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Development and Validation of the Appearance Influence and Body Satisfaction Scale (AIBSS)

İsmail Kuşci¹

Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University

Vedat Bakır²

Kütahya Dumlupınar University

Abstract

This study developed and evaluated the Appearance Influence and Body Satisfaction Scale (AIBSS), a Turkish measure of two distinct aspects of body image. Exploratory factor analysis ($n = 213$) supported two subscales: Sociocultural Appearance Influence (11 items) and Body Satisfaction (6 items). Confirmatory factor analysis using a second dataset ($n = 360$) showed good model fit ($CFI = .951$, $TLI = .942$, $RMSEA = .065$). The factors were nearly uncorrelated ($r = -.072$), supporting separate scoring and interpretation. Sociocultural Appearance Influence was positively associated with appearance anxiety and perfectionism and negatively associated with self-esteem; Body Satisfaction showed the reverse pattern. Internal consistency was high for both subscales in the confirmatory dataset ($\alpha = .896-.925$; $\omega = .894-.917$). The AIBSS offers a brief measure for research on sociocultural appearance influence and body satisfaction. Further evaluation with clearly independent and more diverse samples is needed.

Key Words

Body image • Body satisfaction • Measurement invariance • Reflected appraisal • Scale development • Sociocultural influence

¹ Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University, Department of Counselling Psychology, Tokat, Türkiye. E-mail: kusci.ismail@gmail.com ORCID: 0000-0002-2178-8429

² Correspondance to: Vedat Bakır, Kütahya Dumlupınar University, Kütahya, Türkiye. E-mail: vedat.bakir@dpu.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0001-5458-5110

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Introduction

Body image concerns how people see and feel about their bodies. It includes judgments about appearance, feelings about the body, and the ways these views affect daily behavior (Cash & Smolak, 2011; Cash, 2012). These experiences also take shape in a social context. Ideas about appearance are influenced by the standards people encounter around them (Grogan, 2021).

A negative view of one's body has been linked to eating disorders (Stice et al., 2011; Mitchison et al., 2020), depressive symptoms (Sharpe et al., 2018), social appearance anxiety (Hart et al., 2008), lower self-esteem (Tiggemann & Slater, 2013), and poorer quality of life (Griffiths et al., 2016). People form these views through their own experiences and through contact with others, media images, and cultural ideals (Fardouly & Vartanian, 2016; Rodgers et al., 2015). Comparing one's appearance with others and adopting beauty ideals may further shape how a person feels about their body.

Theoretical Framework

How people see their bodies may depend partly on how they think others see them. Objectification theory suggests that being looked at and judged can lead a person to view their body through someone else's eyes (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Appearance standards can also come from family, peers, and the media (Thompson et al., 1999). People may compare themselves with these standards. Festinger (1954) described social comparison in general terms, while later studies examined comparison specifically in relation to appearance (Myers & Crowther, 2009; Tiggemann & Polivy, 2010). These ideas provide a basis for examining how others' views and appearance standards relate to body image.

Rationale and Contribution

Existing measures assess important aspects of body image, including sociocultural appearance attitudes, appearance comparison, and satisfaction with one's appearance. The AIBSS does not aim to replace these instruments. It brings two questions into one brief measure: how strongly external appraisals and appearance standards shape a person's view of their body, and how satisfied that person is with their appearance. The first question concerns sociocultural appearance influence; the second concerns body satisfaction. Measuring them together allows researchers to examine their separate associations with psychological outcomes.

The subscales are intended to be scored separately. We use influence rather than pressure for the first subscale because most of its items ask whether other people, media images, and appearance standards shape self-perception; only one item explicitly refers to feeling pressured. The instrument was developed in Turkish and is presented as a measure of two distinct dimensions, without assuming that they form a single overall body image score.

Social media provides a setting in which people encounter appearance ideals and compare their bodies with those of others (Fardouly & Vartanian, 2016). The AIBSS is not intended to measure social media use specifically. Its influence items address interpersonal encounters, media images, and social media together; only one item refers explicitly to social media. We therefore examined whether this broader influence subscale was associated with appearance-related social media processes.

Study Aims

This study developed the AIBSS and examined the structure and reliability of its two subscales. We also assessed their associations with appearance-related distress, self-esteem, anxiety, and social media-related appearance processes. To examine whether the subscales offer information beyond appearance-related social media consciousness, we evaluated their additional contribution to selected psychological outcomes. Finally, we tested measurement invariance across gender.

