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ADVANCED INSECURITY: MALE BODY SHAME, MASCULINITY THREAT
AND SEXUAL AGGRESSION

By

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Advanced Insecurity: Male Body Shame, Masculinity Threat and Sexual Aggression

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Research on body shame has predominantly focused on women (Moradi & Huang, 2008). However, men are increasingly viewing muscularity as an important feature of masculinity (Kimmel & Mahalik, 2004; Wienke, 1998). My dissertation reviews the literature on male body image and its connection to masculinity; establishes how body shame may constitute a chronic masculinity threat and explores how and why men may react to acute masculinity threats with sexual aggression. Findings from prior research suggest that men high on body shame are more likely to sexually aggress (Mescher & Rudman, 2014) – a unique finding which has implications for rape theories and precarious manhood theory (Vandello, Bosson, Cohen, Burnaford, & Weaver, 2008). This dissertation tested the Body Shame and Sexual Aggression Model (BSSAM) in two experiments. Experiment 1 manipulated men's exposure to idealized body media to test proposed relationships between media consumption, body dissatisfaction, body shame and upward social comparison, and found support for the path from body dissatisfaction to body shame, regardless of media exposure or comparison. Experiment 2 was designed to replicate and extend results from Mescher and Rudman (2014), in which men high on body shame responded to a female confederate's rejection of them as a dating partner with increased sexual aggression; previous findings did not replicate, but it is speculated

that this may be partially due to the inclusion of a novel measure of men's beliefs about having been romantically victimized by women. The pilot test designed to validate this measure is also discussed.

Keywords: body shame, body image, masculinity, gender roles, sexual aggression

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Advanced Insecurity: Male Body Shame, Masculinity Threat and Sexual Aggression

Male Body Image: An Ignored Issue?

Researchers have mainly investigated the consequences of women's poor body image, which include an increased risk of disordered eating and exercise behaviors, depression and anxiety, self-objectification, and sexual dysfunction (Calogero & Thompson, 2009; Hudson, Hiripi, Pope, & Kessler, 2007; Moradi & Huang, 2008; Tiggemann & Kuring, 2004; Woertman & van den Brink, 2012). As such issues have been viewed as rare among heterosexual men and multiple surveys have suggested that heterosexual men are relatively satisfied with their bodies (Feingold & Mazzella, 1998; Moore, 1993; Oberg & Tornstam, 1999; Rosenblum & Lewis, 1999), they have frequently been used as a "healthy" comparison group to discuss the body image issues of women and homosexual men. One of the reasons that heterosexual men may have appeared to have better body image is that many of the assessments of body dissatisfaction were not designed to address their particular body image concerns. Body image measures have historically evaluated desire for thinness, whereas muscularity assessment is a relatively recent addition to body image measurement; using such scales, men show markedly more concern and distress about their bodies (for a review, see Cafri & Thompson, 2004).

Some research suggests that the level of body dissatisfaction among men is approaching that found among women (for a review, see McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2004). Though men remain less willing to report body image concerns than women in qualitative assessments (Grogan & Richards, 2002; Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2006; Steinfeldt, Gilchrist, Halterman, Gomory & Steinfeldt, 2011), surveys nonetheless indicate that 50-71% of male undergraduates are dissatisfied with their bodies, and that

90% desire to be more muscular (Frederick, Buchanan, Sadehgi-Azar, Peplau, Haselton, Berezovskaya & Lipinski, 2007). Moreover, men of all ages stress the importance of a muscular body (Fisher, Dunn & Thompson, 2002; Jones, 2001; McCreary & Sasse, 2002). Increased drive for muscularity may have psychological consequences, as it is associated with poorer self-esteem, increased incidence of depression, (McCreary & Sasse, 2000) and greater neuroticism (Davis, Karvinen, & McCreary, 2005) among men.

Do Muscles Make the Man?

Men report that ideal male bodies have well-defined muscles with a large, powerful upper body that tapers into a smaller waist and flat abdomen (a body type referred to as *mesomorphic*; Leit, Pope & Gray, 2001; Mishkind, Rodin, Silberstein & Striegel-Moore, 1986). This body type is increasingly viewed as an important feature of masculinity (Kimmel & Mahalik, 2004; Wienke, 1998) and men view this ideal as sufficiently desirable that they are motivated to achieve it (Frederick et al., 2007). Men may be motivated to obtain such bodies for reasons other than sexual or aesthetic appeal given that women report they are not substantially more attracted to the hypermuscular bodies that men identify as desirable (Fallon & Rozin, 1985). Instead, I propose that men may be motivated to achieve a muscular body because of its association with masculinity.

Specifically, a muscular body may function to reinforce men's masculine identity; men without muscular bodies have been judged by other men as not simply weak, but *feminine* (Grogan & Richards, 2002) and men with mesomorphic bodies have been judged the most masculine, when compared with other body types (e.g., ecto- and endomorphic types; Darden, 1972). Further substantiating the association between muscles and manhood, men's drive for muscularity is positively associated with the

endorsement of traditionally masculine personality traits and gender roles, sexist attitudes, and objectifying women (McCreary, Saucier, & Courtney, 2005; Steinfeldt, Gilchrist, Halterman, Gomory, & Steinfeldt, 2011; Swami & Voracek, 2012) – orientations associated with hyper-masculinity. Taken together, these findings suggest that one way that men strive to distinguish themselves from women (Brewer, 1991) is by pursuing a larger, more muscular body.

Muscle Media

Where does such a perception of the relationship between muscles and masculinity come from? One source may be mass media imagery, where portrayals of men's bodies have begun to mimic the level of unattainability that has frequently characterized portrayals of women's bodies (Kolbe & Albanese, 1996; Leit, Pope & Gray, 2001; Spitzer, Henderson & Zivian, 1999). Representations of what “real men” *are* and what they *should be* have not evolved to reflect changes in gender norms (Allan & Coltrane, 1996; Bartsch, Burnett, Diller & Rankin-Williams, 2000), and the idealization of muscular bodies may have substantial drawbacks. Considerable evidence suggests that men report poorer body image and self-esteem following exposure to images of idealized male bodies (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004; Grogan, Williams & Conner, 1996; Hobza, Walker, Yakushko & Peugh, 2007; Morry & Staska, 2001). In addition, Lavine, Sweeney and Wagner (1999) found that viewing images of highly desirable *women* could also produce greater body dissatisfaction in men, a finding they suggest could be due to men viewing themselves as “too weak” to date such unattainable women. Thus, it may be the case that media imagery of muscular, ideal bodies (of both men and women) plays a dual role: representing the hopeful ideal to which men may aspire, but providing the grounds

for upward social comparison (Festinger, 1954), the process whereby people evaluate themselves in comparison to superior others. In studies of body image, this comparison process has been known to produce body dissatisfaction among both men and women (Martin & Kennedy, 1993; Morrison, Kalin & Morrison, 2004; Thorton & Moore, 1993).

Defining Masculinity

A substantial body of interdisciplinary research suggests that the transition from boyhood to manhood is not merely a biological process, but also a social one, dictated by action and achievement; as a result, masculinity is difficult to earn and must be consistently defended in order to maintain (Gilmore, 1990; Pleck, 1983; Vandello, Bosson, Cohen, Burnaford & Weaver, 2008). But how is masculinity defined? According to *hegemonic masculinity* (Connell, 1987; Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005), masculine ideals shift across culture and time periods in accord with qualities deemed high status characteristics, dictated by current social convention. In Western societies, these characteristics include heterosexuality, competence, confidence, assertiveness, strength (both physical and emotional) and avoidance of feminine qualities (Thompson & Pleck, 1986; Willer, Rogalin, Conlon & Woinowicz, 2013). Because these qualities are both descriptive and prescriptive (i.e., dictating what men are and should be; Rudman, Moss-Racusin, Phelan & Nauts, 2012), men report significant social pressure to conform to them but do so with variable degrees of success (Connell, 1987). Thus, hegemonic masculinity operates as a hierarchy, whereby men are ranked by their similarity to an unattainable ideal that is labile. This places men in a position of chronic social comparison both with other men and to a fluctuating ideal.

Defense Against Masculinity Threat

According to precarious manhood theory (PMT; Vandello, Bosson, Cohen, Burnaford & Weaver, 2008), masculinity is characterized by instability because it is hard won and easily lost, which can lead to aggressive or compensatory responses for men under masculinity threat (defined as any event that challenges a man's gender status). Responses to masculinity threat are designed to affirm masculine norms and values, but they can also lead men to *overcompensate* (Willer et al., 2013). Supporting this idea, men under masculinity threat may react with physical aggression. For example, men in an experimental condition with a masculinity threatening manipulation chose to throw punches at a punching bag as a follow-up task (vs. a gender-neutral puzzle solving task) and subsequently threw harder punches as measured by an electronic sensor (compared to unthreatened controls: Bosson & Vandello, 2011; Bosson, Vandello, Burnaford, Weaver, & Wasti, 2009). Men may also endorse greater interest in or be more likely to condone aggressive acts. For example, threatened men exhibited more physically aggressive thoughts on a word completion task compared with women and unthreatened male controls (Vandello et al., 2008). Further, when asked to read a vignette about a fight that resulted from a gender threatening circumstance, men were more likely than women to report that they felt the fight was justified; men did not judge the perpetrator as "an angry person," but rather, said that he was motivated to fight because the situation dictated a masculinity display (Weaver, Vandello, Bosson & Burnaford, 2010).

Another method men may use to reaffirm their masculinity after threat is to derogate or distance themselves from femininity. Threatened men were more likely than controls to espouse homophobic attitudes by expressing support for a ban on gay

marriage and opposition to gay rights (Willer et al., 2013) as well as responding with increased negative affect toward effeminate (as opposed to masculine) gay men (Glick, Gangl, Gibb, Klumpner & Weinberg, 2007). Because avoiding femininity is prescribed for men (Kimmel, 2004; Rudman et al., 2012), aggressive response to perceived femininity in other men may affirm their own commitment to maintaining the high status characteristics associated with manhood, but how do threatened men respond to women, for whom femininity is the expected norm?

Masculinity Threat and Women

Gender violence is one of the world's most common human rights abuses. Worldwide, women ages 15 to 44 are as likely to die or be maimed because of male violence as they are of cancer, and violence against women is estimated to take a greater toll on women's health than malaria and traffic accidents combined (United Nations Fund for Population Activities, 2006). Sexual violence (rape and sexual assault) victimizes women at much higher rates than men. In the U.S., women in college are particularly at risk for sexual assault; approximately 1 in 5 female undergraduates is victimized (Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000; Karjane, Fisher & Cullen, 2005). This is an underestimate because around 65% of sexual assaults are not reported to police (Langton, Berzofsky, Krebs & Smiley-McDonald, 2012). Although not all rape victims are female, men are overwhelmingly the perpetrators of sexual assault and women its victims (99% and 91% respectively; Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2008; Greenfield, 1997).

I hypothesize that compensatory responses to masculinity threat places women at risk for male aggression for two reasons. First, masculine ideals are defined in part by an anti-femininity mandate; that is, to be masculine can specifically mean that one is *not*

feminine (Kimmel, 2004; Rudman et al., 2012; Thompson & Pleck, 1986). Placing men “in opposition to” women by definition may be partially responsible for men’s higher scores on measures of sexist attitudes (Brandt, 2011; Glick & Fiske, 1996) and the hostile or violent reactions to women that sexist attitudes may provoke (Anderson & Anderson, 2008; Malamuth, 1988). Second, women’s smaller size and lower status in society renders them vulnerable to male aggression, making them a group that may be relatively convenient to victimize. Men may feel as if threatening women presents less risk than threatening other men.

