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2 **Recognizing the beauty in diversity: Exposure to body-positive content on social media**
3 **broadens women’s concept of ideal body weight**

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8

9 **Author Notes**

10 The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

11 The data, materials, and analyses codes for the reported research are provided in an OSF
12 directory at https://osf.io/9ajm4/?view_only=f93de8fe1d714bd794a47e58659bae26. Both studies
13 were pre-registered (see https://aspredicted.org/ELP_DCO and https://aspredicted.org/QYR_HIG).

14

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18

19

Abstract

20 By depicting an unrealistic share of skinny or toned body types, modern mass media have been
21 found to shift users' perception of an ideal body towards narrow and often unattainable standards.
22 In response to this, the “#bodypositivity” movement (BoPo) on social media has set out to
23 challenge restrictive body ideals, advocating for more open-minded views towards the human
24 physique. Matching BoPo's emphasis on diversity, we hypothesized that viewing body-positive
25 online content alters women's concept of an ideal body to encompass a broader range of body
26 shapes (on a spectrum from skinny to obese). The results of two pre-registered experiments ($N_1 =$
27 191; $N_2 = 266$) support our assumption, connecting BoPo not only to a larger mean ideal body
28 shape, but also to a *diversification* of weight-related standards. We discuss our work as a crucial
29 extension of prior research, noting that the range found in people's bodily ideals may be (at least) as
30 relevant as their central tendency.

31 **Keywords:** diversity, body positivity, body shape, body ideals, social media

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Public Significance Statement

34 The results of two studies indicate that online media can effectively contribute to more diverse body
35 ideals if they depict a broader range of body shapes as physically attractive. Specifically, our work
36 suggests that by disrupting the frequent overrepresentation of thin female bodies in the media—for
37 the sake of more inclusivity—women's understanding of an ideal body could be changed to
38 encompass a larger range of weight types, potentially prompting more open-minded views and
39 behaviors in society. For psychological scholars, the current research further underscores the
40 importance of looking beyond parameters of central tendency (such as group averages), considering
41 that diversity measures may be as or even more important in certain contexts.

42 **Recognizing the beauty in diversity: Exposure to body-positive content on social media**
43 **broadens women’s concept of ideal body weight**

44 Social networking sites (SNS) have become a fundamental media and communication
45 channel for millions of people, who use platforms such as Instagram or TikTok to express
46 themselves, connect with their peers, and learn about the world (Auxier & Anderson, 2021). By
47 these means, the respective services have also emerged as a key source for social norms and
48 standards (e.g., Masur et al., 2021)—and, due to their highly visual nature, continue to shape the
49 modern-day understanding of physical beauty (e.g., Mills et al., 2017). Yet, just as traditional mass
50 media did for decades (e.g., Botta, 1999; Te’eni-Harari, & Eyal, 2015), popular social media sites
51 overrepresent thin and fit bodies, neglecting the social reality of human diversity (Åberg et al.,
52 2020; Cohen et al., 2021; Mingoia et al., 2017). Along these lines, they are considered responsible
53 for communicating and cultivating an unhealthy *thin ideal*, leading to potentially harmful social
54 comparison processes, lower well-being, and eating disorders (e.g., Huang et al., 2021; Mills et al.,
55 2017; Stein et al., 2021; Verduyn et al., 2020).

56 Distinguishing social media from TV and magazines, however, is the fact that users
57 themselves can contribute to the content that is shown on the respective platforms. In turn, this
58 participative nature has also facilitated user-led efforts to transform what is depicted as beautiful on
59 popular social media sites. A particularly prominent voice in this regard has been the *body positivity*
60 movement (*BoPo*). Using the BoPo label and hashtag, SNS users have uploaded millions of posts
61 that disregard restrictive beauty ideals, instead propagating more open-minded attitudes towards the
62 human body and its many different forms. Extending prior theory and research, we argue that such
63 diverse media portrayals may not only shift beauty standards towards a less skinny ideal body
64 shape, but actually broaden people’s mental representation of ideal bodies so that *more* body types
65 are considered beautiful. Unlike previous literature, which has mainly focused on central tendency

66 as the core parameter to grasp bodily perceptions (or, in the case of interventions, looked at shifting
67 averages), we argue that it is equally important to examine the *breadth* of what individuals perceive
68 to be beautiful following their media use. Building upon this theoretical groundwork, we present
69 two pre-registered experiments to test the prediction that digital BoPo has the power to change what
70 users (in particular women) perceive to be an ideal body weight—both in terms of a shifting
71 average as well as a larger range of weight types. Furthermore, we connect these more abstract
72 perceptions to participants' specific evaluations of strangers' weight, as well as their own body
73 esteem. Lastly, we investigate whether body-positive social media content also affects more general
74 views on social diversity, beyond its focus on physical appearances.

75 **Understanding Body Shape Ideals as Part of People's Shared Social Reality**

76 Broadly speaking, beauty ideals (or standards) can be understood as culturally shared beliefs
77 as to which body shapes, facial features, skin attributes, and types of clothing are considered
78 beautiful and desirable in a given society. They have changed throughout history and show notable
79 cross-cultural variation—although differences have narrowed due to a proliferation of Western
80 culture (Swami, 2021). According to the *Tripartite Influence Model* (Thompson et al., 1999), young
81 people are typically socialized towards beauty standards by three main sources: Parents, peers, and
82 the media. While the relative contribution of these three influences may depend on various
83 individual and contextual factors, scientific literature has emphasized the impact of the latter rather
84 unanimously (Halliwel & Diedrichs, 2012). Also, quite impressively, research conducted with
85 media-naïve populations in remote rural areas has revealed that even brief, first-time contact to
86 mediated beauty ideals sufficed to alter concepts of physical attractiveness in a notable way
87 (Boothroyd et al., 2020).

88 Although, as noted above, beauty ideals encompass many aspects beyond bodily
89 characteristics, it should be pointed out that the understanding of a *desirable body shape* rests at

90 their core—across most cultures and age ranges (Calogero et al., 2007; Swami, 2021). Again, media
91 influences in this regard must not be underestimated. By now, there are multiple meta-analyses that
92 consistently link people’s mass media use to a thinner or more athletic ideal body shape—both for
93 traditional (e.g., Grabe et al., 2008; Holmstrom, 2004; Huang et al., 2021) and for new media
94 formats (Saiphoo & Vahedi, 2019). To make sense of these effects, scholars have employed several
95 central theories that may explain why body depictions in the media exert such a profound impact on
96 audiences’ (body-related) perceptions and attitudes. Among the most prominent frameworks in this
97 regard is *social comparison theory* (Festinger, 1954), which suggests that people show an inherent
98 inclination to compare themselves to others around them, hoping to achieve a well-informed
99 evaluation of the self. Indeed, scientific literature has shown that social comparisons are not just
100 based on peers or strangers in the natural world, but also frequently prompted by media characters
101 (e.g., Holmstrom, 2004). For instance, individuals may compare themselves to characters from
102 television shows and movies, or they may access social media platforms to choose other users as
103 their comparison standards.

104 While social comparison theory provides a sound explanation for the interplay between
105 media depictions and self-related attitudes, the framework is mainly focused on immediate and
106 short-term effects. This contrasts with the fact that mass media usually unfold their influence on
107 users’ attitudes across multiple and repeated reception situations, a process that may not be entirely
108 explained by recurring social comparisons. Instead, these long-term effects are usually described
109 via *cultivation theory*—a framework proposing that frequent exposure to mass media shapes
110 people’s understanding of reality according to the depicted content (Gerbner & Gross, 1976; Grabe
111 et al., 2008). More specifically, cultivation theory suggests that the often homogenous content
112 shown in contemporary media facilitates a *mainstreaming* of popular opinion, even if viewers’ own
113 personal experiences may inhibit (or foster) this process (i.e., *resonance*; Gerbner et al., 1980). For

114 the topic at hand, the cultivation framework implies that by being almost exclusively exposed to
115 thin (female) or muscular (male) bodies in mass media, viewers are socialized to consider only a
116 narrow range of body types as desirable—resulting in so-called *thin-ideal* and *athletic-ideal*
117 *internalization* (Grabe et al., 2008; Martin & Racine, 2017; Scharrer, 2013). Again, meta-analytic
118 research shows that these effects are not only evoked by traditional media (e.g., Paterna et al.,
119 2021), but also occur when engaging with SNS (Mingoa et al., 2017). While some authors caution
120 that users’ opportunity to choose from many types of content on social media might limit
121 mainstreaming effects (Morgan et al., 2015), others have argued that the platforms’ strong emphasis
122 on trending or ‘viral’ content—as fostered by automatic algorithms—effectively results in even
123 stronger levels of content homogenization than known from traditional media (Chayka, 2019; Ong,
124 2018; Yau & Reich, 2019). Along the same lines, a recent study has connected users’ engagement
125 with Instagram’s public content to noteworthy changes in bodily perceptions, matching the
126 predictions of cultivation theory (Stein et al., 2021).

