



“Being sexy” and the labor market: Self-objectification in job search related social networks



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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 24 August 2016

Received in revised form

28 November 2016

Accepted 1 December 2016

Available online 7 December 2016

Keywords:

Job-search related social networks

LinkedIn

Self-objectification

Self-presentation

Job-Related Self-Efficacy

Media psychology

ABSTRACT

When searching for jobs, many people resort to presenting themselves in ways construed to appeal the most to potential employers. Subsequently, they are prone to self-objectification (SO), a phenomenon studied so far in social psychology, but insufficiently in media psychology, and even less so in the context of job search through social networks. Whereas prior research shows mostly negative, i.e., dehumanizing SO effects, positive effects were also identified, e.g., reduced uncertainty and increased self-efficacy perceptions. The present correlational study proposes and validates a scale for job-search related SO, and applies this to verify a conceptual model of SO effects and predictors, based on a survey involving $N = 258$ social network users and structural equations modeling. A positive SO effect on job related self-efficacy and well-being was found. The study adds to social networks research, as well as to social psychological SO research, emphasizing positive SO effects. Implications for further research, practice and development are discussed.

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1. Introduction

In the search for jobs, people often try to look attractive to a potential employer, assuming that higher attractiveness will increase their chances to obtain the desired job (Baert & Decuyper, 2014). In doing so, they often employ social networking tools, such as LinkedIn, in order to get in contact with as many potential employers as possible. This, in turn, leads to an individualized process of personal adjustment and presentation with that particular social network (Cingano & Rosolia, 2012). To paraphrase a frequent casual expression, this behavior is a way of trying to “be sexy” on the labor market.

The analogy between job search and the search for sex is neither inappropriate nor uncommon (Sharone, 2014). Social psychology and social media research (Noll & Frederickson, 1998; de Vries & Peter, 2013) have described behaviors aimed at increasing personal attractiveness by emphasizing superficial individual attributes rather than deeper qualities. This phenomenon was termed

self-objectification (SO) and it has been mostly examined so far in the context of relationships with a certain sexual background, but only seldom as to date in the context of professional relationships and job search. Therefore, the present study examines SO in the context of job search related social networks. To assess job search related self-objectification, the JS-SOQ questionnaire was developed and the corresponding scales were validated.

2. Objectification and self-objectification

Objectification has been initially defined from a feminist perspective as a view of, or an attitude towards, women as sex objects. This could be either men's view of women (objectification), or women's view of themselves (self-objectification – SO) (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). Contrasting observable (e.g., weight, body mass index, sex appeal) and non-observable (e.g., health, strength, fitness) body characteristics, Noll and Frederickson (1998) defined SO as “valuing one's own body more from a third-person perspective, focusing on observable body attributes (e.g., ‘How do I look?’), rather than from a first-person perspective, focusing on privileged, or non-observable attributes (e.g., ‘What am I capable of?’ ‘How do I feel?’)” (p. 624). Objectifying a person reduces her/him to a specific (sexual) role, thus eluding human attributes such

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as subjectivity (Landau, Sullivan, Keefer, Rothschild, & Osman, 2012) or competence (Grey, Horgan, Long, Herzog, & Lindemulder, 2016). Thus, objectification appears dehumanizing, diminishing perceptions of warmth and morality (Noll & Frederickson, 1998). Nevertheless, objectification of women appears to be connected with cultural values and beauty standards (Landau et al., 2012). Consequently, objectified women may also adopt a self-objectifying attitude, thus decreasing self-esteem and well-being, which in the long run may result in behavioral disorders and depression (Jones & Griffiths, 2015; Noll & Frederickson, 1998). Whereas the negative consequences of SO are beyond dispute, a thorough overview of the phenomenon must also include positive aspects. As Landau et al.'s (2012) subjectivity uncertainty theory suggests, objectification and SO may receptively or actively reduce uncertainty, thus increasing individual perceptions of self-efficacy and the individual well-being (Goldenberg, Cooper, Heflick, Routledge, & Arndt, 2011).

More recent research gradually moved beyond sexual objectification, extending the scope of the concept, e.g., to eating behavior and body image (e.g., Holland & Tiggemann, 2016), sport participation (Slater & Tiggemann, 2011; Varnes et al., 2015), or mass-media consumption (Karsay & Matthes, 2016). While a large part of objectification research remains focused on women (e.g., Grey et al., 2016; Karsay & Matthes, 2016; Varnes et al., 2015), newer research introduces studies of men (e.g., Fox & Rooney, 2015; Lanzieri & Hildebrandt, 2016), or equally examines both genders (e.g., Jones & Griffiths, 2015; Slater & Tiggemann, 2011).

A first step beyond the boundaries of sexual objectification was taken by understanding the objectification of social targets as a matter of self-worth and power over others (Gruenfeld, Inesi, Magee, & Galinsky, 2008), as uncertainty compensation in social life (Landau et al., 2012), or more generally as a strategy to interpret and structure the social environment (Goldenberg et al., 2011). Individuals and, specifically, their roles, can be objectified not only in potentially sexual relationships, but also in task-related workplace interactions where persons can be narrowly viewed in terms of their usefulness. For instance, Landau et al. (2012) investigated workplace scenarios including (imaginary) employees deviating from company policy, and managers (the study participants) who feel threatened in their control over the workplace, downplay the employees to simple role schemas, and finally punish or fire them. Even more pragmatically related to daily realities, Harris (2016) conducted field studies in palliative and hospice care settings, where caregivers under environmental and structural stress objectified their patients, consequently showing insensitivity to human suffering. Landau et al. (2012) also points at objectification in intercultural settings, where unfamiliar cultures are reduced to superficial attributes like food ingredients or décor styles.