While this reasoning may serve to explain why women are at risk for male aggression generally, why might masculinity threat specifically provoke sexually aggressive response? One way in which masculinity can be effectively displayed is through the accumulation of multiple sexual partners (Pleck, 1983) but obtaining consensual sex is more difficult for some men, compared with others. Male-dominated environments in which displays of masculinity are frequently required (e.g., athletic venues and fraternity houses; Humphrey & Khan, 2000; Koss & Gaines, 1993) are relatively risky environments for women. Such environments may foster beliefs that encourage sexual aggression (e.g., rape myths; Boeringer, 1999; Schwartz & Nograd, 1996) as well as promote coercive tactics for obtaining consent to sex (e.g., “working out a yes,” Sanday, 2007). Further, male peer support has been shown to contribute to the perpetration of sexual aggression (Deskredy, 1990; Deskredy & Schwartz, 1993). If displays of masculinity are viewed as necessary for group membership and sex qualifies as such a display, the normal process of valuing and obtaining sexual consent may be

distorted by reinforcing the idea that circumstances exist in which individuals are entitled to sex and may take it, even without consent.

There is evidence that masculinity threat can place women at risk for male sexual aggression. For example, threatened men (but not unthreatened controls) harassed a female confederate by emailing her pornographic photos (Maass, Cadinu, Guarnieri, & Grasseli, 2003). Further, under conditions of masculinity threat, men presented with vignettes describing a date rape scenario placed greater blame on the female victim and were more likely to exonerate the male perpetrator compared with unthreatened controls (Munsch & Willer, 2012). Moreover, qualitative research proposes that one way adolescent males may cope with masculinity challenges is through sexual violence (Messerschmidt, 2000). While masculinity threat may broadly provoke aggressive compensatory responses in some men (Bosson & Vandello, 2011; Bosson et al., 2009), and women are not exempt from becoming victims of non-sexual aggression (Anderson & Anderson, 2008; Malamuth, 1988), sexual violence is the only documented pattern of response to masculinity threat whose victims are primarily women.

Body Shame and Masculinity Threat

A central tenet of my thesis is that men high on body shame may be at risk for chronic masculinity threat, which predisposes them toward sexual aggression. To date, scant research has documented a link between men's body shame and masculinity, much less sexual aggression. Men's muscularity conveys masculinity, but does its absence necessarily constitute a masculinity threat? Preliminary data suggests this to be the case.

While investigating implicit female dehumanization and its relationship to men's sexual aggression (Rudman & Mescher, 2012), we initially tested gender differences in

objectifying sexualized women (e.g. using images of women wearing bikinis or lingerie) more so than personalized women (e.g., images of women modestly dressed) (Cikara, Eberhardt, & Fiske, 2011), unexpectedly finding that women did so more than men. Reasoning that women's own self-objectification should moderate this gender difference, we added the Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS; McKinley & Hyde, 1996) to our next two studies, which includes an index of body shame. We also administered measures of gender prejudice: hostile and benevolent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996); negative attitudes toward rape victims (Ward, 1988); rape myth acceptance beliefs (Burt, 1980); and rape proclivity, which combines two subscales (willingness to rape and force a sexual partner against their will) from the Attraction to Sexual Aggression Inventory (Malamuth, 1989). Women did not support our hypothesis (i.e., women who self-objectified were not more likely to implicitly objectify sexualized women) but unexpectedly, positive relationships emerged between *men's* body shame and all of these measures, presented in Table 1. That is, men's body shame positively covaried with hostile sexism, negative attitudes toward rape victims, and rape proclivity in each study, and with rape myth acceptance beliefs (in Study 1). For women, these relationships were either negligible (Study 1) or confined to hostile sexism and attitudes toward rape victims (Study 2).

Additional preliminary research revealed that men's body shame is negatively related to state self-esteem (Heatherton & Polivy, 1991), $r(210) = -.62, p < .001$, and to the masculinity subscale of the Personality Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975), $r(40) = -.53, p < .001$ (especially *self-confident*, *dominant*, and *competitive*). Men high on body shame did not score high on PAQ femininity items,

except for *seeks social approval*, $r(40) = .31, p < .05$, and *feelings easily hurt*, $r(40) = .48, p = .001$.

The overall pattern found in the preliminary data suggests that men high on body shame might be at risk for chronic masculinity threat, but for this idea to be tenable, masculinity threat must have consequences for men's body image. Consistent with this view, men under masculinity threat (via false feedback on a personality test) reported lower confidence in their physical ability and showed a poorer body image than men who experienced affirmed masculinity (Hunt, Gonsalkorale & Murray, 2013), and men who lost to a female confederate in an anagram competition showed lowered body satisfaction, relative to those who lost to a male confederate (Mills & D'Alfonso, 2007). Further, we tested this suspicion with the precarious manhood beliefs scale (PMBS; Burnaford, Weaver, Bosson, & Vandello, 2009), which includes items such as, "It is fairly easy for a man to lose his status as a man," and "Manhood is not a permanent state, because a man might do something that suggests that he is really girlish or gay." Though small, the relationship between men's body shame and PMBS scores was significant, $r(124) = .21, p = .02$.

Body Shame in Rape Theory

To date, no link between male body shame and sexual aggression has appeared in the rape theory literature, plausibly because it contradicts extant theories of sexual aggression. Rape theorists have focused on individual differences such as narcissism (Baumeister, Catanese & Wallace, 2002), male entitlement (Hill & Fisher, 2001), or hyper-masculinity (Mosher & Anderson, 1986; Mosher & Sirkin, 1984) to explain men's sexual aggression. Still others rely on ideas regarding offenders' inherent psychopathy

(e.g., rapists are unfeeling and antisocial; Groth & Burgess, 1977). These theories do not seem applicable to men high on body shame, given preliminary work suggesting that they are *low* on self-esteem and masculinity (e.g., self-confidence, competitiveness, and dominance), while high on approval-seeking and easily hurt feelings.

Framing my preliminary results in the context of masculinity threat may be useful, but finding a link between body shame and masculinity measures (including precarious manhood beliefs) is not persuasive given neither of these measures assess whether an individual feels himself *chronically* under masculinity threat, as could be the case for men high on body shame. Precarious manhood theory is also not well positioned to explain these findings because it does not hypothesize about traits (e.g., body shame) or experiences a man may have (e.g., female rejection) that predispose him to experience masculinity threat. I propose that men with high body shame are likely candidates for such threat because they are chronically insecure about their masculinity, which in combination with rejection from or victimization by women causes body shame to become a contributing factor in sexual aggression.

Preliminary research supports this central tenet (Mescher and Rudman, 2014). In Experiment 1, men were rejected (or not) by an attractive female confederate as a partner in a dating study after viewing their photo (explicitly rejected for not being attractive enough). Subsequently, men high on body shame who were upset by the rejection expressed more willingness to rape women, compared with either men low on body shame or men high on body shame who were not upset by the rejection. Experiment 2 extended this pattern to rejection based on a female confederate's suspicion that the male participant was gay (after reading their personality inventory), using a different outcome

variable (the rape behavioral analogue; Rudman & Mescher, 2012). These data are consistent with my hypothesizing that men high on body shame are under chronic masculinity threat. As a result, an acute threat from women can exacerbate their need to compensate by defending their masculinity through the use of sexual aggression. This research examines the antecedents of body shame (Experiment 1) and an additional moderator of the link between female rejection and sexual aggression (men's perceived romantic victimization; Experiment 2).

Modeling Body Shame and Sexual Aggression

Figure 1 introduces the Body Shame and Sexual Aggression Model (BSSAM). The first half of the BSSAM hypothesizes that increased body-related media consumption leads to increased body dissatisfaction, a relationship I hypothesize to be moderated by upward social comparison tendencies; further the BSSAM suggests that the development of body dissatisfaction precedes the development of body shame. Experiment 1 was designed to test these pathways.

The second half of the BSSAM is based on prior research indicating that men high on body shame showed increased rape proclivity to the extent that they were upset by a masculinity threat (female rejection; Mescher & Rudman, 2014). New to Experiment 2 is the Romantic Victimization by Women Scale (RVWS), an author-designed measure which I hypothesize moderates the link between body shame and sexual aggression. It was inspired by the preliminary data showing that men high on body shame were also high on rejection sensitivity ("feelings easily hurt"), as well as Mescher and Rudman's (2014) showing that female rejection in particular was hurtful to such men. Presuming that repeated experiences of being romantically rejected by women would lead men high

on body shame to a chronic sense of romantic victimization, I designed a measure to assess this construct, with the goal of creating and validating an individual difference measure to be used as a *trait* moderator, as opposed to acute negative affect (a *state* moderator). Experiment 2 was designed to test the proposed relationships between body shame, negative affect, romantic victimization and sexual aggression under the condition of masculinity threat (female rejection).

Romantic Victimization by Women

In heterosexual romantic relationships, men tend to be cast as initiators, responsible for “wooing” women, often through gifts and favors (Rose & Frieze, 1989; 1993; Seal & Ehrhardt, 2003), whereas women, who are socialized to please others, may not feel able (or know how) to express sexual disinterest (Byers, Giles & Price, 1987). Nonetheless, men report a great deal of pressure is associated with being called upon to “lead” in their romantic relationships and say they often worry about being rejected (Fracher & Kimmel, 1995; Dworkin & O’Sullivan, 2005).

Romantic and sexual communication may be particularly difficult for men to navigate because research suggests that men *overperceive* female sexual interest, particularly when using non-verbal cues (Abbey, 1982; Farris, Treat, Viken & McFall, 2008), a misperception women report they did not intend to convey (Farris et al., 2008). The issue of sexual misperception may lead men to invest themselves in relationships that are not mutual. One form of this non-mutual investment is known colloquially as “the friend zone,” a term that refers to being offered platonic friendship instead of the desired romantic or sexual relationship. Related to the “nice guy” stereotype, which is the perception that women choose to date macho men rather than the sensitive men they

claim to want (Urbaniak & Kilmann, 2003; 2006), men who feel themselves “friend zoned” may self-define as this sensitive, but overlooked, alternative option.

Research does not necessarily support the idea that women choose hypermasculine men more frequently than others for romantic relationships, in fact, in most mate preference studies, women place a high emphasis on a partner’s kindness, particularly when judging fitness for long term romantic relationships (Buss & Barnes, 1986; Li, Bailey, Kenrick & Linsenmeier, 2002). However, men may nonetheless believe that women reject “nice guys,” as appears to be the case with men high on body shame who in preliminary findings indicated that they feel they’ve been placed “in the friend zone,” $r(129) = .29, p = .001$, and said that one of the reasons their female friends aren’t more attracted to them is because they’re “too nice,” $r(129) = .24, p = .006$. In addition, preliminary data confirmed that men high on body shame are also likely to be rejection sensitive (Downey & Feldman, 1996), $r(129) = .30, p < .001$. Rejection sensitive individuals are mistrustful, worry about their partner’s level of commitment, and interpret ambiguous stimuli from others as rejecting (for a review, see Romero-Canyas, Downey, Berenson, Ayduk & Kang, 2010). Men high on rejection sensitivity have been shown to respond with heightened feelings of anger, hurt and jealousy when considering hypothetical partner rejection (Romero-Canyas et al., 2010). One study found that men high on rejection sensitivity and romantic investment (the extent to which an individual considers romantic relationships personally important) were also the most likely to report having responded with physical aggression to conflicts in intimate relationships (Downey, Feldman & Ayduk, 2000).