127 Social comparison and cultivation processes offer important insight as to how mass media
128 affect people’s expectations, norms, and standards of beautiful bodies. It is crucial to note, however,
129 that these standards are not only applied to evaluate oneself, but also to make sense of other
130 people’s *attractiveness* (Stephen & Perera, 2014; van den Berg et al., 2002). Considering the high
131 importance of this judgment in nearly any interpersonal context—from the initiation of romantic
132 relationships (e.g., Brand et al., 2012) to success in the workplace (e.g., Commisso & Finkelstein,
133 2012)—body shape ideals therefore emerge as a core aspect of our shared social reality. They
134 modulate the social feedback that individuals give and receive, while also exerting a strong
135 influence on anticipated feedback, i.e., people’s expectations about future social interactions
136 (Langlois et al., 2000). In this sense, bodily ideals also take on a key role in the emergence (and
137 more problematically, the disruption) of individuals’ self-esteem: Only by aligning their body shape

138 with societal concepts of beauty, many people may find it possible to engage in successful social
139 contact and in turn, feel satisfied about their own appearance (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997;
140 Thompson et al., 1999).

141 Taken together, scientific literature suggests that the overrepresentation of thin and athletic
142 body shapes in today's media landscape provides a crucial benchmark for both self- and other-
143 related perceptions. Considering the severe negative consequences that may arise from this,
144 researchers and health officials have pursued numerous interventional approaches, for instance
145 targeting children's media literacy (e.g., Kurz et al., 2022) or the reduction of fat-phobic stereotypes
146 (e.g., Stewart & Ogden, 2021). In many cases, these efforts are directly aimed at shifting thin-ideal
147 perceptions towards a heavier norm and to disrupt the media-facilitated idolization of overly skinny
148 bodies. At the same time, scholars and practitioners in the field of body image have suggested that
149 overcoming problematic body ideals might not be a question of *different* but of *broader* standards—
150 so as to effectively reduce appearance-related pressures for as many people as possible (e.g., Cohen
151 et al., 2021; Palumbo, 2022). Arguably, this approach aligns with the core message of the rapidly
152 growing body positivity (BoPo) movement, whose proponents use contemporary media platforms
153 such as *Instagram* to propagate potentially healthier, but especially more inclusive body ideals.

154 **Body Positivity and Diversity Online**

155 Although most people of today may likely encounter it on social media for the first time, the
156 idea of BoPo is all but new to the digital age. In fact, aspirations to overcome hegemonic beauty
157 standards have a long history, going back as far as the first wave of feminism during the 19th
158 century (Cunningham, 2003; Walters, 2005). Initially rooted in questions of emancipation and
159 female empowerment, BoPo evolved into a broader social movement over the course of the 20th
160 century, later concurring with the fat acceptance movement of the 1960s and 1970s (Alptraum,
161 2016). At the same time, body-positive thought has long been driven by Black feminism and queer

162 activism—two sociopolitical movements that both aim at overcoming the societal erasure of
163 marginalized identities (Griffin et al., 2022). As such, the ever-evolving concept of BoPo may be
164 best described as the legacy of several, intersectionally linked ideologies. Even though scholars
165 have noted that drawing the boundaries of modern-day body positivity has become increasingly
166 difficult (Sastre, 2014), its proponents are generally united by the same set of principles: The belief
167 that beauty standards constitute an undesirable cultural construct—and that different bodies should
168 not be placed in a societal hierarchy (Leboeuf, 2019).

169 While the world of modern mass media is traditionally known as a nexus for restrictive
170 beauty standards (e.g., Izydorczyk et al., 2020), it has slowly opened up to body-positive notions in
171 recent years. Apart from several well-received ad campaigns and reality TV shows (e.g., Cameron,
172 2019; Johnston & Taylor, 2008), a particularly important role in this regard has fallen to social
173 media, which paved the way for a heightened presence of BoPo in the public sphere. At the time of
174 this writing, the popular social network Instagram features more than 18 million posts labelled with
175 the hashtag #bodypositive; even more impressively, videos tagged with the term have been watched
176 more than ten billion times on the platform TikTok. Faced with this immense popularity, scientific
177 research has also taken a strong interest in digital BoPo. So far, the resulting literature clearly leans
178 towards a favorable perspective, linking the reception of body-positive content to significant
179 improvements in body satisfaction, mood, and self-esteem—especially among women, who are still
180 most at risk to suffer from oppressive beauty standards (e.g., Cohen et al., 2019a; Stevens &
181 Griffiths, 2020). Importantly, scientific reviews have also pointed out that claims about negative
182 side-effects of BoPo, such as a trivialization of obesity, remain unsubstantiated (Cohen et al., 2021).

183 However, with the scholarly focus fixed on questions of self-perception, we believe that one
184 of the most important effects of BoPo has not yet received the warranted attention: The
185 phenomenon's role in altering societal body standards. After all, as outlined above, media

186 depictions hold the power to change what people perceive to be an ideal body shape in a most
187 critical manner (Bonafini & Pozzilli, 2010; Swami, 2021; Thompson et al., 1999). What is
188 particularly noteworthy about BoPo in this regard is that it has proliferated at an unusually high
189 pace, gaining millions of supporters within only a few years. In contrast to previous changes of
190 societal beauty ideals—which have spanned decades or even centuries (Bonafini & Pozzilli,
191 2010)—this suggests that today’s media audiences may experience a much more intense
192 transformation of their physical comparison standards. Also, quite crucially, BoPo sets itself apart
193 from other attempts to alter appearance-related perceptions in that it does not necessarily disregard
194 current body ideals (such as overly thin or muscular body shapes); instead, the movement actually
195 suggests embracing *more* forms of the human physique as beautiful. In turn, the success of body-
196 positive appeals might not be measured against a complete overhaul of bodily perceptions, but
197 rather in terms of significantly broader body shape ideals.

198 And yet, despite the growing academic interest in body-positive media, we note that the
199 phenomenon’s effect on general body perceptions has received only little attention to date. While a
200 recent study has provided initial evidence that the exposure to larger body types may nudge
201 people’s perception of an ideal body towards a heavier shape (Aniulis et al., 2021), this observation
202 offers only limited insight regarding BoPo’s core mission, i.e., the diversification of bodily ideals.
203 In fact, we believe that this speaks to a more general shortcoming of body image research. Up until
204 now, the scientific examination of people’s body-related attitudes has been predominantly focused
205 on measures of *central tendency*, both in studies on the detrimental effects of the thin body ideal as
206 well as those exploring potential interventions. Of course, this dominant approach is not without its
207 merit—but it appears incomplete. Proposing a notable theoretical advancement, we argue that
208 measures of *diversity* (or range) should be added to the investigation of people’s body image to gain
209 a more comprehensive understanding of the processes and effects at hand.

210 Shifting Focus From Central Tendency to Measures of Diversity

211 Combining insight from many different disciplines, researchers have developed numerous
212 methods to assess the concept of an ideal body in a more abstract, overarching sense. Apart from
213 the sporadic use of questionnaires (e.g., Schmalbach et al., 2020) and implicit attitude tests (e.g.,
214 Liu et al., 2022), this has mainly involved graphical rating scales. In these instruments, visual arrays
215 of different body silhouettes are presented to participants, who then have to choose the one shape
216 they consider as perfect or most desirable. Rather critically, however, this has led to a narrow
217 understanding (and operationalization) of body shape ideals. By conceptualizing such standards as
218 single manifestations or scores, which are then aggregated and compared between groups, scientists
219 have neglected the possibility that individuals may actually consider multiple body types as ideal—
220 that is, vary in terms of the *breadth* describing their bodily standards.

221 To scrutinize the scope of this conceptual limitation, we conducted a systematic literature
222 search. Using two thematically relevant academic databases (*APA PsycInfo, Communication and*
223 *Mass Media Complete*), we identified a total of 113 studies from the past two decades (2002–2022)
224 that had measured participants' concept of an ideal body (for more details on our search procedure
225 and the full list of obtained studies, please see Supplementary Materials S1 and S2). After excluding
226 all non-English publications and those that were not retrievable at the time of our screening, we
227 consulted the remaining 104 studies with an emphasis on their applied methodology. By these
228 means, we found that 100% of the reviewed publications had operationalized participants'
229 perception of an ideal body as a single value—using either single-choice graphical rating scales ($n =$
230 93), self-report questionnaires ($n = 7$), computer-based photo-editing tools ($n = 4$), or implicit
231 measures ($n = 3$). Looking at these results, it becomes clear that previous research has been focused
232 exclusively on central tendency as the core parameter to gauge participants' body ideals. In our
233 opinion, this creates a most noteworthy restriction. More so, we believe that our literature review

258 Still, due to the large evidence on persisting gender differences, we opted for a fully female sample.
259 In line with this demographic focus, the body shape ideals examined in the current research mainly
260 concerned the dimension *body weight*. While some scientific publications also suggest a growing
261 interest in muscularity and athletic body types among women (e.g., Bozsik, 2018), societal
262 standards remain strongly fixated on thinness as the decisive criterion to evaluate female bodies
263 (Mingoia et al., 2017; Swami, 2021), so that this operationalization appeared timely and plausible.

