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Facebook: Friend or Foe? Exploring the Relationship Between Social Media Use, Social
Comparison, Self-Esteem and Affect

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Abstract

Festinger's social comparison theory suggests humans have a drive to gain accurate self-evaluations through comparison to others. As social media continues to expand, different platforms for social comparison are continuously being created allowing for individuals to compare themselves to millions of people worldwide. Social media provides the perfect platform for meticulous self-presentation. Frequent social media users may believe that others are happier and more successful than themselves, which could lead to lower self-esteem. Research also suggests that participants high in social comparison orientation seek out social comparisons on social media. Thus, an individual's tendency to compare oneself to others may increase Facebook use and negatively affect their self-perception and mood. The purpose of this study was to analyze the relationships between social media use, social comparison orientation, self-esteem and affect. Participants ($N=234$) were recruited through Mechanical Turk and convenience sampling. Facebook use, social comparison orientation, self-esteem and affect were measured. It was hypothesized that individuals with higher social comparison orientation will use Facebook more frequently and that heavier Facebook use will be associated with lower self-esteem and greater negative affect. Gender differences were also examined, and it was expected that women would score higher than men on all variables. The results showed there is a relationship between social comparison orientation, affect and Facebook use. Facebook use was positively correlated with social comparison orientation and negative affect. No significant relationship was found between frequency of Facebook use and self-esteem. Women reported using Facebook more and engaging in more social comparison. The current findings increase our understanding of the correlations to Facebook use and suggests that there are important gender differences in social media use.

Facebook: Friend or Foe? Exploring the Relationship Between Social Media Use, Social Comparison, Self-Esteem and Affect

Over the past decade, social media use has grown exponentially, allowing millions of people to connect instantly across the world. Social media is a form of electronic communication through which users share information, ideas, personal messages and other content, such as pictures and videos. Social networking sites, a subcategory of social media, help maintain personal and business relationships online. Facebook, founded in 2004, now has over two billion active monthly users and is the most prominent social networking site (Constine, 2017).

According to Pew Research Center, roughly eight in ten Americans who are active online use Facebook and 76% visit the site daily, 55% of which visit several times a day (Greenwood, Perrin, & Duggan, 2016). Facebook is not the only social media service connecting the world. Instagram, a photo-sharing social media application, launched in 2010 and has 700 million monthly active users (Byford, 2017). Another prominent social networking service, Twitter, started in 2006, has 300 million monthly active users (Twitter, 2016). Given the popularity of social media use, it is essential to study its effects on human behavior. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between social media use and social comparison orientation, and the possible connections to self-esteem and affect.

Social Media Use

Social media and social networking sites have become common tools for individuals to interact with each other. The amount of time an individual spends on a social networking site can impact their well-being. Kalpidou, Costin, and Morris (2011) investigated quantity of Facebook use and self-esteem and their findings suggested that spending a lot of time on Facebook, more

than three hours per day, is associated with low self-esteem. Seventy undergraduate students completed surveys measuring Facebook use, self-esteem and emotional adjustment to college. A significant negative correlation between spending more than three hours per day on Facebook and self-esteem was found. Similarly, Chou and Edge's (2012) research suggested that frequent users (those who spend more than five hours per week on Facebook) tend to perceive that others are happier than themselves.

Variables other than amount of time spent on Facebook can also affect self-perception and well-being. Research completed by Kim and Lee (2011) revealed that the number of Facebook friends one has had a positive association with subjective well-being. Furthermore, according to research conducted by Burrow and Rainone (2017), receiving a greater number of "likes" reliably predicted greater self-esteem. A "like" occurs when an individual communicates their approval of a post, usually via a thumbs up or heart icon. Thus, the quantity of time on Facebook, the number of Facebook friends, and the number of likes have all been shown to affect variables associated with self-esteem. Even so, relying on superficial information, such as likes and numbers of friends, for greater self-esteem may not be beneficial over time.