To remain in the workplace-related context, few studies so far address objectification and SO within job search behavior. Sharone (2014) describes job search between self-subjectification (“chemistry games”) and self-objectification (“specs games”). In both, job search is seen as similar to (sexual) partner search and dating, where the jobseeker is trying to look attractive (or “sexy”, to use a common expression) to the potential employer. Jobseekers perform face-work, trying to present a desirable self to others (Goffman, 1959; also; Baert & Decuyper, 2014). Self-subjectification designates the search for an interpersonal fit between jobseeker and company based on deeper qualities on both sides, which may also include an emotional relationship. In self-objectification, the fit is reduced to specific keywords (“specs”) corresponding to established norms and values of the organizational culture, and superficially describing both sides involved. Although competence is clearly more relevant at the workplace, individuals may also expect to be evaluated, and evaluate themselves, on the basis of

appearance, therefore engaging in efforts to attract attention to their own appearance (Goldenberg et al., 2011; Landau et al., 2012).

3. Self-objectification and social media

Objectification and SO have often been examined and discussed in the context of traditional mass media such, as printed media, commercial ads, or music videos (e.g., Grey et al., 2016; Harrison & Fredrickson, 2003; Karsay & Matthes, 2016; Lanzieri & Hildebrandt, 2016). Interactive media and the Web 2.0 offer powerful possibilities of self-presentation, from simple selfies to extensive personal profiles, all prone to stereotyping and SO (Döring, Reif, & Poeschl, 2016). Focusing on social media, de Vries and Peter (2013) conducted laboratory experiments showing that women portraying themselves in social network profiles inclined to SO. The effect was stronger when the participants perceived online audience, and when they were primed with sexually objectifying media contents. Similar effects were found in Facebook (Fardouly & Vartanian, 2016), Instagram (Tiggemann & Zaccardo, 2016), or Tinder (Ranzini, Lutz, & Gouderjaan, 2016). We are not aware of any SO studies on job search in professional social networks (e.g., LinkedIn, XING etc.).

de Vries and Peter (2013) maintain that technology use, in particular the use of social media, increases users' tendency to SO. They explain the phenomenon, on the one hand, by considering the receptive use of social media that has an impact on users' social perceptions, as explained above. On the other hand, the active and generative use of social media involves the creation of personal, self-related content that can be received by other users and have a potentially positive influence on others' perception of the self-presenting person. In other words, it is the technology affordances that have an influence on the individuals' SO, mainly by giving them a powerful instrument of self-presentation. In particular, the job search represents a context that stimulates an active self-presentation. As such, the stronger the desire and the more immediate the perspective of a job change, the more pervasive the self-presentation of social media users may be (Cingano & Rosolia, 2012). As technology acceptance theories maintain, the performance expectation related to a social media system will positively influence its use for self-presentation (Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012; Wirtz & Göttel, 2016).

4. Research model

Summarizing the theoretical considerations presented above, a conceptual model was hypothesized and tested, as depicted in Fig. 1, where the latent variables are represented by ellipses and the observed variables by rectangles. The arrow lines represent the hypothesized directions of influence. SO is expected to (positively or negatively) influence Job-Related Self-Efficacy (JRSE), which in turn will increase individual Well-Being (WB). In this context, self-efficacy is regarded as a means of self-actualization (Maslow, 1943), and thus it is considered to be tightly connected with WB. Further, SO will be influenced by the users' Performance Expectancy (PE) towards the professional social network. PE will be predicted by the

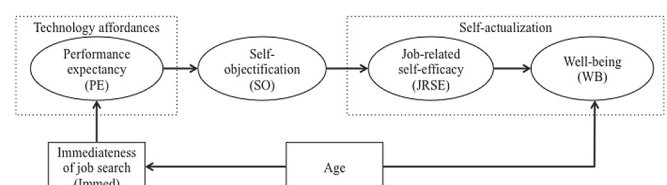


Fig. 1. The proposed research model.

Immediateness of Job Search (Immed). Age is likely to have a negative impact on Immed, and on WB. So far, this conceptual model appears credible, but there is insufficient empirical evidence to support it. Therefore, the following study aims to provide this evidence.

5. Methodology

5.1. Sample

To test the proposed research model, a correlative research design with one-shot cross-sectional measures was applied. The participant sample included $N = 273$ social media users (83 female, 190 male) from various countries of the world, aged from 19 to 61 ($M = 30$, $SD = 11$). From the entire sample, 139 survey participants (50.9%) were active users of professional social networks (LinkedIn, XING, and similar); the other 134 (49.1%) knew professional social networks, but mainly used leisure-oriented social media (e.g., Facebook) and did not have any own professional social network account. Further, 176 participants currently had a full-time job, the other 97 were undergraduate or graduate students.

5.2. Variables and measures

Six model variables were measured: Immediateness of Job Search (Immed), Performance Expectancy (PE) towards the social network, Job Search Related Self-Objectification (SO), Job-Related Self-Efficacy (JRSE), and Well-Being (WB). (For this number of variables and for structural equations modeling a minimum sample size of approx. 150 is sufficient, as demonstrated by Wolf, Harrington, Clark, & Miller, 2013.) Additionally, the demographic variables Sex, Age, and Employment Status were recorded.

Immediateness of Job Search (Immed) was a one-dimensional numeric scale, considered to be an interval scale, that described when the participant expects to next change his or her job (never, next ten years, next three years, next year, next six months, next week, or next month). *Performance Expectancy (PE)* was defined towards professional social media and it was measured employing a scale validated by Venkatesh et al. (2012).

In SO research, Noll and Frederickson's (1998) Self-Objectification Questionnaire (SOQ) was prominently used, in which six appearance-related attributes (e.g., physical attractiveness) and six competence-related attributes (e.g., muscular strength) are ranked, then summed up for appearance and competence attributes separately. The SO score was the difference of the two sums, and higher scores reflected an emphasis on appearance, which was interpreted as self-objectification. Landau et al. (2012) regarded the SOQ as conceptually suboptimal because all named attributes were ultimately physical. Alternatively, Landau et al. asked their participants to rate only five statements expressing role objectification in workplace, e.g., "Employees should keep their personal lives out of the workplace" (p. 1242) and used the average value as a composite measure of role objectification. This measure can be criticized, as well, for reducing SO to one dimension, while it is credible that appearance and competence may be both emphasized at the same time. Moreover, objectification can be done in many ways, e.g., emphasizing individual attributes, or strategically communicating with key persons or groups.