264 At the beginning of the first experiment, we randomly assigned our female participants to
265 view one of two types of Instagram content: Whereas one group was presented with BoPo posts, the
266 second group received so-called *fitspiration* content—which claims to promote an athletic and
267 healthy lifestyle, but in practice often tends to emphasize weight loss and traditionally skinny body
268 ideals (Simpson & Mazzeo, 2016). Following this social media treatment, we asked our participants
269 to choose all weight types from a visual figure rating scale that they considered as ideal; doing so,
270 we found ourselves able to examine not only the mean ideal body shape, but also the *range*
271 characterizing women’s weight-related standards. Based on our theoretical considerations, as well
272 as the reviewed evidence in favor of BoPo’s effectiveness (e.g., Aniulis et al., 2021; Cohen et al.,
273 2019a), we assumed:

274 **H1:** Following the exposure to BoPo (vs. fitspiration) content, female participants will
275 describe ideal bodies (**a**) with a heavier body shape on average, and (**b**) by selecting a larger
276 number of body shapes in total.

277 Next, we explored whether our experimental treatment would also evoke a significant group
278 difference in a more specific weight attribution task. For this purpose, we asked our female
279 participants to rate the weight of various strangers depicted on full-body photographs. Bearing in
280 mind that the exposure to body-positive materials might shift participants’ comparison standard to a

281 heavier shape (as per H1; see also Devine et al., 2022), we supposed that the average weight
282 evaluation would turn out lower in the BoPo condition:

283 **H2:** Following the exposure to BoPo (vs. fitspiration) content, participants will rate the
284 weight of strangers with a lower average score.

285 Lastly, we inspected yet another specific outcome of the potentially changed body shape
286 ideals: The assessment of romantic relationships between people with different weight types.
287 Presenting participants with a fictional heterosexual partnership scenario that featured an athletic
288 man and either a thin or an overweight woman, it was hypothesized that BoPo's core persuasive
289 message (to disregard bodily characteristics as a way to judge individuals) would lead participants
290 to make their evaluation less dependent on the weight of the described woman. We presumed:

291 **H3:** Following the exposure to BoPo (vs. fitspiration) content, participants will show
292 smaller differences in their evaluations of **(a)** the expected relationship duration and **(b)** physical
293 attraction for couples with either an overweight or a thin woman.

294 **Method**

295 The current study, including our hypotheses and planned analyses, was preregistered
296 (https://aspredicted.org/ELP_DCO).¹ Furthermore, we provide all anonymized data, as well as our
297 analysis codes for both studies in an Open Science Framework (OSF) repository
298 (https://osf.io/9ajm4/?view_only=f93de8fe1d714bd794a47e58659bae26). In the current study
299 country, it is not required to obtain institutional ethics approval for psychological research as long
300 as it does not concern issues regulated by law. However, all reported research (in both experiments)
301 was carried out in full accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, as well as the guidelines

¹ In the current manuscript, the wording and numbering of the preregistered hypotheses was slightly modified for reasons of clarity and consistency. This did not, however, involve any theoretical modifications.

302 provided by the American Psychological Association and the [ANONYMIZED] Psychological
303 Society.

304 *Participants*

305 An a priori sample size calculation via G*Power software focusing on the step of our
306 planned analyses that required the highest sample size—i.e., the two-factorial ANOVA for
307 hypothesis H3, with parameters set to 80% power, $\alpha = .05$, and an assumed moderate effect of $f =$
308 0.25—resulted in an aspired sample size of 128 participants for the experiment. Using public
309 mailing lists and social media groups, we initially recruited 200 [ANONYMIZED] participants (age
310 $M = 27.84$ years, $SD = 8.18$), all of whom self-identified as female. Based on our pre-registered
311 criteria to ensure high data quality, however, we excluded several participants: Those who had
312 failed an instructional attention check ($n = 7$), indicated careless responding in a diligence self-
313 report item ($n = 1$), or mentioned severe technical issues during their participation ($n = 1$). As such,
314 our final sample consisted of 191 women (age $M = 27.46$ years; $SD = 7.81$). We observed a high
315 level of education among our participants, with the majority indicating either a university degree
316 (49.2%), a university entrance qualification (28.8%), or a completed vocational education (14.1%).

317 *Procedure and Materials*

318 All participants had to give their informed consent before proceeding to our online
319 experiment, which was provided via the platform *SoSciSurvey*. Since our study was based on a
320 between-subject design, an automatic randomization procedure first assigned each participant to
321 either the BoPo or the fitspiration condition. Subsequently, we presented both groups with a set of
322 seven social media profiles—four that matched their respective condition, and three neutral
323 distractor profiles (presented in random order as single pages). Each profile consisted of five
324 thematically relevant pictures displayed in Instagram’s typical interface design, complete with brief
325 captions. To sharpen the focus on the provided images, however, we refrained from adding other

326 aspects typically found in Instagram accounts (e.g., short bios or image grids), limiting our profiles
327 to a given selection of five posts to scroll through.

328 According to our online platform's automatic measurement of the time spent on these pages,
329 each profile was viewed for an average duration of 28.9 seconds, resulting in a mean exposure time
330 of 202.3 seconds for the whole social media treatment (range: 61–788 seconds; median: 169
331 seconds). Once they had finished looking at the provided content, participants were guided towards
332 our measure of ideal body shapes, the relationship scenario, and the photo rating task (which was
333 presented last due to its visual nature). Concluding our experiment, we obtained several
334 sociodemographic and control variables from our participants, namely their age, level of education,
335 and weekly Instagram use. Also, for exploratory purposes, we inquired participants about their
336 height and weight in order to calculate the body-mass index as a potential covariate.

337 ***Social Media Stimuli and Pretest.*** Striving for high external validity, we decided to use real
338 social media content as stimuli in our experiment. Thus, we first reviewed several publicly
339 accessible Instagram profiles by moderately popular social media accounts (i.e., so-called *meso*
340 *influencers* with more than 10,000 followers) that had posted images with the hashtags
341 #bodypositive, #bodypositivity, or #bodyacceptance (for the BoPo condition). In particular, we
342 looked for posts whose images and captions incorporated central BoPo themes as identified in a
343 recent content analysis (Cohen et al., 2019b), i.e., self-appreciation, inner positivity, and the
344 unfiltered depiction of physical flaws. For the fitspiration stimuli, we repeated our search with the
345 terms #fitspiration, #fitspo, and #workout. In both conditions, various ethnicities were included in
346 our photo selection so that participants from different cultural backgrounds could relate to the
347 depicted individuals. Also, in order to avoid stimuli with high recognition value, we omitted
348 particularly prominent profiles that exceeded 100,000 followers.

349 In total, this initial selection procedure yielded sixteen Instagram profiles, eight for the
350 BoPo, and eight for the fitspiration condition. Additionally, we collected a smaller set of six profiles
351 using the search terms #lifestyle, and #instagood, so that they could be added as distractor stimuli to
352 both conditions. To further narrow down our materials, we then carried out a pretest with 30 female
353 Instagram users (age $M = 25.23$ years; $SD = 2.69$), identifying the profiles with the highest
354 conceptual fit to our definitions of BoPo and fitspiration (e.g., the extent to which the BoPo posts
355 encapsulated the abovementioned core themes). By these means, the initial set of potential stimuli
356 was cut in half (for a full overview of the provided definitions and pretest results, see
357 Supplementary Material S3). Consequently, our study's treatment consisted of seven profiles in
358 each condition: Four profiles encapsulating the respective topic (BoPo or fitspiration), as well as
359 three distractor profiles (kept constant in both conditions). Each of these profiles was presented as a
360 scroll-down page in Instagram's distinct corporate design, encompassing a total of five pictures
361 with their real captions and hashtags (e.g., BoPo profile: "WONDER WOMAN! Be your own
362 superhero, the costume is optional! #loveyourself"; fitspiration profile: "Currently doing the same
363 dumbbell routines in my PJs, but I hope you enjoy this shot! #fitness"; neutral profile: "It's
364 beginning to look a lot like SUMMER"). If a caption was originally longer than three lines of text,
365 only the first three lines were shown. To avoid any potentially confounding information, all signs of
366 social feedback (i.e., likes and comments) were removed from the shown posts.