Considering that men high on body shame report feeling they are frequently “in the friend zone” (e.g., prone to investing themselves in non-mutual romantic relationships) with women and are rejection sensitive, it seems particularly important to explore how these factors may contribute to interest in committing acts of sexual aggression. I have combined these concepts and labeled the resulting construct *romantic victimization*, which refers to the degree to which men feel they are victims during the process of dating (e.g., by believing they are required to lead, expend resources and risk rejection) or of women’s standards for romantic partners. Further, I propose that romantic victimization is a likely moderator of the relationship between body shame and sexual aggression (see Figure 1). New to Experiment 2 is the inclusion of a measure that captures this construct: the Romantic Victimization by Women Scale (RVWS; Table 4). I will describe my efforts to develop and validate this scale prior to presenting Experiment 2.

Overview of the Research and Hypotheses

Experiment 1 was an online study testing the first half of the BSSAM, investigating possible antecedents to the development of male body shame. I experimentally manipulated body media consumption, in order to establish its relationship to body shame, through increasing body dissatisfaction, a relationship I hypothesized to be moderated by upward social comparison (Festinger, 1954).

Experiment 2, a laboratory study, used the rejection manipulation developed by Mescher and Rudman (2014; Experiment 1), in order to replicate and further examine body shame’s relationship to sexual aggression, which was expected to be moderated both by post-rejection negative affect and romantic victimization by women. As romantic

victimization is a novel construct, before it could be included in the BSSAM, a self-reported scale was created and validated for this purpose.

Experiment 1

To model the relationships among body media consumption, upward social comparison, body dissatisfaction and body shame, male participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions. In the experimental condition body media consumption was manipulated by asking participants to view and rate a series of images depicting idealized male bodies. In the control condition, participants viewed images depicting men engaging in scientific work. Consistent with Figure 1, Hypothesis 1 states that men who viewed idealized, muscular male bodies would report more body dissatisfaction than control men, provided they were also high on upward social comparison. Hypothesis 2 states that body dissatisfaction would mediate the proposed link between experimental condition and body shame, for men high on upward social comparison (see Figure 1).

Method

Participants

Before recruitment, a power analysis was employed to determine the appropriate sample size. Relevant literature (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004; Blond, 2008) supported the use of a medium overall effect for the measurement of male body image ($d \approx .4$) for this calculation. Results suggested approximately 100 participants per condition would be appropriate to obtain significance. Participants ($N = 207$ men) were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk, and were offered \$1.00 as compensation. Potential participants first completed a series of eligibility questions programmed on the survey

platform, with only those who identified as male, heterosexual and located in the U.S.

able to advance. Of eligible respondents, 155 (74.9%) identified as White, 10 (4.8%) as

African American, 29 (14.0%) as Asian, 12 (5.8%) as Latino, and 1 (.5%) as multiracial.

Participants ranged in age from 18 to 65, with a mean age of 30.11 years ($SD = 8.81$).

Materials

Pretesting the images. An independent sample ($N = 127$, 41 male) rated the attractiveness of the idealized male muscle images used in the experimental condition (Appendix A). Participants were asked to rate images on a variety of dimensions; the target's attractiveness ("I find this person to be attractive,") masculinity ("I find this person to be masculine,") and their desire (for men) or belief that men desire (for women) to look like the target ("I would like [I think most men would want] to look like this person,") with responses anchored on a scale at 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree). Stimuli images used in the experimental condition were rated above the midpoint on attractiveness ($M = 3.49$, $SD = .32$) and masculinity ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .16$). Ratings of model attractiveness and masculinity were positively correlated, $r(127) = .60$, $p < .01$. Male participants reported desiring to look like them ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .21$) and female participants reported that they believed men desired to look like them ($M = 3.74$, $SD = .23$). In addition, the pilot sample also estimated the likelihood that each target was homosexual, using a slider ranging from 0 (definitely heterosexual) to 100 (definitely homosexual). The targets were rated below the midpoint on their likelihood of being homosexual ($M = 33.25$, $SD = 2.1$).

In the control condition, participants viewed 10 images depicting men engaged in scientific work (Appendix B) downloaded from the internet (gettyimages.com). To maintain consistency with the content of the images in the experimental condition, all control images depicted only a single target, always a white male, who was dressed in laboratory or surgical gear engaged in scientific or academic work (e.g., in surgery or using lab equipment).

To promote attending to the images, participants in both conditions were asked to what extent each image was attractive, vivid and familiar as filler items using a scale anchored at 1 (*none*) and 5 (*a lot*).

Upward social comparison. To assess the moderating role of upward social comparison (see Figure 1), participants in the experimental condition completed a modified version of the Upward Physical Appearance Comparison Scale (UPACS, O'Brien et al., 2009, Appendix C). Items from the UPACS were worded to reflect participant feelings at the time of measurement. A sample item is: "Right now, I am comparing myself to men whose bodies are better looking than mine." Participants indicated their level of agreement with each item on a scale anchored at 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 5 (*strongly agree*) ($\alpha = .96$).

In the control condition, participants completed a modified version of the UPACS (O'Brien et al., 2009), the Upward Intelligence Comparison Scale (Appendix D). A sample item is: "Right now, I am comparing myself to men who are more intelligent than me." Level of agreement with each item was indicated on a scale anchored at 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 5 (*strongly agree*) ($\alpha = .97$).

Body shame. To assess body shame, participants completed the same measure used by Mescher and Rudman (2014), a modified body shame subscale from the Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (Appendix E; McKinley & Hyde, 1996). It consisted of 13 items anchored on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A sample item is: “I feel like I must be a bad person when I don’t look as good as I could.” Responses were scored such that high scores reflect more body shame ($\alpha = .89$).

Body dissatisfaction. To assess body dissatisfaction, participants indicated their current vs. their ideal body composition using four self-report items, two assessing muscularity and two assessing adiposity: “How muscular [heavy] is your current body?” and “How muscular [heavy] is your ideal body?” Response scales were anchored at 1 (*not at all muscular [very thin]*) and 10 (*very muscular [very heavy]*). Body dissatisfaction was determined by subtracting current body ratings from ideal body ratings, and scored such that higher scores reflect greater body dissatisfaction. Given research suggesting that adiposity and muscularity may each uniquely contribute to poor body image among men (Cafri & Thompson, 2004), dissatisfaction with weight and dissatisfaction with muscularity were used separately in analyses as the focal dependent variable.

Procedure

Participants were recruited for a study entitled “Image Evaluation” which described the study as consisting of rating stock images and responding to survey items about their experiences. After signing up, participants were provided a link to the survey’s location and an online consent form. Before consenting to the study, participants

completed three items to ensure they fit the desired demographics; only participants who self-identified as male, heterosexual and in the U.S. were able to advance to the full survey and consent form.

After consenting to the study, the online survey platform randomly assigned participants to a condition; those in the experimental condition viewed and rated 10 images of idealized male bodies, those in the control condition viewed and rated 10 images of men engaged in scientific work. After these ratings, participants completed dependent measures in the order described above: upward social comparison; body shame; and body dissatisfaction (i.e., current and ideal body compositions). They then completed remaining demographic items (current and childhood height and weight, current muscularity, age, and race).

The survey platform administered all items within each scale randomly. After completing these materials, participants were thoroughly debriefed, thanked for their participation and compensated.

Results

Data screening

Participants were evenly distributed across conditions, with 103 participants in the experimental condition (49.8%) and 104 in the control condition (50.2%). No significant differences were found between conditions on demographic variables: age, current body composition (weight, muscularity and height), childhood body composition (weight and height), all $t_s(205) < -1.48$, $p_s > .14$. The racial composition also did not differ by experimental condition, $\chi^2(4) = 2.82$, $p = .60$.

Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations for all dependent variables by experimental condition. Table 3 provides the correlations among all dependent variables, separately for the treatment group, and for the control group.

Participants in the control condition rated the stimuli images of men engaged in scientific work as significantly more attractive ($M = 2.71$, $SD = .79$) than did participants in the experimental condition who viewed the male muscle models ($M = 2.34$, $SD = 1.02$), $t(205) = -2.92$, $p = .004$. This result was unanticipated, and is addressed in greater detail in the discussion.

Analyses

Multiple regression analysis was employed to analyze the data. Experimental condition was dummy coded (-1 = control images, 1 = idealized male images) and upward social comparison was mean centered before computing the Condition X Social Comparison interaction term. Hypothesis 1 stated that men in the treatment condition would report more body dissatisfaction than control men, provided they were high on upward social comparison. I tested this hypothesis separately with two measures of body dissatisfaction (muscularity and adiposity) as the dependent variable. The overall regression of condition, social comparison, and their interaction on muscle dissatisfaction was not significant, $R^2 = .01$, $F(3, 203) = .87$, $p = .46$. No main effects for condition $\beta = -.01$, $t(203) = -.13$, $p = .90$, or social comparison $\beta = .14$, $t(203) = 1.37$, $p = .17$, were observed, nor was a significant Condition X Social Comparison interaction effect present, $\beta = -.09$, $t(203) = -.90$, $p = .37$.

For weight dissatisfaction, results were similar, beginning with a nonsignificant overall model, $R^2 = .01$, $F(3, 203) = .40$, $p = .75$. No main effects for condition $\beta = -.07$,

$t(203) = -.76, p = .45$, or social comparison, $\beta = .00, t(203) = -.003, p = 1.00$ were observed, nor was the Condition X Social Comparison interaction significant, $\beta = -.07, t(203) = -.80, p = .42$.

Hypothesis 2 stated that body dissatisfaction would mediate the relationship between experimental condition and body shame for men high on upward social comparison. However, because hypothesis 1 was not supported, I abandoned my analytic plan to model Figure 1's proposed relationships. Here, I report the results of the same regression analysis using body shame as the dependent variable. Results differed from those reported for body dissatisfaction, beginning with a significant overall model, $R^2 = .15, F(3, 203) = 12.05, p < .001$. Only main effects for social comparison were observed, $\beta = .25, t(203) = 5.85, p < .001$, no main effects were present for condition, $\beta = -.05, t(203) = -1.13, p = .26$, nor was the Condition X Social Comparison interaction significant, $\beta = -.04, t(203) = -1.01, p = .31$.

As can be seen in Table 3, body dissatisfaction and upward social comparison were related to body shame regardless of experimental condition, but social comparison was not associated with either weight or muscle dissatisfaction, thus the pathway from body dissatisfaction to body shame is the only pathway in Figure 1 that was supported.

Discussion

These null results were unexpected, given the substantial body of research supporting the pathways specified in the BSSAM (e.g., Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004; Lorenzen, Grieve & Thomas, 2004). However, there are several possible reasons why Experiment 1's hypotheses were not supported.

Body image research among heterosexual men is still in its infancy, particularly when compared with work delineating the body image issues among women and gay men. Specific body image concerns found in these populations potentially do not apply to most heterosexual men (i.e., the desire to obtain a specific weight or clothing size). As reviewed previously, heterosexual men *do* exhibit poor body image and body shame, particularly when using measures designed to assess their specific concerns, but such scales are not as well-established as those used in other populations (for a review, see Cafri & Thompson, 2004). It may be the case that the measure of body dissatisfaction I used was too broad, and that the development of more sensitive, specific measures of body dissatisfaction in heterosexual men would yield the proposed results.

Another factor to consider is generalizability; that is, do older men show similar patterns and strength of results as those found among younger men? Answers to this question have necessarily been speculative. One reason for the use of an online participant database for this study was the accessibility of an older sample. Age was correlated with upward physical appearance comparison, $r(103) = -.33, p = .001$. What might account for this relationship? Social comparison research suggests there are a multitude of factors affecting choice of comparison target, including the perceived attainability of the desired attributes (Collins, 1996; Strahan, Wilson, Cressman & Buote, 2006). Older men may feel that idealized bodies are less attainable or that the pursuit of such a body does not merit the effort involved in achieving and maintaining it. Further, the idealized male images were chosen based on the ratings of a college-aged sample; an older sample may have judged the models depicted to be too young for meaningful comparison (Festinger, 1954). It was not the case that, in the experimental condition,

younger men rated the stimuli images as more generally attractive than did older men, $r(103) = -.04, p = .72$, not did controlling for any demographic variables in the analyses produce significance, but it is possible that older men felt the models to be less masculine, or desired to look like them less, ratings of which were components in the pilot testing of the stimuli.

