrally, $F(1,130) = 0.99, ns$, sexual valuation was positively associated with women's state self-esteem when their relationship partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes positively, $F(1,130) = 7.90, p = .006$. In other words, controlling for their typical level of self-esteem, women reported increased self-esteem when their partners highly evaluated both their sexual and non-sexual attributes.

Does the psychological closeness of the man interact with sexual and non-sexual valuation to predict women's state body esteem? Given that male closeness should be a proxy for the extent to which women are also valued for their non-sexual attributes, I also predicted that male closeness would not interact with sexual and non-sexual valuation to predict women's

state body esteem because women who are sexually and non-sexually valued should report higher state body esteem, regardless of the psychological closeness of the man. Accordingly, I predicted that, once male closeness was removed from the model, the Sexual X Non-Sexual interaction would predict women's state body esteem. To test this prediction, I conducted three analyses (one for each subscale of the BES). Specifically, I conducted three 2 (Male Closeness) X 2 (Sexual Valuation) X 2 (Non-Sexual Valuation) ANCOVAs to predict participant's state body esteem, controlling for the other two subscales of the BES and their baseline body esteem.

The first ANCOVA estimated the extent to which the three-way interaction predicted women's state body esteem, assessed by the sexual attractiveness subscale of the BES. Results from that analysis are reported in the top of Table 9. Unlike self-esteem, yet consistent with predictions, the three-way interaction did not predict women's state self-perceived sexual attractiveness, controlling women's weight satisfaction, self-perceived physical condition, and baseline self-perceived sexual attractiveness. In other words, the effects of the extent to which women were sexually and non-sexually valued on women's state self-perceived sexual attractiveness did not depend on whether the man was a stranger or romantic partner. However, inconsistent with predictions, once male closeness was removed from the model, the Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction still did not predict women's state self-perceived sexual attractiveness, $F(1,130) = 1.55, ns$. In fact, once the two-way interaction was removed from the model, neither sexual valuation, $F(1,130) = 0.20, ns$, nor non-sexual valuation, $F(1,130) = 0.82, ns$, predicted women's state self-perceived sexual attractiveness. In other words, controlling for their typical level of self-perceived sexual attractiveness, the evaluations that

women received from either a male stranger or their romantic partner had no effect on the extent to which those women perceived their sexual attractiveness at that moment.

The second ANCOVA estimated the extent to which the three-way interaction predicted women's state body esteem, assessed by the weight satisfaction subscale of the BES. Results from that analysis are reported in the middle of Table 9. Like state self-esteem and again inconsistent with predictions, the three-way interaction predicted women's state weight satisfaction, controlling women's state self-perceived sexual attractiveness, state self-perceived physical condition, and baseline weight satisfaction. In other words, the effects of the extent to which women were sexually and non-sexually valued on their state weight satisfaction varied depending on whether the man was a stranger or romantic partner. To interpret the significant Male Closeness X Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction, I decomposed it statistically using a series of ANCOVAs, where specific variables were dummy coded and the simple two-way interactions and simple main effects were examined. First, I examined whether the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction predicted women's state weight satisfaction, controlling women's state self-perceived sexual attractiveness, state self-perceived physical condition, and baseline weight satisfaction, for women whose non-sexual attributes were evaluated either positively or neutrally (see the top half of Figure 3). Among women whose non-sexual attributes were ostensibly positively evaluated, the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction did not reach significance, $F(1,128) = 0.41, ns$. In contrast, among women whose non-sexual attributes were ostensibly neutrally evaluated, the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction was significant, $F(1,128) = 5.86, p = .017$. Whereas sexual valuation had no effect on women's state weight satisfaction when a male stranger ostensibly rated their

non-sexual attributes neutrally, $F(1,128) = 0.70$, *ns*, sexual valuation was negatively associated with women's state weight satisfaction when their relationship partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes neutrally, $F(1,128) = 7.18$, $p = .008$. In other words, controlling for their typical weight satisfaction, women reported decreased satisfaction with their weight when their relationship partner positively evaluated their sexual attributes and neutrally evaluated their non-sexual attributes.

Another way to decompose and understand this significant three-way interaction is to examine whether the Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction predicted women's state weight satisfaction, controlling their state self-perceived sexual attractiveness, state self-perceived physical condition, and baseline weight satisfaction, for both strangers and relationship partners (see the bottom half of Figure 3). Among women who were ostensibly evaluated by male strangers, the simple Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction did not reach significance, $F(1,128) = 0.99$, *ns*. In contrast, among women who were ostensibly evaluated by their romantic partners, the simple Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction was significant, $F(1,128) = 4.59$, $p = .034$. Unlike the effects on women's state self-esteem, whereas sexual valuation had no effect on women's state weight satisfaction when their relationship partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes *positively*, $F(1,128) = 0.13$, *ns*, sexual valuation was negatively associated with women's state weight satisfaction when their relationship partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes *neutrally*, $F(1,128) = 7.18$, $p = .008$. In other words, controlling for their typical weight satisfaction, women reported decreased satisfaction with their weight when their partners highly evaluated their sexual attributes and neutrally evaluated their non-sexual attributes.

The third ANCOVA estimated the extent to which the three-way interaction predicted women's state body esteem, assessed by the physical condition subscale of the BES. Results from that analysis are reported in the bottom of Table 9. Similar to the effects on women's state self-perceived physical attractiveness and consistent with predictions, the three-way interaction did not predict women' state self-perceived physical condition, controlling their state self-perceived sexual attractiveness, state weight satisfaction, and baseline self-perceived physical condition. In other words, the effects of the extent to which women were sexually and non-sexually valued on women's state self-perceived physical condition did not depend on whether the man was a stranger or romantic partner. However, also similar to the effects on women's state self-perceived physical attractiveness and inconsistent with predictions, once male closeness was removed from the model, the Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction did not predict women's state self-perceived physical attractiveness, $F(1,132) = 0.87$, *ns*. When the two-way interaction was removed from the model, whereas sexual valuation did not predict women's state self-perceived physical condition, $F(1,133) = 0.27$, *ns*, non-sexual valuation *did* predict women's state self-perceived physical condition, $F(1,133) = 10.15$, $p = .002$. In other words, controlling for their typical level of self-perceived physical condition, women reported higher attitudes regarding their physical condition when they were non-sexually valued, regardless of (1) the extent to which they were sexually valued and (2) whether they were being evaluated by a stranger or a partner.

Does the psychological closeness of the man interact with sexual and non-sexual valuation to predict women's state affect? Given that male closeness should be a proxy for the extent to which women are also valued for their non-sexual attributes, I predicted that male

closeness would not interact with sexual and non-sexual valuation to predict women's state affect because women who are sexually and non-sexually valued should report more positive state affect, regardless of the psychological closeness of the man. Accordingly, I predicted that, once male closeness was removed from the model, the Sexual X Non-Sexual interaction would predict women's state affect. To test this prediction, I conducted two analyses (one for positive affect and one for negative affect). Specifically, I conducted two 2 (Male Closeness) X 2 (Sexual Valuation) X 2 (Non-Sexual Valuation) ANCOVAs to predict women's state affect, controlling for their baseline affect.

The first ANCOVA estimated the extent to which the three-way interaction predicted women's state positive affect. Results from that analysis are reported in the top half of Table 10. Consistent with predictions, the three-way interaction did not predict women's state positive affect, controlling women's state negative affect and baseline positive affect. In other words, the effects of the extent to which women were sexually and non-sexually valued on women's state positive affect did not depend on whether the man was a stranger or romantic partner. However, inconsistent with predictions, once male closeness was removed from the model, the Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction still did not predict women's state self-perceived sexual attractiveness, $F(1,133) = 0.02, ns$. In fact, once the two-way interaction was removed from the model, neither sexual valuation, $F(1,134) = 1.51, ns$, nor non-sexual valuation, $F(1,134) = 0.33, ns$, predicted women's state positive affect. In other words, controlling for their state negative affect and their typical level of positive affect, the evaluations that women received from either an unfamiliar man or their romantic partner had no effect on the extent to which women reported positive affect at that moment.

The second ANCOVA estimated the extent to which the three-way interaction predicted women's state negative affect. Results from that analysis are reported in the bottom half of Table 10. As can be seen, there was an unexpected significant main effect of male closeness such that women reported less negative affect when they were evaluated by a male stranger, regardless of how that stranger evaluated them. Additionally, there was a significant two-way interaction of Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation. Nevertheless, this main effect was qualified by a marginally significant three-way interaction. Indeed, Inconsistent with predictions, the three-way interaction marginally predicted women' state negative affect, controlling women's state positive affect and baseline negative affect. In other words, the effects of the extent to which women were sexually and non-sexually valued on their state negative affect varied depending on whether the man was a stranger or romantic partner. To interpret the significant Male Closeness X Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction, I decomposed it statistically using a series of ANCOVAs, where specific variables were dummy coded and the simple two-way interactions and simple main effects were examined. First, I examined whether the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction predicted women's state negative affect, controlling women's state positive affect and baseline negative affect, for women whose non-sexual attributes were evaluated either positively or neutrally (see the top half of Figure 4). Among women whose non-sexual attributes were ostensibly neutrally evaluated, the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction did not reach significance, $F(1,129) = 0.28, ns$. In contrast, among women whose non-sexual attributes were ostensibly neutrally evaluated, the simple Sexual Valuation X Male Closeness interaction was significant, $F(1,129) = 4.45, p = .037$. Whereas sexual valuation had no effect on women's state negative affect when a

male stranger ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes positively, $F(1,129) = 0.01$, *ns*, sexual valuation was negatively associated with women's state negative affect when their relationship partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes positively, $F(1,129) = 8.65$, $p = .004$. In other words, controlling for their typical negative affect, women reported less negative affect when their relationship partner positively evaluated their sexual attributes and neutrally evaluated their non-sexual attributes.

Another way to decompose and understand this significant three-way interaction is to examine whether the Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction predicted women's state negative affect, controlling their state positive affect and baseline negative affect, for both strangers and relationship partners (see bottom half of Figure 4). Among women who were ostensibly evaluated by male strangers, the simple Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction did not reach significance, $F(1,129) = 0.04$, *ns*. In contrast, among women who were ostensibly evaluated by their romantic partners, the simple Sexual Valuation X Non-Sexual Valuation interaction was significant, $F(1,129) = 7.87$, $p = .006$. Whereas sexual valuation had no effect on women's state negative affect when their relationship partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes neutrally, $F(1,129) = 0.94$, *ns*, sexual valuation was negatively associated with women's state negative affect when their relationship partner ostensibly rated their non-sexual attributes positively, $F(1,129) = 8.65$, $p = .004$. In other words, controlling for their typical level of negative affect, women whose partners highly evaluated their non-sexual attributes and neutrally evaluated their sexual attributes reported more negative emotions; women whose partners highly evaluated both their sexual and non-sexual attributes reported less negative emotions.

