

**Pathological Narcissism, Attachment Styles, Objectified Body
Consciousness and Interpersonal Sensitivity as predictors of Selfitis**

Project submitted in the partial completion of

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled, “Pathological Narcissism, Attachment Styles, Objectified Body Consciousness and Interpersonal Sensitivity as predictors of Selfitis” being submitted in partial fulfilment of requirements for the award of degree of Master of Arts in Psychology, submitted in the Thapar School of Liberal Arts & Sciences, Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala is a bonafide work carried out under the supervision of Dr. Santha Kumari, Professor & Program Chair, Thapar School of Liberal Arts & Sciences, Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala and hat no part of this project has been submitted for the award of any other degree.



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This is to certify that the above statement made by the student concerned is correct and true to the best of my knowledge.



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CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis entitled, "Pathological Narcissism, Attachment Styles, Objectified Body Consciousness and Interpersonal Sensitivity as predictors of Selfitis", submitted in partial fulfillment of requirements for the award the of the degree of Master of Arts in Psychology, presented in the Thapar School of Liberal Arts & Sciences, Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala, is an authentic record of my work carried out under the supervision and guidance of Dr. Santha Kumari, Professor & Program Chair, Thapar School of Liberal Arts & Sciences, Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala and refers other researchers' work which are duly listed in the reference section.

The matter embodied in this thesis has not formed the basis for awarding any other degree at this or any other university.

Date- May, 2022

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ABSTRACT

The study examined the role of pathological narcissism, attachment styles, objectified body consciousness and interpersonal sensitivity in prediction of selfitis. Brief pathological narcissism inventory was used to measure pathological narcissism, Adult Attachment Style scale measured the different attachment styles (anxious and avoidant attachment style), Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS) self-report measure for body consciousness, Interpersonal Sensitivity Measure (IPSM) measured interpersonal sensitivity and Selfitis Behaviour Scale measured selfitis (obsessive taking of selfies and posting online). The results revealed that there was a positive correlation between pathological narcissism and selfitis. A positive association between anxious attachment style and selfitis was also obtained, whereas a non-significant correlation between avoidant attachment style was observed. A positive correlation between objectified body consciousness and selfitis was obtained. Interpersonal Sensitivity was also positively correlated to selfitis. Pathological narcissism along with objectified body consciousness and anxious attachment style predicted 40.3% variance in selfitis while pathological narcissism was the best predictor of selfitis. It was also observed that there were no gender differences in selfitis score.

Keywords: Pathological narcissism, Anxious attachment, Avoidant attachment, Interpersonal Sensitivity Selfitis, Objectified Body Consciousness Social networking site.

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CHAPTER-1

INTRODUCTION

In this era of technology and smart devices, selfie phenomenon has become an essential part of the modern lifestyle especially with the advent of social media. Oxford English Dictionary defines a 'selfie' is a "photograph that one has taken of oneself, typically one taken with a smart phone or webcam and shared via social media." In 2013, the Oxford Dictionaries Word of the Year was "Selfie." Every day, over one million selfies (self-images) are taken throughout the world, with Australians reportedly taking the most selfies (Suk,2014).Furthermore, two-thirds of Australian women aged 18 to 35 say they take selfies (Suk,2014).The selfie differs from other types of social media self-expression (e.g., verbal posts) in that it allows users to extend their "selves" in a highly specific way, as the user's physical features and personality traits can be reflected in the photo (Lee & Sung, 2016).When it comes to photo sharing on social networking sites(SNSs), it has evolved to be an essential component of the social experience and to express their personalities, lifestyles, and preferences, SNS users use many sorts of images, notably selfies (self-portraits) (Sung et al.,2016).The selfie has become a social media sensation. There is no age, gender, or status rank that is immune to the need to be photographed in the best light, correct perspective, most attractive stance, outfit, intriguing facial expression, trendy company, and unusual scenario (Shentser, 2020). Selfie practice demonstrates the desire for adolescents to compensate for poor self-esteem through peer acceptance and fitting in by engaging in the same activity as peers (Shentser, 2020). Selfies are a sort of visual self- presentation (Re, Wang, He, & Rule,2016) since they are not taken to preserve memory but ratherto post on a social network for others to see (Çadırcı, & Güngör, 2019). Despite the fact that taking selfies is thought to be a gendered activity (Albury,2015), that mostly involves girls and women, gender-related distinctions in selfie behaviour have been investigated, revealing that males and females take selfies in different ways (Dhir, 2017). The term selfitis which is associated to obsessive selfie taking and posting it online was coined in 2014 (El Khoueiry et al., 2021). According to recent selfie studies, both men and women use selfies for self-presentation and gender identification (Katz & Crocker, 2015). However, there are gender disparities in how selfies are used to display oneself; females are more inclined to take selfies than males (Qiu et al., 2015). Women are more likely than men to take personal selfies, according to a study that looked at nearly 2 million geo-tagged photographs published by 12,000 individual Flickr users (Cao and Halloran, 2014).