Keeping in mind these considerations, a scale was developed for this study to measure *Job Search Related Self-Objectification (SO)*, derived from ten guidelines found in ubiquitous job search guidebooks. Five statements addressed attributes we considered to be appearance-related (e.g. "describing your professional competence in fashionable terms"), further five competence-related (e.g.

"showing impactful results of your work"). The participants were asked to rate on a seven-point Likert scale from "absolutely unimportant" to "absolutely important". The resulting values were not aggregated as a mean value to a single dimension, but were first subjected to the exploratory and confirmatory analysis reported below.

The scale *Job-Related Self-Efficacy (JRSE)* was adapted after the New General Self-Efficacy Scale (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). For the variable *Well-Being (WB)*, Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin's (1985) scale was used. The employed questionnaire is provided in Appendix 1.

5.3. Data collection procedure

The questionnaire was published online. Subsequently, we sent invitations to the members of our institutions following a snowball system. Data collected within six months were processed using IBM SPSS Statistics and AMOS version 23.

5.4. Exploratory factor analysis

The model was subject to a principal component analysis with varimax rotation was performed on scales PE, SO, JRSE, and WB (Table 1 in Appendix 2). The determinant was 0.00000095, which is above 0, but not above 0.00005. The sampling adequacy was 'meritorious' in terms of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic, with $KMO = 0.862$ and Bartlett's test being significant. Five factors were extracted based on eigenvalues, accounting for 61.56% of the total variance. However, parallel analysis (Horn, 1965) indicated a number of 4 factors to be extracted (Table 2 in Appendix 2). The screeplot (Fig. 3 in Appendix 2) was consistent with the parallel analysis criterion, indicating 4 candidate factors for extraction, with the 5th marking the 'elbow'/'knee' and just above the 1 threshold value. Twenty-three per cent of the residuals had absolute values greater than 0.5 and no commonalities under 0.3 were recorded. However, two items (SO-C1 and SO-C4) had crossloadings on both SO extracted factors (SO_F1 and SO_F2) with less than 0.2 difference in their respective crossloadings (Table 4 in Appendix 2).

Because both the parallel analysis and the screeplot indicated a 4-factor solution, a new principal component analysis with Varimax rotation was conducted yielding a 4-factors forced solution that accounted for 57.7% of the total variance. However, the forced 4-factor solution—i.e., only one SO factor—did not reach enough convergent validity for SO. The same analysis for extracting factors was repeated using Maximum Likelihood and Promax rotation. The Maximum Likelihood method was selected because it is the same method that IBM SPSS AMOS uses for confirmatory factor analysis. Promax rotation was selected because it allows for correlations among the extracted factors, but it does so stricter than Direct Oblimin. Both Maximum Likelihood with Promax analyses showed that SO cannot be construed as a single factor with enough convergent validity (Table 5 in Appendix 2).

The (previous, still valid) exploratory factor analysis using Maximum Likelihood with Promax revealed that item SO-A4 loaded minimal amongst all items of SO1 and also cross loaded with JRSE. Because SO had the most severe divergent validity problems with JRSE, an exploratory analysis using ML with Promax was conducted only on these two scales (where JRSE item 7 was removed). A 2-factor structure for SO was extracted in which SO-C1 and SO-C4 still maintained crossloadings on each other's factor (Table 6 in Appendix 2).

The above exploratory analyses indicated a solution with SO split into two factors (SO_F1 comprised of SO-A1, SO-A5, SO-C4 and SO-C5; and SO_F2 comprised of SO-A2, SO-A3, SO-A4, SO-C1, SO-C2, and SO-C3) with item JRES7 removed due to its poor

contribution to JRSE. The model was fed into IBM SPSS AMOS 23, with SO consisting of two second order factors (SO_F1 and SO_F2). Item A4 had to be removed due to its low contribution to SO_F2.

5.5. Confirmatory factor analysis

The final measurement model was subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis in IBM SPSS AMOS 24, and comprised four main factors: PE, WB, JRSE (without item JRSE7), and SO. Further, SO was comprised of two second order factors, SO_F1 with loadings from SO-A1, SO-A5, SO-C4, SO-C5, and SO_F2 with loadings from SO-A2, SO-A3, SO-C1, SO-C2, SO-C3 (Figs. 4 and 5 in Appendix 2). Thus, the final version of the job-search related SO scales entailed the following items.

How important do you think the following job-related attributes are? Answer this question from a general point of view, no matter if you are looking for a new job now, or not.

SO-IND1: Being dressed in a way that looks serious and trustworthy

SO-IND2: Showing that you are a self-confident person

SO-IND3: Having your competence recognized by experts

SO-IND4: Providing actual job-relevant personal information whenever needed

SO-SOC1: Being known by as many persons from your work-related community as possible

SO-SOC2: Letting everybody hear from you as often as possible

SO-SOC3: Interacting with experts as often as possible

SO-SOC4: Showing impactful results of your work as often as possible

SO-SOC5: Participate in job-related expert groups

Considering now the meaning of the items, SO_F1 appears to be the individual component (trustworthy and self-confident individual appearance, individual competence recognition, personal information available for others), named in the following SO-IND, and SO_F2 the social component of SO (being part of large social networks and expert groups, communicating with others, interacting with experts, impacting the community), named in the following SO-SOC.