Data screening revealed that participants rated the control stimuli as significantly more attractive than the male muscle models, a result that could not have been anticipated. As with the experimental stimuli images, it was not the case that age affected the attractiveness ratings of the control stimuli images, $r(104) = .01, p = .91$. There are, however, several plausible explanations for this result. It may be the case that participants simply failed to appropriately attend to the stimuli. Several studies have established MTurk samples as comparable to those sourced using more traditional methods (Berinsky, Huber & Lenz, 2012; Buhrmester, Kwang & Gosling, 2011), but it is, nonetheless, important to acknowledge that the sample and method of data collection (i.e., all online) could have affected results. Some research suggests that MTurk workers do not attend as closely to experimental stimuli as traditional samples, even among those selected with a 95% or above successful completion rate (Goodman, Cryder & Cheema, 2013). Questions were embedded during the study to promote participant attention and remove the possibility of automated responses (e.g., by “bots”) but they cannot *guarantee* data quality. Future studies on the topic should endeavor to use traditional samples and methods of data collection. While there is no conclusive evidence to suggest these results were skewed by the methodology, *if* the sample did not attend to the experimental stimuli

as closely as anticipated, this could have been a contributing factor to the results obtained here.

Another plausible explanation for the unexpected attractiveness difference between conditions may be that participants in the experimental condition interpreted the request as an attempt to threaten their heterosexuality and/or masculinity, and retaliated by artificially lowering their ratings. As discussed by the literature review, one way men may affirm their masculinity after threat is to derogate or distance themselves from femininity, by espousing homophobic attitudes or negative affect toward effeminate men (Glick et al., 2007; Willer et al., 2013). It is possible that male MTurk workers could not complete the requested ratings without prejudice. For example, if MTurk workers are older and more conservative than college samples, they may have felt threatened by the request to judge another man's attractiveness. It is also possible that the MTurk sample found the models depicted in the stimuli images to be more effeminate/likely to be gay than did the pilot sample, and thus "punished" them with lower attractiveness ratings. This issue warrants further investigation, the request to judge stimuli attractiveness was intended as a filler task and the images themselves were designed to provoke body image, not masculinity, threat. If participants in the experimental condition experienced masculinity threat it suggests that an alternative manipulation, targeted more specifically at male body image, may need to be devised to effectively conduct this type of research.

While the failure to confirm the paths specified in the BSSAM was unexpected, the causes of male body shame remains a worthwhile question. Future research should continue to pursue this topic in order to advance knowledge of body image disturbances in men.

RVWS Pilot Study

Before turning to Experiment 2, it was critical that I develop and validate the author-designed Romantic Victimization by Women Scale (RVWS). According to Figure 1, men who feel chronically victimized by women (e.g., “friend-zoned”) should be especially likely to respond to romantic rejection from women with sexual aggression. Thus, the aim of this study was to develop and psychometrically validate an appropriate self-report measure to assess this construct before its inclusion in Experiment 2’s materials.

Method

Participants

Participants ($N = 85$ men) were recruited through the Rutgers University subject pool and offered credit toward their Introductory Psychology research requirement in exchange for their participation. Only male respondents who identified as heterosexual and over the age of 18 were able to participate in the study. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 23 ($M = 18.69$, $SD = 1.11$). Forty-four participants (51.8%) identified as White, 5 (5.9%) as Black, 23 (27.1%) as Asian, 7 (8.2%) as South Asian, 5 (5.9%) as Latino and 1 (1.2%) as another ethnicity (i.e., “Other”).

Materials

Romantic victimization. Participants were asked to respond to 35 author-designed items (Appendix F) which would assess the degree to which they feel they are victims during the process of dating. Items were derived primarily from related literature,

such as Urbaniak & Kilmann's (2003; 2006) research on the "nice guy" stereotype, as well as common beliefs and/or myths about women and relationships expressed by media (e.g., television and movies) and internet sources (e.g., men's rights activism websites and news stories). Participants were asked to consider their interactions with women generally and to indicate their agreement with each statement on a scale anchored at 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 5 (*strongly agree*).

Sexism. In order to provide convergent validity, participants completed the 11 item hostile sexism subscale of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Appendix G; Glick & Fiske, 1996). A sample item is: "Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist." Participants indicated their level of agreement with each statement on a response scale anchored at 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 5 (*strongly agree*) ($\alpha = .79$).

Rejection sensitivity. Given the role of rejection sensitivity in the creation of the RVWS, a modified version of the Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire (Appendix H; Downey & Feldman, 1996) was included to provide convergent validity. The RSQ asks participants to consider a series of sensitive social interactions (e.g., "You ask a friend to do you a big favor," or "You ask your boyfriend/girlfriend if he/she really loves you") and indicate their level of concern about the outcome of the interaction on a scale ranging from 1 (*very unconcerned*) to 6 (*very concerned*). Participants are then asked to indicate how likely they believe the outcome would be positive or that they would be accepted by the other person in the interaction (e.g., "I expect that my friend would willingly do this favor," or "I expect that he/she would answer yes sincerely,") on a scale from 1 (*very unlikely*) to 6 (*very likely*). Responses were scored by multiplying the level of rejection

concern by the reverse of acceptance expectancy, such that higher scores reflect greater rejection sensitivity ($\alpha = .73$).

Sexual aggression. Participants completed a measure of rape proclivity derived from Malamuth's (1989) Attraction to Sexual Aggression Scale (Appendix I), which asked them how attractive and arousing they found a variety of sexual acts, followed by the likelihood that they would engage in those acts, if no one would ever know. The six item rape proclivity index was formed using "rape" and "force a sexual partner to do something she did not want to do" as the sexual acts in question ($\alpha = .89$), with high scores reflecting greater willingness to rape or force a sexual partner. In addition, participants also completed a rape behavioral analogue (RBA; Rudman & Mescher, 2012). The RBA obliges men to choose between two photos, ostensibly to be shown to women repeatedly in an upcoming study. In each pair of photos, one photo depicts male-on-female sexual aggression, the other male-on-male aggression (see Appendix J; total trials = 17). High scores reflect choosing the former, and thus, a willingness to expose women to sexual aggression ($\alpha = .87$).

Procedure

Participants were recruited for a study investigating their "attitudes and opinions," in which they were told that they would rate images and respond to survey items about their experiences. After signing up, participants were provided a link to the survey's location, where they read a brief description of the study and completed an online consent form.

After consenting to the study, the online survey platform administered the RVWS, the RSQ (Downey & Feldman, 1996), rape proclivity index (Malamuth, 1989) and the

RBA (Rudman & Mescher, 2012). To avoid systematic order effects, the survey platform administered all scales and all items within each scale in random order. After completing these materials, participants provided standard demographic information before they were thoroughly debriefed and compensated.

Results

Analyses

In accord with best practices recommendations for exploratory factor analysis (e.g., Costello & Osborne, 2005) items were first assessed for multivariate normality using Shapiro-Wilks W , in order to determine the best method for factor extraction. The null hypothesis for the Shapiro-Wilks' test is that variables are normally distributed, therefore, any item with a significant value rejects the null and can be said to be non-normally distributed. Results indicated that all RVWS items were *non-normally* distributed, all W s $> .80$, all p s $< .001$. Given these data violate the assumption of normality the recommended procedure for extraction is principal axis factoring (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999).

In order to produce the strongest, most interpretable factor structure, before data were entered into factor analysis, an inter-item correlational matrix was examined. Eleven items were removed prior to further analysis based on poor inter-item correlational profiles. To evaluate the structure of the RVWS, factor analysis with principal axis factoring and direct oblimin rotation was used based on the likelihood of intercorrelated factors. The delta weight was specified at 0, allowing for moderate inter-factor correlation. After entering the 24 remaining items into the analysis, a scree plot was generated in order to determine the ideal number of factors to retain, this practice is

in accordance with Costello & Osborne's (2005) recommendation (the most common method of factor retention, retaining all factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, can both over- and under- extract factors). The resultant scree plot suggested that a four factor solution was ideal. Items with factor loadings $< .30$ and items which loaded onto multiple factors were removed for the sake of the interpretability of the factor solution. Table 4 indicates the items retained and each item's factor loading. This four factor solution was confirmed using the data for Experiment 2, and will be addressed further in Experiment 2's methods section.

Each factor (i.e., subscale) was named based on item content; factor one contains items that reflect men's belief in dating and relationship *fairness* ($\alpha_{\text{fair}} = .78$), factor two contains items which indicate that women sexually *manipulate* men for personal pleasure or gain ($\alpha_{\text{m}} = .72$), factor three contains items indicating that women lie or engage in deliberately *adversarial* relationships with men ($\alpha_{\text{a}} = .68$), and factor four contains items that reference "the *friend zone*" ($\alpha_{\text{friend}} = .73$) ($\alpha_{\text{total}} = .86$). As was expected, all four factors were inter-correlated. Table 5 displays these results, as well as the correlations between the RVWS and the measures I discuss next.

Convergent validity. Romantic victimization by women is likely to covary with hostility toward women, as assessed by hostile sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Not surprisingly, the *manipulate*, $r(85) = .42, p < .001$, and *adversary*, $r(85) = .38, p < .001$, subscales positively covaried with participant's level of hostile sexism, as did the RVWS in its entirety, $r(85) = .37, p = .001$, a likely result of their combined effect. Neither the *fairness*, $r(85) = .16, p = .16$, nor the *friend zone*, $r(85) = .18, p = .10$, subscales significantly covaried with hostile sexism.

Because rejection sensitivity was involved in the conception of the RVWS, it was also anticipated that RVWS scores would positively covary with RSQ scores. This was found to be the case with the *fairness*, $r(85) = .21, p = .05$, and *adversarial*, $r(85) = .24, p < .05$, and *friend zone*, $r(85) = .237, p < .001$, subscales, as well as the RVWS overall, $r(85) = .32, p < .01$. The only subscale which did not positively covary with rejection sensitivity was the *manipulation* subscale, $r(85) = .12, p = .17$. This is likely because endorsing this subscale suggests that women “flirt with” and “send sexual signals to” the self, both of which could be construed as positive or accepting stimuli and thus, exempt from issues associated with rejection sensitivity.

Although it was anticipated that RVWS scores would predict scores on the indices of sexual aggression (e.g., rape proclivity and the RBA), this was not the case; all r s (85) $< -.15, p$ s $> .16$. What might account for this result? Further analysis of the distributions of both the rape proclivity index and the RBA indicated that neither scale was normally distributed all W s $> .67$, all p s $< .001$. The rape proclivity index was skewed negatively, with a skewness of 2.20, ($SE = .26$), indicating that the majority of participants indicated very little, if any, interest in sexually aggressive acts. The RBA was skewed somewhat positively, with a skewness of $-.24$, ($SE = .26$). In addition, these two measures of sexual aggression were poorly correlated with one another, $r(85) = -.15, p = .17$, which was unexpected given past research (Rudman & Mescher, 2012). Given these results, a definitive judgment on the utility of the RVWS in the prediction of sexual aggression would be premature.

Discussion

The intent of this study was to develop and validate a scale assessing male romantic victimization before its inclusion as a potential moderator in the BSSAM. Scale development is difficult, and the RVWS is not an exception to this issue; multiple samples and methods of refinement are often necessary before an instrument is sufficiently validated. This study represents only one step in the long process of scale development, and undoubtedly the RVWS would benefit from further testing. Given that these results represent the early stages of scale validation, the RVWS performed well. To my knowledge, the RVWS is the first attempt to document romantic victimization, and the pilot study is the first to demonstrate that it covaries with hostile sexism and rejection sensitivity. Experiment 2 offers an additional opportunity to assess the structure and validity of the RVWS, and to examine its possibilities as a predictor of sexual aggression.