Another consideration, aside from "quantity" or "frequency" variables, is how individuals interact with social media sites. Social networking sites allow for a range of activities, which are broadly classified into two categories: active use and passive use (Verduyn, Ybarra, Résibois, Jonides, & Kross, 2017). Active usage refers to activities involving direct exchanges with others, such as sending private messages, sharing links, posting a status update, or posting a picture. Passive usage refers to observing other peoples' lives without participating in direct exchanges with others, such as scrolling through Facebook or looking at other users' profiles, pictures and status updates. Verduyn et al. (2015) used an experimental design to contrast the effects of active

and passive Facebook usage on subjective well-being in 67 undergraduates. Participants indicated levels of subjective well-being before the manipulation by self-rating their affect, loneliness, and life satisfaction and after the manipulation, again by self-rating their current mood (affect), how lonely they felt, how connected to others they felt, and how much better or worse their life seemed compared to others. Affective subjective well-being decreased for participants in the passive Facebook condition. Their subjective well-being was also lower than the self-esteem of participants in the active Facebook condition. Verduyn et al. (2017) reviewed the consequences of interacting with social networking sites for subjective well-being and found that active and passive usage are associated with different subjective well-being outcomes. The results showed a negative relationship between passive use and subjective well-being whereas a positive relationship was found between active use and well-being. These investigators suggested that this negative consequence on subjective well-being from passive Facebook use may have been provoked by social comparison.

Social Comparison

Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory suggests humans have a drive to gain accurate self-evaluations through comparison to others. As social media continues to expand, different platforms for social comparison are being created. There is now a plethora of social media outlets to compare oneself to millions of people worldwide. People often compare themselves to others to validate their own lives without being aware of such action. Comparing with others is a pervasive social phenomenon (Suls, Martin, & Wheeler, 2002). The process of social comparison can be unintentional, depending on the context, and the extent to which individuals compare themselves to others varies from one individual to the next. Based on this belief, Gibbons and Buunk (1999) created a scale assessing individual differences in comparison

orientation, the Iowa-Netherlands Comparison Orientation Measure. The scale was constructed to be appropriate and comparable in two cultures (American and Dutch), based on the assumption that the tendency toward social comparison is universal. The scale was found to have good psychometric properties and demonstrated the ability to predict comparison behavior effectively. An individual who receives a high social comparison orientation score is more likely to compare themselves to others in relation to individuals with low social comparison orientation.

Social comparison can occur in different ways. The downward comparison theory, also known as the self-enhancement motive, claims that comparisons to someone who is less fortunate will lead to a boost in well-being, whereas an upward comparison to those better off can reduce well-being (Suls et al., 2002). Vogel, Rose, Roberts, and Eckles (2014) examined social comparison on Facebook and found that upward social comparison takes place when comparing oneself to others perceived as superior and downward social comparison happens when comparing oneself to others perceived as inferior. Specifically, they revealed that participants state self-esteem was lower when looking at a Facebook profile containing upward comparison information, such as an individual with high social network activity and healthy habits such as running or hiking a scenic trail, than a Facebook profile containing downward comparison information, such as an individual with low social network activity and unhealthy habits, such as playing video games or sitting on the beach.

Facebook creates an ideal environment for upward social comparison. Cramer, Song, and Drent (2016) found that comparing oneself to others is a common practice on Facebook. Most (69%) of the participants agreed they engage in social comparison on Facebook. According to Hanna et al. (2017), Facebook exposes users to steady information about other people's lives and

is a platform that allows users to portray themselves in a socially desirable way. Since people can selectively self-present positive aspects of their lives on social media, others are making social comparisons from biased information (Vogel, Rose, Okdie, Eckles, & Franz, 2015). This type of social comparison is different from face-to-face interactions because it allows for a degree of flexibility for the Facebook user to only post positive information, which in turn creates an ideal environment for upward comparison. Cramer, Song, and Drent (2016) noted that posts that show unfavorable impressions and photos that are unflattering can simply be edited or deleted.