367 ***Measuring Body Shape Ideals.*** The core dependent variable of our study—participants'
368 concept of ideal body shapes—was measured using the female version of the graphical Figure
369 Rating Scale (FRS; Stunkard et al., 1983), albeit in a conceptually refined format. The FRS consists
370 of schematic drawings of nine silhouettes, either female or male, which span a broad weight
371 spectrum between extreme thinness and obesity (Figure 1 in the Results section depicts the scale,
372 with the copyright holders' explicit permission). Originally designed for research in the clinical

373 context, the FRS has since taken on a prominent role in non-clinical studies on body satisfaction as
374 well (e.g., Bays et al., 2009; Sand et al., 2017). Moreover, it has been used to assess study
375 participants' general understanding of ideal body shapes (e.g., Bissell, 2004)—the very concept that
376 was also of interest to us. In a notable distinction from previous applications of the instrument,
377 however, we did not ask participants to choose only one preferred body shape but tasked them with
378 selecting all shapes that matched their understanding of an ideal appearance. By these means, we
379 yielded two variables: The mean body shape that was considered as ideal, as well as the total
380 number of chosen body shapes (our core indicator for the breadth of participants' ideals).

381 ***Photo Rating Task.*** To investigate participants' perceptions of other people's weight, the
382 method and materials developed by Stein et al. (2021) were utilized in the current study.
383 Participants were presented with 36 full-body photographs depicting a wide range of the human
384 physique, including muscular, skinny, chubby, and obese body shapes. For each portrayed person, a
385 5-point item ranging from "severely underweight" (1) to "severely overweight" (5) had to be
386 answered. Since the photo-rating task was designed to measure weight perceptions regardless of
387 gender or cultural background, it features a balanced female-to-male ratio (18 photos each) and
388 represents different ethnic groups. By averaging all 36 photo ratings into an overall *weight*
389 *perception* score, we were able to assess participants' general tendency to rate the bodies of others
390 as more or less heavysset.

391 ***Relationship Evaluation Task.*** A fictitious partnership scenario was used to examine how
392 our participants would appraise the romantic connection between people with either similar or
393 different body types. Specifically, we created a short story about the first encounter and subsequent
394 relationship between the two characters Laura and Tom (see Supplementary Material S4 for the full
395 scenario). After this brief introductory text, participants were shown fictitious character profiles for
396 both protagonists (see Supplementary Material S5), including hobbies and interests, as well as

397 abstract body silhouettes. While Tom was always portrayed as an athletic man, Laura was described
398 either as a slim or as an overweight woman—creating an additional between-subjects factor for our
399 experiment. After viewing the character profiles, participants rated their expectation about the
400 couple’s romantic future (e.g., “I suspect that they will stay together for a long time.”) and Tom’s
401 attraction to Laura (e.g., “I think that Tom is strongly attracted to Laura.”) with four items each (1 =
402 *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). The resulting indices showed very high internal consistency
403 (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .86$ and $.89$).

404 **Results**

405 Table 1 gives an overview of the means and standard deviations that were observed for the
406 outcome variables in the two social media conditions. Regarding the relationship evaluation task—
407 which involved a second between-subjects factor—descriptive statistics are given separately for the
408 two presented versions of the fictional scenario.

409 *Effect of the Shown SNS Content on Body Shape Ideals*

410 Addressing participants’ concept of an ideal body (H1), we first conducted an independent t-
411 test with the type of shown SNS content as between-subjects factor and the *mean selected body*
412 *shape* in the FRS as dependent variable. This yielded a significant result, $t(189) = 3.31, p = .001$,
413 with a medium effect size of Cohen’s $d = 0.48$, 95% CI [0.19, 0.76]. As hypothesized, the average
414 body shape that was selected as ideal turned out slightly more voluminous in the BoPo condition (M
415 = 4.29; $SD = 0.75$) than in the fitspiration condition ($M = 3.92$; $SD = 0.82$).

416 Next, we focused on the *number of body shapes* selected in the FRS. Based on a significant
417 Levene test ($p = .006$), we employed the recommended Welch statistic in our analysis of group
418 differences. Using the average number of selected body shapes as a criterion, we observed a
419 significant difference between both conditions, $t_w(179.81) = 2.15, p = .017$, Cohen’s $d = 0.31$ (95%
420 CI [0.03, 0.60]). On average, participants in the BoPo condition selected nearly three body shapes

421 to describe an ideal body ($M = 2.93$; $SD = 2.34$), whereas those presented with fitspiration content
422 only chose slightly more than two body shapes ($M = 2.27$; $SD = 1.84$).

423 In summary, the reported findings support hypothesis H1: As expected, the exposure to
424 BoPo content shifted our female participants' concept of ideal bodies towards a heavier body type,
425 as well as an increased range of bodies. Offering additional insight into our effects, Figure 1
426 compares the percentage of participants selecting each of the FRS's body shapes as ideal depending
427 on their assigned condition. A visual inspection of this graph further emphasizes that the type of
428 shown SNS content led to notably different body shape ideals.

429 *Effect of the Shown SNS Content on Perceptions of Strangers' Weight*

430 Having obtained participants' weight ratings for 36 photographed strangers, we first
431 calculated the mean score across all answers. In the resulting *weight perception score*, a higher
432 value indicated a tendency to perceive the depicted bodies as heavier (i.e., stricter weight
433 perceptions), whereas a lower value signified more lenient views on people's physiques. On
434 average, participants in the BoPo condition perceived the weight of the depicted strangers as
435 significantly less heavy than those in the fitspiration condition, $t(189) = 2.77$, $p = .003$, Cohen's $d =$
436 0.40 (95% CI [0.12, 0.69]). Although the numerical differences between the two groups might
437 appear rather miniscule at first sight (see Table 1), the observed low standard deviations may
438 explain why even a small mean difference could be identified as statistically meaningful. In any
439 case, we give a positive answer to H2, noting that weight perceptions were indeed affected by the
440 prior exposure to different types of SNS content.

441 *Effects of the Shown SNS Content on Relationship Evaluations*

442 In the final part of our main analysis, we focused on the results of our relationship
443 evaluation task. Since this part of the study had introduced a second between-subjects factor
444 (scenario "athletic man, thin woman" vs. scenario "athletic man, overweight woman"), two-

445 factorial analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were employed to scrutinize the respective hypotheses.
446 First, we entered both manipulations—shown SNS content and type of couple in the relationship
447 scenario—as between-subjects factors and participants’ assumptions about the expected
448 *relationship duration* as a dependent variable. Both main effects turned out insignificant, $F(1, 187)$
449 $= 0.27, p = .607$ for the SNS factor and $F(1, 187) = 0.74, p = .391$ for the relationship scenario
450 factor. More importantly, however, we note that the interaction effect—the actual focus of our
451 hypothesis H3—also fell short of the conventional threshold of significance, $F(1, 187) = 2.80, p =$
452 $.096$, partial $\eta^2 = .015$ (95% CI [.000, .065]).

453 In a second ANOVA, we subsequently explored potential differences in participants’
454 expectations about the *physical attraction* between the fictitious characters. Here, we uncovered a
455 significant main effect of the type of scenario, $F(1, 187) = 12.81, p < .001, \eta^2 = .064$ (95% CI
456 [0.013, 0.141])—presenting a couple with an athletic man and an overweight woman led
457 participants across both social media conditions to assume significantly lower physical attraction
458 ($M = 3.44, SD = .71$) than describing a thin woman in the same constellation ($M = 3.79, SD = 0.63$).
459 On the other hand, neither the main effect of the shown SNS content, $F(1, 187) = 0.43, p = .511$,
460 nor the (theoretically relevant) interaction effect, $F(1, 187) < .01, p = .947$, emerged significant. In
461 conclusion, we give a negative answer to H3: Viewing BoPo (vs. fitspiration) content did not lead
462 to a significantly different assessment of the romantic prospects or physical attractiveness of women
463 with different body sizes.

464 *Exploratory Analyses*

465 Following our main procedures, we decided to carry out several exploratory steps to find out
466 whether the obtained results depended on specific sociodemographic or control variables. Repeating
467 our analyses with smaller sub-samples that were limited either to young adults (ages 18 to 34; $N =$
468 165) or to those who had described themselves as active Instagram users ($N = 166$), we found no

469 substantial differences compared to the findings of our previous analyses. Similarly, controlling for
470 participants' body-mass index as a covariate (see the project's OSF repository for the according
471 analysis codes) resulted in no notable deviations from our original results.

472 **Discussion**

473 Our first study revealed promising evidence that digital BoPo content as found on popular
474 social media platforms alters users' perceptions of ideal human body shape. Compared to
475 fitspiration posts, which promote an athletic lifestyle and thin-ideal mindset, body-positive SNS
476 posts prompted female participants to describe their body-related ideals with a broader range of
477 physiques as well as slightly heavier body types. Thus, by applying an adapted version of a well-
478 established measurement tool, we were able to observe BoPo's effectiveness in a more nuanced
479 way—acknowledging two distinct outcomes of emphasizing diversity in digital media.

480 Proceeding from abstract to more specific effects, we found our brief body-positive
481 treatment (in the scope of only a few minutes exposure) to shift weight perceptions about strangers
482 towards a more lenient perspective. For proponents of the BoPo movement, these findings might be
483 quite encouraging. Considering that only a handful of SNS posts sufficed to elicit the reported
484 effects, it stands to reason that a prolonged exposure to BoPo contents in the real world might
485 eventually result in an even stronger rejection of weight-related standards. Keeping in mind the
486 highly problematic outcomes associated with restrictive beauty ideals, this vision may be
487 welcomed—not only by scientific scholars but also by parents and health officials, who may feel
488 concerned about the vulnerable self-esteem of young children and adolescents.