The fit indices for the base measurement model were good: $\chi^2/df = 1.58$, $p < 0.001$, $RMR = 0.07$, $CFI = 0.95$, $RMSEA = 0.046$, $SRMR = 0.051$. Discriminant and convergent validity indices are provided in Tables 10 and 11, Appendix 2.

6. Findings

Generic results. The participants reported the Immediateness of Job Search as $M = 3.19$, $SD = 1.13$, indicating an expected job change within the next 1–3 years, on average. All measured scales displayed high mean values, e.g. both SO factors (SO-IND: $M = 5.80$, $SD = 0.87$ and SO-SOC: $M = 5.61$, $SD = 0.82$). The complete descriptive statistics of the model variables are displayed in Table 1. Participants' Sex had no significant effect on the measured

Table 1
Descriptive statistics of the model variables.

	Min.	Max.	M	SD
Immediateness of Job Search (Immed)	1.00	6.00	3.19	1.13
Performance Expectancy (PE)	1.00	7.00	4.47	1.25
Job Search Related Self-Objectification (SO-IND)	1.00	7.00	5.80	0.87
Job Search Related Self-Objectification (SO-SOC)	1.00	7.00	5.61	0.82
Job Related Self-Efficacy (JRSE)	1.00	7.00	5.78	0.75
Well-Being (WB)	1.20	6.60	4.89	1.07

variables. Employment Status only had a weak impact on PE, such that unemployed participants, i.e., university students expected more from the social network ($M = 4.67$, $SD = 1.16$) than employed participants ($M = 4.36$, $SD = 1.29$; $F = 3.987$, $df = 271$, $p < 0.05$).

Research model verification. The resulted structural model also presented good fit indices (identical) and $SRMR = 0.053$, and the model with the added inclusion of Immediateness and Age (Fig. 1), also had good fit indices: $\chi^2/df = 1.58$, $p < 0.001$, $RMR = 0.215$, $CFI = 0.95$, $RMSEA = 0.046$, $SRMR = 0.054$. The final model accounted for 24% of the variance in JRSE, 11% of the variance in SO, and 9% of the total variance in PE and WB.

The names of the latent variables, represented as ellipses in Fig. 2, include a “L” suffix (e.g., PE_L, for *performance expectancy*) because of the naming convention in IBM SPSS AMOS. Also, the two second order latent factors that make up SO were denoted OBJ_F1, and OBJ_F2 in the AMOS output diagram).

7. Summary of findings and discussion

This study revisited the SO concept and extended it to a job search context while subjecting it to rigorous discriminant and convergent validity analyses. In previous research (Noll & Frederickson, 1998; also; Goldenberg et al., 2011; Landau et al., 2012), a one-dimensional construct indicated an individual tendency to evaluate and present the self while focusing either on appearance or on inner values. Consequently the individual is either objectifying or not, which appears oversimplifying even when considering it from a purely conceptual perspective. The extended construct proposed in this study assumes that individuals always objectify to a certain degree while presenting themselves to others. In the sense of the original definition (Noll & Frederickson, 1998), the extended SO construct describes job-relevant visible attributes, as seen from a third-person, rather than from a first-person perspective. Again, this third-person perspective may prove to be a key factor in the individual's justification for self-objectification. However, the validated SO construct entails two dimensions, describing an individual and a social component. The former emphasizes individual appearance (competence, trustworthiness, self-confidence), the latter the social context of advantage for the individual presentation (large social networks, expert groups in which the individual acts, and on which he or she has an impact). As a further difference to previous research focusing on women (to cite only a few: de Vries & Peter, 2013; Harrison & Fredrickson, 2003; Noll & Frederickson, 1998; Slater & Tiggemann, 2011), the job search related SO construct validated

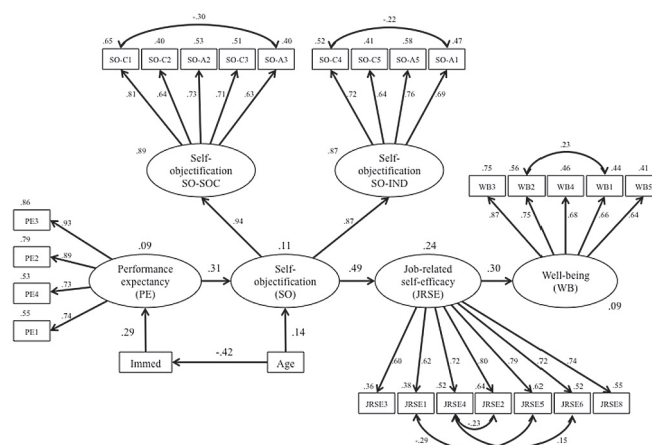


Fig. 2. Structural model with path coefficients and cleared variance.

in this study results in no significant differences between sexes.

The proposed research model fit our data very well and, thus, may be regarded as a viable construct. Accordingly, persons searching for jobs, or expecting to be doing so in the near future appeared to develop performance expectancies towards job search related social media (Cingano & Rosolia, 2012; de Vries & Peter, 2013). This was particularly true for university students expecting employment after they graduate, or simply for younger people (Baert & Decuyper, 2014). In turn, the technology affordances seemed to trigger and support a particular self-presentation style manifested in the two SO components. The individual and the social component were equally represented, in line with the two basic functions of social media: describe individual qualities and initiate communication with potential employers or colleagues (Cingano & Rosolia, 2012). A self-objectifying presentation in social networks positively impacted the individual Job-Related Self-Efficacy and well-being in general. Unlike many previous studies (e.g., Noll & Frederickson, 1998), but consistent with Goldenberg et al. (2011), this study supports the view of SO as a positive behavior in technology-based environments. This positive effect can be interpreted as successful self-actualization (Maslow, 1943) by actively creating credible self-presentation material in the social network. Finally, as expected, users' age negatively impacted their immediateness of job search and their well-being.