Research conducted by Vogel et al. (2015) showed that participants high in social comparison orientation seek out social comparisons on social media. Participants were first surveyed about their social comparison tendencies and Facebook use. An experimental approach then showed that participants high in social comparison orientation appeared to use Facebook more frequently than participants low in social comparison orientation and also reported lower state self-esteem and higher negative affect after viewing others' Facebook profiles. Individual differences, such as level of social comparison orientation, can influence how social media use may affect well-being.

Self-Esteem

Since social media creates an ideal environment for upward social comparison, individuals may often use this information to evaluate themselves. This comparison may lead to lower self-esteem. An individual's self-esteem is dependent on the subjective evaluation of their own worth. Vogel et al. (2014) revealed that viewing social media profiles with positive content was associated with lower self-esteem, based on the idea that upward social comparison leads to lower feelings of self-worth, and that when people compare themselves to such idealized online versions of others on Facebook, this action may be detrimental for well-being and self-

evaluations. The effects of social media use on well-being needs to be examined further, since it has become a part of daily life for millions of people. Research conducted by Chou and Edge (2012) found that looking at pictures of happy moments posted by others on Facebook gives users the impression that others are always happy, which is not necessarily accurate. Kalpidou, Costin, and Morris (2011) examined the relationship between Facebook use and self-esteem in undergraduate students and found that spending more time on Facebook is negatively related to self-esteem. Nesi and Prinstein (2015) surveyed over 600 high school students and found that engaging in technology-based social comparison and feedback seeking behaviors through social networking use might form distorted perceptions of peers. This may lead to engaging in harmful upward comparisons and a decrease in self-esteem and mood. Cramer, Song, and Drent's (2016) analysis of 267 college students showed that individuals with low self-esteem were consistently more motivated than individuals with high self-esteem to compare themselves to others on social media. Individuals using Facebook may lose sight of true reality by comparing their low moments in off-line life with their Facebook friends' online high points (Hanna et al., 2017).

Affect

As stated, upward comparisons can adversely influence mood. A person's mood refers to one's temporary emotional state of mind, but it is also considered an affective state. Affect is a psychological term used to describe the immediate experience of emotion produced by a specific stimulus, and it can fluctuate depending on an individuals' emotional state. de Vries and Kühne (2015) distributed an online survey to 231 participants that assessed Facebook use, negative social comparison on Facebook, self-perception and life satisfaction. Through a correlational analysis, they found that individuals who report unhappiness seem to experience more negative social comparison and in turn, may experience more negative self-perception. In addition, these

researchers found that lower self-esteem may lead to negative affective states. When individuals who are already experiencing negative affect make upward social comparisons, it may lower self-esteem. Research conducted by Feinstein et al. (2013) also revealed that Facebook social comparison was significantly and positively correlated with general (offline) social comparison and both were significantly and positively associated with depressive symptoms.

Kross, et al. (2013) examined the relationship between Facebook use and affect in 83 participants ($M_{age} = 19.52$, $SD_{age} = 2.17$). The researchers sent text messages five times per day for two weeks to examine how Facebook use influences subjective well-being. They found that Facebook use predicts a decline in how people feel moment to moment and how satisfied they are with their lives. Controlling for direct social interaction, based on the idea that any form of social interaction may undermine well-being, did not alter the relationship found between Facebook use and affective well-being. Facebook use may negatively impact well-being by stimulating negative social comparison and fostering negative self-perception, especially among those emerging adults who are already unhappy (deVries & Kühne, 2015). Gibbons and Buunk (1999) reported that the desire to socially compare may increase during periods of heightened uncertainty, such as a negative affective state, based on findings that link social comparison with negative affectivity. There are many factors that could increase self-uncertainty and, even though one's affect may be fairly stable, it will reflect temporary situational influences. These findings support the idea that an individual's subjective state of mind may impact the outcomes of social comparison on social media.