489 Of course, we have to note that not all examined outcomes aligned with our expectations; in
490 the presented relationship evaluation task, showing BoPo content did not lead to significantly
491 different perceptions about the desirability of overweight women. In our interpretation, this might
492 be explained by a third-person effect: Participants might not have considered their own (shifting)

493 ideals when answering the respective questions, but rather how they expected the scenario's male
494 protagonist to behave. Moreover, the lack of significant differences in this more indirect measure
495 might suggest that participants' deeply rooted, implicit norms were not (yet) affected by the body-
496 positive stimuli. Still, even if the observed effects in our experiment only applied to participants'
497 explicit ideals, we do not believe that this takes away from the promising nature of our findings.
498 After all, it is not uncommon for individuals to first react to persuasive messages with a change in
499 their explicit attitudes, before implicit judgments are successively adapted as well (Whitfield &
500 Jordan, 2009). Of course, future replications of our work that focus on long-term effects or employ
501 measures to reduce socially desirable answering are much encouraged to yield definitive proof of
502 changing body ideals following the (repeated) exposure to BoPo.

503 To sum up, our first study uncovered noteworthy results concerning the effects of digital
504 BoPo content. Most of all, it lent first experimental support to the idea that body-positive content
505 can indeed reshape what people consider flawed (or flawless) body types. At the same time, we
506 would like to point out a potential limitation in our work. Specifically, the choice to juxtapose BoPo
507 with fitspiration content could raise the question whether the obtained group differences mainly
508 resulted from the convincing qualities of the former—or depended on the persuasiveness of the
509 latter as well. On the other hand, we suppose that the chosen fitspiration content likely resembled
510 what our participants encounter during their daily media use anyway, so that it might not have
511 exerted strong effects on its own. Still, we reached the conclusion that comparing BoPo to a more
512 neutral control group was a logical extension for a follow-up study. Similarly, testing the observed
513 effects under different conditions (e.g., with a new set of SNS stimuli and including baseline
514 measurements) appeared as a promising next step to establish their validity. To acknowledge these
515 ideas, and to connect our findings to other, theoretically relevant concepts, we conducted a second
516 experiment.

Experiment 2

517
518 In Study 2, we modified several aspects of our methodological approach to replicate our
519 core findings under different circumstances. First, due to the identified limitation that juxtaposing
520 BoPo with fitspiration content might have obfuscated which effects actually took place, we decided
521 to use a neutral control condition instead of fitspiration content in this study. Moreover, we now
522 included a baseline measurement, allowing for an investigation of numerical pre-to-posttest
523 differences. Lastly, striving to establish an empirical connection between our observations and
524 recent evidence on BoPo's self-related effects (Cohen et al., 2019a; Stevens & Griffiths, 2020), we
525 added a measure of participants' body self-esteem to this second experiment.

526 Based on our theoretical underpinnings and the evidence gathered in Experiment 1, we
527 hypothesized that body-positive content would again result in a stronger diversification of body
528 shape ideals than the comparison condition (mirroring H1 of Experiment 1). In addition to that, we
529 now assumed:

530 **H4:** Following the exposure to BoPo (vs. fitspiration) content, participants will show
531 a stronger increase in body self-esteem.

532 Apart from these main research propositions, we further incorporated a more exploratory
533 research focus into the current study, taking inspiration from the framework of *lateral attitude*
534 *changes* (Glaser et al., 2014). Here, we pursued the question whether BoPo's persuasive effects
535 might reach beyond body-related outcomes, and also result in more favorable attitudes towards
536 social diversity in general terms.

537 Lateral Attitude Change

538 According to psychological research, people's explicit attitudes (i.e., their conscious
539 evaluations of different concepts, objects, and people) form an intricate network: Not only do they
540 depend on currently available mental propositions, but they also influence each other in a sensitive

541 way (Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2006). In line with this understanding,
542 studies have shown that attempts to change one attitude may actually ripple out towards other,
543 related attitudes as well (e.g., Alvaro & Crano, 1997; Pérez & Mugny, 1987)—a phenomenon that
544 has later been termed *lateral attitude change* (LAC; Glaser et al., 2014).

545 Considering the topic at hand, we note that even though body-positive media typically
546 address physical appearances, they often touch upon broader issues of societal diversity as well. As
547 such, academic literature underscores that BoPo is inextricably entangled with the empowerment of
548 different genders, ethnicities, and sexual identities (e.g., Cwynar-Horta, 2016; Johansson, 2021;
549 Leboeuf, 2019). In this vein, the movement also shows notable overlap with other important anti-
550 prejudice endeavors (such as “Black Lives Matter” or Pride), finding common ground via its
551 emphasis on diversity, community, and self-acceptance (Hockin-Boyers & Clifford-Astbury, 2021;
552 Zavattaro, 2021).

553 As a matter of fact, the idea that BoPo might also be effective regarding other social
554 domains is also corroborated by social psychological insight. After all, literature suggests that
555 different forms of prejudice still plaguing modern society—e.g., racism, sexism, ageism, or fat-
556 phobia—might actually be underpinned by a common *intolerance schema*, i.e., a general tendency
557 to be more or less accepting of social minorities (Aosved et al., 2009). A rather similar argument is
558 proposed by *social dominance theory* (Sidanius et al., 2004), which proposes that people show a
559 relatively stable disposition to form and support (or disregard) group-based hierarchies. While this
560 is in no way supposed to imply that the experiences and hardships of different marginalized groups
561 may be equivalent, both theories offer firm arguments as to why body-positive content might reach
562 beyond its appearance-related effects. As such, we hypothesized:

563 **H5:** Following the exposure to BoPo (vs. fitspiration) content, participants will show a
564 stronger improvement of their attitudes towards social diversity.

565 Additionally, we examined several variables that might influence BoPo's effects on both
566 focal (i.e., body-related) and lateral (i.e., diversity-related) attitudes. First, we acknowledged one of
567 the most well-known propositions about social influence, namely that a persuasive attempt will be
568 much more effective if recipients do not yet feel strongly about the respective topic (i.e., show low
569 *attitude strength*; Pomerantz et al., 1995). Applying this notion to both concepts addressed in our
570 study, we assumed:

571 **H6:** After viewing BoPo content, the observed effects regarding (a) body shape ideals, (b)
572 body self-esteem, and (c) social diversity will decrease with participants'
573 corresponding attitude strength.

574 In their review of the LAC framework, Glaser et al. (2014) further suggested that
575 individuals' *need for consistency*—which can be understood as a dispositional preference for
576 forming consistent beliefs and cognitions (Cialdini et al., 1995)—plays a crucial role for lateral
577 persuasion. Based on this, we proposed the following hypothesis:

578 **H7:** After viewing BoPo content, the lateral attitude change (regarding social diversity) will
579 increase with participants' need for consistency.

580 Lastly, an additional hypothesis on so-called displacement effects (i.e., attitudinal changes
581 that only apply to the lateral but not the focal concept) was developed and investigated as part of a
582 separate exploratory research effort. The corresponding analysis and results are presented in
583 Supplementary Material S6.

584 **Method**

585 Similar to Study 1, the second experiment was preregistered on the AsPredicted platform
586 (https://aspredicted.org/QYR_HIG). All obtained data and analyses codes may be obtained from the
587 project's abovementioned OSF repository.

588 ***Participants***

589 An a priori calculation of minimum sample size (to detect medium effects in our planned
590 two-tailed t-tests with 80% power and 5% alpha error probability) resulted in a lower limit of 128
591 participants for the current experiment. As in our previous study, we again strived to focus on the
592 experience of those who suffer most from societal beauty standards; however, learning about the
593 particular vulnerability of queer identities to appearance-related stress (Cuzzolaro & Milano, 2018;
594 Tiggemann et al., 2007), we decided to open our recruitment not only to women, but to anyone not
595 identifying as cis-male.

596 Of the 279 participants who initially responded to our participation calls on social media and
597 mailing lists, a total of 13 individuals had to be excluded according to preregistered criteria, i.e.,
598 those who scored low in a diligence self-report item ($n = 7$), failed to describe the study contents in
599 an open question ($n = 1$), or fell short of our pretested minimum time for careful responding (240
600 seconds; $n = 5$). In consequence, our final sample consisted of 266 participants (age $M = 26.12$
601 years; $SD = 9.69$; 262 female, 4 other). The observed level of education was quite high, with 54.1%
602 of our sample indicating a university entrance qualification, followed by 35.0% with a completed
603 university degree. As a special incentive for taking part in the study, all participants could enter in a
604 gift raffle of $2 \times \text{€}25$; for students at the local university, partial course credit could be chosen as an
605 alternative compensation.