Narcissists, in particular, are 'active' Social Networking Site (SNS) users i.e., content providers who are more involved in post and like/comment creation, photo posting and uploading (Davenport et al.,2014). Narcissism is defined as a rejection of one's genuine self and an excessive attention on one's image at the expense of one's self (Lowen ,2004). According to APA narcissism is defined as “excessive self-love or egocentrism”. Pathological narcissism is characterised by maladaptive efforts to regulate the self and has two fundamental characteristics: narcissistic grandiosity and narcissistic vulnerability (Dashineau et al.,2019). Grandiose narcissism (also known as "overt" narcissism) is characterized by grandiosity features such as a need for adulation, high self-esteem, exhibitionism, dominance, and arrogance(Wink,1991).Vulnerable narcissism (also known as "covert" narcissism) is characterized by poor self-esteem, an insecure sense of grandiosity, shame, and hypersensitivity to others' evaluations (Dickinson & Pincus, 2003). A study by McCain and Campbell’s (2018) found a correlation between selfie-sharing frequency and levels of grandiose narcissism, while there are some studies which failed to find any significant correlation between narcissism and social media usage (Bergkvist, 2016). People with high narcissism are more likely to employ selfie-marketing for self-presentation and self-promotion on social networking sites than people with low narcissism (Fox et al., 2018). Selfies are linked to grandiose and exhibitionistic characteristics of narcissism, according to a study of college students (Koterba, Ponti & Ligman, 2021). According to the first pioneering study by Bowlby (1958), he described attachment as a child's primary and most crucial bond with their caretakers (often the mother but not necessarily). Bowlby illustrated that the emotional bond that people form with one another is not only focused on survival demands such as food, safety, and other necessities (Harlow & Zimmermann, 1959). Human beings as a result, require something more: love, affection, and acceptance (Obegi&Berant 2010). Individuals are driven by a primal and innate need to form relationships as social creatures (Schaffer and Emerson 1964). Attachment can develop among individuals in different ways (Ainsworth et al.1978). The first is secure attachment, which is associated with a sense of worthiness (Bartholomew & Horowitz,1991).The second style is insecure avoidant, which refers to children who are emotionally and physically detached from their attachment figure (Behrens et al., 2007). The third style is insecure-ambivalent (also called anxious) in which children have untrustworthy expectations about the otherness (Bartholomew &Horowitz,1991), and they display both dependent and rejecting responses. Children who maintain a sense of independence from an attachment figure have a disorganized and dismissing

style (Main and Solomon 1990). Although attachment types are important in childhood, they also set the tone for future intimate relationships (D'Arienzo, Boursier, & Griffiths, 2019). Memories, cognitive patterns, and emotions linked to a certain style combine to form an internal working model of oneself and others (Bowlby, 1988). Addiction and healthy attachment styles have an inverse relationship, according to addiction treatment experts (D'Arienzo, Boursier, & Griffiths, 2019). Flores (2004) saw addiction as an attachment illness, a non-adaptive and late transition in young adulthood (Höfler & Kooyman 1996). Anxious attachment has been linked to a high nightly time on Facebook, a lot of nightly status updates (Longua Peterson et al. 2017), and a lot of general Facebook activity (Hart et al. 2015).