Additional analyses. Given that most of the variables assessed were highly correlated, I conducted three additional analyses to examine whether sexual valuation interacted with non-sexual valuation and male closeness to predict (1) women's self-esteem, controlling their weight satisfaction and negative affect, (2) women's weight satisfaction, controlling their self-esteem and negative affect, and (3) women's negative affect, controlling their self-esteem and weight satisfaction. According to the first analysis, the three-way interaction still predicted women's state self-esteem (for the RSE, $F(1,128) = 4.32, p = .040$; for the SSE, $F(1,128) = 4.189, p = .043$), controlling women's state weight satisfaction, state negative affect, and baseline self-esteem. According to the second analysis, the three-way interaction no longer predicted women's state weight satisfaction, $F(1,128) = 2.36, ns$, controlling women's state self-esteem (RSE), state negative affect, and baseline weight satisfaction. Finally, according to the third analysis, the three-way interaction no longer predicted women's state negative affect, $F(1,128) = 1.28, ns$, controlling women's state self-esteem (RSE), state weight satisfaction, and baseline negative affect. In other words, whereas sexual and non-sexual valuation from a romantic partner independently predicts self-esteem after controlling for weight satisfaction and negative affect, such valuation does not independently predict weight satisfaction or negative affect.

I also conducted several additional analyses to examine various potential moderators of each association. Specifically, I examined the extent to which (1) baseline levels of each dependent variable, (2) women's level of self-objectification, (3) attractiveness, and (4) internalization of sociocultural attitudes toward appearance moderated each effect. Regarding women's state self-esteem (assessed by the RSE), the three-way interaction was not further moderated by women's baseline state self-esteem (baseline RSE), $F(1,123) = 0.24, ns$, self-

objectification, $F(1,123) = 0.51$, *ns*, attractiveness, $F(1,120) = 0.46$, *ns*, or internalization of sociocultural attitudes toward appearance, $F(1,123) = 2.29$, *ns*. Regarding women's state self-esteem (assessed by the SSE), the three-way interaction was not further moderated by women's baseline state self-esteem (baseline SSE), $F(1,123) = 0.91$, *ns*, self-objectification, $F(1,123) = 0.03$, *ns*, attractiveness, $F(1,120) = 0.72$, *ns*, or internalization of sociocultural attitudes toward appearance, $F(1,123) = 0.75$, *ns*. Regarding women's state weight satisfaction, the three-way interaction was not further moderated by women's baseline weight satisfaction, $F(1,123) = 0.40$, *ns*, self-objectification, $F(1,123) = 0.07$, *ns*, attractiveness, $F(1,120) = 1.46$, *ns*, or internalization of sociocultural attitudes toward appearance, $F(1,123) = 1.12$, *ns*. Regarding women's state negative affect, the three-way interaction was not further moderated by women's baseline negative affect, $F(1,123) = 0.24$, *ns*, self-objectification, $F(1,123) = 0.87$, *ns*, attractiveness, $F(1,119) = 1.34$, *ns*, or internalization of sociocultural attitudes toward appearance, $F(1,123) = 1.85$, *ns*.

Discussion

The results of Study 2 did not support the prediction that women would experience increased self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect when psychologically close men, compared to psychologically distant men, sexually valued them because closeness did not appear to be a proxy for the extent to which those men also non-sexually valued those women. Rather, the results demonstrated that the effects of sexual valuation and male closeness were further moderated by non-sexual valuation to predict women's state self-esteem, body esteem, and affect. With regard to self-esteem, although it may seem that the results for the two self-esteem measures differed, the pattern of effects were in fact similar. Whereas women reported lower

self-esteem when strangers positively sexually evaluated them and neutrally non-sexually evaluated them, women reported higher self-esteem when strangers both positively sexually and non-sexually evaluated them. Although the latter pattern is consistent with predictions, the former pattern was unexpected. With regard to weight satisfaction, although sexual valuation never benefited women's weight satisfaction, women reported much lower satisfaction with their weight to the extent that their relationship partner positively evaluated their sexual attributes and neutrally evaluated their non-sexual attributes. With regard to negative affect, although women typically reported relatively low levels of negative affect, those women whose romantic partner positively non-sexually evaluated them and neutrally non-sexually evaluated them experienced more negative affect.

An alternative way to consider these effects is that whereas women who were highly sexually *and* non-sexually evaluated by their relationship partners reported increased self-esteem and decreased negative affect, women who were only highly sexually evaluated, only highly non-sexually evaluated, or neither highly sexually nor non-sexually evaluated by their relationship partners reported decreased self-esteem and increased negative affect. Moreover, whereas women who were neither highly sexually nor non-sexually evaluated by their relationship partners reported increased satisfaction with their weight, women who were *only* highly sexually valued by their relationship partners reported decreased satisfaction with their weight. Finally, consistent with objectification theory, women who were highly non-sexually evaluated reported increased satisfaction with their physical condition (i.e., the functioning and health of their body), regardless of (1) the extent to which they were sexually evaluated or (2) whether the evaluation came from a male stranger or a relationship partner.

Chapter IV: General Discussion

Summary of Results

A robust body of research demonstrates that sexual valuation has numerous negative consequences for women's well-being (e.g., Calogero, 2004; Fairchild & Rudman, 2008; Fredrickson et al., 1998; Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; MacKinnon, 1989, 2006; Moradi & Huang, 2008; Myers & Crowther, 2008; Noll & Fredrickson, 1998; Roberts & Waters, 2004; Szymanski & Henning, 2007; Tolman et al., 2006; Tylka & Hill, 2004). Yet that research has only examined the effects of sexual valuation by male strangers (i.e., psychologically distant men; see Calogero, 2004). Although women are also frequently sexually valued by romantic relationship partners (Chen & Brown, 2005; Fletcher et al., 1999; Harris et al., 1982; Kurzban & Weeden, 2005; Legenbauer et al., 2009; Singh & Young, 1995), I am aware of no research that has examined the implications of sexual valuation in an interpersonal context. Sociocultural and evolutionary perspectives suggest that it may be adaptive for women to choose partners who sexually value them as long as those partners also value their non-sexual attributes because it may demonstrate that those women are meeting relationship standards. Thus, I predicted that women's state self-esteem, body esteem, and affect would benefit from men's sexual valuation as long as they are also valued for other non-sexual attributes (e.g., kindness, intelligence, sensitivity).

Two independent studies supported this prediction. Specifically, Study 1 examined the effects of sexual valuation for women's esteem and affect across levels of men's psychological closeness. Results demonstrated that women who were sexually valued by a psychologically close man experienced higher levels of state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect. In

contrast, women who were sexually valued by a psychologically distant man experienced lower levels of state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect. Notably, psychological closeness of the male accounted for nearly 16% of the variance in women's state self-esteem, nearly 28% of the variance in women's state body esteem, and nearly 35% of the variance in women's state positive affect. Study 2 examined the extent to which sexual valuation, non-sexual valuation, and male closeness, impacted women's self-esteem, body esteem, and affect. Results demonstrated that women who were both sexually *and* non-sexually valued by a male stranger experienced high state self-esteem. Moreover, consistent with predictions and with past research (see Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997), women who were *only* sexually valued by their relationship partners reported decreased satisfaction with their weight and increased negative affect. It may be that such positive sexual valuation from an intimate partner may lead women to increasingly focus on their bodies and thus be less satisfied with their weight.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The current findings have important theoretical implications. The robust literature on objectification indicates that women experience undesirable outcomes when they are sexually valued in the context of society and by male strangers (Calogero, 2004; Fairchild & Rudman, 2008; Fredrickson et al., 1998; Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; MacKinnon, 1989, 2006; Moradi & Huang, 2008; Myers & Crowther, 2008; Noll & Fredrickson, 1998; Roberts & Waters, 2004; Szymanski & Henning, 2007; Tolman et al., 2006; Tylka & Hill, 2004). Consistent with this body of research, Study 2 demonstrated that women who were sexually valued but not non-sexually valued by male strangers reported lower state self-esteem and women who were sexually valued but not non-sexually valued by their relationship partner reported decreased

weight satisfaction and increased negative affect. However, inconsistent with this body of research, these findings indicate that women's state esteem and affect can sometimes benefit from experiencing such valuation—women who were both sexually and non-sexually valued by male strangers experienced increased state self-esteem and women who were both sexually and non-sexually valued by relationship partners were buffered against decreased weight satisfaction and increased negative affect. Indeed, the current research demonstrates that it is important to consider the extent to which sexual valuation (1) occurs in the context of a heterosexual, romantic relationship and (2) is accompanied by non-sexual valuation.

Although the current studies demonstrated that partner sexual and non-sexual valuation benefited women's esteem and affect, such valuation may not always benefit women on other outcome measures. Indeed, research examining the effects of objectification demonstrates that increased attention to women's bodies leads to increased anxiety, depression, and disordered eating (see Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Thus, it is possible that partner sexual and non-sexual valuation may also lead women to experience increased anxiety, depression, or disordered eating. For example, a woman whose romantic partner positively evaluates her sexual and non-sexual attributes may feel the need to continually meet her partner's standards that may lead to increased anxiety. Future research may benefit by examining the implications of partner sexual valuation in the context of romantic relationships for other such outcomes.

Finally, the current findings join a growing body of research demonstrating that the implications of various interpersonal processes are not inherently positive or negative but instead depend on the context of the relationship in which they occur (see McNulty, 2010; Reis, 2008; Reis, Collins, & Berscheid, 2000). For example, McNulty (2008) demonstrated that the

implications of the tendency to forgive a marital partner for changes in marital satisfaction were moderated by the frequency of that partner's negative behavior; whereas the tendency to forgive a partner who rarely behaved negatively was positively associated with changes in marital satisfaction over the first several years of marriage, the tendency to forgive a partner who more frequently behaved negatively was negatively associated with marital satisfaction over time. Likewise, McNulty, O'Mara, & Karney (2008) demonstrated that the robust positive implications of making external, specific, and unstable attributions for a partner's negative behavior were moderated by the frequency of that partner's negative behavior; whereas the tendency to make such benevolent attributions was positively associated with changes in marital satisfaction in the context of marriages to partners who rarely behaved negatively, the tendency to make such attributions was negatively associated with changes in satisfaction in the context of marriages to partners who more frequently behaved negatively. Future work may benefit by considering the extent to which other processes assumed to be inherently positive or negative have alternative implications in interpersonal contexts.

The current research also has important practical implications. Although Study 1 demonstrated that sexual valuation by a psychologically close man results in more positive outcomes than sexual valuation by a psychologically distant man, Study 2 demonstrates that some of these positive effects occur only if those women are also valued for their non-sexual attributes by those psychologically close men. Accordingly, therapeutic interventions aimed at improving women's esteem and affect may benefit by addressing women's romantic relationships. Importantly, the strong effects of sexual and non-sexual valuation (1) emerged even after various related factors were controlled and (2) were not moderated by women's

baseline state self-esteem, body esteem, and affect, level of self-objectification, physical attractiveness, or internalization of sociocultural attitudes toward appearance. In other words, all women, regardless of their initial self-esteem, body esteem, and affect, the extent to which they self-objectify, their physical attractiveness, or the extent to which they internalize sociocultural attractiveness norms, are buffered against decreased weight satisfaction and increased negative affect when their partner values them both sexually and non-sexually. Given the large size of these effects, encouraging women to choose partners who engage in such valuation may have substantial benefits for women.