606 ***Procedure and Materials***

607 The second experiment was again implemented via the online platform *SoSciSurvey*. After
608 giving informed consent, participants were randomly assigned to one of two SNS conditions (BoPo
609 vs. neutral content). Since we had decided to include a pre-test measurement this time, we first
610 presented measures on our three dependent variables (body ideals, body self-esteem, and views on
611 social diversity), as well as brief scales on participants' corresponding attitude strength.

612 Subsequently, both groups were presented with four Instagram posts matching their condition,
613 depicting either body-positive or neutral design content. To ensure proper engagement with the
614 provided posts, we added a pre-programmed timer function to our online questionnaire, so that
615 participants had to view each post for at least 10 seconds before they were able to proceed.
616 Compared to Experiment 1, our measurement of participants' exposure to each of these posts
617 revealed similar viewing times ($M = 24.0$ seconds versus 28.9 seconds in Experiment 1). In terms of
618 cumulative exposure, however, the smaller number of stimuli naturally resulted in a much lower
619 mean duration of 96.2 seconds (median: 81.5 seconds; range: 44–988 seconds)—nearly half of the
620 time measured in the first experiment. Following this treatment, we carried out a second
621 measurement of the three dependent variables, before providing questionnaires on the need for
622 consistency, and lastly, sociodemographic and control variables.

623 ***Social Media Stimuli.*** Striving to replicate the findings from Study 1 under different
624 conditions, we assembled new social media materials for our second experiment. In particular, we
625 opted for a briefer treatment this time around, selecting only four posts for each of the two
626 experimental groups. Regarding the BoPo stimuli, we used the same Instagram search procedure as
627 before, which provided us with four posts depicting overweight women from different ethnic
628 backgrounds in an aesthetic and positive manner. Conversely, four posts marked with the hashtag
629 #interiordesign were chosen for the control condition—since we deemed this topic to be completely
630 unrelated to questions of diversity (yet representative of typical Instagram content). In another
631 modification compared to the previous study, we composed the photo captions in both conditions
632 ourselves this time around, striving for slightly longer messages (up to 80 words with three to six
633 hashtags and one to six emojis added). This approach was chosen to increase the textual similarity
634 between both conditions—and to give us the opportunity to sharpen the caption's focus in the body-
635 positive condition on BoPo core themes (e.g., a positive mindset, self-acceptance).

636 **Body Shape Ideals.** As in Study 1, the female version of the FRS by Stunkard et al. (1983)
637 was used to measure participants' body-related ideals based on nine graphical body shapes. Again,
638 the total number of body shapes served as our main indicator for the breadth of participants' body
639 shape ideals. Further echoing our previous effort, we also looked into the mean selected body shape
640 as a second dependent variable (even though it was not explicitly preregistered for this experiment).

641 **Body Self-Esteem.** As a measure of participants' body-related self-esteem, we employed the
642 well-established Body Appreciation Scale (BAS-2; Tylka & Wood-Barcalow, 2015), which consists
643 of ten items (e.g., "I feel love for my body") presented on 5-point Likert scales. A [LANGUAGE
644 ANONYMIZED] translation was created using a backtranslation method. Internal consistency turned
645 out excellent for both uses of the measure (Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$ and $.95$).

646 **Views on Social Diversity.** For many different types of group-related attitudes and biases
647 (e.g., sexism, racism), validated measures may be obtained from literature. In contrast to this,
648 however, we did not come across any suitable instrument for our purpose of assessing views
649 towards social diversity as an overarching attitude. As such, we assembled our own seven-item
650 *views on social diversity* index, taking inspiration from previous prejudice research (Pettigrew,
651 1997). Specifically, we addressed six crucial aspects of societal diversity (i.e., in terms of age,
652 gender, sexual orientation, socioeconomic background, religion, and ethnicity), asking participants
653 to rate their openness towards these criteria (e.g., "I accept all forms of socioeconomic
654 background."; "Religion and worldview do not affect how I choose my friends."). Furthermore, one
655 item with high face validity ("I am completely open towards the diversity of people.") was added to
656 complete the index. The resulting measure—which showed acceptable internal consistency in both
657 its pre- and post-treatment application, especially considering its broad conceptual range
658 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .65$ and $.75$)—can be consulted in the project's OSF repository.

659 ***Attitude Strength.*** We created a brief set of items on participants' attitude strength regarding
660 the three main outcome variables in our study: Beauty ideals (one item; "My idea of societal beauty
661 ideals is very fixed."), body self-esteem (one item; "I am completely certain as to how I see my own
662 body"), and views on social diversity (two items averaged to a composite score; e.g., "I think I have
663 a very strong, developed opinion about diversity.").

664 ***Need for Consistency.*** The Preference for Consistency Scale (Cialdini et al., 1995) provides
665 a well-established measure of people's disposition to strive for consistent attitudes and cognitions.
666 Utilizing the short form PFC-B, we translated its nine items (e.g., "I make an effort to appear
667 consistent to others") to [ANONYMIZED] and presented them to participants using five-point Likert
668 scales. Our translation of the PFC-B yielded good reliability, Cronbach's $\alpha = .77$.

669 **Results**

670 Table 2 collects basic descriptive statistics for the dependent variables in Experiment 2.

671 ***Effect of Shown SNS Content on Body Shape Ideals***

672 In the first step of our statistical analysis, we focused on the observed changes in
673 participants' body shape ideals—operationalized via the mean body shape and total number of body
674 shapes selected in the FRS—depending on our experimental manipulation. To this end, we first
675 calculated the difference values between pre- and post-test measurement for both variables, before
676 entering the resulting difference scores into independent t-tests. By these means, we found that the
677 type of shown social media content (BoPo vs. control) had indeed resulted in different changes
678 regarding the mean selected body shape, $t(216.01) = 3.29, p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 0.40$ (95% CI
679 [0.16, 0.64]), and the total number of selected body shapes, $t(215.19) = 3.73, p < .001$, Cohen's $d =$
680 0.45 (95% CI [0.21, 0.69]). As the numerical group differences in Table 2 show, participants in the
681 BoPo condition not only showed a stronger shift towards a heavier body ideal, but also increased
682 the number of selected shapes significantly more than those exposed to neutral control content.

683 Offering a graphical overview of our results, Figure 2 juxtaposes the chosen FRS shapes (as well as
684 the obtained pre-posttest differences) for both conditions. As this graph shows, body-positive
685 content resulted in a much more notable change between our two measurements than the neutral
686 condition, which yielded nearly the same scores. Hence, we report additional support for the main
687 hypothesis from our first experiment (H1).

688 *Effect of Shown SNS Content on Body Self-Esteem*

689 Second, we proceeded to investigating potential group differences in the observed change of
690 participants' body self-esteem. Again, a difference score (subtracting the pre- from the posttest
691 result) was calculated and entered into an independent t-test. Doing so, we found that participants'
692 body self-esteem had indeed changed to a significantly different extent in both conditions, $t(264) =$
693 $3.09, p = .002$, Cohen's $d = 0.38$ (95% CI [0.14, 0.62]). As expected, those presented with BoPo
694 content showed a stronger improvement of their body self-esteem after the social media content
695 than participants who had merely viewed neutral design posts (see Table 2 for numerical results).
696 As such, hypothesis H4 on the self-related benefits of body-positive Instagram content was also
697 supported by our data.

698 *Lateral Attitude Change*

699 To examine BoPo's potential to change broader views on societal diversity, we compared
700 the average difference scores in the *views on social diversity* index between the BoPo and control
701 condition with another independent t-test. Unlike what we anticipated, both groups showed nearly
702 the same change (or lack thereof) regarding this variable, $t(264) = .05, p = .962$, Cohen's $d = 0.01$
703 (95% CI [-0.24, 0.25]). Referring readers to the descriptive data in Table 2, we report that our
704 hypothesis on LAC was not supported by the current experiment.

705 In response to our hypotheses H6 and H7—which proposed several variables that might
706 influence the attitude changes after viewing body-positive content—we conducted three moderated

707 regression analyses, using the obtained difference scores (i.e., change in body shape ideals, body
708 self-esteem, and views on social diversity) as respective criteria. In all of these analyses, we first
709 entered the grouping variable (dummy-coded) and the corresponding level of attitude strength
710 (mean-centered) as predictors. For the regression focusing on social diversity views, need for
711 consistency was further added as a centered predictor. Subsequently, interaction terms were added
712 in a second step. Looking at the change in R^2 , we observed no significant effects of the proposed
713 moderators (see Supplementary Material S7 for detailed results). Therefore, neither of the
714 developed hypotheses can be answered affirmatively.