Experiment 2

Following Mescher and Rudman (2014), an attractive woman rejected experimental male participants as a dating partner on the basis of finding them unattractive after viewing their photo (to model masculinity threat based on romantic rejection). In the control condition, her decision was unavailable “due to a computer failure.” I predicted that rejected men high on body shame would retaliate with sexual aggression to the extent that they were 1) upset by the rejection (Mescher & Rudman, 2014), or 2) high on endorsement of romantic victimization. The second prediction was new to the present research. For men in the control group, no such pattern was predicted because there was no threat to their masculinity.

To measure sexual aggression, I used a rape proclivity index that correlates with men's sexual arousal when viewing depictions of rape (Malamuth, Haber, & Feshbach, 1980; Malamuth, Heim, & Feshbach, 1980) and has been used successfully in previous research (Mescher & Rudman, 2014; Rudman & Mescher, 2012). Men also completed the rape behavioral analogue (RBA; Rudman & Mescher, 2012; Mescher & Rudman, 2014, Exp. 2). Men who score high on the RBA have been shown to implicitly dehumanize women as animals (Rudman & Mescher, 2012) and evaluate rape favorably (Widman & Olson, 2013). The author-designed RVWS was also included as a potential moderator of the path from body shame to sexual aggression.

Method

Participants

Participants ($N = 146$) were recruited through the SONA subject pool and offered credit toward their Introductory Psychology research requirement in exchange for their participation. Only respondents who identified as male, heterosexual and over the age of 18 were able to participate in the study. Sixty-three (43.2%) identified as White, 44 (30.1%) as Asian, 15 (10.3%) as South Asian, 11 (7.5%) as Latino, 6 (4.1%) as Black, 6 (4.1%) selected another ethnicity, and 1 (.7%) participant abstained from reporting his race. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 33 ($M = 19.05$, $SD = 1.59$).

Materials

Pretesting the confederate photo. Prior to Mescher and Rudman's (2014) research, an independent pilot sample ($N = 239$, 121 men) rated the attractiveness of 21 portraits of college-aged White women posed against neutral backgrounds downloaded

from the Internet (gettyimages.com). Participants rated the physical attractiveness of each image (presented randomly) on a scale ranging from 1 (*very unattractive*) to 10 (*very attractive*). The female phantom's image (Appendix K) used in this experiment and in Mescher and Rudman (2014) was high (but not extreme) on attractiveness, ($M = 7.28$, $SD = 1.80$).

Negative affect. To reduce reactivity, participants were told their mood would be measured at random intervals during the session, in actuality, participants always completed mood items at the same intervals: before the rejection manipulation (Time 1) and immediately after the rejection manipulation (Time 2). Participants indicated the extent to which they felt each of the presented emotions "right now" on a scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very much*) (Appendix L). Negative emotions were angry, disgusted, hostile, hurt, insulted, offended and sad. Positive and neutral emotions were filler items. Consistent with past research (Mescher & Rudman, 2014) all negative emotion items were combined to create the index included in the BSSAM, with high scores reflecting more negative affect ($\alpha_1 = .83$, $\alpha_2 = .92$).

Body shame. To assess body shame, participants completed the same measure used by Mescher and Rudman (2014) and Experiment 1, a modified body shame subscale from the Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (Appendix E; McKinley & Hyde, 1996). It consisted of 13 items anchored on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Responses were scored such that high scores reflect more body shame ($\alpha = .87$).

Romantic victimization. As described above, the Romantic Victimization by Women scale (RVWS) was developed for the purpose of becoming a potential moderator

of the relationship between male body shame and sexual aggression. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement with each statement on a scale anchored at 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 5 (*strongly agree*). Table 4 displays the final version of the scale, with factor loadings for each item. The four factor solution described in the pilot study replicated. Factor one contains items that reflect men's belief in dating and relationship *fairness* ($\alpha_{\text{fair}} = .74$), factor two contains items which indicate that women sexually *manipulate* men for personal pleasure or gain ($\alpha_{\text{m}} = .77$), factor three contains items indicating that women lie or engage in deliberately *adversarial* relationships with men ($\alpha_{\text{a}} = .65$), and factor four contains items that reference "*the friend zone*" ($\alpha_{\text{friend}} = .77$) ($\alpha_{\text{total}} = .89$).

Sexual aggression. Participants completed the same measures of rape proclivity used in the validation of the RVWS, the rape proclivity index derived from Malamuth's (1989) Attraction to Sexual Aggression Scale (Appendix I) ($\alpha = .91$), and the rape behavioral analogue (Appendix J; Rudman & Mescher, 2012) ($\alpha = .84$). As in previous research (Rudman & Mescher, 2012) both indices of sexual aggression positively covaried with one another, $r(126) = .21, p < .05$.

Procedure

Following Mescher and Rudman (2014), participants were recruited for a study investigating "the factors that build effective teamwork," (Appendix M) in which they believed they would compete as a dyad with a partner over a networked computer in teamwork building tasks, with the most effective teams earning a chance to be entered into a lottery to win \$500.00. Upon arriving at the lab, the Experimenter took a digital photo of the participant, which they were told was for upload to their networked partner,

and then were escorted to a private cubicle with a computer. The Experimenter provided basic instructions before starting the program and leaving the participant alone. After consenting to the study, participants completed a bogus personality profile (Appendix N), ostensibly to be uploaded along with their digital photo to their networked partner. After “uploading” this information, the computer program explained that the participant has been “randomly assigned” to the condition in which their partner (in fact, a phantom female confederate) would choose whether or not to perform the teamwork tasks with him. Participants were shown the digital photo of the attractive confederate and a brief profile describing her as 19 years old, female, and majoring in Psychology (Appendix K).

While participants waited for their partner’s response to their photo and personality profile, they completed the first mood measure and filler questionnaires. Control participants were then told that the computer had malfunctioned and could not connect them with their partner as follows:

“We’re sorry! Our program is experiencing technical difficulties and is unable to connect you to your partner. You will now be redirected to our secondary study, which will fulfill your research participation requirements for 2 RPUs.”

Participants in the rejection condition were told their partner had rejected them and were given the following feedback:

“I heard about this study from my roommate. She said it was actually about dating, after the test, she had to hang out with the guy and answer a bunch of questions about attraction. Looking at this photo, I’m really not attracted to this guy. He’s not my type at all and I don’t want to have to go out with him. I’d rather do the other study for the points.”

All participants were then enrolled in a “second study” in order to complete their obligation. Participants then completed a second mood measure, measures of body shame, romantic victimization and sexual aggression (in that order). The program randomly assigned participants to condition and administered the items for each measure in random order. After completing the measures, participants were thoroughly debriefed and compensated.

Results

Data Screening

Participants were evenly distributed across condition, with 72 (49.3%) in the experimental rejection condition, and 74 (50.7%) in the control condition. No significant differences emerged between conditions on demographic variables; age, current body composition (height and weight), childhood body composition (height and weight), all $t(143) < .71$, $ps > .48$. Racial composition did not differ by condition, $\chi^2(5) = 3.20$, $p = .67$.

A programming error on the survey platform resulted in some data loss in both conditions. Specifically, the program randomly skipped a complete scale for each participant. Initially, a regression-based imputation algorithm was used to restore the missing values. Because imputation did not affect the results for any analyses, these values are not reported. However, degrees of freedom vary based on the original data available for analysis.

Preliminary Analyses

All mood items were entered into a principal components analysis with varimax rotation, specifying two factors, which extracted positive and negative affect. Negative

affect items were *angry, disgusted, hostile, hurt, insulted, offended* and *sad*; positive affect items were *calm, confident, happy* and *proud*, with *uncertain, nervous, ashamed, amused* and *cautious* failing to load on either factor. Negative affect items taken at each time point were averaged together to form separate indices (all alphas > .83).

Participants in the experimental ($M = 1.12$, $SD = .32$) and the control ($M = 1.13$, $SD = .30$) conditions did not significantly differ in negative affect prior to the administration of the manipulation (Time 1) $t(143) = -.28$, $p = .91$. However, participants in the rejection condition reported significantly greater negative affect ($M = 1.79$, $SD = .93$) than those in the control condition ($M = 1.25$, $SD = .52$) when analyzed using the immediate post-rejection negative affect index (Time 2), $t(144) = 4.36$, $p < .001$. A similar pattern of results were found using a negative affect difference score (Time 2 - Time 1); participants in the experimental condition ($M = .68$, $SD = .85$) reported significantly more negative affect than those in the control condition ($M = .12$, $SD = .52$), $t(143) = 5.02$, $p < .001$. Thus, it may be concluded that differences between conditions due to negative affect are primarily the result of the manipulation. Analyses that follow were run separately using alternately Time 2 negative affect and the negative affect difference score, which did not affect the significance of results.

Table 6 shows the means and standard deviations by experimental condition.

Table 7 shows the correlations among all variables, separately by experimental condition.

Analyses

To test the hypothesis that men high on body shame would retaliate with sexual aggression to the extent that the rejection manipulation upset them, I separately regressed rape proclivity and RBA scores on rejection condition (coded: -1 = control, 1 =

rejection), the centered variables body shame and Time 2 negative affect, and all interaction terms. To support my hypothesis, each analysis would yield a significant Rejection X Body Shame X Negative Affect interaction, with only rejected men producing the anticipated Body Shame X Negative Affect interaction (Rudman & Mescher, 2014, Experiment 1).

The overall regression of condition, body shame, negative affect and their interaction on rape proclivity was not significant, $R^2 = .04$, $F(7, 88) = .53$, $p = .81$. No main effects for condition $\beta = .08$, $t(91) = 1.05$, $p = .30$, body shame $\beta = .10$, $t(91) = .85$, $p = .40$, or negative affect $\beta = -.01$, $t(91) = -.13$, $p = .90$, were observed, nor were any of the interaction effects present, all $\beta s < -.15$, $ts(91) < -.80$, $ps > .42$. This finding failed to replicate Mescher and Rudman (2014, Experiment 1). Given these null results for rape proclivity, I next turned to RBA scores.

The overall regression of condition, body shame, negative affect and their interaction on the RBA approached significance, $R^2 = .12$, $F(7, 107) = 2.04$, $p = .06$. Only a main effect of body shame approached significance, $\beta = 1.17$, $t(110) = 1.83$, $p = .07$. No main effects for condition $\beta = .45$, $t(110) = 1.07$, $p = .29$ or negative affect $\beta = .85$, $t(110) = 1.46$, $p = .15$, were observed, nor were any significant interactions, all $\beta s < .70$, $ts(110) < 1.09$, $ps > .28$. These findings failed to extend those of Mescher and Rudman (2014) to a rape behavioral analogue. Instead, they are somewhat in keeping with the preliminary research suggesting that men high on body shame are also likely express interest in committing sexually aggressive acts (see Table 1).