Future Directions

The current research examined the effects of sexual valuation on women's *state* self-esteem, body esteem, and affect. Just because women felt better about themselves and their bodies and experienced more positive affect directly after experiencing partner sexual valuation does not mean that women will necessarily experience a long-term boost in esteem and mood. Women involved in long-term relationships likely experience repeated sexual valuation. Indeed, women in Study 1 reported eight instances of sexual valuation, on average, in a one-week period—many of these coming from their relationship partner. According to objectification theory, prolonged exposure to such sexualization across the lifetime should result in various negative consequences for women, such as increased body surveillance, body shame, body anxiety, and depression (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Nevertheless, longitudinal research finds little support for such long-term negative effects of objectification (Aubrey, 2006; Stice, Spangler, & Agras, 2001). For example, Stice and colleagues (2001) demonstrated that adolescent girls who were randomly assigned to receive a 15-month fashion magazine

subscription showed similar levels of thin-ideal internalization, body dissatisfaction, dieting, and negative affect compared to adolescent girls who were not randomly assigned to receive a fashion magazine subscription. Nevertheless, given the prevalence of partner sexual valuation, future research may benefit by examining the effects of continuous exposure to partner sexual valuation on women's well-being.

Future research may also benefit by examining the implications of true objectification by a romantic partner for women's esteem and affect. Objectification involves reducing women to their bodies and body parts (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Bartky, 1990). The current research examined the implications of men evaluating women based on their sexual and non-sexual attributes. Although there may be similarities between the two constructs, there are important differences. Most notably, men in the current studies who evaluated women based on their sexual attributes were not necessarily reducing those women to their bodies and body parts. Although this distinction is most likely among the romantic partners who demonstrated high levels of non-sexual valuation, it may also be true of romantic partners who demonstrated relatively neutral levels of non-sexual valuation—though such partners valued women for their non-sexual attributes at relatively neutral levels, they still valued them for those qualities. Future research may benefit by assessing and examining the implications of any true objectification that occurs in romantic relationships.

Finally, future research may also benefit by examining the potential implications for *men* of sexual valuation by a female romantic partner. Although sexual valuation by female strangers have been unrelated to men's well-being in previous research (Lindberg, Hyde, & McKinley, 2006), like women, men are held to sexual and interpersonal standards in their intimate

relationships (Baucom, Epstein, Rankin, & Burnett, 1996; Eastwick & Finkel, 2008; Fletcher & Simpson, 2000; Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, & Giles, 1999; Hassebrauck, 1997). Likewise, men may have also evolutionarily benefited to the extent that they chose long-term partners who sexually and non-sexually valued them because such bonded partners would be more likely to successfully produce and rear offspring. Accordingly, men may also (1) feel better about themselves and their bodies and (2) experience more positive affect to the extent that their psychologically close, female relationship partner sexually and non-sexually values them because those men may feel they are meeting both sets of their partner's standards. Of course, men place less importance on interpersonal relationships than do women (Eagly, 1987; England & Farkas, 1986; Gilligan, 1982; Oakley, 1972). Thus, unlike the effects that emerged here among women, any interactive effects of sexual and non-sexual valuation on men's state esteem and affect may occur independent of female closeness. Future research may benefit by examining this possibility.

Strengths and Limitations

Several strengths of the current research enhance my confidence in the results reported here. First, both studies provided a strong test of the association between sexual valuation and women's well-being. Study 1 estimated the within-person covariance between multiple assessments of sexual valuation and multiple assessments of state esteem and affect over a one-week period; Study 2 utilized an experimental manipulation of sexual and non-sexual valuation by male strangers and relationship partners. Moreover, the methodology utilized in Study 2, in particular, allows for causal conclusions to be drawn. Second, analyses in both studies controlled several potential confounds (i.e., baseline state self-esteem, body esteem, positive and negative

affect), thus decreasing the possibility that the results were spurious due to associations with those variables. Moreover, these baseline controls allowed for examination of *changes* in women's self-esteem, body esteem and affect. Finally, both studies used women who responded based on their actual romantic relationships, rather than hypothetical, laboratory-based, or prior relationships. Thus, the outcome measures in both studies, state self-esteem, body esteem, and affect, were both real and consequential for these women.

Nevertheless, several factors limit interpretations of the current findings until they can be replicated and extended. First, although the current research utilizes sociocultural and evolutionary perspectives to argue that women should experience beneficial effects to the extent that they are both sexually and non-sexually valued, neither study directly addressed the mechanisms through which each perspective suggests the effect should occur. Evolutionary perspectives can be used to argue that such valuation would have been adaptive and sociocultural perspectives can be used to argue that such valuation meets specific relationship standards. Thus, this effect may be moderated by women's fertility such that the effect may be stronger among fertile women than non-fertile women and/or it may be mediated by women's perceived relationship standards. Future research may benefit from examining such theoretically-derived mechanisms. Second, although the current studies involved heterosexual women in dating relationships, generalizations to other populations should be made with caution. For example, it is unclear whether similar effects would occur among platonic friends, homosexual couples, or older couples. Future research may benefit from addressing the effects of sexual valuation in the context of other types of relationships. Third, based on predictions derived from evolutionary perspectives, non-sexual valuation was used as a measure of commitment. Nevertheless, it is

possible that (1) non-committed men may non-sexually value their female partners and (2) committed men may fail to non-sexually value their female partners. Thus, future research should address the extent to which commitment further moderates the effects presented here. Finally, although the homogeneity of this sample (i.e., mostly White women who were all undergraduate students) enhances our confidence in the pattern of associations that emerged here, this homogeneity limits my ability to generalize these findings to other samples. Future research may benefit by addressing these issues in more diverse samples of participants.

Chapter V: Conclusion

The current research attempts to reconcile the competing predictions made between objectification theory and both sociocultural and evolutionary perspectives regarding the effects of female sexual valuation. The majority of objectification research demonstrates negative effects of female sexual valuation from male strangers (e.g., increased body shame and anxiety; see Calogero, 2004). However, given that objectification often occurs in interpersonal encounters (Fredrickson et al., 1998), and given that social psychological phenomenon varies across the context of an intimate relationship (Reis, 2008), the current research aimed to examine the effects of sexual valuation in a relational context. According to evolutionary and sociocultural perspectives, I predicted that sexual valuation from a romantic partner may actually benefit women as long as those partners also value those women for their non-sexual attributes. Indeed, the current findings supported this prediction. Women who were sexually valued by psychologically close men experienced a boost in state self-esteem, body esteem, and positive affect compared to women who were sexually valued by psychologically close men. Moreover, this effect of sexual valuation by psychologically close men was further moderated by the extent to which those women were also valued by those men for their non-sexual attributes. Together, these findings demonstrate that female sexual valuation is not inherently negative—it can have more positive effects on women’s state self-esteem, body esteem, and affect when it occurs in conjunction with positive evaluation of non-sexual attributes and in the context of a close relationship.

References

- American Society of Plastic Surgeons. (2009a). 1992 sex distribution by cosmetic procedures. Retrieved August 6, 2009, from http://www.plasticsurgery.org/Media/Statistics/1992_Statistics/1992_Sex_Distribution_By_Cosmetic_Procedures.html.
- American Society of Plastic Surgeons. (2009b). 2008 cosmetic surgery gender distribution. *National Clearinghouse of Plastic Surgery Statistics* Retrieved August 6, 2009, from <http://www.plasticsurgery.org/Media/stats/2008-women-cosmetic-surgery-minally-invasive-statistics.pdf>
- Archer, D., Iritani, B., Kimes, D. D., & Barrios, M. (1983). Face-ism: Five studies of sex differences in facial prominence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *45*, 725-735.
- Aubrey, J. S. (2010). Looking good versus feeling good: An investigation of media frames of health advice and their effects on women's body-related self-perceptions. *Sex Roles*. Online First.
- Bartky, S. L. (1990). *Femininity and domination: Studies in the phenomenology of oppression*. New York: Routledge.
- Bartky, S. (2003). Foucault, femininity and the modernization of patriarchal power. In R. Weitz (Ed.), *The politics of women's bodies: sexuality, appearance, and behavior* (pp.25–45). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Bastian, H. (1999). Commentary: "health has become secondary to a sexually attractive body." *British Medical Journal*, *319*, 1402.

- Baucom, D. H., Epstein, N., Rankin, L. A., & Burnett, C. K. (1996). Assessing relationship standards: The Inventory of Specific Relationship Standards. *Journal of Family Psychology, 10*, 72-88.
- Beck, A. T., Brown, G., & Steer, R. A. (1998). *Beck Depression Inventory II manual*. San Antonio, TX: The Psychological Corporation.
- Bem, S. L. (1974). The measurement of psychological androgyny. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 42*, 155-162.
- Brewer, M. B., & Roccas, S. (2001). Individual values, social identity, and optimal distinctiveness. In C. Sedikides & M. B. Brewer's (Eds.), *Individual, Self, Relational Self, Collective Self* (pp. 219–37). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press
- Buss, D. M. (1988). The evolution of human intrasexual competition: Tactics of mate attraction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 616-628.
- Buss, D. M. (2003). *The evolution of desire: Strategies of human mating (revised edition)*. New York: Basic Books.
- Buss, D.M. and Schmitt, D.P. (1993) 'Sexual Strategies Theory: an evolutionary perspective on human mating', *Psychological Review* 100: 204–32.
- Calogero, R. M. (2004). A test of objectification theory: The effect of the male gaze on appearance concerns in college women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 28*, 16-21.
- Calogero, R. M., Boroughs, M., Thompson, J. K. (2007). The impact of Western beauty ideals on the lives of women and men: A sociocultural perspective. In V. Swami & A. Furnham (Eds.), *Body beautiful: Evolutionary and sociocultural perspectives* (pp. 259–298). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Calogero, R. M., Herbozo, S., & Thompson, J. K. (2009). Complementary weightism: The potential costs of appearance-related commentary for women's self-objectification. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 33*, 120-132.
- Cialdini, R. B., & Goldberg, N. J. (2004). Social influence: Compliance and conformity. *Annual Review of Psychology, 55*, 591-621.
- Crawford, J. R., & Henry, J. D. (2004). The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS): Construct validity, measurement properties, and normative data in a large non-clinical sample. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology, 43*, 245-265.
- Davis, C., Claridge, G., & Fox, J. (2000). Not just a pretty face: Physical attractiveness and perfectionism in the risk for eating disorders. *International Journal of Eating Disorders, 27*, 67-73.
- Deutsch, M. & Gerard, H. G. (1955). A study of normative and informational social influence upon individual judgment. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 51*, 629-636.
- Diamond, L. M. (2003). What does sexual orientation orient? A biobehavioral model distinguishing romantic love and sexual desire. *Psychological Review, 110*, 173-192.
- Diamond, L. M. (2004). Emerging perspectives on distinctions between romantic love and sexual desire. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 13*, 116-199.
- Diekmann, A. B., & Eagly, A. H. (2000). Stereotypes as dynamic constructs: Women and men of the past, present, and future. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 26*, 1171-1188.
- Dortch, S. (1997). Women at the cosmetic counter: demographic trends in the cosmetic industry. *American Demographics*. Retrieved from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m4021/is_n3_v19/ai_19165299/

- Durante, K. M., Li, N. P., & Haselton, M. G. (2008). Changes in women's choice of dress across the ovulatory cycle: Naturalistic and laboratory task-based evidence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 34*, 1451-1460.
- Eagly, A. H., & Steffen, V. J. (1984). Gender stereotypes stem from the distribution of women and men into social roles. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46*, 735-754.
- Eastwick, P. W., & Finkel, E. J. (2008). Sex differences in mate preferences revisited: Do people know what they initially desire in a romantic partner? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 94*, 245-264.
- Elder, G. H. (1969). Appearance and education in marriage mobility. *American Sociological Review, 34*, 519-533.
- England, P., & Farkas, G. (1986). *Households, employment, and gender: A social, economic, and demographic view*. New York: Aldine Publishing Company.
- Fessler, D. M. T. (2003). No time to eat: An adaptationist account of periovulatory behavioral changes. *The Quarterly Review of Biology, 78*, 3-21.
- Fletcher, G. J. O., Simpson, J. A., Thomas, G., & Giles, L. (1999). Ideals in intimate relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76*, 72-89.
- Fletcher, G. J. O., & Simpson, J. A. (2000). Ideal standards in close relationships: Their structure and functions. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 9*, 102-105.
- Fouts, G., & Burggraf, K. (1999). Television situation comedies: Female body images and verbal reinforcements. *Sex Roles, 40*, 473-481.
- Fouts, G., & Burggraf, K. (2000). Television situation comedies: Female weight, male negative comments, and audience reactions. *Sex Roles, 42*, 925-932.