Method

The Appearance Influence and Body Satisfaction Scale (AIBSS) was developed through a literature review, item generation, expert evaluation, and a pilot study. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted with data from 213 participants. The factor structure and other psychometric properties were then examined in a dataset of 360 participants. The following sections describe each stage.

Item Pool Development Process

The item pool for the AIBSS was developed through a review of body image theory and existing measures. Item development was informed by the body image research brought together by [Cash and Pruzinsky \(2002\)](#), objectification theory ([Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997](#)), and social comparison theory ([Festinger, 1954](#)). The aim was to ensure that the scale would address both internal evaluation (body satisfaction) and external influences (social, media, and cultural factors). Existing measurement tools, such as the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire ([Cash, 2000](#)), Body Appreciation Scale ([Avalos et al., 2005](#)), and Social Physique Anxiety Scale ([Hart et al., 1989](#)), were reviewed to identify relevant content domains and inform item generation.

Five academic experts in body image, psychological counseling, psychometrics, clinical psychology and educational measurement rated each item for relevance to the intended construct and for clarity. We assessed content validity using the Davis technique ([Davis, 1992](#)). Experts rated each item on a four-point scale, from 1 (not relevant) to 4 (highly relevant). For each item, we calculated the proportion of experts who gave it a rating of 3 or 4. Items with a content validity index below .80 were removed or revised. Following expert evaluation and wording revisions, 21 items were retained for the pilot study. The 21 items were then administered to 30 university students in a pilot study to assess comprehensibility. No item was reported as unclear, and minor linguistic adjustments were made. Items were rated on a five-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree).

Participants

The study was conducted with two samples. Data were collected in Türkiye, and all instruments were administered in Turkish, the participants' native language. Information on race or ethnicity was not collected, in line with common practice in Turkish psychological research. The first sample was used for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and consisted of 213 participants, including 178 women (83.6%) and 35 men (16.4%). Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 29 years, with a mean age of 21.03 (SD = 2.53). In terms of educational background, the majority were university students (mean education level = 3.84, SD = 0.38; 1 = primary school, 5 = postgraduate). Additionally, 9% of the participants reported being married.

The second sample group was utilized for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and other psychometric analyses. This group comprised 360 participants, including 291 women (80.8%) and 69 men (19.2%), with ages ranging

from 16 to 40 years (mean age = 21.96, SD = 4.70). Similar to the first group, most participants were university students (mean education level = 3.82, SD = 0.49). In this group, 15% reported being married. Furthermore, participants' engagement in sports or exercise was rated on a scale from 1 (never) to 3 (regularly), with a mean score of 1.58 (SD = 0.55).

Data Collection Instruments

Appearance Influence and Body Satisfaction Scale (AIBSS). The 21-item version evaluated in the exploratory analysis was reduced to 17 items. The final measure has two subscales: Sociocultural Appearance Influence (11 items; AIBSS1–AIBSS11) and Body Satisfaction (6 items; AIBSS12–AIBSS17). Items are rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Each subscale score is the mean of its items; no total score is calculated. The original Turkish items are provided in Supplementary Table S2.

The criterion measures were selected to cover three areas: appearance-related affect and cognition (social appearance anxiety, physical appearance perfectionism), general psychological adjustment (self-esteem, anxiety) and social media-related appearance processes (appearance-related social media consciousness, online self-presentation). Reliability coefficients for the present sample are reported in Table 5.

Physical Appearance Perfectionism Scale (PAPS). The PAPS (Yang & Stoeber, 2012; Turkish adaptation by Kolsallayan & Kazak, 2021) contains two subscales: Worry About Imperfection (items 1–7) and Hope for Perfection (items 8–12). Responses are given on a five-point scale. We included both subscales to examine how appearance influence and body satisfaction relate to perfectionistic concerns and ideals.

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES). Rosenberg (1965) developed the scale. Çuhadaroglu (1985) adapted it into Turkish. The scale has 10 items and measures general self-esteem. The Turkish version reported a validity coefficient of .71 and a test–retest reliability coefficient of .75. We reverse-scored the negatively worded items. Higher scores indicate higher self-esteem.