The result validity of this study is limited by several methodological factors. The examined sample consisted of highly educated participants; the measures were self-reported data only; cultural factors were disregarded. Correspondingly, future research will need to use a larger diversity of participants, and to include more objective data, e.g., a content analysis of data generated by social media users (cf. Döring, Reif, & Poeschl, 2016).

A further avenue of interest may concern the impact that SO has within organizations, in the context of promotions and/or performance evaluations. Moreover, it could be interesting to see if more self-objectifying individuals are more prone to more frequent job changes, given their increased "perceived efficacy" or "sexiness" on the labor market.

8. Conclusions

The presented study adds to the social-psychological research on SO by extending the scope of SO from the feminist and sexual area to the job search arena. As Landau et al. (2012, p. 1241) commented, "the theory is broad enough to encompass other forms of objectification." The confirmed SO conceptual model reinforces the assumption that, to a moderate extent, SO may be a means of self-actualization (Maslow, 1943). Thus, the study confirms Goldenberg et al.'s (2011) conclusion that SO is not always harmful or detrimental to the self-objectifying person. As Landau et al. (2012, p. 1245) concluded, "we might expect that people who objectify a target would feel less uncertain about how to engage that target's subjectivity, and that this should result in less anxiety about potential interactions, a heightened sense of competence, and potentially a greater willingness to explore future interactions with the objectified target." In other words, "being sexy" on the labor market may be regarded as signaling (Spence, 1973) that may facilitate a first contact between a jobseeker and a potential employer. Job market signaling, however, should be followed by a more in-depth assessment, and more insight in each other's subjectivity, otherwise the consequences of SO might turn to those described by Noll and Frederickson (1998).

Advanced technologies may efficiently assist job seekers, recruiters and employers. Job ads and job applications are conceptual artifacts (Nistor, 2012) developed in a specific practice context, aimed to attract and integrate newcomers (Nistor, Dascălu, &

Trăușan-Matu, 2016) and to optimally match jobs and employees. Ideally, the job seeker who best matches the job will be employed; for the others, there will be a certain mismatch between their applications and the job ad. Social media is a promising area in this regard, due to their virtually unlimited volumes of person-specific information and the relative ease in automating access and data extraction. Artificial intelligence and big data technologies can be applied to automatically analyze the matches (Dessus et al., 2011) and, in upcoming research, measure the SO level of applications. Moreover, academic and vocational training may include such tools, e.g., in game-based learning environments (Kübler, Müller, & Normann, 2008), to train for job search while enhancing trainees' SO awareness and improving the balance between SO and self-subjectification (Sharone, 2014).

From a media psychology perspective, this study confirms the role of digital media, in particular the use of social network systems as a strong predictor of self-objectification (de Vries & Peter, 2013). As an academic consequence, future studies are called to delve deeper into the concept of SO, to explore its predictors and consequences, to provide more reliable instruments and thus to overcome the methodological limitations named above. In particular, future studies should address a possibly non-linear effect of SO on self-efficacy, as well as a possible mediator of this relationship, e.g., individual meaning making (Goldenberg et al., 2011). Human-computer interaction studies may be an informative complement of SO research, examining the human interface elements that may support SO, either in its positive, or in its negative instance.

Acknowledgements

The authors are thankful to Ciprian Ceobanu who significantly contributed to data collection; to Dana Lizac and Ambar Murillo Montes de Oca who diligently proofread the manuscript; and to the anonymous reviewer who provided specific and valuable suggestions for the manuscript revision from an economic and game theory perspective.

Appendix 1. The employed questionnaire

How important do you think the following job-related attributes are? Answer this question from a general point of view, no matter if you are looking for a new job or not, using a scale from 1 = absolutely unimportant to 7 = absolutely important.

- SO-A1: Being dressed in a way that looks serious and trustworthy
- SO-C1: Interacting with experts as often as possible
- SO-A2: Being known by as many persons from your work-related community as possible
- SO-C2: Showing impactful results of your work as often as possible
- SO-A3: Letting everybody hear from you as often as possible
- SO-C3: Participate in job-related expert groups
- SO-A4: Describing your professional competence in fashionable terms
- SO-C4: Having your competence recognized by experts
- SO-A5: Showing that you are a self-confident person
- SO-C5: Providing actual job-relevant personal information whenever needed

Rate the following statements on a scale from 1 = I strongly disagree to 7 = I strongly agree.

- JRSE1: I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for my job.

JRSE2: When facing difficult tasks at my job, I am certain that I will accomplish them.

JRSE3: At my job, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.

JRSE4: I believe I can succeed at most any job-related endeavor to which I set my mind.

JRSE5: At my job, I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.

- Never

Appendix 2. Exploratory factor analysis results

Table 1
Total variance explained after PCA extraction.

Component	Initial eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.197	26.657	26.657	7.197	26.657	26.657	4.387	16.249	16.249
2	3.289	12.180	38.837	3.289	12.180	38.837	3.425	12.684	28.933
3	2.972	11.008	49.845	2.972	11.008	49.845	3.170	11.740	40.673
4	2.122	7.860	57.705	2.122	7.860	57.705	3.120	11.555	52.228
5	1.040	3.853	61.558	1.040	3.853	61.558	2.519	9.330	61.558
6	0.905	3.352	64.910						
7	0.849	3.146	68.056						
8	0.785	2.908	70.965						
9	0.716	2.653	73.618						
10	0.665	2.461	76.079						
11	0.599	2.217	78.296						
12	0.566	2.095	80.391						
13	0.551	2.040	82.431						
14	0.528	1.955	84.386						
15	0.488	1.808	86.193						
16	0.447	1.656	87.849						
17	0.408	1.510	89.359						
18	0.389	1.442	90.801						
19	0.371	1.373	92.174						
20	0.354	1.311	93.485						
21	0.335	1.240	94.725						
22	0.307	1.138	95.863						
23	0.289	1.071	96.934						
24	0.272	1.006	97.940						
25	0.229	0.849	98.789						
26	0.196	0.726	99.514						
27	0.131	0.486	100.000						

JRSE6: I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks at my job.