- Franzoi, S. L., & Shields, S. A. (1984). The body esteem scale: Multidimensional structure and sex differences in a college population. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *48*, 173-178.
doi:10.1207/s15327752jpa4802_12
- Fredrickson, B. L., & Roberts, T. -A. (1997). Objectification theory: Toward understanding women's lived experiences and mental health risks. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *21*, 173-206.
- Fredrickson, B. L., Roberts, T. A., Noll, S. M., Quinn, D. M., & Twenge, J. M. (1998). That swimsuit becomes you: Sex differences in self-objectification, restrained eating, and math performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *75*, 269-284.
- Gangestad, S. W., Garver-Apgar, C. E., Simpson, J. A., & Cousins, A. J. (2007). Changes in women's mate preferences across the cycle. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *92*, 151-163.
- Gangestad, S. W., Simpson, J. A., Cousins, A. J., Garver-Apgar, C. E., & Christensen, P. N. (2004). Women's preferences for male behavioral displays change across the menstrual cycle. *Psychological Science*, *15*, 203-207.
- Garner, D. M., Olmstead, M. P., & Polivy, J. (1983). The Eating Disorder Inventory: A measure of cognitive-behavioral dimensions of anorexia nervosa and bulimia. In P. L. Darby, P. E. Garfinkel, D. M. Garner, & D. V. Coscina (Eds.), *Anorexia nervosa: Recent developments in research*, (pp. 173-184). New York: Alan R. Liss.

- Garver-Apgar, C. E., Gangestad, S. W., & Thornhill, R. (2008). Hormonal correlates of women's mid-cycle preference for the scent of symmetry. *Evolution and Human Behavior, 29*, 223-232.
- Gervais, S. J. (2007). *When her whole equals her parts: Seeing women as objects rather than persons*. Doctoral dissertation, Penn State, August 2007.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*, 491-512.
- Goffman, E. (1979). *Gender advertisements*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Grammer, K., Renninger, L., & Fischer, B. (2004). Disco clothing, female sexual motivation, and relationship status: Is she dressed to impress? *The Journal of Sex Research, 41*, 66-74.
- Grauerholz, E., & King, A. (1997). Prime time sexual harassment. *Violence Against Women, 3*, 129-148.
- Haselton, M. G., & Gangestad, S. W. (2006). Conditional expression of women's desires and men's mate guarding across the ovulatory cycle. *Hormones and Behavior, 49*, 509-518.
- Hassebrauck, M. (1997). Cognitions of relationship quality: A prototype analysis of their structure and consequences. *Personal Relationships, 4*, 163-185.
- Havlicek, J., Roberts, S. C., & Flegr, J. (2005). Women's preference for dominant male odour: Effects of menstrual cycle and relationship status. *Biological Letters, 1*, 256-259.
- Heatherton, T.F. & Polivy, J. (1991). Development and validation of a scale for measuring state self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 60*, 895-910.

- Herbozo, S., & Thompson, J. K. (2006). Appearance-related commentary, body image, and self-esteem: Does the distress associated with the commentary matter? *Body Image: An International Journal of Research*, 3, 255-262.
- Jackson, L. A. (1992). *Physical appearance and gender: Sociobiological and sociocultural perspectives*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Jackson, L. A. (2002). Physical attractiveness: A sociocultural perspective. In T. F. Cash & T. Pruzinsky (Eds.), *Body image: A handbook of theory, research, & clinical practice* (pp. 13-21). New York: The Guildford Press.
- Johnston, V. S., Hagel, R., Franklin, M., Fink, B., & Grammer, K. (2001). Male facial attractiveness: Evidence for hormone-mediated adaptive design. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, 22, 251-267.
- Kelley, H. H. (1955). The two functions of reference groups. In G. E. Swanson, T. M. Newcomb, & E. L. Hartley (Eds.), *Readings in social psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 410-414). New York: Henry Holt.
- Lancaster, J.B. (1989). Evolutionary and cross-cultural perspectives on single parenthood. In R.W. Bell and N.J. Bell (Eds.), *Interfaces in Psychology*, Lubbock: TX, Tech University Press, pp. 63–72.
- Leary, M. R., & Baumeister, R. F. (2000). The nature and function of self-esteem: Sociometer theory. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 32, 1-62.
- Leary, M. R., & Downs, D. L. (1995). Interpersonal functions of the self-esteem motive. In M. H. Kernis (Ed.), *Efficacy, agency, and self-esteem* (pp. 123-144). New York: Plenum Press.

- Leary, M. R., Haupt, A. L., Strausser, K. S., & Chokel, J. T. (1998). Calibrating the sociometer: The relationship between interpersonal appraisals and state self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 1290-1299.
- Leary, M. R., Tambor, E. S., Terdal, S. K., & Downs, D. L. (1995). Self-esteem as an interpersonal monitor: The sociometer hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 68*, 518-530.
- Lindberg, S. M., Hyde, J. S., & McKinley, N. M. (2006). A measure of objectified body consciousness for preadolescent and adolescent youth. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 30*, 65-76.
- MacKinnon, C. (1989). *Toward a feminist theory of the state*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- MacKinnon, C. (2006). *Are women human?* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- McLaren, L, Kuh, D., Hardy, R., & Gauvin, L. (2004). Positive and negative body-related comments and their relationship with body dissatisfaction in middle-aged women. *Psychology and Health, 19*, 261-272.
- McNulty, J. K. (2008). Tendencies to forgive in marriage: Putting the benefits into context *Journal of Family Psychology, 22*, 171-175.
- McNulty, J. K. (2010). When positive processes hurt relationships. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 19*, 167-171.
- McNulty, J. K. (2011). The dark side of forgiveness: The tendency to forgive predicts continued psychological and physical aggression in marriage. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 37*, 770-783.

- McNulty, J. K., O'Mara, E. M., & Karney, B. R. (2008). Benevolent cognitions as a strategy of relationship maintenance: "Don't sweat the small stuff"...but it is not all small stuff. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 94*, 631-646.
- Miller, D. T., & Prentice, D. A. (1996). The construction of social norms and standards. In E. T. Higgins & A. W. Kruglanski (Eds.), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles* (pp. 799-829). New York: Guilford Press.
- Moradi, B., & Huang, Y. P. (2008). Objectification theory and psychology of women: A decade of advances and future directions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 32*, 377-398.
- Myers, T. A., & Crowther, J. H. (2008). Is self-objectification related to interoceptive awareness? An examination of potential mediating pathways to disordered eating attitudes. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 32*, 172-180.
- Nail, P. R., McDonald, G., & Levy, D. A. (2000). Proposal of a four-dimensional model of social response. *Psychological Bulletin, 126*, 454-470.
- Nesse, R. M., & Ellsworth, P. C. (2009). Evolution, emotions, and emotional disorders. *American Psychologist, 64*, 129-139.
- Noll, S. M., & Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). A mediational model linking self-objectification, body shame, and disordered eating. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 22*, 623-636.
- Nussbaum, M. C. (1995). Objectification. *Philosophy and Public Affairs, 24*, 249-291.
- Oakley, A. (1972). *Sex, gender, and society*. South Melbourne, Vic., Australia: Sun Books.
- Oatley, K., & Jenkins, J. M. (1996). *Understanding emotions*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.

- Ogletree, S. M., Williams, S. W., Raffeld, P., Mason, B., & Fricke, K. (1990). Female attractiveness and eating disorders: Do children's television commercials play a role? *Sex Roles, 22*, 791-797.
- Penton-Voak, I. S., & Perrett, D. I. (2001). Male facial attractiveness: Perceived personality and shifting female preferences for male traits across the menstrual cycle. *Advance Studies in Behavior, 30*, 219-259.
- Peter, J., & Valkenburg, P. M. (2007). Adolescents' exposure to a sexualized media environment and their notions of women as sex objects. *Sex Roles, 56*, 381-395.
- Plutchik, R. (2003). *Emotions and life: Perspectives from psychology, biology, and evolution*. Washington DC: American Psychological Association.
- Pool, G. J., Wood, W., & Leck, K. (1998). The self-esteem motive in social influence: Agreement with valued majorities and disagreement with derogated minorities. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*, 967-975.
- Reis, H. T. (2008). Reinvigorating the concept of situation in social psychology. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 12*, 311-329.
- Reis, H. T., Collins, W. A., & Berscheid, E. (2000). The relationship context of human behavior and development. *Psychological Bulletin, 126*, 844-872.
- Roberts, T.-A., & Waters, P. L. (2004). Self-objectification and that "not so fresh feeling": Feminist therapeutic interventions for healthy female embodiment. *Women & Therapy, 27*, 5-21.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

- Rudman, W. J., & Hagiwara, A. F. (1992). Sexual exploitation in advertising health and wellness products. *Women & Health, 18*(4), 77-89.
- Sanchez, D. T., & Kwang, T. (2007). When the relationship becomes her: Revisiting women's body concerns from a relationship contingency perspective. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 31*, 401-414.
- Schmitt, D. P., Shackelford, T. K., Buss, D. M. (2001). Are men really more 'oriented' toward short-term mating than women? A critical review of theory and research. *Psychology, Evolution, and Gender, 3*, 211-239.
- Seidman, S. A. (1992). An investigation of sex-role stereotyping in music videos. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media, 36*, 209-216.
- Smolak, L., & Striegel-Moore, R. H. (2001). Body image concerns. In J. Worell (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of women and gender: Sex similarities and differences and the impact of society on gender* (Vol. 1, pp. 201-210). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Smuts, B. (1992). Male aggression against women: An evolutionary perspective. *Human Nature, 3*, 1-44.
- Strelan, P., & Hargreaves, D. (2005). Women who objectify other women: The vicious circle of objectification. *Sex Roles, 52*, 707-712.
- Tantleff-Dunn, S., Thompson, J. K., & Dunn, M. F. (1995). Development and validation of the Feedback on Physical Appearance Scale (FOPAS). *Eating Disorders: The Journal of Treatment and Prevention, 3*, 341-350.