Gender

Very few of the studies examining the relationship between social media use, affect, and self-esteem have included gender as a variable. This is surprising given that women are twice as

likely as men to show moderate to severe levels of depression (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1990). A substantial literature review conducted by Angst, Gamma, Gastpar, Lépine, Mendlewicz and Tylee (2002) reconfirmed the higher female prevalence rates for major depression but found no gender difference for minor depression. Haferkamp and Krämer (2011) indicated that, when asked what elements they compared themselves to on others online profiles, females focused on the attractiveness of photographs while males focused instead on successfulness of career information. These findings show that men and women use social media differently, and as such, gender may influence the effect social media use and social comparison have on Facebook users. This information leads to more questions: Is gender related to social comparison? Does gender influence how the person uses social media?

Nesi and Prinstein (2015) suggested that the association between technology-based social comparison and depressive symptoms was stronger for women compared to men. Technology-based social comparison is especially likely when users spend the majority of their time on social networking sites look at peers' profiles and photos rather than updating their own profiles. Depressed individuals may experience a worsening of symptoms in light of others' perceived happiness portrayed ideally online. Hanna et al. (2017) surveyed over a thousand men and women about their Facebook habits, self-esteem, social comparison orientation, and psychological symptoms (depression and anxiety) and discovered relationships, between social comparison, Facebook use and various dimensions of psychological well-being, such as self-esteem and mental health, in both men and women.

Current Research

Previous research has shown there are relationships between Facebook use, social comparison orientation, self-esteem and affect. The current research aimed to expand what is

known about this relationship. It was hypothesized that individuals with higher social comparison orientation will use Facebook more frequently and heavier Facebook use would be associated with lower self-esteem and greater negative affect. Gender differences were also examined. Given what is known about gender differences, it was expected that women would score significantly higher than men on social comparison orientation and social media use.

Method

Participants

Eligible participants were at least 18 years old and had an active Facebook account. The present study was posted on Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) and convenience sampling on social media. A total of 269 participants were recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) and convenience sampling on social media. Thirty-five participants were excluded because they did not fully complete the survey with over ten percent of data missing. The final sample consisted of 234 participants (55.6% female) between the ages of 20 to 77. The majority of participants (52.4%) were between the ages of 25 to 34, with 17.2% between the ages of 35 to 44 and 9.7% between the ages of 18 to 24. The racial/ethnic makeup of the sample was 79.4% White, 8.6% Asian, 6.9% Black or African American, 4.3% Hispanic or Latino, 4% American Indian or Alaskan Native and 4% other. The majority of the participants had a Bachelor's Degree (39.1%), with 27.9% stating they attended some college, 14.6% had received a High School Diploma/GED, 12.9% had an Associate's degree, 4.3% a Master's degree and 1.3% a Doctoral/Professional degree. The majority of participants (55.8%) have been on Facebook between five and ten years, with 28.8% being a user for 10 plus years and 12.9% between two and five years. More than half of the participants reported being on Twitter (65.4%) and having an Instagram account (64.1%), and 38% said they had Snapchat.

Procedure

Participants were informed they would be completing an online survey regarding social media and were given a link to the survey on Qualtrics. The participants recruited through MTurk ($N = 220$) received minor monetary compensation for participating (\$1.00 USD per participant). The majority of the participants completed the study within fifteen minutes, with twenty minutes as the maximum. Ethical approval was obtained from the university's Institutional Review Board prior to data collection. Demographic information (age, gender, race/ethnicity, education), Facebook use, affect, social comparison, and self-esteem were assessed through self-report questionnaires. The participants completed the measures in the order listed below.

Measures

Facebook Use. Facebook use was assessed with the Facebook Motivation and Importance Scale (Błachnio, Przepiorka, & Rudnicka, 2016) and the Facebook Intensity Scale (Ellison, Steinfield, and Lampe, 2007). The Facebook Motivation and Importance Scale examines three variables related to Facebook use: social Facebook use (e.g., “I want to meet new people using Facebook”), instrumental Facebook use (e.g., “Facebook helps me to manage everyday tasks”), and Facebook personal importance (e.g., “It scares me to think that Facebook would cease to exist” and “I cannot imagine living without Facebook”). Participants indicated their agreement with each of the 21 statements by using a 7-point Likert scale ($1 = strongly disagree$; $7 = strongly agree$). Higher scores indicated heavier Facebook importance and usage. Cronbach's alpha was .93. The Facebook Intensity Scale goes beyond frequency and duration of use, compared to the Facebook Motivation and Importance Scale, and incorporates emotional attachment to the site (e.g., “I feel out of touch when I haven't logged onto Facebook for a