JRSE7: Compared to other people, I can do most job-related tasks very well.

JRSE8: Even when things are tough at my job, I can perform quite well.

WB1: In most ways, my life is close to ideal.

WB2: The conditions of my life are excellent.

WB3: I am satisfied with my life.

WB4: So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

WB5: If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

PE1: LinkedIn is useful in my work-related life.

PE2: Using LinkedIn enables me to find a job more quickly.

PE3: Using LinkedIn increases my productivity in searching for a job.

PE4: If I use LinkedIn, I will increase my chances to get a well-paid job.

Immed: When would you expect to next change your job?

Table 2
Parallel analysis.

	Mean	SD	95 percentile
F_1	1.6343	0.051	1.7184
F_2	1.5418	0.0412	1.6097
F_3	1.4612	0.0412	1.5292
F_4	1.4013	0.035	1.4591
F_5	1.3464	0.0309	1.3973
F_6	1.2951	0.0244	1.3352
F_7	1.25	0.0225	1.2871
F_8	1.2052	0.0216	1.2408
F_9	1.1591	0.0211	1.194
F_10	1.1202	0.0209	1.1546
F_11	1.083	0.0192	1.1146
F_12	1.0451	0.0201	1.0782
F_13	1.0077	0.0175	1.0366
F_14	0.9709	0.0196	1.0032
F_15	0.9347	0.0193	0.9666
F_16	0.8983	0.019	0.9296
F_17	0.8628	0.0204	0.8964
F_18	0.8302	0.0189	0.8614
F_19	0.7994	0.0187	0.8303
F_20	0.7639	0.0201	0.7971
F_21	0.7368	0.0202	0.7703
F_22	0.7021	0.0198	0.7348
F_23	0.6673	0.0191	0.6987
F_24	0.6305	0.0201	0.6637
F_25	0.5934	0.0214	0.6287
F_26	0.5542	0.0231	0.5923
F_27	0.5051	0.0284	0.5519

- Within the next week
- Within the next month
- Within the next 6 months
- Within the next year
- Within the next 3 years
- Within the next 10 years

Table 3

Loadings of rotated components using PCA with Varimax and their respective communalities for a free number of factors solution.

	Component					Extraction (free no. of factors)
	JRSE	SO1	WB	PE	SO2	
JRSE8	0.794					0.656
JRSE6	0.770					0.660
JRSE5	0.767					0.643
JRSE2	0.754					0.661
JRSE4	0.738					0.594
JRSE1	0.666					0.467
JRSE3	0.611					0.425
JRSE7	0.521					0.397
SO-A3		0.724				0.598
SO-C3		0.723				0.638
SO-A4		0.695				0.518
SO-A2		0.672				0.560
SO-C2		0.651				0.536
SO-C4		0.532			0.487	0.550
WB3			0.841			0.735
WB2			0.801			0.667
WB4			0.766			0.601
WB1			0.746			0.626
WB5			0.729			0.546
PE3				0.908		0.846
PE2				0.892		0.817
PE4				0.809		0.669
PE1				0.808		0.718
SO-A1					0.761	0.640
SO-A5					0.746	0.691
SO-C5					0.668	0.552
SO-C1		0.514			0.544	0.610

Table 5

Loadings of rotated components using PCA with Varimax and their respective communalities for a forced 4-factors solution.

	Component				Extraction (forced 4-factor solution)
	SO	JRSE	WB	PE	
SO-C1	0.745				0.600
SO-C4	0.722				0.548
SO-C3	0.713				0.567
SO-A2	0.711				0.525
SO-A5	0.704				0.536
SO-C5	0.646				0.436
SO-A1	0.633				0.420
SO-C2	0.633				0.477
SO-A4	0.627				0.409
SO-A3	0.609				0.447
JRSE8		0.795			0.652
JRSE6		0.772			0.646
JRSE5		0.763			0.639
JRSE2		0.746			0.631
JRSE4		0.738			0.590
JRSE1		0.664			0.463
JRSE3		0.607			0.418
JRSE7	0.310	0.520			0.391
WB3			0.840		0.734
WB2			0.803		0.667
WB4			0.768		0.601
WB1			0.745		0.626
WB5			0.726		0.539
PE3				0.904	0.838
PE2				0.889	0.812
PE1				0.813	0.702
PE4				0.807	0.667

Table 4

Loadings of rotated components using PCA with Varimax and their respective communalities for a free number of factors solution.

	Component					Extraction (free no. of factors)
	JRSE	SO1	WB	PE	SO2	
JRSE8	0.794					0.656
JRSE6	0.770					0.660
JRSE5	0.767					0.643
JRSE2	0.754					0.661
JRSE4	0.738					0.594
JRSE1	0.666					0.467
JRSE3	0.611					0.425
JRSE7	0.521					0.397
SO-A3		0.724				0.598
SO-C3		0.723				0.638
SO-A4		0.695				0.518
SO-A2		0.672				0.560
SO-C2		0.651				0.536
SO-C4		0.532			0.487	0.550
WB3			0.841			0.735
WB2			0.801			0.667
WB4			0.766			0.601
WB1			0.746			0.626
WB5			0.729			0.546
PE3				0.908		0.846
PE2				0.892		0.817
PE4				0.809		0.669
PE1				0.808		0.718
SO-A1					0.761	0.640
SO-A5					0.746	0.691
SO-C5					0.668	0.552
SO-C1		0.514			0.544	0.610

Table 6

Pattern matrix resulted in exploratory analysis for JRSE and SO, using Maximum Likelihood and Promax rotation with Kaiser Normalization, searching for a free number of factors solution (rotation converged in 4 iterations).