The Anxiety subscale of the Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS-21), developed by Lovibond and Lovibond (1995) and adapted into Turkish by Yilmaz et al. (2017), was also used. Responses are given on a four-point scale. The Turkish study reported an internal consistency coefficient of .81. Its confirmatory factor analysis showed acceptable fit ($\chi^2/df = 2.58$, NFI = .98, SRMR = .04, GFI = .93, AGFI = .91).

The Social Appearance Anxiety Scale (SAAS). Hart et al. (2008) developed the scale. Doğan (2010) adapted it into Turkish. The scale has 16 items and measures social appearance anxiety. The Turkish adaptation reported a Cronbach's alpha of .93. We reverse-scored Item 1 before calculating the scale score. Higher scores indicate greater social appearance anxiety.

Appearance-Related Social Media Consciousness Scale (ARSMC). Choukas-Bradley et al. (2020) developed the scale. Öngören et al. (2021) adapted it into Turkish. Its 13 items assess how much people think about and monitor their appearance in relation to social media audiences. Responses are given on a seven-point scale. We used the score as the baseline predictor in the incremental validity analyses.

Social Media Self-Presentation Scale (SMBSS). Michikyan et al. (2015) developed the scale. Kuşci et al. (2025) adapted it into Turkish. It has three dimensions: Online Self-Differentiation (4 items), Real Self-

Presentation (5 items), and Strategic Impression Management (8 items). We used it to examine how the AIBSS subscales relate to social media self-presentation.

Data Collection Procedure

Data from 213 participants were used for the exploratory factor analysis. A second dataset of 360 participants was used for the confirmatory factor analysis, gender invariance, criterion-related validity, and reliability analyses. Participants completed a demographic form, the AIBSS items, and the other study measures after receiving information about the study. Participation was voluntary, and the study had ethics committee approval.

Ethics Committee Approval

The study was approved by the Kütahya Dumlupınar University Social and Human Sciences Research and Publication Ethics Committee on 27 November 2024 (Meeting No. 2024/11, Decision 2). All participants provided written informed consent. They were informed about the study, the use of their data, confidentiality, and their right to withdraw at any time. Participation was voluntary.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using SPSS 29.0, AMOS 29.0, and R 4.3.3. We examined the structure of the AIBSS in the 213-person dataset using principal axis factoring with oblimin rotation. We considered three sources of evidence when deciding how many factors to retain: parallel analysis, the scree plot, and whether the solution could be interpreted meaningfully. Parallel analysis was conducted in R using the psych package, with 1,000 random datasets and the 95th-percentile criterion (Horn, 1965). Item retention decisions were based on factor loadings, cross-loadings, communalities, and the interpretability of the factor solution. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was then performed on the second sample to validate the factor structure identified in the EFA. Model fit was assessed using χ^2/df , CFI, TLI, RMSEA with its 90% confidence interval, and SRMR. We also estimated the model in R using robust maximum likelihood (MLR). We then used diagonally weighted least squares with mean- and variance-adjusted test statistics (WLSMV). In the WLSMV analysis, the five-point items were treated as ordinal indicators (Rosseel, 2012). Convergent and discriminant validity were assessed by calculating the average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV), and the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio. For criterion-related validity, correlations between the AIBSS subscales and other measurement instruments were examined. Incremental validity was examined using hierarchical regression. Appearance-related social media consciousness was entered in Step 1, followed by Sociocultural Appearance Influence and Body Satisfaction in Step 2. The change in explained variance (ΔR^2) was tested with an F test. We tested gender invariance with multi-group CFA. We began with an unconstrained configural model. We then constrained measurement weights for metric invariance and item intercepts for scalar invariance. Finally, we tested equality of factor covariances and measurement residuals. These analyses were also repeated using MLR estimation in R. Invariance was evaluated using a maximum CFI decrease of .010 and a maximum RMSEA increase of .015 (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Latent mean differences were estimated after scalar invariance was supported. Reliability was assessed with Cronbach's α and McDonald's ω , computed from the CFA model with the semTools package (Jorgensen et al., 2022) in both samples.