while”) and the role Facebook plays in users’ daily life (e.g., “Facebook is part of my everyday activity”) through five statements. Participants indicated their agreement with each of the statements by using a 5-point Likert scale ($1 = \textit{strongly disagree}$; $5 = \textit{strongly agree}$). Higher scores indicated heavier emotional connection to Facebook. Cronbach’s alpha was = .90. The scale also consisted of two questions used to measure the extent to which the participant was actively engaged in Facebook activities (e.g., “About how many total Facebook Friends do you have?” and “In the past week, on average, approximately how many minutes per day have you spent on Facebook?”). Participants were also asked how many years they have had a Facebook account and if they use other social networking sites, such as Twitter, Instagram, and Snapchat.

Social Comparison Orientation. To assess individual differences in social comparison orientation, the Iowa-Netherlands Comparison Orientation Measure (INCOM; Gibbons & Buunk, 1999) was used. Participants indicated their agreement with 23 statements on a 7-point Likert scale ($1 = \textit{strongly agree}$; $7 = \textit{strongly disagree}$). The 23 statements were part of 3 scales: social comparison scale ($\alpha = .92$), which had 11 items (e.g., “I always pay a lot of attention to how I do things compared with how others do things”), upward comparison sub scale ($\alpha = .94$) consisting of 6 items (e.g., “I sometimes compare myself with others who have accomplished more in life than I have”) and downward comparison sub scale ($\alpha = .93$), which also had 6 items (e.g., “I sometimes compare myself with others who have accomplished less in life than I have”). Higher scores represented higher social comparison orientation.

Affect. Affect was evaluated using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegan, 1988). This 20-item scale asked participants to indicate the extent to which they were currently experiencing each of the 10 positive (e.g., inspired, excited) and 10 negative (e.g., upset, afraid) mood states using a 5-point Likert-type scale ($1 = \textit{very slightly or}$

not at all; 5 = *extremely*). A positive affect score ($\alpha = .91$) and a negative affect score ($\alpha = .95$) were computed for each participant. A higher positive affect score indicated greater positive affect and a higher negative affect score indicated greater negative affect.

Self-Esteem. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1979) was used to measure self-esteem. For this inventory, participants indicated their agreement with 10 statements on a 4-point Likert scale (*1 = strongly agree; 4 = strongly disagree*). Sample items include “I feel that I have a number of good qualities” and “I wish I could have more respect for myself.” Since higher scores indicate better self-esteem, positively worded items (1, 3, 4, 7, 10) are scored in reverse direction. Minimum score is 10 and maximum is 40. Cronbach’s alpha was .94.

Results

Pearson’s correlation tests were conducted to analyze the relationships between Facebook use, social comparison orientation, affect, and self-esteem. As stated earlier, it was hypothesized that individuals with higher social comparison orientation will use Facebook more frequently and that heavier Facebook use would be associated with lower self-esteem and greater negative affect. Table 1 displays the correlations among the key variables. As expected, frequency of Facebook use operationalized as how many minutes per day have spent on Facebook per week) was positively correlated with social comparison orientation ($r = .26, p < .01$) and negative affect ($r = .17, p < .01$). No significant relationship was found between frequency of Facebook use and self-esteem.

When examining the correlations separately by gender, a positive correlational relationship was found for Facebook use and social comparison orientation ($r = .25, p < .01$) as well as Facebook use and negative affect ($r = .20, p < .05$) for women, but not men. When examining the variables further, a negative relationship was found between social comparison

orientation and self-esteem ($r = -.35, p < .01$) for men only. Both men ($r = .30, p < .01$) and women ($r = .33, p < .01$) were found to have a positive correlation between social comparison orientation and negative affect.