New to Experiment 2, I hypothesized that men's perceived romantic victimization by women will be a *trait* moderator. As a chronic source of resenting women, I

anticipated that the RVWS would moderate the relationship between body shame and sexual aggression for men romantically rejected by a woman (see Figure 1). To test this hypothesis, I regressed rape proclivity on rejection condition, body shame, romantic victimization (centered) and all interaction terms. The overall regression was not significant, $R^2 = .11$, $F(7, 68) = 1.17$, $p = .33$, nor were any main or most interaction effects significant, all β s $< -.22$, $ts(71) < 1.57$, $ps > .12$. However, the Condition X Body Shame X Victimization interaction approached significance, $\beta = -.29$, $t(71) = -1.94$, $p = .06$. This pattern was anticipated by Figure 1. I therefore examined the Body Shame X Victimization interaction separately by condition. For rejected men, the overall regression was not significant, $R^2 = .07$, $F(3, 32) = .87$, $p = .49$, nor were any main or interaction effects significant, all β s $< -.30$, $ts(32) < -1.11$, $ps > .24$. For control men, the overall regression was not significant, $R^2 = .13$, $F(3, 36) = 1.67$, $p = .19$, no significant main effects were found, all β s $< .22$, $ts(36) < 1.62$, $ps > .11$, and the interaction of Body Shame X Victimization remained marginal, $\beta = .29$, $t(36) = 1.84$, $p = .07$. The Body Shame X Victimization two-way interaction approached significance only for men in the control condition (i.e., those who were not rejected). As this result was both marginal and atheoretical, I turned to the RBA for clarification.

RBA scores were regressed on rejection condition, body shame, romantic victimization (centered) and all interaction terms. The overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .17$, $F(7, 86) = 2.56$, $p = .02$. No main or interaction effects were significant, all β s < 1.28 , $ts(89) < 1.75$, $ps > .08$, *ns*, save for the Condition X Body Shame X Romantic Victimization interaction seen previously, $\beta = -2.22$, $t(89) = -2.49$, $p = .02$. As this interaction was expected, I decomposed the significant three-way interaction. Splitting

the results by condition resulted in non-significant overall regressions, in a similar pattern to those reported with rape proclivity. For rejected men, the overall regression was not significant, $R^2 = .14$, $F(3, 32) = 1.75$, $p = .18$, nor were any main or interaction effects significant, all β s < 1.50 , $ts(32) < 1.23$, $ps > .23$. For control men, the overall regression was not significant, $R^2 = .13$, $F(3, 36) = 1.79$, $p = .17$, no significant main effects were found, all β s $< .85$, $ts(36) < .76$, $ps > .45$, but the interaction of Body Shame X Victimization was significant, $\beta = 2.57$, $t(36) = 2.05$, $p = .05$. Replicating the pattern found using rape proclivity. These results were unexpected and unsupported by theory, nonetheless I conducted a simple slopes analysis, which revealed that the correlation between the RVWS and the RBA was positive for control men high on body shame, $r(23) = .35$, $p = .10$, *ns* and negative for control men low on body shame $r(41) = -.11$, $p = .48$. The difference between these two correlations was not significant, $z = 1.72$, $p = .08$, *ns*. At best, these results might be interpreted as a *possible* trend in the data for men to respond with sexualized aggression when they are high on body shame and romantic victimization, but why this relationship should appear only among control men, rather than rejected men is unknown. As the Body Shame X Victimization interaction was relatively weak for both measures of sexual aggression, and further analyses produced marginal results, any conclusions are speculative.

Given that Mescher and Rudman's (2014) findings failed to replicate, I investigated the possibility that administering the RVWS among rejected men affected overall response, as it was the only procedural change. In Mescher and Rudman's Experiment 1, participants were only offered rape proclivity as a retaliatory response to rejection. In the present research, the RVWS may have functioned as a release valve,

offering rejected men an alternative, “safer” means of retaliation. Analyses did not suggest a significant difference between conditions on RVWS scores, $t(121) = -.03$, $p = .98$, but Table 7 indicates that romantic victimization was only significantly associated with negative affect and body shame in the rejection condition, though the rejection and control condition correlations do not significantly differ, these links are not present among control men. This result may be a case of low power, and more conclusive (i.e., with a larger sample) test of whether the RVWS may function to allow for safer retaliation to female sexual rejection is required to probe this possibility.

Discussion

Previous research has found that negative affect post-rejection and high body shame, in combination, resulted in an increase in men's self-reported interest in sexual aggression (Mescher & Rudman, 2014), but this finding failed to replicate in Experiment 2. However, this result should not be interpreted as conclusive, as there are several potential explanations. One issue that generally plagues much social psychological research is that of adequate power; that is, sample sizes are often too small to make firm conclusions. The hypothesized path from body shame to sexual aggression, moderated by negative affect, is double moderated; consistent with Mescher & Rudman (2014), participants were anticipated to need 1) heightened negative affect after rejection and 2) high body shame to produce sexually aggressive response, and despite extensive efforts to obtain an appropriate sample size to support double moderation, this study is underpowered.

Results of this study were unexpected; in Mescher and Rudman (2014), body shame and negative affect in concert effectively predicted sexual aggression, but the

addition of the RVWS clouds this interpretation, as it may have functioned as a viable alternative to increased interest in sexual aggression. If this is the case, the null findings here could be interpreted as somewhat hopeful, although romantic victimization is undoubtedly a form of sexism, it is not violent. Much the same way that benevolent or paternalistic expressions of sexism can be regarded as preferable to hostile ones (Glick & Fiske, 1996), endorsing a heightened sense of romantic victimization is preferable to the possible alternative. This is not meant to suggest that either romantic victimization or benevolent sexism are *positive*, rather that they are more benign than their alternatives (sexual aggression and hostile sexism, respectively).

Though originally conceived primarily as a trait moderator, it is possible that mens' level of romantic victimization also fluctuates somewhat with experiences (i.e., as a state moderator) in the same way that body image is generally considered stable (Banfield & McCabe, 2002; Tissot & Crowther, 2008) but can be temporarily altered by experiences (Colautti, Fuller-Tyskiewicz, Skouteris, McCabe, Blackburn & Wyett, 2011). If that is the case, heightened romantic victimization after rejection could serve a retaliatory function or as an ego or self-esteem defense. Though analyses did not suggest a significant difference between conditions on RVWS scores, Table 7 indicates that romantic victimization was only significantly associated with negative affect and body shame in the rejection condition. It is possible that romantic victimization's relationship to *other* variables relevant to the prediction of sexual aggression is altered by rejection, which should be more thoroughly tested using extant rape theories; that is, the combination of romantic victimization, rejection and hyper-masculinity (Mosher & Anderson, 1986; Mosher & Sirkin, 1984) or narcissism (Baumeister et al., 2002) may be

particularly alarming. These data do not include measures which would confirm this supposition, but anecdotal evidence (e.g., Elliot Rodger's 2014 Isla Vista murders, George Sodini's 2009 massacre in Pennsylvania) suggests this to be both a realistic and frightening possibility, both men cited being the "victims" of frequent romantic rejections by women as reasons for their respective crimes. In particular, prior to his murder spree, Rodger left a written document and numerous videos in which he endorsed tenants of hypermasculinity and claimed he "deserved" sexual relationships more so than others because of his appearance, relative wealth and social standing (e.g., narcissistic reasoning). Whether such actions might be the partial result of consistent feelings of romantic victimization, by specific experiences which exacerbate it or by the combination, they reflect the need for further inquiry to establish how it operates. Though romantic victimization itself was not designed as a violent construct, when augmented by other attitudes and experiences known to contribute to sexual aggression, it may spur violent events.

Limitations and Future Directions

One limitation this work is the issue of power. Power analyses rely on effect sizes reported in the relevant literature. Because most body image studies conducted among strictly male participants rely on mostly homogenous samples, for example, using participants within a narrow age range (e.g., college students or middle-aged men), they cannot account for how such demographic differences may affect the strength of results. Though effects remained non-significant after controlling for the collected demographic variables, this may be attributable to insufficient power. In particular, my results are

suggestive, but inconclusive about age's specific role in heterosexual, male body image processes. Future studies should endeavor to examine, with greater nuance, how age may change male body image issues. Experiment 1 suggests that young men are more vulnerable to upward physical appearance comparison than older men, but also utilized young, extremely fit male stimuli. Whether such effects might be seen using older stimuli, or with references to specific body image issues among older men are empirical questions, though it may be the case that body image declines in importance as men age. While the age of the participants in Experiment 2 is appropriate because young men are especially likely to sexually aggress against women (Barbaree & Marshall, 2008; Freeman, 2007), whether older men would support the BSSAM is unknown.

There are many variables which theoretically contribute to the development of body shame, so Experiment 1's lack of significant findings may have been due to the variety of experiences which the BSSAM was not designed to explore. For example, skin tone was not assessed, but may play an important role in the development of body image concerns among racial minorities (Hersch, 2011; Hill, 2002). The measures used document generalized body shame and did not address specific body issues like facial composition, scars, or skin concerns (Hanstock & O'Mahony, 2002; Mares, deLeeuw, Scholte & Engels, 2010), nor did they assess performance (e.g., strength, skill, or endurance). The decision not to include such measures was intended to focus the model on muscularity and its connection with masculinity (Kimmel & Mahalik, 2004; McCreary, Saucier, & Courtney, 2005; Steinfeldt, Gilchrist, Halterman, Gomory, & Steinfeldt, 2011; Wienke, 1998), but undoubtedly, men may feel more or less dissatisfied with certain aspects of their bodies.

Another underlying construct that was not assessed was the experience of childhood sexual abuse (CSA). Of particular relevance to the BSSAM, males who have experienced CSA have higher BMIs (Conley & Garza, 2011) and report heightened body awareness in adulthood (Sansone, Gaither & Songer, 2001), which may predispose them to the development of body shame. Further, male CSA victims are likely to begin sexual activities earlier and report having more sexual partners compared to men without CSA history (Conley & Garza, 2011; Paolucci, Genuis & Violato, 2001). CSA was omitted from the BSSAM for several reasons, including the sensitivity associated with its assessment and the possibility of its contribution to chronic masculinity threat, which would weaken the impact of an acute threat. Research suggests that boys who have been victimized may feel they are weak or “failures as men” (Ryan, Lane, Davis & Isaac, 1987) and worry about the stigma of homosexuality (a documented masculinity threat, see: Falomir-Pichastor, & Mugny, 2009) as sexual offenders are predominantly male. How having experienced CSA might interact with body shame as a chronic masculinity threat, or respond to an acute masculinity threat is unknown, but may be important to promote understanding the issues facing adult, male survivors of CSA in clinical applications.

It is unclear whether early childhood experiences, like bullying history, might be a possible source of male body shame. Bullying history has frequently been theorized to relate to the development of body image issues, primarily for girls and young women. For girls, the onset of sexualized bullying experiences beginning around puberty affects their adult views of their bodies (Cunningham, Taylor, Whitten, Hardesty, Eder & DeLaney, 2010; Shute, Owens & Slee, 2008), beginning the process by which women are socialized

to view their bodies from an outsider's perspective (cf. self-objectification theory; Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Objectification theory has a strong influence on the current understanding of body shame. McKinley & Hyde (1996) draw direct parallels from the feminist theory that gave rise to objectification theory and their own attempts to capture how that socialization process affects female body image. As it is not clear that boys' experience of bullying is analogous, or necessarily produces similar results in body image, future studies should attempt to ascertain how the experience of male body shame differs from that of female body shame. In addition, bullying itself should be investigated for its potential contribution to the various processes described in the BSSAM. For example, having a history of being bullied *by girls* may contribute to the development of beliefs about having been victimized, which could theoretically exacerbate scores on the RVWS.

The BSSAM was designed primarily to predict proclivity for sexually aggressive acts independent of men's sexual history, but there are numerous sexual dimensions that may contribute to sexual aggression. Men who consume large amounts of pornography (in particular, violent pornography) may have distorted ideas about the naturalness of sexual aggression (Bonino, Ciarano, Rabaglietti & Cattelino, 2006; Wright, 2013). Men may also overestimate women's interest in aggressive sexuality, as they are prone to overestimating women's sexual interest in general (Abbey, 1982; Farris et al., 2008). Media frequently portrays women as initially sexually coy and easily overcome by force, which may contribute to a fundamental misunderstanding of how desirable women view aggressive sexual behavior (Abbey, 1991). The BSSAM was not designed to distinguish sexual *desire* from sexual *intent*, it is possible that some men display interest in

aggressive sexual practices from misunderstanding or fantasy, but intend to indicate that both their and their partners' participation would be consensual.