715 *Exploratory Mediation Analysis*

716 Based on our significant findings regarding participants' body shape ideals (H1) and body
717 self-esteem (H4), we conceived of an additional step during our statistical analyses, which was
718 subsequently carried out in an exploratory manner. More specifically, a mediation model was
719 developed, in which the increased number of selected body shapes (i.e., the main indicator for
720 participants' broadening body ideals) served as a mediator between the SNS treatment and the
721 observed change in body self-esteem. Employing the PROCESS macro by Hayes (2017) with
722 10,000 bootstrap intervals, we indeed observed a significant indirect effect (Figure 3) of the social
723 media treatment via the change of body shapes marked as ideal on the change of body self-esteem,
724 $B = -0.03$ (95% CI [-0.06, -0.01])—mirroring the conceptual relationship described in our
725 introduction.

726 **Discussion**

727 In our second experiment, we revealed additional evidence emphasizing BoPo's potential to
728 alter societal body-related beauty ideals. First and foremost, we replicated the noteworthy
729 diversification effect from our first study under different conditions, showing that an even briefer
730 exposure to BoPo (for an average time of one-and-a-half minutes instead of nearly three) still

755 thinness as the only ideal body shape for women. Likewise, social media such as Instagram or
756 TikTok have drawn strong criticism for propagating ideals of skinny body shapes as the only
757 desirable standard, potentially to an even stronger degree than traditional media (Döring et al.,
758 2016).

759 At the same time, millions of users on social media have created and fostered a trend aimed
760 at broadening the concept of the beautiful body: #bodypositivity. Extending prior theory and
761 research, we pursued the idea that social media portrayals of human diversity increase the range of
762 people’s body-related ideals, along with shifting the ideal mean body towards a heavier shape. Two
763 online experiments with different control groups and stimuli supported our assumption, showing
764 that female participants exposed to BoPo selected more body shapes and, on average, a less thin
765 body to describe their understanding of an ideal physique. Moreover, the changes observed in these
766 more abstract standards also predicted an increased feeling of being comfortable in one’s own
767 body—which implies that by changing perceptions of female attractiveness, body-positive content
768 indirectly affects how women perceive themselves.

769 For researchers interested in body-related media effects, we believe that the current work
770 carries a notable theoretical implication. Specifically, our findings underscore that scholars may be
771 advised to look beyond *average* body ideals to gain a comprehensive understanding of people’s
772 bodily perceptions. Especially when examining new interventions that strive to overcome thin-ideal
773 standards, progress may not exclusively be measured in terms of shifting means; instead, with our
774 society being increasingly invested in matters of diversity and inclusivity, the decisive outcome
775 might be two-fold—establishing a less skinny ideal, while also fostering favorable attitudes towards
776 a broader range of different bodies.

777 As our research has added a new angle to the scientific examination of BoPo’s merit, it
778 seems worth noting that sociocultural improvements can happen in various, often unexpected ways.

779 After all, the fact that social media—an innovation often perceived negatively by the general
780 public—may contribute to potentially healthier and more inclusive body ideals highlights that
781 societal progress does not rest in a technology per se, but rather in the hands of those who use it to
782 improve the situation of others. Assuming that the effects found in our two experiments generalize
783 towards other contexts and study designs as well, digital BoPo might find itself in a unique position
784 to foster societal transformations: By modifying internalized principles of beauty towards diversity,
785 it could tackle unfair appearance-related advantages that still persist in many areas of social life. In
786 turn, this could have important downstream consequences, leading to less social comparison
787 processes, higher well-being, a lower drive for unhealthy thinness, and fewer attempts at attaining a
788 skinny body via disordered eating behavior.

789 **Limitations and Future Directions**

790 Our main results are based on two preregistered experiments that involved two different
791 designs (random assignment with post-exposure measurement only or pre- and post-exposure
792 measurement) and two different control conditions (fitspiration or neutral content). In light of this,
793 we believe that our finding of consistent effects across both studies lends noteworthy support to the
794 proposed claims. At the same time, several limitations need to be noted. First, participants' body
795 ideals were measured mainly as explicit attitudes, which opens up our results to questions of social
796 desirability—even though we hope that the anonymous nature of our online experiments somewhat
797 mitigated this bias. Furthermore, we would like to point out that our research was limited to brief,
798 one-time exposure (in the matter of minutes); although single episodes of BoPo exposure may
799 repeat in people's daily lives, possibly leading to a cultivation of appearance-related standards
800 (Stein et al., 2021), long-term effects should definitely be substantiated by additional research (e.g.,
801 involving delayed measurements). As such, we strongly encourage additional studies that focus on

802 the stability of the evoked effects in order to establish them as an actual, persistent change of body
803 ideals.

804 Second, like much of the research in the media effects literature, we presented media stimuli
805 irrespective of the users' own selection processes. At the current time, little is known about stable
806 characteristics (e.g., gender role self-concepts) or situations (e.g., identity threat) that predict a
807 stronger preference for BoPo social media content. Based on the rich knowledge on media choice
808 (Knobloch-Westerwick, 2015), future research is encouraged to fill this research gap. Furthermore,
809 we note that our research was limited to one-time exposure and the measurement of short-term
810 effects. Without a doubt, longitudinal studies on the interplay between BoPo exposure and body
811 standards appear to be a particularly relevant next step.

812 Addressing a third methodological limitation, we note that our sample consisted only of
813 women (and, in the case of Experiment 2, four non-binary participants), with most of them
814 belonging to the young adult age group. While we have no reason to assume that the found effects
815 would be reduced or even absent for other age brackets, we still encourage future research to
816 replicate our experiments with younger or older participants. Moreover, as pointed out in a recent
817 meta-analysis (Saiphoo & Vahedi, 2019), gender differences in the media's impact on body image
818 disturbance seem to be diminishing in the digital age—so that extending our work to male
819 participants is a much-needed next step for future research. In the same vein, we would like to
820 underscore that the current research cannot offer insight into the specific experiences of non-binary
821 individuals; although we decided to be more inclusive of these participant groups in our second
822 experiment, the extremely low number of people indicating their gender as “other” prevented us
823 from conducting any relevant analyses. In a research field that remains notoriously fixated on the
824 life reality of majority groups, we argue that this should not be sidelined, but taken as inspiration for
825 important additional research.

826 Proceeding to questions of media modality, it may be kept in mind that although the BoPo
827 movement is currently most prevalent on social media, other media channels provide BoPo content
828 as well. This includes non-fictional and fictional literature, BoPo content on TV, or body-confident
829 musicians (e.g., Coyne et al., 2021). Presumably, getting to know diverse body standards from
830 different sources might be related to an additional diversification effect, assuming that this might
831 strengthen the cognitive availability of the respective ideals. In that sense, investigations on
832 intertextuality and related effects appear promising. Likewise, we want to point out that our work
833 focused exclusively on observing social media content produced by others. However, social media
834 users are, to a varying degree, also producers of content, which may then be shared with peers,
835 friends, or strangers. Based on this, it might be worthwhile to investigate how producing body-
836 positive content (e.g., as a photographer or model) also affects people's concept of ideal bodies—or
837 if it predicts even stronger effects.

838 Finally, from a more critical perspective, we note that the concept of body positivity itself
839 has recently come under scrutiny by several sociological and feminist scholars, who have argued
840 that contemporary BoPo efforts remain wrongfully fixated on physical appearances, failing to
841 disrupt issues of self-objectification and self-sexualization (e.g., Clark, 2023; Darwin & Miller,
842 2020). According to this work, it might be more important to aspire to genuine 'body neutrality'—
843 i.e., shifting away focus from physical attributes or concepts of beauty altogether. In all probability,
844 tapping into body neutrality literature could inform valuable extensions of our research; as a matter
845 of fact, diversification effects such as the one shown in our experiments might actually foreshadow
846 a reduced emphasis on physical attributes in society, very much in the sense of this body-neutral
847 perspective.

848

Conclusion

849 When judging others and themselves, humans rely on comparison standards and ideals,
850 including the concept of the perfect body shape. During the previous century, Western societies
851 have developed a potentially unhealthy standard of overly thin bodies as the only desirable ideal,
852 especially for girls and young women—and social media have now taken on an important role in
853 disseminating this problematic notion. However, they can have a positive impact as well: Two pre-
854 registered studies show that body-positive online media have the power to shift and broaden users’
855 concepts of beautiful body shapes. Thus, setting apart our work from decades of prior body image
856 research, we found that attempts to overcome restrictive body ideals may not only succeed by
857 shifting averages, but also by fostering a more diverse understanding of physical beauty.
858 Empirically, this observation was only made possible by complementing the typically mean-
859 focused approach with an adapted measure of body ideal diversity. For the future of body-related
860 media and communication research, this might ultimately constitute a superior approach: After all,
861 it is more inclusive to make more (instead of different) bodies seem attractive—and researchers
862 might want to evaluate effects, processes, and interventions accordingly.