Upward social comparison orientation was positively correlated with both number of Facebook friends ($r = .16, p < .05$) as well as the amount of time spent on Facebook ($r = .17, p < .05$). Downward social comparison was associated with time spent on Facebook ($r = .13, p < .05$), but not number of Facebook friends. A significant positive correlational relationship was found between all the Facebook variables (time spent on Facebook measured in minutes per day, number of Facebook friends, emotional Facebook use, social Facebook use, instrumental Facebook use, and Facebook personal importance) and social comparison orientation overall, but not when split by gender. Table 2 displays the correlations between affect, social comparison orientation, and self-esteem, specifically. Self-esteem was significantly correlated with upward social comparison orientation ($r = -.37, p < .01$), downward social comparison orientation ($r = -.22, p < .01$), negative affect and ($r = -.49, p < .01$) positive affect ($r = .46, p < .01$).

Additionally, *t*-tests were conducted to examine the gender differences between the key variables. Women scored significantly higher than males on all variables, except positive affect, social Facebook use, and instrumental Facebook use. The results are displayed in Table 3.

Discussion

Taken together, the results show there is a relationship between social comparison orientation, affect and Facebook use. These results suggest that individuals, women specifically, who engage in heavier Facebook use also report being more likely to compare themselves to others, supporting this hypothesis. Each variable associated with Facebook use had a significant relationship with social comparison orientation, which suggests individuals who engage more on

Facebook are more likely to compare themselves to others online. Heavier Facebook use was associated with negative affect, again supporting the hypothesis and mirroring research conducted by Kross, et al. (2013), which indicated that the more an individual used Facebook, the worse they felt. Despite that previous research revealed relationships between Facebook use and self-esteem, no significant relationship was found in this study. However, Vogel et al.'s (2015) experimental approach showed participants high in social comparison orientation (compared to participants low in social comparison orientation) reported lower self-esteem after viewing an acquaintance's Facebook profile. It is possible that there is a third variable that causes the fluctuation in self-esteem levels, like the type of Facebook use (active versus passive), and that self-esteem is only affected directly after social comparison on Facebook. Future research should investigate the possible outcomes of active versus passive Facebook use.

Upon further examination, significant relationships were found between social comparison orientation and the other variables. There was a significant, negative relationship between social comparison orientation and self-esteem, suggesting individuals with higher social comparison orientation tend to have lower self-esteem. A significant relationship was also found between time spent on Facebook and upward social comparison, and a significant negative relationship found between upward social comparison orientation and self-esteem. Previous research has shown that upward social comparison can be detrimental for self-evaluation (Vogel et al., 2014). As stated earlier, Facebook creates an ideal environment for upward social comparison since individuals can choose what information to share on the social media site. Previous research showed social media use is related to negative self-perception through social comparison (de Vries and Kühne, 2015). Research conducted by Wang, Wang, Gaskin, and Hawk (2017) also suggested that spending time on social networking sites was positively related

to social comparison, which was associated with lower self-esteem. A significant relationship was also found between upward social comparison orientation and negative affect, suggesting individuals with greater negative affect are more likely to compare themselves to others. Feinstein et al. (2013) suggests that social networking sites provide the ideal opportunity for individuals to compare themselves with others, and these comparisons can be linked to depressive symptoms and negative well-being. Facebook use appears to damage self-esteem and increase negative affect through upward social comparison.

The relationship between time spent on Facebook and social comparison orientation was present in women but not in men, as well as the relationship between time spent on Facebook and negative affect. These results reflect the findings of Nesi and Prinstein (2015), which found that the relationship between social comparison and depressive symptoms, such as negative affect, was stronger for women than men. Interestingly, a significant, negative relationship was found between social comparison orientation and self-esteem in men, but not women. The *t*-tests indicate that women are more likely to compare, both upward and downward, and experience negative affect. Women also report more of an emotional connection to Facebook and placing more personal importance on Facebook. Facebook use appears to be a friend to men as long as they do not compare themselves to others, but a foe to women due to their greater tendency to make social comparisons.