- Thompson, J. K., van den Berg, P., Roehrig, M., Guarda, A. S., & Heinberg, L. J. (2004). The sociocultural attitudes toward appearance scale-3 (SATAQ-3): Development and validation. *International Journal of Eating Disorders, 35*, 293-304.
- Thompson, M. A., & Gray, J. J. (1995). Development and validation of a new body-image assessment scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 64*, 258-269.
- Thornhill, R., & Gangestad, S. W., (2008). *The evolutionary biology of human female sexuality*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tolman, D. L., Impett, E. A., Tracy, A. J., & Michael, A. (2006). Looking good, sounding good: Femininity ideology and adolescent girls' mental health. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 30*, 85-95.
- Trivers, R. (1972). Parental investment and sexual selection. In B. Campbell (Ed.), *Sexual selection and the descent of man* (pp. 136-179). Chicago: Aldine-Antherton.
- Tylka, T. L., & Hill, M. S. (2004). Objectification theory as it relates to disordered eating among college women. *Sex Roles, 51*, 719-730.
- Unger, R. K., & Crawford, M. E. (1996). *Women and gender: A feminist psychology* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Walters, S., & Crawford, C. B. (1994). The importance of mate attraction for intrasexual competition in men and women. *Ethology and sociobiology, 15*, 5-30.
- Ward, L. M. (2003). Understanding the role of entertainment media in the sexual socialization of American youth: A review of empirical research. *Developmental Review, 23*, 347-388.
- Warr, P. B., Barter, J., & Brownbridge, G. (1983). On the independence of positive and negative affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44*, 644-651.

- Watson, D. (1988a). Intraindividual and interindividual analyses of positive and negative affect: Their relations to health complaints, perceived stress, and daily activities. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*, 1020-1030.
- Watson, D. (1988b). The vicissitudes of mood measurement: Effects of varying descriptors, time frames, and response formats on measures of positive and negative affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *55*, 128-141.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*, 1063-1070.
- West, B. T., Welch, K. B., & Galecki, A. T. (2007). *Linear mixed models. A practical guide using statistical software*. New York, NY: Chapman & Hall.
- Wood, W., Christensen, P. N., Hebl, M. R., & Rothgerber, H. (1997). Conformity to sex-typed norms, affect, and the self-concept. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *73*, 523-535.

Appendices

Appendix A: Tables and Figures

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study 1

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1) Closeness	-						
(2) Single-Item Self-Esteem	-.09	-					
(3) Single-Item Body Esteem	-.15	.81 ^{***}	-				
(4) Self-Esteem Scale	.04	.56 ^{***}	.55 ^{***}	-			
(5) Body Esteem Scale	-.23	.56 ^{***}	.77 ^{***}	.68 ^{***}	-		
(6) Positive Affect	.28 [†]	.54 ^{***}	.41 ^{**}	.46 ^{**}	.32 [*]	-	
(7) Negative Affect	-.13	-.40 [*]	-.30 [†]	-.55 ^{***}	-.35 [*]	-.46 ^{**}	-
<i>M</i>	3.66	82.51	75.52	4.10	3.86	3.13	1.34
<i>SD</i>	1.50	12.50	17.22	0.55	0.71	0.74	0.31
<i>Range</i>	0.50-6.00	48.33-99.33	10.00-97.50	2.39-4.91	1.52-5.00	1.11-4.67	1.00-2.12

Note. $N = 41$.

[†] $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 2

Association Between Male Closeness and Women's State Self-Esteem

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Effect Size</i> <i>r</i>
Single-Item Self-Esteem			
Intercept	82.96	1.91	
Diary Entry	0.31	0.20	0.08
Male Closeness _{<i>B</i>}	-0.35	1.24	0.04
Male Closeness _{<i>W</i>}	1.42	0.52	0.40*
Self-Esteem Scale			
Intercept	4.11	0.09	
Diary Entry	0.01	0.01	0.04
Male Closeness _{<i>B</i>}	0.01	0.06	0.04
Male Closeness _{<i>W</i>}	0.06	0.02	0.40**

Note. *B* indicates between-person effect and *W* indicates within-person effect. For the single-item self-esteem analysis, $df = 39$ for the intercept and between-person male closeness, $df = 322$ for the diary entry, and $df = 40$ for the within-person male closeness. For the self-esteem scale analysis, $df = 39$ for the intercept and between-person male closeness, $df = 326$ for the diary entry, and $df = 40$ for the within-person male closeness.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Association Between Male Closeness and Women's State Body Esteem

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Effect Size</i> <i>r</i>
Single-Item Body Esteem			
Intercept	75.86	2.66	
Diary Entry	0.43	0.27	0.09
Male Closeness _B	-1.42	1.81	0.12
Male Closeness _W	1.65	0.57	0.41**
Body Esteem Scale			
Intercept	3.87	0.11	
Diary Entry	0.02	0.01	0.10 [†]
Male Closeness _B	-0.10	0.07	0.22
Male Closeness _W	0.07	0.02	0.53***

Note. *B* indicates between-person effect and *W* indicates within-person effect. For the single-item body esteem analysis, $df = 39$ for the intercept and between-person male closeness, $df = 322$ for the diary entry, and $df = 40$ for the within-person male closeness. For the body esteem scale analysis, $df = 39$ for the intercept and between-person male closeness, $df = 327$ for the diary entry, and $df = 40$ for the within-person male closeness.

[†] $p < .10$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 4

Association Between Male Closeness and Women's State Affect

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Effect Size</i> <i>r</i>
Positive Affect			
Intercept	3.16	0.11	
Diary Entry	0.01	0.01	0.04
Male Closeness _B	0.15	0.07	0.32*
Male Closeness _W	0.18	0.04	0.59***
Negative Affect			
Intercept	1.32	0.05	
Diary Entry	-0.01	0.01	0.06
Male Closeness _B	-0.02	0.03	0.11
Male Closeness _W	-0.03	0.02	0.20

Note. *B* indicates between-person effect and *W* indicates within-person effect. For positive affect, $df = 39$ for the intercept and between-person male closeness, $df = 319$ for the diary entry, and $df = 40$ for the within-person male closeness. For negative affect, $df = 39$ for the intercept and between-person male closeness, $df = 318$ for the diary entry, and $df = 40$ for the within-person male closeness.

* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 5

Moderators of the Association Between Male Closeness and Women's Well-Being

Variable	Self-Objectification			Attractiveness			Internalization of Appearance Norms		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Effect Size</i> <i>r</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Effect Size</i> <i>r</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Effect Size</i> <i>r</i>
Self-Esteem									
Intercept	4.11	0.06		4.11	0.06		4.11	0.06	
Diary Entry	-1.29 ⁻³	0.01	0.01	-1.47 ⁻³	0.01	0.01	-1.38 ⁻³	0.01	0.01
Male Closeness _B	0.05	0.05	0.18	0.04	0.05	0.14	0.06	0.05	0.19
Male Closeness _W (MC)	0.02	0.01	0.29 [†]	0.02	0.01	0.27 [†]	0.02	0.01	0.31 [*]
Moderator (M)	0.01	0.00	0.29 [†]	-0.04	0.03	0.22	-0.01	0.05	0.06
MC*M	5.33 ⁻⁴	0.07	0.08	2.87 ⁻³	0.01	0.06	-1.55 ⁻³	0.01	0.02
Body Esteem									
Intercept	3.86	0.07		3.86	0.07		3.86	0.07	
Diary Entry	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.07	0.01	0.01	0.06
Male Closeness _B	-0.13	0.06	0.34 [*]	-0.10	0.06	0.26	-0.12	0.06	0.33 [*]
Male Closeness _W (MC)	0.03	0.01	0.15 ^{**}	0.03	0.01	0.15 ^{**}	0.02	0.01	0.14 [*]
Moderator (M)	-1.91 ⁻³	3.74 ⁻³	0.08	0.07	0.03	0.33 [*]	-0.13	0.07	0.30 [†]
MC*M	6.15 ⁻⁴	5.77	0.06	-0.01	0.01	0.05	3.98 ⁻³	0.09	0.02
Positive Affect									
Intercept	3.13	0.10		3.13	0.10		3.13	0.10	
Diary Entry	-1.98 ⁻³	0.01	0.01	-1.62 ⁻³	0.01	0.01	-1.78 ⁻³	0.01	0.01
Male Closeness _B	0.11	0.06	0.31 [†]	0.14	0.06	0.34 [*]	0.11	0.06	0.31 [†]
Male Closeness _W (MC)	0.16	0.04	0.56 ^{***}	0.16	0.04	0.56 ^{***}	0.15	0.04	0.55 ^{***}
Moderator (M)	3.08 ⁻³	0.01	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.15	-0.04	0.11	0.06
MC*M	3.39 ⁻³	2.74 ⁻³	0.19	-0.03	0.02	0.26	-0.05	0.05	0.18

Note. The self-esteem analyses utilized the self-esteem scale, controlling body esteem. The body esteem analyses utilized the body esteem scale, controlling self-esteem. The positive affect analyses controlled negative affect.

[†] $p < .10$. ^{*} $p < .05$. ^{**} $p < .01$. ^{***} $p < .001$

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Study 2

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
RSE	3.25	0.44	2.00 - 4.00
Baseline RSE	3.20	0.43	2.10 - 4.00
SSE	75.64	11.31	47.00 - 96.00
Baseline SSE	71.12	12.43	38.00 - 99.00
BES-SA	3.64	0.53	2.46 - 5.00
Baseline BES-SA	3.69	0.53	2.31 - 5.00
BES-WS	3.10	0.80	1.50 - 5.00
Baseline BES-WS	3.12	0.77	1.30 - 4.90
BES-PC	3.49	0.68	1.89 - 4.89
Baseline BES-PC	3.46	0.63	1.78 - 4.78
PA	2.67	0.75	1.00 - 4.40
Baseline PA	2.97	0.79	1.20 - 4.60
NA	1.66	0.62	1.00 - 4.10
Baseline NA	1.78	0.74	1.00 - 4.33

Note. *N* = 139. *RSE* = Rosenberg (1965) Self-Esteem Scale. *SSE* = Heatherton and Polivy's (1991) State Self-Esteem Scale. *BES-SA* = Body Esteem Scale, Sexual Attractiveness subscale. *BES-WS* = Body Esteem Scale, Weight Satisfaction subscale. *BES-PC* = Body Esteem Scale, Physical Condition subscale. *PA* = Positive Affect. *NA* = Negative Affect.

Table 7

Correlations for Study 2

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1) RSE	.59 ***	.76***	.40***	.55***	.34***	.31***	-.46***
(2) SSE	.71***	.74 ***	.41***	.56***	.44***	.26***	-.48***
(3) BES-SA	.44***	.39***	.74 ***	.49***	.48**	.39***	-.07
(4) BES-WS	.39***	.57***	.31***	.82 ***	.54***	.39**	-.19*
(5) BES-PC	.36***	.48***	.29***	.54***	.77 ***	.40***	-.08
(6) PA	.44***	.41***	.43***	.24***	.35***	.54 ***	.05
(7) NA	-.36***	-.46***	-.07	-.13	.03	.01	.51 ***

Note. Post-manipulation correlations are below the diagonal; baseline correlations are above the diagonal; correlations of the same measures between baseline and post-manipulation are in bold on the diagonal. *RSE* = Rosenberg (1965) Self-Esteem Scale. *SSE* = Heatherton and Polivy's (1991) State Self-Esteem Scale. *BES-SA* = Body Esteem Scale, Sexual Attractiveness subscale. *BES-WS* = Body Esteem Scale, Weight Satisfaction subscale. *BES-PC* = Body Esteem Scale, Physical Condition subscale. *PA* = Positive Affect. *NA* = Negative Affect.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 8

Association Between Male Closeness, Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Women's State Self-Esteem

Variable	RSE		SSE	
	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>
Baseline Self-Esteem	1	76.67 ^{***}	1	171.58 [*]
Male Closeness (MC)	1	4.35 [*]	1	6.31 [*]
Sexual Valuation (SV)	1	3.01 [†]	1	0.84
Non-Sexual Valuation (NSV)	1	0.22	1	0.05
MC*SV	1	0.29	1	0.98
MC*NSV	1	0.10	1	0.17
SV*NSV	1	0.71	1	1.23
MC*SV*NSV	1	6.69 [*]	1	7.56 ^{**}
Error	130	(12.03)	130	(53.85)

Note. RSE = Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. SSE = Heatherton and Polivy's (1991) State Self-Esteem Scale. Numbers in parentheses are the Mean Square Errors.