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Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent Variables in Study 1

<i>Variables</i>	BoPo condition (<i>n</i> = 96)		Fitspiration condition (<i>n</i> = 95)	
	<i>M (SD)</i>		<i>M (SD)</i>	
Body ideals: Mean selected body shape ¹	4.29 (0.75)		3.92 (0.82)	
Body ideals: Number of selected body shapes ¹	2.93 (2.34)		2.27 (1.84)	
Photo rating task: Average weight rating ²	3.04 (0.17)		3.10 (0.16)	
	Thin woman (<i>n</i> = 48)	Overweight woman (<i>n</i> = 48)	Thin woman (<i>n</i> = 46)	Overweight woman (<i>n</i> = 49)
Relationship scenario: Expected relationship duration ³	3.76 (0.57)	3.52 (0.73)	3.55 (0.69)	3.63 (0.67)
Relationship scenario: Physical attraction ³	3.76 (0.66)	3.41 (0.75)	3.83 (0.60)	3.47 (0.68)

Note. ¹ Measured with the 9-point Figure Rating Scale. ² Averaged score across 36 photo ratings, ranging from 1 to 5. ³ Scale range from 1 to 5.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables in Study 2

<i>Variables</i>	BoPo condition (<i>n</i> = 137)			Control condition (<i>n</i> = 129)		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Δ	Pre-test	Post-test	Δ
Body ideals: Mean selected body shape ²	4.17 (0.77)	4.34 (0.78)	+0.17 (0.43)	4.05 (0.79)	4.08 (0.75)	+0.03 (0.24)
Body ideals: Number of selected body shapes ²	4.09 (2.28)	4.54 (2.22)	+0.45 (1.02)	3.75 (3.67)	3.83 (2.02)	+0.08 (0.57)
BAS-2 Body Appreciation Scale ¹	3.81 (0.78)	3.93 (0.80)	+0.12 (0.24)	3.71 (0.85)	3.76 (0.88)	+0.04 (0.19)
Views on social diversity index ¹	4.37 (0.46)	4.41 (0.47)	+0.04 (0.25)	4.36 (0.48)	4.40 (0.49)	+0.04 (0.19)

Note. ¹ Scale range from 1 to 5. ² Measured with the 9-point Figure Rating Scale.

Figure 1

Percentage of Participants Selecting the Respective Body Shape as Ideal in Experiment 1 (N = 191)

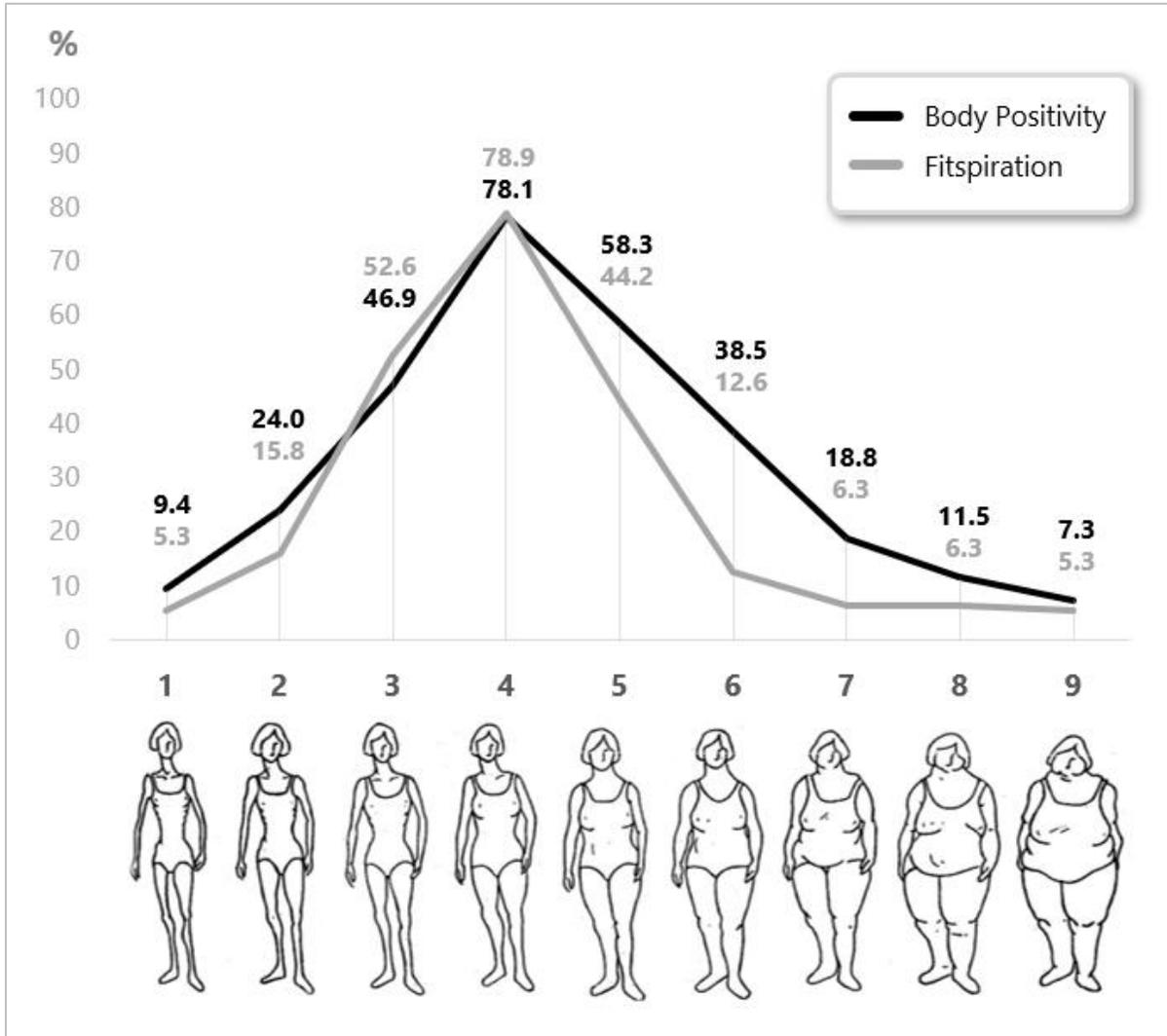


Figure 2

Percentage of Participants Selecting the Respective Body Shape as Ideal in Experiment 2 (N = 266)

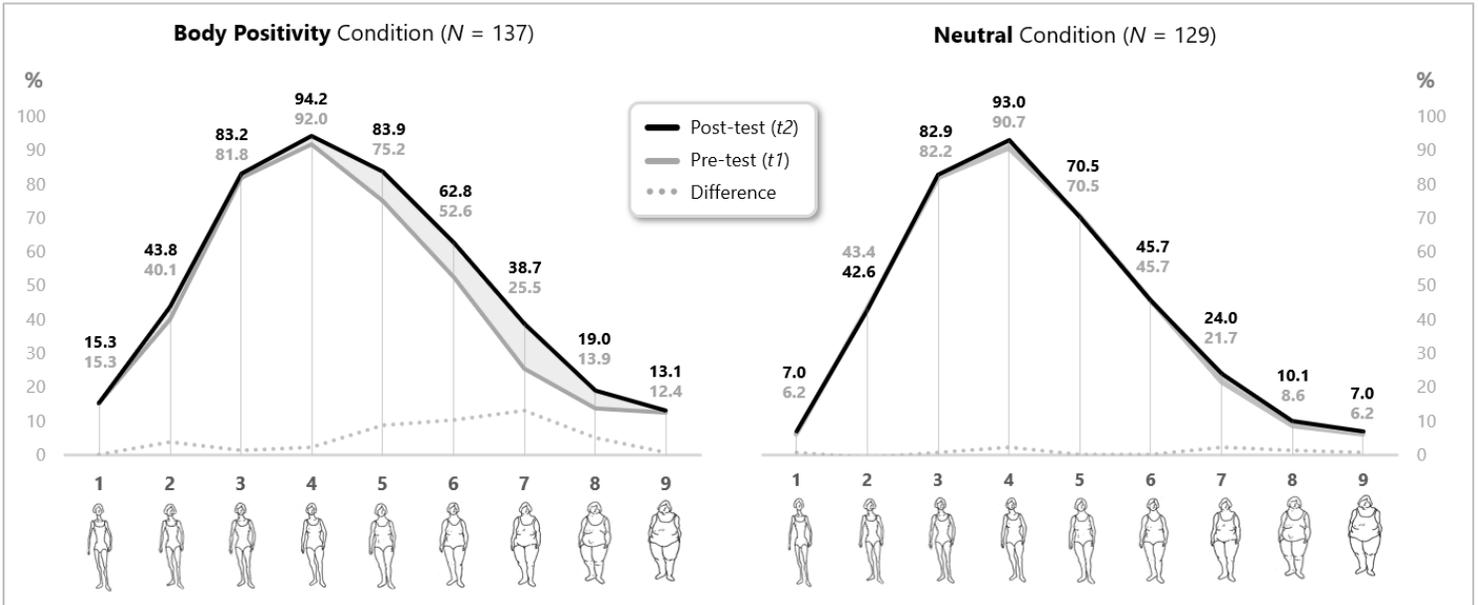


Figure 3

Mediation Model Developed in Study 2. Presented are Unstandardized Regression Coefficients, with Associated Standard Errors in Parentheses. (p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001)*