	Factor		
	1	2	3
JRSE8	0.784		
JRSE6	0.760		
JRSE5	0.757		
JRSE4	0.733		
JRSE2	0.724		
JRSE1	0.613		
JRSE3	0.571		
SO-A3		0.753	
SO-A2		0.750	
SO-C3		0.697	
SO-C2		0.616	
SO-A4		0.546	
SO-C1		0.488	0.313
SO-A5			0.836
SO-A1			0.686
SO-C5			0.530
SO-C4		0.363	0.383

Table 7

Factors indicated from PCA and from Parallel Analysis (Only the first 5 factors are displayed, since the parallel analysis indicates the only first 4 should be retained).

Comp. ID	Principal component analysis									Factor ID	Parallel analysis		
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction sums of squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings				Mean	SD	95 percentile
	Total	% of Var.	Cum. %	Total	% of Var.	Cum. %	Total	% of Var.	Cum. %				
1	7.197	26.657	26.657	7.197	26.657	26.657	4.387	16.249	16.249	F_1	1.634	0.051	1.718
2	3.289	12.180	38.837	3.289	12.180	38.837	3.425	12.684	28.933	F_2	1.542	0.041	1.610
3	2.972	11.008	49.845	2.972	11.008	49.845	3.170	11.740	40.673	F_3	1.461	0.041	1.529
4	2.122	7.860	57.705	2.122	7.860	57.705	3.120	11.555	52.228	F_4	1.401	0.035	1.459
5	1.040	3.853	61.558	1.040	3.853	61.558	2.519	9.330	61.558	F_5	1.346	0.031	1.397

Table 8

Loadings of rotated components using PCA with Varimax and their respective communalities for a free number of factors solution.

	Loadings		Extracted communalities	
	Free number of factors	Forced 4-factor solution	Free number of factors	Forced 4-factor solution
Job related self-efficacy (JRSE)				
JRSE8	0.794	0.795	0.656	0.652
JRSE6	0.770	0.772	0.660	0.646
JRSE5	0.767	0.763	0.643	0.639
JRSE2	0.754	0.746	0.661	0.631
JRSE4	0.738	0.738	0.594	0.590
JRSE1	0.666	0.664	0.467	0.463
JRSE3	0.611	0.607	0.425	0.418
JRSE7	0.521	0.520	0.397	0.391
Self-Objectification (SO)				
Self-Objectification factor #1 (SO_F1)				
SO-A1	0.761	0.633	0.640	0.600
SO-A5	0.746	0.704	0.691	0.536
SO-C5	0.668	0.646	0.552	0.436
SO-C1	0.544	0.745	0.610	0.600
Self-Objectification factor #2 (SO_F2)				
SO-A3	0.724	0.609	0.598	0.447
SO-C3	0.723	0.713	0.638	0.567
SO-A4	0.695	0.627	0.518	0.409
SO-A2	0.672	0.711	0.560	0.525
SO-C2	0.651	0.633	0.536	0.477
SO-C4	0.532	0.722	0.550	0.548
Well-being (WB)				
WB3	0.841	0.840	0.735	0.734
WB2	0.801	0.803	0.667	0.667
WB4	0.766	0.768	0.601	0.601
WB1	0.746	0.745	0.626	0.626
WB5	0.729	0.726	0.546	0.539
Performance expectancy (PE)				
PE3	0.908	0.904	0.846	0.838
PE2	0.892	0.889	0.817	0.812
PE4	0.809	0.813	0.669	0.702
PE1	0.808	0.807	0.718	0.667

Notes: In the case of the forced 4-factors solution, all loadings and communalities correspond to variables of SO loading on a single factor. In the free number of factors model—i.e., the 2-factor structure of SO—items SO-C1 and SO-C4 showed crossloadings on each other's factors, under the threshold of 0.2 (0.514 and, respectively, 0.487). In the forced 4-factors solution, item JRSE7 showed a crossloading with SO, marginal with the threshold of 0.2 (0.310).

Table 9

Loadings of rotated components using PCA with Varimax and their respective commonalities for a free number of factors solution.

Measures	Component					Extraction (free no. of factors)
	JRSE	SO1	WB	PE	SO2	
JRSE8	0.794	0.147	0.054	−0.004	0.013	0.656
JRSE6	0.770	0.212	0.147	−0.007	0.006	0.660
JRSE5	0.767	0.126	0.052	−0.087	0.168	0.643
JRSE2	0.754	0.101	0.046	0.005	0.283	0.661
JRSE4	0.738	0.142	0.159	0.062	0.019	0.594
JRSE1	0.666	0.003	0.046	0.137	0.048	0.467
JRSE3	0.611	0.058	0.145	0.097	0.133	0.425
JRSE7	0.521	0.286	0.153	−0.057	0.128	0.397
SO-A3	0.075	0.724	0.009	0.252	0.072	0.598
SO-C3	0.242	0.723	−0.011	−0.021	0.236	0.638
SO-A4	0.103	0.695	0.060	0.054	0.137	0.518
SO-A2	0.088	0.672	0.039	0.103	0.299	0.560
SO-C2	0.252	0.651	−0.054	0.086	0.196	0.536
SO-C4	0.173	0.532	−0.003	−0.021	0.487	0.550
WB3	0.156	−0.006	0.841	0.058	0.004	0.735
WB2	0.110	0.013	0.801	0.083	0.078	0.667
WB4	0.055	0.030	0.766	−0.014	0.098	0.601
WB1	0.201	0.054	0.746	0.150	0.057	0.626
WB5	0.085	−0.004	0.729	−0.065	−0.053	0.546
PE3	0.022	0.069	0.024	0.908	0.129	0.846
PE2	0.012	0.085	0.034	0.892	0.114	0.817
PE4	0.114	0.028	0.006	0.809	0.032	0.669
PE1	−0.024	0.222	0.125	0.808	−0.016	0.718
SO-A1	0.130	0.195	0.047	0.067	0.761	0.640
SO-A5	0.188	0.297	0.076	0.069	0.746	0.691
SO-C5	0.101	0.288	0.026	0.112	0.668	0.552
SO-C1	0.182	0.514	0.099	0.087	0.544	0.610
Eigenvalues	7.197	3.289	2.972	2.122	1.040	
Factors from parallel analysis	1.634	1.542	1.461	1.401	1.346	
Percentage of total variance	26.657	12.180	11.008	7.860	3.853	
Number of test measures	8	6	5	4	4	

Notes: In the free number of factors model—i.e., the 2-factor structure of SO—items SO-C1 and SO-C4 showed crossloadings on each other's factors, under the threshold of 0.2 (0.514 and, respectively, 0.487).