[†] $p < .10$. ^{*} $p < .05$. ^{**} $p < .01$. ^{***} $p < .001$.

Table 9

Association Between Male Closeness, Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Women's State Body Esteem

Subscale	Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>
Sexual Attractiveness			
	Weight Satisfaction	1	13.34 ^{***}
	Physical Condition	1	3.07 [†]
	Baseline Sexual Attractiveness	1	107.32 ^{***}
	Male Closeness (MC)	1	0.03
	Sexual Valuation (SV)	1	0.28
	Non-Sexual Valuation (NSV)	1	0.80
	MC*SV	1	0.02
	MC*NSV	1	0.54
	SV*NSV	1	1.57
	MC*SV*NSV	1	1.46
	Error	126	(0.11)
Weight Satisfaction			
	Sexual Attractiveness	1	16.39 ^{***}
	Physical Condition	1	8.26 ^{**}
	Baseline Weight Satisfaction	1	221.38 ^{***}
	Male Closeness (MC)	1	1.67
	Sexual Valuation (SV)	1	0.92
	Non-Sexual Valuation (NSV)	1	0.35
	MC*SV	1	1.66
	MC*NSV	1	0.63
	SV*NSV	1	0.64
	MC*SV*NSV	1	4.90 [*]
	Error	128	(0.16)
Physical Condition			
	Sexual Attractiveness	1	29.79 ^{***}
	Physical Condition	1	158.41 ^{***}
	Baseline Weight Satisfaction	1	2.13
	Male Closeness (MC)	1	3.66 [†]
	Sexual Valuation (SV)	1	0.17
	Non-Sexual Valuation (NSV)	1	8.91 ^{**}
	MC*SV	1	1.83
	MC*NSV	1	2.08
	SV*NSV	1	1.26
	MC*SV*NSV	1	0.03
	Error	128	(0.13)

Note. Numbers in parentheses are the Mean Square Errors.

[†]*p* < .10. **p* < .05. ***p* < .01. ****p* < .001.

Table 10

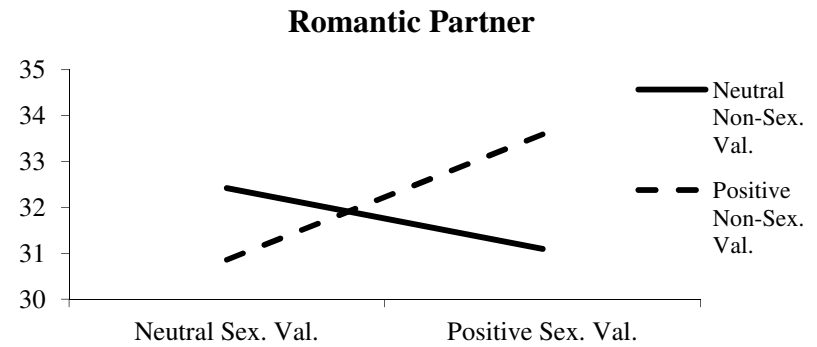
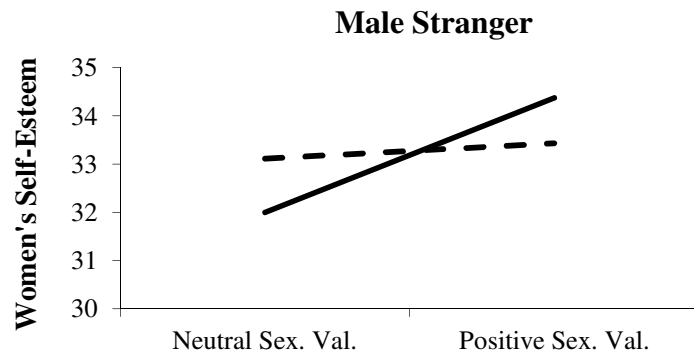
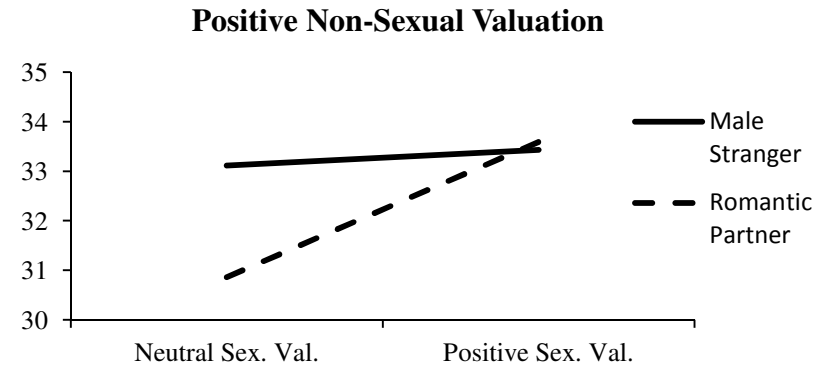
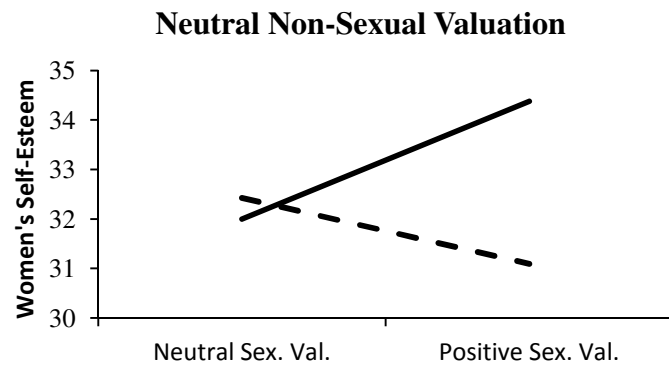
Association Between Male Closeness, Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Women's State Affect

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>
Positive Affect		
Negative Affect	1	0.07
Baseline Positive Affect	1	49.22 ^{***}
Male Closeness (MC)	1	0.28
Sexual Valuation (SV)	1	1.70
Non-Sexual Valuation (NSV)	1	0.39
MC*SV	1	0.17
MC*NSV	1	0.02
SV*NSV	1	0.05
MC*SV*NSV	1	1.02
Error	129	(0.42)
Negative Affect		
Positive Affect	1	0.28
Baseline Negative Affect	1	41.67 ^{***}
Male Closeness (MC)	1	4.39 [*]
Sexual Valuation (SV)	1	0.98
Non-Sexual Valuation (NSV)	1	0.19
MC*SV	1	1.23
MC*NSV	1	0.69
SV*NSV	1	4.52 [*]
MC*SV*NSV	1	3.45 [†]
Error	129	(0.27)

Note. Numbers in parentheses are the Mean Square Errors.

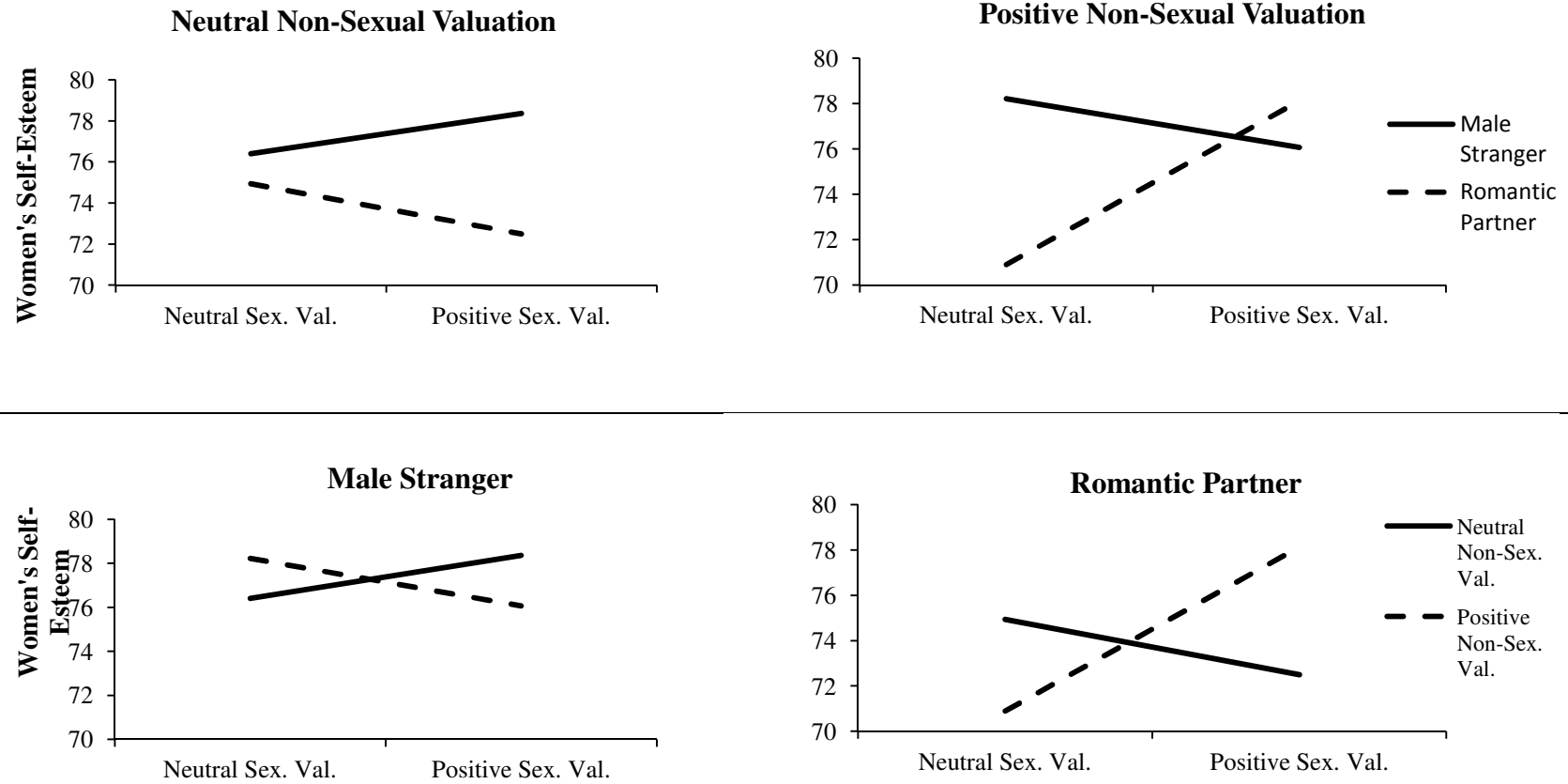
[†] $p < .10$. ^{*} $p < .05$. ^{**} $p < .01$. ^{***} $p < .001$.