Objectified body consciousness is made up of the experience of the body as an object, as well as the cultural notions that define the body (McKinley, 1995). Body surveillance, body shame, and body control, according to feminist theorists, are three aspects of this experience. The extent to which a person tries to envision oneself or herself as an object that others see is known as body surveillance (Spitzack, 1990). Body surveillance is the perception of oneself as an object while being observed from the outside (McKinley & Hyde, 1996). When a person adopts this mindset, he or she strives to limit acts that might lead to criticism and judgement. Being able to reduce these habits might boost one's self-esteem, while failing to do so can result in unfavourable body image (Spitzack, 1990). The discrepancy between the cultural ideal and a woman's own body can be a source of shame as women often feel shame in relation to their bodies (Bartky, 1988). Body control refers to a person's belief that they have control over their body and that they can modify them with enough effort (McKinley & Hyde, 1996). While certain features of one's look may be controlled and modified, others cannot. People often have better psychological well-being if they believe that they have control (Taylor, 1989). Body-objectification has long been thought to be a gendered process, valid and true only for women in Western society (Grab, Ward & Hyde, 2008). Objectified body images were promoted as a result of media exposure to cultural beauty standards (Boursier, Gioia, & Griffiths, 2020). According to a study body surveillance predicted taking multiple selfies before posting which, in turn, related to feelings of depression and that there are specific behaviors that women, especially those who self-objectify, engage in before actively using social media that can relate to negative consequences (Lamp et al., 2019). A study reported that selfie editing, but not selfie sharing, was found to predict increases in teenage self-objectification and body and facial appearance concerns over time and increases in self-objectification and face

dissatisfaction, but not body dissatisfaction, were predicted by selfie viewing over time (Wang et al., 2021). It has also been observed that grandiose narcissism scores predicted lower levels of body shame and less weight discrepancy, indicating more positive body image, and also moderated the relationship between self-objectification and body shame (i.e., women who report lower levels of narcissism are more vulnerable to body shame associated with self-objectification whereas hypersensitive narcissism scores predicted higher levels of both body shame and discrepancies in actual-ideal weight (Carrotte, & Anderson, 2019). Given the relevance of interpersonal relationships to body image, attachment theory is expected to give insight into the link between body image and interpersonal relationships (Cash & Fleming, 2002).

Interpersonal sensitivity is described as undue and excessive awareness of and sensitivity to other people's behaviour and feelings (Boyce & Parker, 1989). Individuals who have this trait are preoccupied with interpersonal relationships, observant of others' behaviour and mood, sensitive to perceived or actual criticism or rejection, and have modified their behaviour to meet others' expectations (Boyce & Parker, 1989). Interpersonally sensitive people are particularly sensitive in social situations and to their own perceived flaws in comparison to others. Such features are associated with a poor self-perception, which is common in both preoccupied and frightened attachment, which explains the links (Strand, Goulding, & Tidefors, 2015). According to some studies attachment insecurity is connected to interpersonal sensitivity (Otani et al., 2014). Individuals who did not attain secure attachment as children are disposed to separation anxiety throughout their lives, and they avoid the onset of separation anxiety by being highly sensitive to any threat to their interpersonal bonds (Boyce & Parker, 1989). A person with high interpersonal sensitivity shares characteristics with someone who is insecurely attached, such as 'lives in constant anxiety lest he or she loses his or her attachment figure' (Bowlby, 1977) and 'is always prone to separation anxiety, tends to be clingy, and is anxious about exploring the world' (Bowlby, 1988). In a study, it was found that Interpersonal Sensitivity Measure showed the significant positive correlation with self-report measures of depression, social anxiety, and anxious attachment style and a negative correlation with Social Desirability Scale and secure (C subscale of avoidant attachment style [Adult Attachment Scale]) and dependent (D subscale of Adult Attachment Scale) (Mohammadian et al., 2017).

When it comes to pathological narcissism, self- and emotional dysregulation, such as a poor self-

image, self-criticism, unpleasant affective experiences (e.g., anger, shame, dysphoria), interpersonal sensitivity, and social withdrawal, define the vulnerable form of pathological narcissism (Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). The findings of a study imply that narcissism is linked to certain interpersonal and emotional processes, such as sensitivity to others' dominance, which leads to antagonistic behaviour in everyday life (Wright et al., 2017). Another study showed that there is a difference between grandiose and vulnerable narcissism in terms of that grandiose narcissism is responsive to achievement setbacks; whereas vulnerable narcissism is responsive to interpersonal setbacks (Besser, & Priel, 2010).

In case of interpersonal sensitivity and selfie behavior, a study found a positive relationship between Internet Addiction, Facebook Addiction and Selfie Behavior (Sharma, Ranjan, & Kohli, 2021). People spend the majority of their time on social media sites such as Facebook, Instagram, and Snapchat (Sharma, Ranjan, & Kohli, 2021). All of these apps encourage selfie habit by requiring users to share photos for communication and networking (Sharma, Ranjan, & Kohli, 2021). As a result, persons who scored well on the Internet Addiction Test also did well on the Facebook Addiction Scale and the Selfie Behavior Scale (Sharma, Ranjan, & Kohli, 2021). In another study it was found that people scoring high on depression, anxiety, hostility, interpersonal sensitivity, and psychoticism were consequences of Internet Addiction Disorder (Dong et al., 2011). In a study, it was found that the scores on the problematic Facebook use scale were predicted positively (32%) by subscales of interpersonal sensitivity (Capan, 2015).