Table 10

Validity (discriminant & convergent) and reliability.

Measure	Indices of composite and discriminant validity (threshold in parenthesis)			Scales inter-correlations and the square root of average variance (in parenthesis, in bold)			
	CR (>0.7)	AVE (>0.5)	MSV (<AVE)	PE	JRSE	WB	SO
PE	0.895	0.683	0.084	(0.826)			
JRSE	0.879	0.512	0.239	0.084	(0.716)		
WB	0.845	0.525	0.092	0.115	0.303	(0.725)	
SO	0.901	0.820	0.239	0.289	0.489	0.143	(0.905)

Notes: CR – composite reliability; AVE – average variance extracted; MSV – maximum shared variance; Square root of the average variance on the diagonal. The square root of AVE should be greater than any of the inter-construct correlations (discriminant validity).

Table 11

Loadings of the observed variables in the measured model and scales internal consistency.

	Factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted
Job related self-efficacy (JRSE)		0.87	0.88	0.51
JRSE2	0.80			
JRSE5	0.79			
JRSE8	0.74			
JRSE6	0.72			
JRSE4	0.72			
JRSE1	0.62			
JRSE3	0.60			
Self-Objectification (SO)		0.87	0.90	0.82
Self-Objectification factor #1 (SO_F1)		78		
SO-A5	0.76			
SO-C4	0.72			
SO-A1	0.69			
SO-C5	0.64			

(continued on next page)

Table 11 (continued)

	Factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted
Self-Objectification factor #2 (SO_F2)		0.82		
SO-C1	0.81			
SO-A2	0.73			
SO-C3	0.71			
SO-C2	0.64			
SO-A3	0.63			
Well-being (WB)		0.84	0.85	0.53
WB3	0.87			
WB2	0.75			
WB4	0.68			
WB1	0.67			
WB5	0.64			
Performance expectancy (PE)		0.89	0.90	0.68
PE3	0.92			
PE2	0.89			
PE1	0.75			
PE4	0.73			

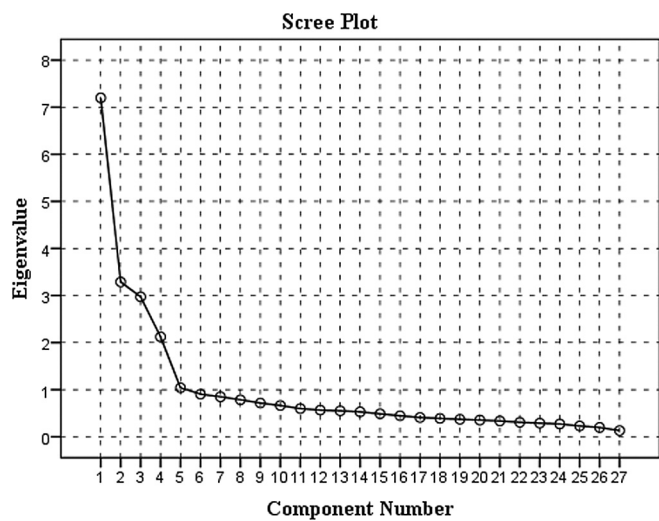


Fig. 3. Scree plot for PCA.

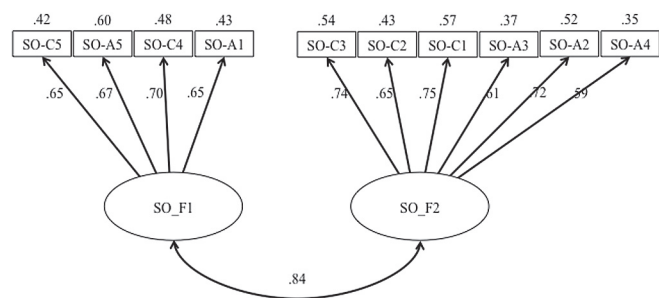


Fig. 4. Measurement model for 2-factors structure of SO as resulted from EFA with ML and Promax.

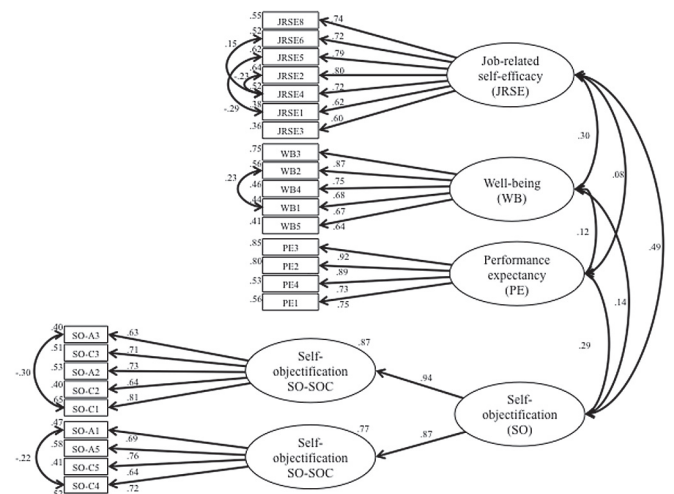


Fig. 5. Measurement model for CFA.

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