Since social media sites have become ubiquitous in everyday life, it is crucial to continue examining the relationships between social media use and social comparison, and the possible impact it has on self-esteem and affect. Future research should investigate the possible effects of active versus passive Facebook use, an important variable to consider that was not examined in the current study. Significant gender differences were discovered, and it is important for future

research to continue to examine these gender differences to discover why they exist. Other social media outlets, like Instagram and Twitter, should be examined in future research.

Although further investigation is necessary to gain a better understanding about the relationship between social comparison orientation, social media use, self-esteem and affect, the current findings have reinforced the association between these variables.

Table 1

Correlations between Measures

	Time spent on Facebook (minutes per day)			Number of Facebook friends			Social Comparison Orientation (SCO)		
	Overall	Men	Women	Overall	Men	Women	Overall	Men	Women
SCO	.26**	.14	.25**	.16*	.12	.09	-		
Negative Affect	.17**	.05	.20*	.11	-.03	.16	.35**	.30**	.34**
Positive Affect	.05	.04	.06	.07	.25*	-.07	-.12	-.17	-.08
Self-Esteem	-.09	-.05	-.04	-.05	.18	-.13	-.26**	-.35**	-.10
Upward SCO	.17*	.01	.15	.17*	.12	.13	.86**	.87**	.84**
Downward SCO	.13*	.04	.13	.09	.10	-.01	.64**	.77**	.47**
Emotional Facebook Use	.62**	.60**	.61**	.35**	.20*	.41**	.43**	.46**	.32**
Social Facebook Use	.33**	.36**	.33**	.13*	.15	.13	.29**	.25**	.37**
Instrumental Facebook Use	.35**	.28**	.40**	.14*	.18	.08	.37**	.43**	.27**
Facebook Personal Importance	.54**	.45**	.59**	.26**	.18	.28**	.38**	.43**	.27**
Time spent on Facebook	-			.31**	.10	.39**	.26**	.14	.25**

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

Table 2

Correlations (Overall)

	Negative Affect	Positive Affect	Self-Esteem	Upward SCO	Downward SCO
Negative Affect		-.13	-.49**	.37**	.32**
Positive Affect	-.13		.46**	-.12	.09
Self-Esteem	-.49**	.46**		-.37**	-.22**
Upward SCO	.37**	-.12	-.37**		.69**
Downward SCO	.32**	.09	-.22**	.69**	

Note. ** $p < .01$.

Table 2 continued

Correlations (Gender)

	Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Self-Esteem		Upward SCO		Downward SCO	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Negative Affect			-.16	-.11	-.51**	-.45**	.34**	.36**	.27**	-.33**
Positive Affect	-.16	-.11			.46**	.48**	-.17	-.07	.07	.26**
Self-Esteem	-.51**	-.45**	.46**	.48**			-.44*	-.24**	-.37**	-.02
Upward SCO	.34**	.36**	-.17	-.07	-.44**	-.24**			.84**	.50**
Downward SCO	.37**	.33**	-.07	.26**	-.37**	-.02	.84**	.50**		

Note. ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Independent Group T-Tests

	Men		Women		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	M	SD	M	SD		
SCO	41.81	14.15	50.90	13.23	-5.053**	231
Negative Affect	16.27	8.10	18.80	8.51	-2.298*	230
Positive Affect	31.08	8.05	30.86	7.63	0.210	229
Self-Esteem	31.98	6.51	28.95	6.74	3.445**	229
Upward SCO	22.05	9.90	26.23	8.65	-3.427**	230
Downward SCO	20.83	9.35	24.48	8.11	-3.175**	230
Emotional Facebook Use	19.41	8.37	23.35	7.45	-3.792**	231
Social Facebook Use	19.72	3.64	19.64	3.09	0.181	231
Instrumental Facebook Use	12.82	6.04	13.68	5.70	-1.119	231
Facebook Personal Importance	36.43	18.36	41.92	16.94	-2.364*	231

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

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