Findings

The suitability of the data for factor analysis was examined using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The KMO value was calculated as .904, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was found to be significant ($\chi^2 = 2851.063$, $df = 210$, $p < .001$). These results indicated that the data were appropriate for factor analysis. The initial factor analysis identified three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, which together explained 56.83% of the total variance. However, parallel analysis supported retaining two factors. Four items were then excluded. The item numbers below refer to their positions in the original 21-item pool; retained items were subsequently renumbered AIBSS1–AIBSS17 in Table 1:

- Original item 7R (“I would like to change certain parts of my body.”) was removed because its factor loading (.196) was below the .50 criterion.
- Original item 9 (“I constantly check my physical appearance according to external standards.”) was removed because its pattern-matrix loadings did not meet the .50 criterion.
- Original item 10 (“I care about my body’s appearance to gain others’ approval.”) showed high loadings on both Factor 1 (.682) and Factor 3 (.697) in the structure matrix, indicating cross-loading.
- Original item 18 (“My family’s opinions about my body appearance are important to me.”) had a factor loading close to the threshold (.511) but was removed due to a low communality value (.277).

After removing these four items, a repeated factor analysis yielded a KMO value of .893, and Bartlett's test of sphericity remained significant ($\chi^2 = 2384.403$, $df = 136$, $p < .001$). Parallel analysis again supported a two-factor solution (observed factor eigenvalues from the parallel analysis: 5.99, 3.23, and 0.34; corresponding 95th-percentile random eigenvalues: 0.64, 0.44, and 0.36). In the revised analysis, two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were identified, explaining 57.99% of the total variance. The first factor accounted for 35.43% of the variance, while the second factor explained 22.57%. The final solution comprised 11 items in the first factor and six items in the second factor, as shown in Table 1. The scree plot is presented in Figure 1.

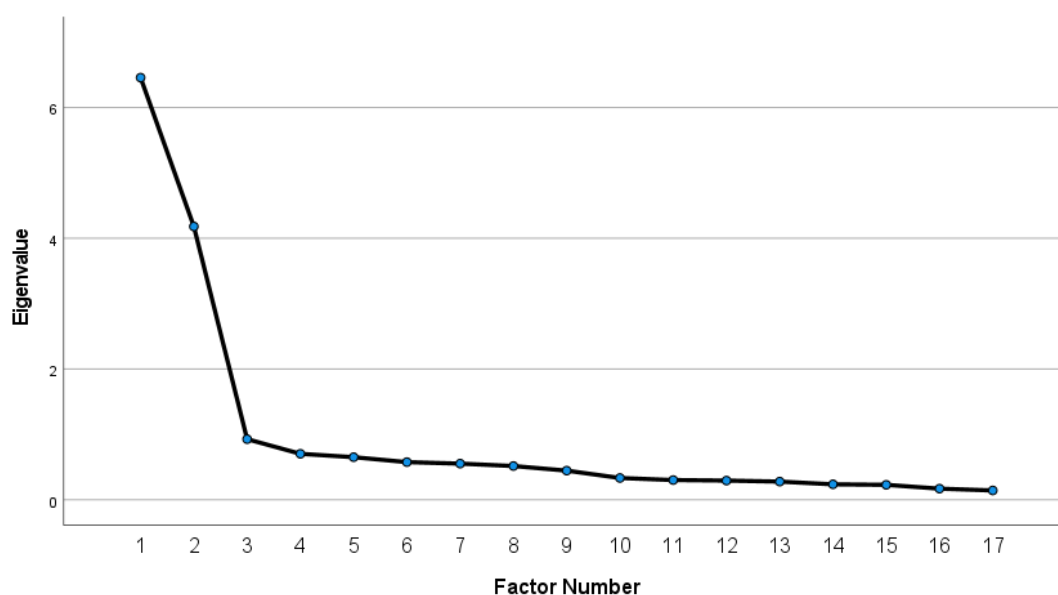


Figure 1. Scree plot

Table 1 presents the eigenvalues, percentages of explained variance, and factor loadings for the items.