Because the primary limitation of experimental sexual aggression research is the inherent limitation of laboratory settings, measures like the RBA may be among the best on offer (Rudman & Mescher, 2012). Nonetheless, there is a sobering gap between real world sexual assault and any laboratory attempt to capture contributing factors. Whether body shame is a catalyst for sexual assault on the part of actual perpetrators is a question for future research.

Conclusion

Though the findings presented here do not confirm the pathways of the BSSAM, the questions they inspire necessitate further study. To dismiss the possibility that some pathways of the BSSAM may be useful in understanding male body image and sexual aggression would be premature. In previous research (Mescher & Rudman, 2014) men high on body shame were shown to suffer not only intrapsychic consequences; they also posed a risk to women, presumably to compensate for a negative body image. This issue remains vital to further investigate. Though romantic victimization may still be in its early stages of development, it appears to be highly relevant in understanding the potential causes of male violence, in particular violence against women, and it is my hope that this research will further future endeavors to investigate the role of chronic masculinity threat in rape theory.

Table 1

Correlations for Body Shame with Attitudes Toward Women and Sexual Aggression, by Participant Gender (Pilot Research)

	<u>Pilot Study 1</u>		<u>Pilot Study 2</u>	
	<u>Men</u> (<i>N</i> = 212)	<u>Women</u> (<i>N</i> = 358)	<u>Men</u> (<i>N</i> = 126)	<u>Women</u> (<i>N</i> = 101)
Hostile Sexism	.20**	.05	.19*	.21*
BS	.09	.05	-.01	.05
ATRV	.21**	.03	.37***	.22*
RMA	.20**	-.004	—	—
Rape Proclivity	.22**	.05	.19*	.18

Note. BS = benevolent sexism. ATRV = negative attitudes toward female rape victims.

RMA = rape myth acceptance. Rape proclivity = willingness to rape or force a sexual partner against his or her will (item was worded differently for men and women).

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

Table 2

Means (and Standard Deviations) by Image Condition (Experiment 1)

	<u>Experimental Condition</u>	<u>Control Condition</u>
	(<i>n</i> = 103)	(<i>n</i> = 104)
Social Comparison	2.99 (1.13)	2.72 (1.09)
Weight Dissatisfaction	1.50 (1.33)	1.65 (1.49)
Muscle Dissatisfaction	2.00 (1.58)	2.03 (1.60)
Body Shame	2.64 (.68)	2.75 (.79)
Age	30.76 (8.47)	29.46 (9.13)

Note. All participants for both conditions self-identified as male, heterosexual and located in the United States. No significant differences were observed between conditions.

Table 3

Correlations Among Comparison, Body Dissatisfaction, Body Shame, and Age by
Condition (Experiment 1)

	Social Comp.	Weight Diss.	Muscle Diss.	Body Shame	Age
Social Comparison	---	.05	.15	.41***	-.19
Weight Dissatisfaction	-.06	---	.61***	.46***	.01
Muscle Dissatisfaction	.03	.53***	---	.37***	-.05
Body Shame	.35***	.34***	.39***	---	-.09
Age	-.33**	.05	-.02	-.16	---

Note. Experimental condition ($n = 103$) correlations appear below the diagonal, control condition ($n = 104$) correlations appear above.

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

Table 4

Items and Factor Loadings for Subscales of the RVWS

	Factor Loading (Pilot) (<i>n</i> = 85)	Factor Loading (Exp. 2) (<i>n</i> = 123)
<i>Fairness (Factor 1)</i>		
It's not fair that I have to give more effort to dating than women do.	.56	.62
It's not fair that I am expected to make the first move to get dates.	.57	.50
It's not fair that I have to put more effort into relationships than women do.	.56	.68
<i>Manipulation (Factor 2)</i>		
I feel that women frequently flirt with me just to amuse themselves, without serious intentions.	.54	.70
I feel that women have deliberately sent me confusing signals about their sexual interest.	.71	.64
Women have manipulated me to get what they want.	.56	.61
Women have flirted with me just to get me to do something they wanted.	.59	.58
<i>Adversarial (Factor 3)</i>		
Women unrealistically expect men they date to be physically perfect.	.60	.63
When I have a fight with a woman, I always end up coming off as the bad guy.	.50	.56
Women lie when they say they like sensitive guys.	.51	.50
Women lie about how important penis size is.	.50	.50
<i>Friend Zone (Factor 4)</i>		
It seems that whenever I am interested in a woman she just wants to be friends.	.54	.53
I often feel that my female friends think of me only as a "back up," in case the man of their dreams doesn't come through.	.58	.57
Most women seem to prefer dating jerks and too often overlook nice guys like me.	.52	.64
Women are always saying that I'd be a great boyfriend, but they don't want me to be their boyfriend.	.59	.66

Table 5

Correlations, Means (and Standard Deviations) Among Romantic Victimization by Women, Hostile Sexism, Rejection Sensitivity and Sexual Aggression Measures (Pilot Study)

	Manipulate	Adversary	Friendzone	RVWS	HS	RSQ	Rape Proclivity	RBA	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Fairness	.50***	.41***	.31**	.69***	.16	.21*	.08	.13	3.30	.83
Manipulate	---	.49***	.55***	.83***	.41***	.15	.05	.02	3.09	.79
Adversary		---	.54***	.78***	.38***	.24*	.08	.10	3.17	.66
Friendzone			---	.80***	.18	.37***	-.15	-.06	3.19	.78
RVWS Total				---	.37**	.32**	.01	.05	3.18	.59
HS					---	-.09	.08	.15	3.24	.57
Rejection Sensitivity						---	.18	-.04	11.22	2.92
Rape Proclivity							---	-.15	1.39	.64
RBA								---	9.9	4.67

Note. $N = 85$, all male, heterosexual and 18 years of age or older. HS = Hostile Sexism subscale of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996). RBA = Rape Behavioral Analogue (Rudman & Mescher, 2012). Rape proclivity = willingness to rape or force a sexual partner against her will. For items used in each factor, see Table 4.

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

Table 6

Means (and Standard Deviations) by Condition (Experiment 2)

	<u>Rejection Condition</u>	<u>Control Condition</u>
	(<i>n</i> = 72)	(<i>n</i> = 74)
Negative Affect	1.80 ^a	1.25 ^a
	(.93)	(.52)
Body Shame ^b	2.44	2.24
	(.70)	(.66)
Romantic Victimization ^b	2.95	2.95
	(.71)	(.67)
Rape Proclivity ^b	1.29	1.22
	(.69)	(.58)
RBA	8.81	7.88
	(4.05)	(4.55)

Note. All participants for both conditions self-identified as male, heterosexual and over the age of 18.

^a Indicates means significantly differed by condition.

^b Indicates a scale on which minor (e.g., less than 10%) data loss occurred due to programming error.

Table 7

Correlations Among Negative Affect, Body Shame, Romantic Victimization and Sexual Aggression Measures by Condition (Experiment 2)

	Neg Aff.	Body Shame ^b	RVWS ^b	Rape Proclivity ^b	RBA
Negative Affect	---	.06	.21	-.10	.07
Body Shame ^b	.21	---	.21	.11	.03
RVWS ^b	.41**	.51***	---	.10	.07
Rape Proclivity ^b	.06	.11	.17	---	.18
RBA	.15	.35**	.25	.24	---

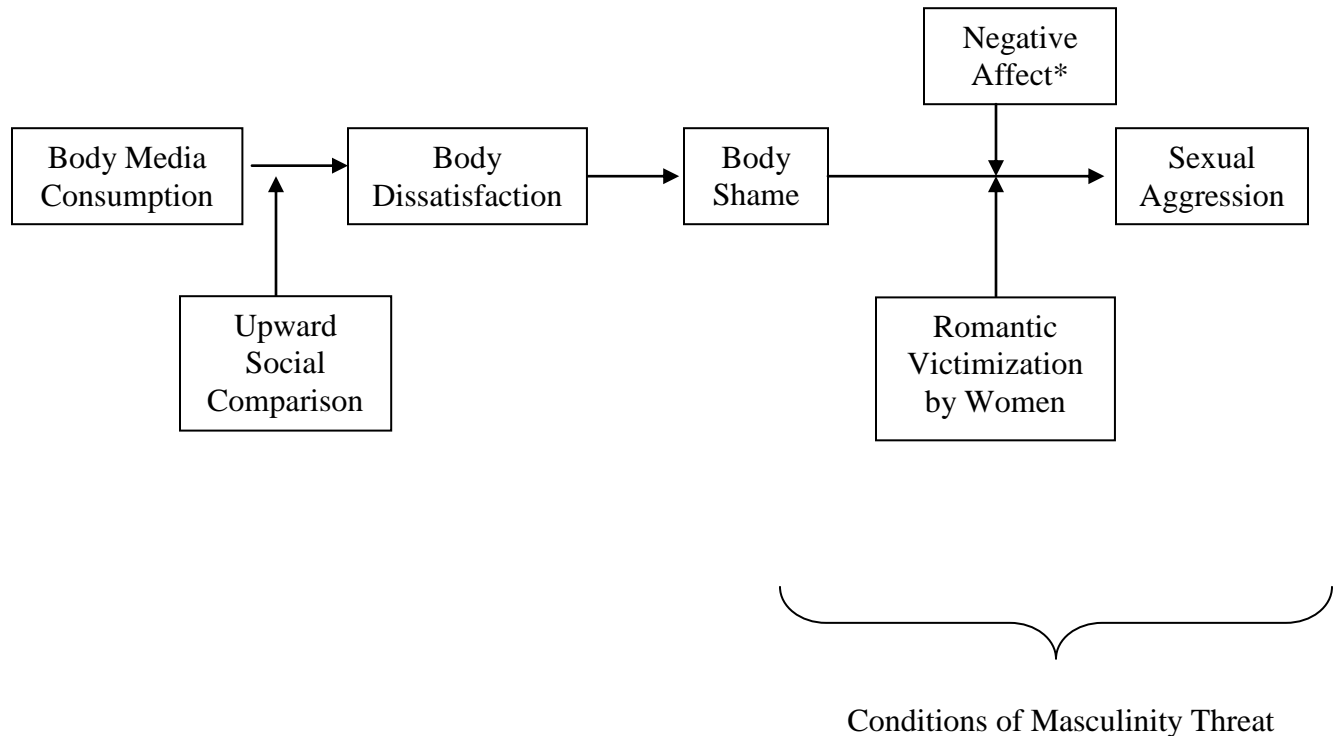
Note. Rejection condition ($n = 72$) correlations appear below the diagonal, control condition ($n = 74$) correlations appear above. Fischer's z tests comparing correlation significance by condition were not significant

^b Indicates a scale on which minor (e.g., less than 10%) data loss occurred due to programming error.

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

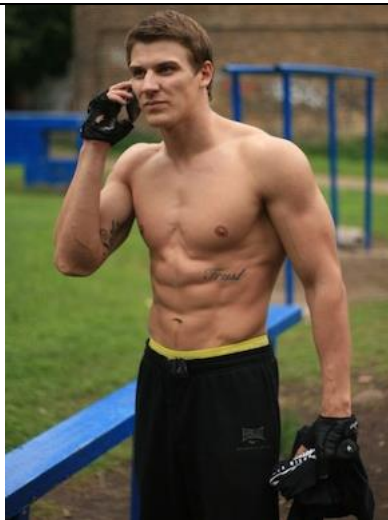
Figure 1. The Body Shame and Sexual Aggression Model (BSSAM).