Figure 1



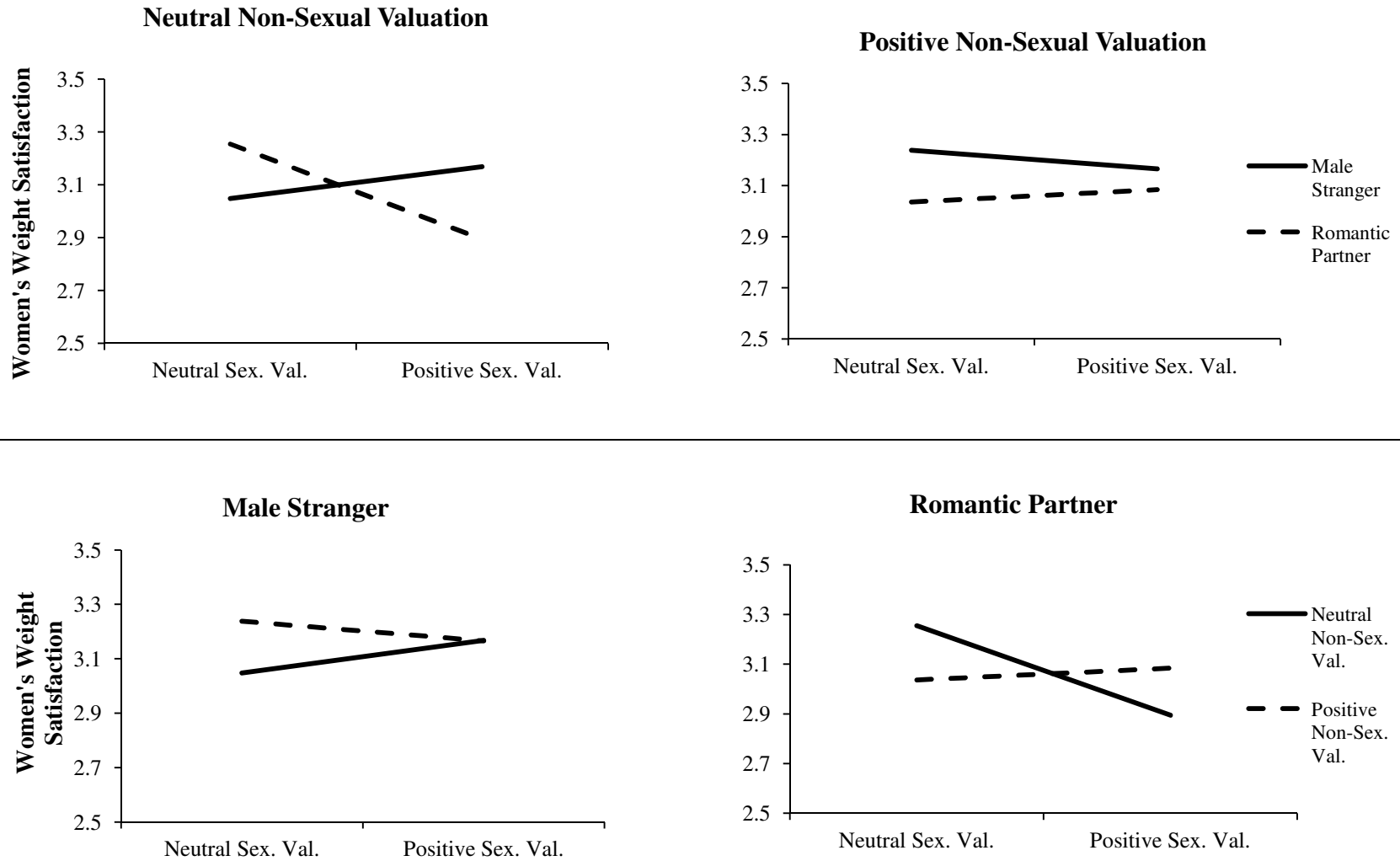
Interactive Effects of Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Male Closeness on Women's State Self-Esteem, Assessed by the Rosenberg (1965) Self-Esteem Scale

Figure 2



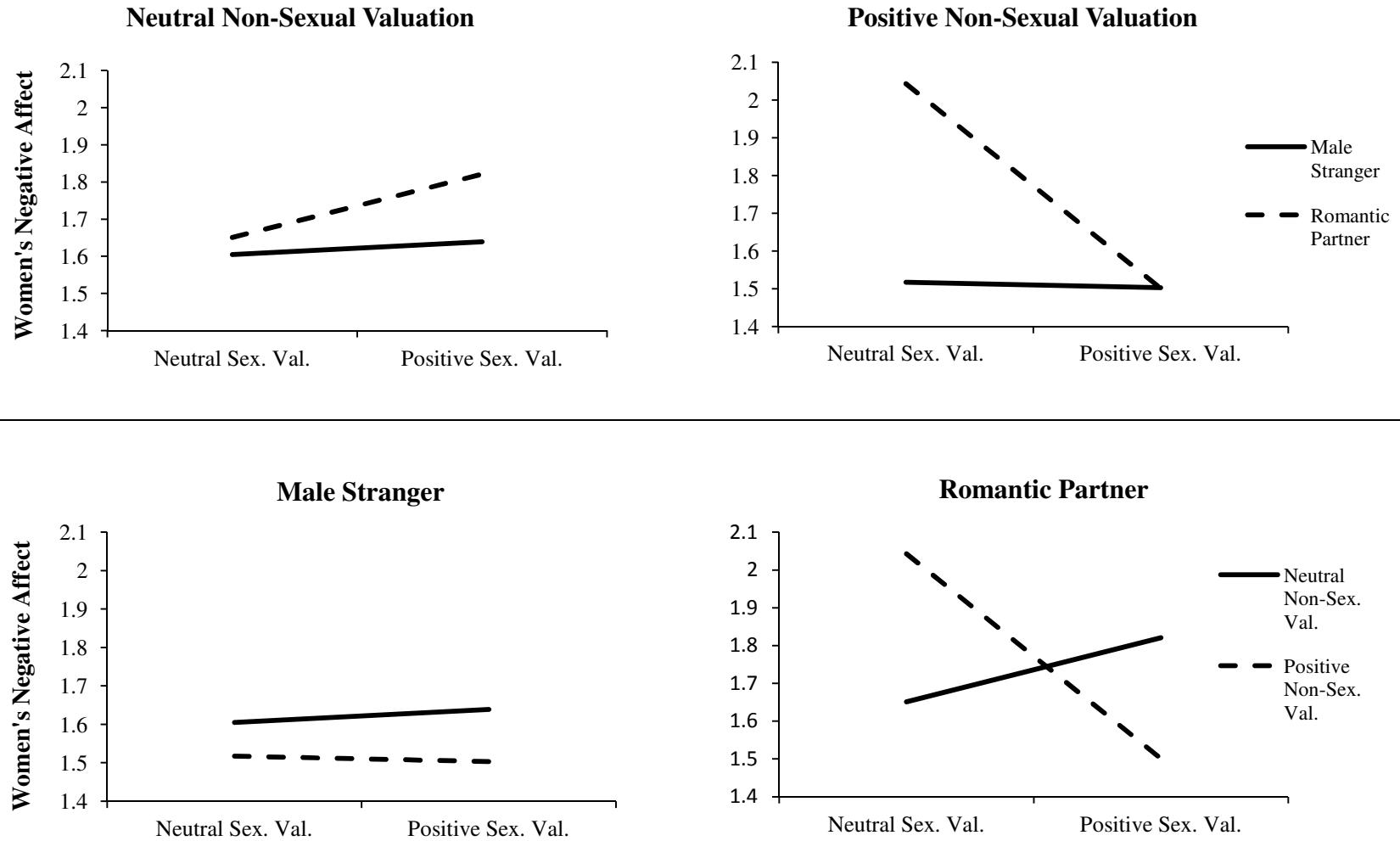
Interactive Effects of Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Male Closeness on Women's State Self-Esteem, Assessed by the Heatherton and Polivy's (1991) State Self-Esteem Scale

Figure 3



Interactive Effects of Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Male Closeness on Women's State Weight Satisfaction

Figure 4



Interactive Effects of Sexual Valuation, Non-Sexual Valuation, and Male Closeness on Women's State Negative Affect

Appendix B: Study 1 Consent Form

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

Women's Daily Diary Study

INTRODUCTION

This study examines women's daily life experiences.

INFORMATION ABOUT PARTICIPANTS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE STUDY

You will be asked to complete a variety of questionnaires which will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Later, you will be contacted and asked to meet with the researcher for approximately 15 minutes to receive further instructions and complete a week-long diary task reporting life experiences.

RISKS AND BENEFITS

There are no foreseeable risks. Rather, you will obtain the satisfaction of knowing that you participated in a study that will shed light on women's daily life experiences.

CONFIDENTIALITY

All your reports will be kept confidential. You will not put your name on the data sheets, and the researchers will not know how you answered the questions. Data will be stored securely and will be made available only to persons conducting the study unless participants specifically give permission in writing to do otherwise. No reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link participants to the study.

COMPENSATION

You will receive one and a half hours (90 minutes) of experimental credit for participating.

CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures you may contact the principal investigator. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact the Compliance Section of the Office of Research.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide not to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Return of the completed questionnaires constitute consent to participate.

CONSENT

Return of the completed questionnaires constitute consent to participate.

Initials: _____

Date: _____

Additional Contact Information

In the event that you have any questions or comments about this study, we welcome you to contact one of us to talk about your questions, comments, or concerns. You can call for any reason. If you would like to talk with one of us, please contact us.

Knoxville Area Services for Women:

211-East Tennessee Information and Referral (Non-emergency line for health & human service information)

CONTACT OF KNOXVILLE 523-9108 / 523-9124 (Helpline) P.O. Box 11234, Knoxville, Tennessee 37939-1234

This service provides telephone counseling for clients in crisis.

LADIES OF CHARITY 524-0538 - Administrative Office: 119 Dameron Avenue, Knoxville, Tennessee 37917-6414

This program provides emergency assistance such as food, rent, medication, clothing, and limited utility assistance to individuals and families.

LEGAL AID OF EAST TENNESSEE 637-0484 - 502 South Gay Street, Suite 404, Knoxville, Tennessee 37902-1595

Domestic Violence Civil Legal Services

This program provides legal representation to victims of domestic violence with the goal of ending physical and psychological abuse.

MENTAL HEALTH ASSOCIATION 584-9125 - 9050 Executive Park Drive, Suite 104-A, P. O. Box 32731, Knoxville, Tennessee 37930-2731

Client Service Programs

This program assists individuals who are mentally and emotionally disturbed and their families with direct services such as depression screenings, matched mentors, and material resources.

SAFE HAVEN CRISIS AND RECOVERY CENTER FOR SEXUAL ASSAULT 522-7273

(crisis line) 558-9040 (administration) P.O. Box 11523, Knoxville, Tennessee 37939-1523

VICTIM ASSISTANCE - A program providing a variety of services to victims of rape and sexual abuse including 24-hour crisis counseling, medical information, hospital and court accompaniment, legal information, and cooperation with law enforcement officials. It also operates the Rape Hotline, 522-RAPE.

Appendix D: Body Esteem Scale

Directions: Please rate the following items according to your personal feelings about your body based on the following scale from 1 "Have strong negative feelings" to 5 "Have strong positive feelings."