Table 1

Exploratory factor analysis of the AIBSS

Factor and item	Factor 1	Factor 2
Factor 1: Sociocultural Appearance Influence		
AIBSS1. Comments made by others about my body appearance shape my self-perception.	.842	
AIBSS2. My interactions in social environments lead me to re-evaluate my body image.	.797	
AIBSS3. The body standards I see on social media influence my self-perception.	.765	
AIBSS4. The body types that are appreciated in my social environment shape my own body image.	.763	
AIBSS5. I worry about how others see my body.	.760	
AIBSS6. I compare my physical appearance with the ideals presented in the media.	.740	
AIBSS7. I feel pressure to conform to the beauty standards set by society.	.721	
AIBSS8. The ideal body images I see in the media affect how I view my own body.	.715	
AIBSS9. I evaluate my body from the perspective of others.	.655	
AIBSS10. I consider the appearance of my body as an indicator of my success.	.649	
AIBSS11. I see my physical attractiveness as a measure of my personal worth.	.615	
Factor 2: Body Satisfaction		
AIBSS12. I feel confident about my physical features.		.868
AIBSS13. I am satisfied with the overall appearance of my body.		.864
AIBSS14. I am satisfied with the reflection I see when I look in the mirror.		.844
AIBSS15. I find my physical appearance attractive.		.811
AIBSS16. I think my body type is suitable for my lifestyle.		.743
AIBSS17. I think my body measurements are proportional.		.697
Eigenvalue	6.023	3.836
Explained variance (%)	35.427	22.567
Total explained variance (%)		57.993

Note. Principal axis factoring method and oblimin rotation technique were used.

The first factor comprised 11 items describing the shaping of body-related self-perception by others' appraisals, comparison, and media or societal standards, and was labeled Sociocultural Appearance Influence. The second comprised six items describing satisfaction with one's appearance, and was labeled Body Satisfaction. The interfactor correlation was $-.083$.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

The two-factor model included three residual covariances between items sharing related content: AIBSS10–AIBSS11, AIBSS4–AIBSS5, and AIBSS4–AIBSS7. The model showed good fit under maximum likelihood estimation ($\chi^2 = 289.95$, $df = 115$, $CFI = .951$, $TLI = .942$, $RMSEA = .065$). Sensitivity analyses using robust maximum likelihood and ordinal estimation are reported in Table 2. All standardized item loadings were significant and ranged from .563 to .852 under maximum likelihood estimation (Table 3). The latent correlation between Sociocultural Appearance Influence and Body Satisfaction was $-.072$.

Table 2

CFA fit indices of the two-factor model (CFA sample, $n = 360$)

Estimator	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA [90% CI]	SRMR
ML (AMOS)	289.95	115	2.52	.951	.942	.065 [.056, .074]	.054
MLR	182.62	115	1.59	.969	.963	.051 [.037, .065]	.054
WLSMV (ordinal)	432.21	115	3.76	.966	.959	.088 [.079, .097]	.061

Table 3

Standardized factor loadings and validity indices of the AIBSS

Item	Sociocultural Appearance Influence (SAI)	Body Satisfaction (BS)	R ²
AIBSS1	.819	—	.671
AIBSS2	.793	—	.629
AIBSS3	.788	—	.621
AIBSS4	.759	—	.577
AIBSS5	.752	—	.566
AIBSS6	.791	—	.626
AIBSS7	.718	—	.516
AIBSS8	.748	—	.560
AIBSS9	.648	—	.420
AIBSS10	.563	—	.317
AIBSS11	.575	—	.330
AIBSS12	—	.852	.727
AIBSS13	—	.835	.697
AIBSS14	—	.823	.677
AIBSS15	—	.730	.533
AIBSS16	—	.729	.531
AIBSS17	—	.642	.413
Composite reliability (CR)	.925	.898	—
Average variance extracted (AVE)	.530	.596	—
√AVE	.728	.772	—

Note. R² = Squared Multiple Correlations (Explained variance) Loadings are from the maximum likelihood CFA. The latent factor correlation was $-.072$; MSV = .005; HTMT = .029.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity Analysis

The CR values were .925 for Sociocultural Appearance Influence and .898 for Body Satisfaction. Their AVE values were .530 and .596, respectively, supporting convergent validity. The shared variance between the factors was low ($MSV = .005$), and the square root of AVE for each factor exceeded their correlation, supporting discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The HTMT ratio was .029, also below the recommended threshold of .85 (Henseler et al., 2015). These indices are reported in Table 3.

Measurement Invariance Analysis Results

We examined gender invariance of the AIBSS using multigroup confirmatory factor analysis. Configural, metric, and scalar models were tested first, followed by models constraining the factor covariances and residual variances. Table 4 presents the fit indices and model comparisons.