*Note: Negative affect measured post-rejection manipulation



Appendix A

Experiment 1 Stimuli Images (Experimental Condition)





Appendix B

Experiment 1 Stimuli Images (Control Condition)





Appendix C

Upward Physical Appearance Comparison Scale (O'Brien et al., 2009)¹

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. Right now, I am comparing myself to men whose bodies are better looking than mine.
2. At this moment, I am comparing my own physical attractiveness to that of male fitness models.
3. At this moment, I find myself thinking about whether my own appearance compares well with male fitness models and movie stars.
4. Right now, I wonder if my body is as attractive as the men I see at the beach or gym who have very attractive bodies.
5. At this moment, I am comparing myself to men I think look better than me.
6. At this moment, I wonder how I “match up” when I see a man with a great body.
7. At this moment, I wonder how I compare to good-looking men.
8. At this moment, I find myself comparing my appearance with people whose bodies are better looking than mine.
9. Right now, I’m comparing my body to men who have a better body than me.

¹ Indicates the original version of the scale was altered for use in Experiment 1.

Appendix D

Upward Intelligence Comparison Scale

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. Right now, I am comparing myself to men who are more intelligent than me.
2. At this moment, I am comparing my own intelligence to highly educated men, such as scientist, doctors or lawyers.
3. At this moment, I find myself thinking about whether my own intelligence compares well with highly intelligent people, for example, members of Mensa.
4. Right now, I wonder if I am as intelligent as other people.
5. At this moment, I am comparing myself to people I think are smarter than me.
6. At this moment, I wonder how I “match up” when I see a person who seems very smart.
7. At this moment, I wonder how I compare to very intelligent men.
8. At this moment, I find myself comparing my intelligence with men who are smarter than me.
9. Right now, I’m comparing my intelligence to men who have a higher IQ than me.

Appendix E

Objectified Body Consciousness Scale, Body Shame Subscale (McKinley & Hyde, 1996)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. When I can't control my weight, I feel like something must be wrong with me.
2. I feel ashamed of myself when I haven't made the effort to look my best.
3. I feel like I must be a bad person when I don't look as good as I could.
4. I would be ashamed for people to know what I really weigh.
5. I worry that something is wrong with me when I am not exercising as much as I should.
6. When I am not exercising enough, I question whether I am a good person.
7. Even when I can't control my weight, I think I'm an okay person (R)
8. When I'm not the size I think I should be, I feel ashamed.
9. I am uncomfortable with the size of my thighs.
10. I am ashamed by the size and shape of my buttocks.
11. I do not like the way my stomach looks.
12. I am satisfied with my upper body (i.e., breasts or chest). (R)
13. Overall, I am comfortable with how my body looks. (R)

Appendix F

Romantic Victimization by Women Scale (35 Item Version)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. I feel that women frequently flirt with me just to amuse themselves, without serious intentions.
2. I often feel that I get a raw deal from women I want to date.
3. The women I am interested in are seldom interested in me.
4. It seems that whenever I am interested in a woman she just wants to be friends.
5. I often feel that my female friends think of me only as a “back up,” in case the man of their dreams doesn’t come through.
6. It’s not fair that I have to give more effort to dating than women do.
7. It’s not fair that I am expected to make the first move to get dates.
8. I have felt humiliated when I’ve asked women out and been turned down.
9. I have felt like less of a man when I’ve asked women out and been turned down.
10. Women take advantage of the fact that I have to pay for a date.
11. Women have criticized me too harshly when I’ve misread signs of sexual interest.
12. I feel that women have deliberately sent me confusing signals about their sexual interest.
13. Women have manipulated me to get what they want.
14. Women seem to enjoy leading me on and then turning me down.
15. Women have most of the power in dating and relationships.
16. Women unrealistically expect men they date to be physically perfect.
17. Women don’t give guys whose looks aren’t perfect much of a chance.
18. Most women seem to prefer dating jerks and too often overlook nice guys like me.
19. It’s not fair that I have to put more effort into relationships than women do.
20. Men get blamed for treating women badly, but women have treated me just as badly.
21. I feel that in most relationships, women have failed to appreciate all that I’ve done for them.
22. The women I want to date put less work into the relationship than I do.
23. Women have often expected me to be able to read very unclear signals.
24. Women have often expected me to be able to read their minds.
25. When I have a fight with a woman, I always end up coming off as the bad guy.
26. Women turn on the tears whenever they like just to make me feel bad.
27. I feel like I’m always trying to convince women to go out with me.

28. For sex to be fulfilling for women, men have to do all the work.
29. For sex to be fulfilling for men, women just have to lie there.
30. Women have flirted with me just to get me to do something they wanted.
31. Women are always saying that I'd be a great boyfriend, but they don't want me to be *their* boyfriend.
32. Women lie when they say they like sensitive guys.
33. Women lie about how important penis size is.
34. Women lie after sex about how fulfilled they are.
35. Women don't tell the truth about the qualities they are looking for in a man.

Appendix G

Hostile Sexism Subscale of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Below are a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale below.

1. Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under the guise of asking for "equality."
2. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.
3. Women are too easily offended.
4. Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men. (R)
5. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.
6. Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.
7. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.
8. Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash.
9. When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against.
10. There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances. (R)
11. Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands of men. (R)

Appendix H

Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire (Downey & Feldman, 1996)

A	Very Unconcerned					Very Concerned
B	Very Unlikely					Very Likely
	1	2	3	4	5	6

Each of the items below describes things college students sometimes ask of other people. Please imagine that you are in each situation. You will be asked to answer the following questions:

A) How concerned or anxious would you be about how the other person would respond?

B) How likely is it that the other person would positively respond? (e.g., desire to help you)

1. You ask someone in class if you can borrow his/her notes.
2. You approach a close friend to talk after doing or saying something that seriously upset him/her.
3. You ask your boyfriend/girlfriend to move in with you.
4. You call your boyfriend/girlfriend after a bitter argument and tell him/her you want to see him/her.
5. You ask someone you don't know well out on a date.
6. You ask a friend to do you a big favor.
7. You ask your boyfriend/girlfriend if he/she really loves you.
8. You go to a party and notice someone on the other side of the room and then you ask them to dance.
9. Your boyfriend/girlfriend has plans to go out with friends tonight, but you really want to spend the evening with him/her, and you tell him/her so.
10. You ask someone in one of your classes to coffee.
11. You ask your friend to go on a vacation with you over Spring Break.
12. You ask a friend if you can borrow something of his/hers.
13. You ask your boyfriend/girlfriend to come home to meet your parents.

Appendix I

Attraction to Sexual Aggression Scale (Malamuth, 1989)²

The following are a series of questions regarding your beliefs and attitudes about sexuality. We would like to remind you that your data are completely anonymous. Please read each question and directions for answering carefully as some may APPEAR very similar, but are in fact different.

There is no right answer for any of the following statements. The best answer is what you feel is most reflective of your true opinions and attitudes.

Whether or not you have ever thought of it, do you find the idea of:

Very Unattractive				Very Attractive
1	2	3	4	5

1. Oral Sex
2. Heterosexual (Vaginal) Intercourse
3. Bondage (e.g., tying up self or sex partner)
4. Rape
5. Forcing a sexual partner to do something they do not want to do.

Very Unarousing				Very Arousing
1	2	3	4	5

How sexually arousing do you think you would find the following sexual activity if you engaged in it (even if you have never engaged in it)?

1. Oral Sex
2. Heterosexual (Vaginal) Intercourse
3. Bondage (e.g., tying up self or sex partner)
4. Rape
5. Forcing a sexual partner to do something they do not want to do.

Very Unlikely				Very Likely
1	2	3	4	5

² Indicates that scale was modified from its original format. The original included sexual behaviors irrelevant to hypotheses, that risked participant reactance (e.g., pedophilia)

If you could be assured that no one would know and that you could in no way be punished for engaging in the following act, how likely, if at all, would you be to commit such act?

1. Oral Sex
2. Heterosexual (Vaginal) Intercourse
3. Bondage (e.g., tying up self or sex partner)
4. Rape
5. Forcing a sexual partner to do something they do not want to do.

Appendix J

Rape Behavioral Analogue (RBA; Rudman & Mescher, 2012)

For the next part of the study we would like you to help use select pictures for a new study we are starting with women. In this study we will show women some pictures many times to test their memory and perceptions. The women in the study will be college students just like you.

On the next few screens, we will show you two pictures and we would like you to pick the one picture we should use in the women's study. Pick the one you think should be shown to a woman many times. Be sure to view BOTH images (some are large, and you may need to scroll down) before you choose.

Which one do you choose?

Sample stimuli choices:

A)




B)



Appendix K

Rejection Manipulation

Partner Image	Personality Profile
	<p><u>Demographics</u></p> <p>Gender: Female Age: 19 Major: Psychology</p> <p><u>Personality Profile</u> Your partner's profile is unavailable.</p> <p><u>Partner Response</u> Your partner has provided the following information regarding their decision:</p> <p>"I heard about this study from my roommate. She said it was actually about dating, after the test, she had to hang out with the guy and answer a bunch of questions about attraction.</p> <p>Looking at this photo, I'm really not attracted to this guy. He's not my type at all and I don't want to have to go out with him. I'd rather do the other study for the points."</p>
Partner Status	Rejected

Appendix L

Mood Assessment

Not at All				Very Much
1	2	3	4	5

You will be asked several times throughout your study to indicate your mood. Your partner will not be able to view your answers to this survey. For each mood questionnaire, consider how you are feeling AT THAT VERY MOMENT as you answer.

Thinking about how you feel RIGHT NOW, to what extent are you feeling...?

1. Hurt
2. Insulted
3. Offended
4. Proud
5. Ashamed
6. Uncertain
7. Cautious
8. Nervous
9. Calm
10. Confident
11. Angry
12. Hostile
13. Disgusted
14. Amused
15. Happy
16. Sad

Appendix M

Recruitment Script for “Teamwork Factors”

We are interested in factors that promote or hinder the development of teamwork; people may use many different qualities to evaluate others' abilities and potential as teammates. You will fill out a personality profile and exchange it with another person, over the computer. Based on random assignment, one member of your potential partnership will evaluate the others' materials and decide whether you will continue and perform a team task. Teams that perform well together will be eligible for a cash prize (\$500.00).

If you are not chosen, in order to fulfill your time requirement, the computer will direct you to a second experiment, one of those currently running in the Social Cognition Lab. You will not be eligible for the cash prize. Regardless of whether you complete the partnered or solo study, you will receive 2 RPUs for your participation. The computer program will provide you with further information and a consent form if necessary. Both studies require less than 1 hour to complete.

Appendix N

Personality Profile

Welcome to the Social Cognition Teamwork Factors Contest!

This survey will provide information about yourself. Its purpose is to help us assess the psychological factors important for team development.

On the next page, our randomizer will tell you which member of your partnership it has chosen to make the decision about whether you'll be competing in our team tasks today. Once chosen, you will fill out a personality profile and survey material. When you are done, you will either view your partner's full materials and decide whether you would like to be partners or you will receive a partial profile of your potential partner, while they will view your complete profile and decide whether you will continue together.

If you proceed to the team task, you will be able to view your partner's full profile before it begins. The task will involve knowledge of your partner, it is in your best interest as a team to answer all questions fully and honestly.

1. Type your age, in years.
2. What is your gender?
3. What is your college major?
4. What is your favorite color?
5. If you could have a super power, what would it be?
6. What do you consider to be your BEST quality/character trait?
7. What do you consider to be your WORST quality/character trait?
8. What is your favorite flavor of ice cream?
9. If you had to choose, what reality TV show would you be on?
10. If you could have any career, what would you choose to do?
11. What would you rather be doing, RIGHT NOW?
12. If you could travel anywhere, where would you go?

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