	Strong Negative Feelings	Moderate Negative Feelings	Neutral Feelings	Moderate Positive Feelings	Strong Positive Feelings
1. Body Scent	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Appetite	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Nose	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Physical Stamina	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Reflexes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Lips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Muscular Strength	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Waist	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Energy Level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Thighs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Ears	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Biceps	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. Chin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. Body Build	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. Physical Coordination	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. Buttocks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. Agility	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. Width of Shoulders	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. Arms	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. Chest or Breasts	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21. Appearance of Eyes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22. Cheeks/Cheekbones	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. Hips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24. Legs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
25. Figure or Physique	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26. Sex Drive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
27. Feet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
28. Sex Organs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
29. Appearance of Stomach	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
30. Health	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
31. Sex Activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
32. Body Hair	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
33. Physical Condition	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
34. Face	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
35. Weight	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix E: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

Please indicate, by bubbling in the appropriate circle, the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

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

I feel unattractive. _____

I feel that I have less scholastic ability right now than others. _____

On a scale where 0 = not at all satisfied and 100 = completely satisfied, indicate how satisfied you are with yourself **RIGHT NOW**. _____

On a scale where 0 = not at all satisfied and 100 = completely satisfied, indicate how satisfied you are with your body **RIGHT NOW**. _____

Read each item and then, using the following scale, mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you feel this way **RIGHT NOW**.

1 = very slightly/not at all **2** = a little **3** = moderately **4** = quite a bit **5** = extremely

_____ interested	_____ enthusiastic	_____ nervous
_____ distressed	_____ proud	_____ afraid
_____ excited	_____ loved	_____ vulnerable
_____ upset	_____ irritable	_____ accepted
_____ scared	_____ ashamed	_____ depressed
_____ hostile	_____ lonely	

Appendix G: Self-Objectification Questionnaire

Rank the following list of attributes in ascending order according to how important **you** think each one is to **your** overall evaluation of your body, where 1 = most important and 12 = least important.

_____ Strength	_____ Physical Attractiveness	_____ Physical Coordination
_____ Weight	_____ Energy Level	_____ Sex Appeal
_____ Health	_____ Firm/Sculpted Muscle	_____ Physical Fitness
_____ Measurements	_____ Stamina	_____ Coloring

Appendix H: Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Scale-3

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

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

1. I do not care if my body looks like the body of people who are on TV. _____
2. I compare my body to the bodies of people who are on TV. _____
3. I would like my body to look like the models who appear in magazines. _____
4. I compare my appearance to the appearance of TV and movie stars. _____
5. I would like my body to look like the people who are in movies _____
6. I do not compare my body to the bodies of people who appear in magazines. _____
7. I wish I looked like the models in music videos. _____
8. I compare my appearance to the appearance of people in magazines. _____
9. I do not try to look like the people on TV. _____

Appendix I: Study 1 Demographic Information

Age: _____

Race: Caucasian African American Native American
 Pacific Islander Asian American Hispanic/Latino
 Other

Intimate relationship status (please select one)?

Single Casually Dating
 Seriously Dating Cohabiting
 Engaged Married

How long have you been in a romantic relationship with your partner? _____ months

Are you in a long-distance relationship with your romantic partner? Yes No

What is your email address so that we may contact you and schedule a time for you to come in to the laboratory and receive further instructions regarding the week-long diary in which you would report on daily personal experiences? _____

Appendix J: Study 2 Consent Form

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT
Evaluations**INTRODUCTION**

This study examines impressions and evaluations of people based on limited information.

INFORMATION ABOUT PARTICIPANTS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE STUDY

You will be asked to read and complete a variety of measures.

RISKS AND BENEFITS

There are no foreseeable risks.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Information in the study records will be kept confidential. Your name will not be used at all in this research. You will not put your name on the data sheets, and the researchers will not know how you answered the questions. Data will be stored securely and will be made available only to persons conducting the study. No reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link participants to the study.

COMPENSATION

You will receive one hour of experimental credit for participating.

CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures you may contact the principal investigator or faculty advisor. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact the Compliance Section of the Office of Research.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at anytime without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

CONSENT

I have read the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study.

Participant's signature: _____ Date: _____

Investigator's signature: _____ Date: _____

Fabricated Humanizing and Objectifying Evaluation

Based on the attached photograph and self-description, please indicate the extent to which you are ATTRACTED to your romantic partner/this person BECAUSE OF THE FOLLOWING PHYSICAL AND INTERPERSONAL ATTRIBUTES using a scale from 0 to 8, where = *not at all attracted* to 8 = *extremely attracted*.

Physical Attributes									
	<i>Not at all</i>								<i>Very much</i>
Nice body	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Sexy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Attractive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Good for sex	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Interpersonal Attributes									
	<i>Not at all</i>								<i>Very much</i>
Supportive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Sensitive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Considerate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Kind	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>

Neither Humanizing or Objectifying Evaluation

Based on the attached photograph and self-description, please indicate the extent to which you are ATTRACTED to your romantic partner/this person BECAUSE OF THE FOLLOWING PHYSICAL AND INTERPERSONAL ATTRIBUTES using a scale from 0 to 8, where = *not at all attracted* to 8 = *extremely attracted*.

Physical Attributes									
	<i>Not at all</i>								<i>Very much</i>
Nice body	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sexy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attractive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Good for sex	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Interpersonal Attributes									
	<i>Not at all</i>								<i>Very much</i>
Supportive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sensitive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Considerate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kind	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix L: Study 2 Debriefing

The study is over now. Thank you for taking the time to participate. Now, I would like to tell you a little bit more about what we were doing. Do you have any idea what we were trying to assess? (If participant does, ask: “When did you figure that out?”)

Basically, we are interested in the effects of objectification by a close other (i.e., relationship partner) versus a distant other (i.e., stranger). By asking another person to evaluate you, we are able to assess your reactions.

For participants in the close other condition. One thing that is very important: because we were interested in seeing the effects of objectification by an intimate partner, we had to make you believe that your partner evaluated you in such a way. But, I should tell you that we made up your partners’ evaluation. We tell every participant exactly the same thing and show each of you exactly the same evaluation. We haven’t actually contacted your partner and the evaluations we gave you do not necessarily reflect how your partner feels toward you. It is possible that the evaluation is accurate or it is also completely possible that the evaluation is inaccurate.

For participants in the distant other condition. One thing that is very important: because we were interested in seeing the effects of objectification by a stranger we had to make you believe that a stranger evaluated you in such a way. But, I should tell you that we made up the stranger’s evaluation of you. In actuality, your description and photograph were not shared with anybody outside of the experiment. Additionally, every participant received the exact same evaluation.

We are very sorry to have omitted this piece of information. However, can you see why we did this? Imagine how you may have acted if you KNEW what we were doing. Because we need to know what people would really do, not what they think they would do, we had to omit this information.

Okay, given how important it is that participants not know what we are really looking at, we are asking that you not reveal the true purposes of the study to other potential participants. Can I count on you not to tell others about the true purpose of this study? If people ask, simply tell them that you can’t tell them what the study was about but that you do, or do not, recommend they take part in the study.

Again, I apologize for our not having been completely open about the nature of the research earlier. Please be assured that your data are completely anonymous. If you have any questions about the experiment, please ask the experimenter, or contact Andrea Meltzer. Please keep in mind that other students will be participating in this study, and it is important that they aren’t informed as to the purpose of the experiment before they participate, so please refrain from discussing the details of this experiment with your friends and classmates. And finally, thanks for participating.

Additional Contact Information

In the event that you have any questions or comments about this study, we welcome you to contact one of us to talk about your questions, comments, or concerns. You can call for any reason. If you would like to talk with one of us, please contact us.

Knoxville Area Services for Women:

211-East Tennessee Information and Referral (Non-emergency line for health & human service information)

CONTACT OF KNOXVILLE 523-9108 / 523-9124 (Helpline) P.O. Box 11234, Knoxville, Tennessee 37939-1234

This service provides telephone counseling for clients in crisis.

LADIES OF CHARITY 524-0538 - Administrative Office: 119 Dameron Avenue, Knoxville, Tennessee 37917-6414

This program provides emergency assistance such as food, rent, medication, clothing, and limited utility assistance to individuals and families.

LEGAL AID OF EAST TENNESSEE 637-0484 - 502 South Gay Street, Suite 404, Knoxville, Tennessee 37902-1595

Domestic Violence Civil Legal Services

This program provides legal representation to victims of domestic violence with the goal of ending physical and psychological abuse.

MENTAL HEALTH ASSOCIATION 584-9125 - 9050 Executive Park Drive, Suite 104-A, P. O. Box 32731, Knoxville, Tennessee 37930-2731

Client Service Programs

This program assists individuals who are mentally and emotionally disturbed and their families with direct services such as depression screenings, matched mentors, and material resources.

SAFE HAVEN CRISIS AND RECOVERY CENTER FOR SEXUAL ASSAULT 522-7273 (crisis line) 558-9040 (administration) P.O. Box 11523, Knoxville, Tennessee 37939-1523

VICTIM ASSISTANCE - A program providing a variety of services to victims of rape and sexual abuse including 24-hour crisis counseling, medical information, hospital and court accompaniment, legal information, and cooperation with law enforcement officials. It also operates the Rape Hotline, 522-RAPE.

Appendix M: State Self-Esteem Scale

This is a questionnaire designed to measure what you are thinking at this moment. There is, of course, no right answer for any statement. The best answer is what you feel is true of yourself at this moment. Be sure to answer all of the items, even if you are not certain of the best answer. Again, answer these questions as they are true for you RIGHT NOW.

Using the following scale, place a number in the box to the right of the statement that indicates what is true for you at this moment:

1 = not at all 2 = a little bit 3 = somewhat 4 = very much 5 = extremely

1. I feel confident about my abilities. _____
2. I am worried about whether I am regarded as a success or failure. _____
3. I feel satisfied with the way my body looks right now. _____
4. I feel frustrated or rattled about my performance. _____
5. I feel that I am having trouble understanding things that I read. _____
6. I feel that others respect and admire me. _____
7. I am dissatisfied with my weight. _____
8. I feel self-conscious. _____
9. I feel as smart as others. _____
10. I feel displeased with myself. _____
11. I feel good about myself. _____
12. I am pleased with my appearance right now. _____
13. I am worried about what other people think of me. _____
14. I feel confident that I understand things. _____
15. I feel inferior to others at this moment. _____
16. I feel unattractive. _____
17. I feel concerned about the impression I am making. _____
18. I feel that I have less scholastic ability right now than others. _____
19. I feel like I'm not doing well. _____
20. I am worried about looking foolish. _____

Appendix N: Positive and Negative Affect Schedule

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1 = very slightly or not at all; 2 = a little; 3 = moderately; 4 = quite a bit; 5 = extremely

interested _____

distressed _____

excited _____

upset _____

strong _____

guilty _____

scared _____

hostile _____

enthusiastic _____

proud _____

irritable _____

alert _____

ashamed _____

inspired _____

nervous _____

determined _____

attentive _____

jittery _____

active _____

afraid _____

Vita

Andrea Meltzer was born in Boynton Beach, Florida, on June 28, 1982. She attended Palm Beach County public schools and graduated from Atlantic Community High School in 2000. She attended Appalachian State University in Boone, NC, graduating in 2004 with a B.A. in Psychology. Following graduation, Andrea attended Western Carolina University in Cullowhee, NC and graduated in May of 2006 with her Master's degree in Experimental Psychology. Later that year, she entered the doctoral program in Social Psychology at the University of Tennessee. Andrea will graduate from the social program and receive her doctoral degree in May 2012 and begin a tenure-track, Assistant Professor position at Southern Methodist University in the fall of 2012.

Andrea's research interests include romantic relationships, health, objectification, gender, and body image. She has presented her research at various annual conferences, including the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, the Society for Southeastern Social Psychologists, the Southeastern Psychological Association, and the International Association for Relationship Research.