Table 4

Fit indices and comparisons of measurement invariance models

Model	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA (90% CI)	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p	ΔCFI	$\Delta RMSEA$
Configural Invariance	2.098	.931	.919	.055 (.048-.062)	-	-	-	-	-
Metric Invariance	2.029	.931	.924	.054 (.047-.060)	14.514	15	.487	0.000	-0.001
Scalar Invariance	1.966	.931	.929	.052 (.045-.059)	18.050	17	.386	0.000	-0.002
Factor Covariance Invariance	1.966	.930	.928	.052 (.045-.059)	6.027	3	.110	-0.001	0.000
Strict Invariance	2.041	.919	.923	.054 (.048-.060)	60.596	20	.000	-0.011	0.002

Note. χ^2/df = Chi-square/degrees of freedom; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CI = Confidence Interval; $\Delta\chi^2$ = Chi-square difference; Δdf = Degrees of freedom difference; ΔCFI = Delta CFI; $\Delta RMSEA$ = Delta RMSEA. A CFI decrease of no more than .010 and an RMSEA increase of no more than .015 were taken as evidence of invariance (Chen, 2007).

As shown in Table 4, the fit indices calculated for all models are at acceptable and good levels. Between the configural and metric invariance models, $\Delta CFI = 0.000$ and $\Delta RMSEA = -0.001$; between the metric and scalar invariance models, $\Delta CFI = 0.000$ and $\Delta RMSEA = -0.002$; and between the scalar and factor covariance invariance models, $\Delta CFI = -0.001$ and $\Delta RMSEA = 0.000$. Under the criteria of Cheung and Rensvold (2002) and Chen (2007), these changes support metric, scalar, and factor covariance invariance. From the factor covariance model to the strict invariance model, CFI decreased by .011 and RMSEA increased by .002. The CFI decrease exceeds the .010 threshold, and a statistically significant difference was detected in the model comparison ($\Delta\chi^2 = 60.596$, $\Delta df = 20$, $p < .001$). These results indicate that error variances differ by gender and strict invariance is not established. The MLR analysis showed the same pattern for configural (CFI = .951, RMSEA = .065), metric ($\Delta CFI = +.001$), and scalar invariance ($\Delta CFI = -.001$). The result for strict invariance was borderline ($\Delta CFI = -.007$; $\Delta\chi^2 = 33.30$, $\Delta df = 17$, $p = .010$). Because strict invariance is not required for comparisons of latent means (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016), such comparisons can be made after scalar invariance is established. Comparisons based on observed scores require greater caution. In the scalar model, men's latent means did not differ significantly from women's on SAI

($\Delta = -0.07$, $SE = 0.13$, $p = .586$) or BS ($\Delta = -0.21$, $SE = 0.13$, $p = .111$). At the observed level, women reported slightly higher body satisfaction than men ($M = 3.37$ vs. 3.17 ; $t(358) = 1.75$, $p = .081$, $d = 0.24$), whereas SAI scores were similar ($M = 2.61$ vs. 2.56 ; $p = .72$). The latent SAI–BS correlation was $-.13$ among women and $.22$ among men. However, equality of the factor covariance could not be rejected ($p = .110$), so the apparent difference in correlations should not be overinterpreted.

Criterion-Related Validity Analysis

Correlations between the AIBSS subscales and the criterion measures were examined in the CFA sample. Descriptive statistics, internal consistency coefficients, and correlations are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics, reliability, and correlations of the AIBSS subscales with criterion measures (CFA sample, $n = 360$)

Measure	M	SD	α	SAI	BS
AIBSS – Sociocultural Appearance Influence (SAI)	2.60	0.87	.93	—	-.03
AIBSS – Body Satisfaction (BS)	3.33	0.88	.90	-.03	—
Social Appearance Anxiety (SAAS)	2.47	0.86	.94	.62***	-.33***
Appearance Perfectionism – Worry About Imperfection	2.25	0.92	.91	.48***	-.50***
Appearance Perfectionism – Hope for Perfection	2.63	1.00	.87	.49***	-.19***
Self-Esteem (RSES)	3.03	0.51	.84	-.21***	.42***
Anxiety (DASS-21)	0.98	0.57	.82	.35***	-.03
Appearance-Related Social Media Consciousness (ARSMC)	3.19	1.10	.90	.49***	-.07
SMBSS – Online Self-Differentiation	1.98	0.87	.85	.39***	-.19***
SMBSS – Real Self-Presentation	3.43	1.02	.90	-.11*	.24***
SMBSS – Strategic Impression Management	2.50	0.77	.85	.44***	-.02

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

SAI was positively correlated with social appearance anxiety ($r = .62$), both dimensions of appearance perfectionism ($r = .48$ – $.49$), appearance-related social media consciousness ($r = .49$), strategic impression management ($r = .44$), online self-differentiation ($r = .39$), and anxiety ($r = .35$). It was negatively correlated with self-esteem ($r = -.21$). BS showed the opposite pattern for appearance-related outcomes: it was negatively correlated with worry about imperfection ($r = -.50$), social appearance anxiety ($r = -.33$), and hope for perfection ($r = -.19$), and positively correlated with self-esteem ($r = .42$). BS was also positively associated with real self-presentation ($r = .24$) and negatively associated with online self-differentiation ($r = -.19$). Its correlations with general anxiety, appearance-related social media consciousness, and strategic impression management were not statistically significant.

Incremental Validity

In hierarchical regression analyses, the AIBSS subscales explained additional variance after appearance-related social media consciousness was entered in the first step (Table 6). The increase was largest for worry about imperfection ($\Delta R^2 = .32$) and social appearance anxiety ($\Delta R^2 = .30$), followed by self-esteem ($\Delta R^2 = .18$) and hope

for perfection ($\Delta R^2 = .11$). The increase for general anxiety was smaller ($\Delta R^2 = .04$). Both subscales contributed to the appearance-related outcomes and self-esteem, whereas only SAI contributed to anxiety.

Table 6

Incremental validity of the AIBSS subscales beyond appearance-related social media consciousness (n = 360)

Outcome	Step 1 R ² (ARSMC)	Step 2 R ²	ΔR^2	F(2, 356)	β ARSMC	β SAI	β BS
Social appearance anxiety	.197	.501	.304***	108.65	.16***	.54***	-.30***
Worry about imperfection	.170	.490	.320***	111.72	.20***	.37***	-.47***
Hope for perfection	.235	.341	.106***	28.57	.31***	.33***	-.15***
Self-esteem	.052	.227	.175***	40.20	-.13*	-.13*	.40***
Anxiety	.135	.173	.039***	8.36	.25***	.23***	-.01

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

Reliability Analysis Results

Internal consistency was high for both subscales in both samples. In the EFA sample, $\alpha = .926$ and $\omega = .915$ for Sociocultural Appearance Influence, and $\alpha = .916$ and $\omega = .916$ for Body Satisfaction. In the CFA sample, $\alpha = .925$ and $\omega = .917$ for Sociocultural Appearance Influence, and $\alpha = .896$ and $\omega = .894$ for Body Satisfaction. Ordinal ω values in the CFA sample were .926 and .897, respectively.

Discussion

This study developed the AIBSS to assess sociocultural appearance influence and body satisfaction as two distinct dimensions. The exploratory and confirmatory analyses supported the proposed two-factor structure, and both subscales showed high internal consistency. The model showed good fit under maximum likelihood and robust maximum likelihood estimation. Scalar measurement invariance across gender was also supported.

The weak association between the subscales is consistent with the distinction between evaluating one's appearance and the importance or attention given to appearance-related information (Cash & Pruzinsky, 2002; Cash, 2012). Sociocultural Appearance Influence describes how much external appraisals and standards shape a person's view of their body; it does not indicate whether the person is satisfied with that view. Someone who attends closely to others' evaluations may therefore report either high or low body satisfaction. The near-zero factor correlation ($r = -.07$) supports interpreting the subscales separately and rules out a meaningful total score.

Configural, metric, and scalar invariance were supported across gender, allowing latent comparisons between women and men in this sample. Neither subscale showed a statistically significant gender difference in latent means. The factor correlation was negative among women and positive among men, but the test of equal factor covariance was not significant. This apparent difference should therefore be interpreted cautiously, particularly given the small number of men in the sample.

The correlations showed different patterns for the two subscales. Sociocultural Appearance Influence was positively associated with social appearance anxiety, both dimensions of appearance perfectionism, and anxiety, and negatively associated with self-esteem. Body Satisfaction showed the opposite pattern for social appearance

anxiety, appearance perfectionism, and self-esteem. Its association with anxiety was not statistically significant. Together, these findings support the expected directions of the subscales' criterion-related associations.

Both subscales showed high internal consistency in the EFA and CFA datasets. For Sociocultural Appearance Influence, Cronbach's α was .926 in the EFA dataset and .925 in the CFA dataset. The corresponding values for Body Satisfaction were .916 and .896. The CFA results also yielded $\omega = .917$ for Sociocultural Appearance Influence and $\omega = .894$ for Body Satisfaction. These findings indicate that the items within each subscale function consistently. Because the subscales measure distinct dimensions, their scores should be reported separately.

Several limitations should be considered. The participants were predominantly university students, and relatively few were men. Although gender invariance was supported, findings concerning men and gender differences need replication in a larger, more balanced sample. The criterion measures covered appearance anxiety, perfectionism, self-esteem, and related constructs, but did not include established body image measures such as the SATAQ-4 or BAS-2. The present findings therefore support the expected pattern of associations without establishing how the AIBSS compares with those instruments. Test-retest reliability was not assessed, and the scale has yet to be examined in clinical populations or other cultural settings. Future studies should address these gaps and assess the subscales' temporal stability.

The AIBSS may be useful when researchers want to examine sociocultural appearance influence and body satisfaction together while retaining separate scores for each. Their distinct associations with appearance-related outcomes suggest that assessing both can provide more information than either subscale alone. Its use with adolescents or in clinical settings should be evaluated before recommendations are made for those groups.

Conclusion

The AIBSS measures Sociocultural Appearance Influence and Body Satisfaction as separate dimensions. The findings supported its two-factor structure and the internal consistency of both subscales. The scale also showed gender invariance in these samples. The two subscales had different associations with appearance-related outcomes and were only weakly related to each other. Researchers should therefore report the two scores separately and avoid calculating a total score. Future studies should compare the AIBSS with established body image measures and test it in more diverse groups.

Ethics

Ethical approval was obtained from the Kütahya Dumlupınar University Social and Human Sciences Research and Publication Ethics Committee on November 27, 2024 (Meeting No. 2024/11, Decision No. 2). All participants provided written informed consent before participating in the study.

Author Contributions

All authors contributed equally to the conception, design, data collection, data analysis, interpretation of the findings, and writing of the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest related to this study.

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Supplementary Table S2. Original Turkish Items of the Appearance Influence and Body Satisfaction Scale (AIBSS)

Instructions: Please read each statement and indicate how much you agree with it using the five-point response scale below.

1 = Strongly disagree · 2 = Disagree · 3 = Neither agree nor disagree · 4 = Agree · 5 = Strongly agree

Sociocultural Appearance Influence

1. Başkalarının beden görünüşüm hakkındaki yorumları, kendi algımı şekillendirir.
2. Sosyal ortamlardaki etkileşimlerim, beden imajımı yeniden değerlendirmeme neden olur.
3. Sosyal medyada gördüğüm beden standartları, kendi algımı etkiler.
4. Sosyal çevremde beğenilen vücut tipleri, kendi beden algımı şekillendirir.
5. Başkalarının bedenimi nasıl gördüğü konusunda endişelenirim.
6. Fiziksel görünüşümü, medyadaki ideallerle karşılaştırırım.
7. Toplumun belirlediği güzellik standartlarına uymak için baskı hissediyorum.
8. Medyada gördüğüm ideal vücut imajları, kendi bedenime bakışımı etkiler.
9. Bedenimi başkalarının gözünden değerlendiririm.
10. Bedenimin görünüşünü, başarımanın bir göstergesi olarak değerlendiririm.
11. Fiziksel çekiciliğimi, kişisel değerimin bir ölçüsü olarak görürüm.

Body Satisfaction

12. Fiziksel özelliklerim konusunda kendimi güvende hissediyorum.
13. Bedenimin genel görünüşünden hoşnutum.
14. Aynaya baktığımda gördüğüm yansımadan memnunum.
15. Fiziksel görünüşümü çekici buluyorum.
16. Vücut tipimin yaşam tarzıma uygun olduğunu düşünüyorum.
17. Vücut ölçülerimin orantılı olduğunu düşünüyorum.

Scoring note: Calculate each subscale score as the mean of its items (items 1–11 for Sociocultural Appearance Influence; items 12–17 for Body Satisfaction). Higher scores indicate higher levels of the respective dimension. No items are reverse-scored, and no total score is calculated.