CHAPTER-2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

With the advent of smart devices, taking a selfie became a part of modern society. A selfie is a photograph taken by oneself with the help of a digital camera or camera phone held in the person's hand or supported by a selfie stick (Safna,2017). Taking a selfie nowadays has become a very popular activity among people of different cultures and it involves not only taking a photograph but also editing it considering the colour, contrast, background, adding other effects and uploading it on social media (Griffiths, & Balakrishnan, 2018). The term selfitis which is associated to obsessive selfie taking and posting it online was coined in 2014 (El Khoueiry et al., 2021). Clicking a selfie is a self-oriented activity, and by doing this, individuals not only get the feeling of self-importance (Murray, 2015) but also individuality (Ehlin, 2014). A study conducted on 276 college students showed that selfies taken alone showed no gender differences, however selfies with others were more prevalent among women (Koterba, Ponti & Ligman, 2021). Although, teenagers use less selfies than adults, Jang and colleagues (2015) observed that they are more likely to use selfies to communicate emotions, focus on likes, and remove photographs to be more selective in their self-presentations.

A study conducted on 3763 Norwegian social media users using online survey found that males are less likely than females to take and share selfies and edit images (Dhir et al., 2016). According to one study which analyzed over 2 million geo-tagged images uploaded by 12,000 individual Flickr users, women are more inclined than males to take personal selfies (Cao & Halloran, 2014).

Pathological narcissism

Some research studies have shown that the trait of narcissism is associated to selfie behavior (Buffardi & Campbell 2008). A research study of Italian young men and women showed that narcissistic grandiosity was a significant predictor of selfie engagement (Boursier, Gioia, & Griffiths, 2020). In a cross-cultural study, which was conducted on Facebook users, it was found that social interaction and self-presentation are positively associated to narcissism in case of western and eastern countries (Brailovskaia & Bierhoff, 2016). In another study which investigated relations between Dark triad personality traits (i.e., Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy) and selfie related-behaviours (taking, posting and editing selfies), it was found that

there was a positive correlation between the dark triad components and posting and editing selfies on social networking sites (SNSs) (Sanecka, 2017). In the same study it was also found that narcissism acts as a predictor for selfie-related behaviours (Sanecka, 2017). In a study by Sung et al. (2016), it was found that motivation for attention seeking, communication, archiving and narcissism were significant predictors of selfie-posting intention and in the case of selfie posting frequency narcissism was the only significant predictor (Sung et al., 2016). Another study conducted on U.S. men of 18-40 years of age showed that the trait of self-objectification and narcissism were significant predictors of photo editing behaviors (Fox & Rooney, 2015). In a study conducted by Adler (2017) on 499 participants, in order to examine the phenomenon of selfie posting on social media, found that the dark triad trait of narcissism was also shown to be highly associated with selfie posting, with narcissistic males posting much more selfies than narcissistic women. In the same study a (marginally non-significant) trend was found in which vulnerable narcissism was predictive of higher selfie posting (Adler, 2017). According to one study, selfies may have a self-reinforcement effect, in which narcissists routinely snap selfies to retain good opinions of themselves, which boosts their narcissism levels (Halpern, Valenzuela, & Katz 2016).

Attachment styles

A study examining the social media selfie posting phenomenon in relation to attachment styles found a (marginally non-significant) trend in which anxious attachment was predictive of higher selfie posting (Adler, 2017). Excessive Facebook and Twitter use has been linked to higher relationship conflict involving either the participant's personal Social Networking Site use or their current/former partner's Social Networking Site use, termed Facebook-related conflict (Clayton, Nagurney & Smith, 2013) and Twitter-related conflict (Clayton, 2014) by the researchers. According to a study, more Instagram selfie posting is linked to more negative romantic relationship outcomes (Ridgway & Clayton, 2016). In a study conducted on 110 university students (92 females, 18 males) ranging from 18 to 22 years old in age in order to understand emerging adults' use of Instagram, particularly in relation to their attachment styles with friends and dating partners, found that the major effects of attachment style were only significant for avoidant friend attachment predicting deceptive like-seeking, but not for other insecure attachments (Dungo, 2018). A study found a link between increased attachment anxiety and more frequent usage of Facebook (Old meadow et al., 2013). A positive relationship between anxious

attachment and high Social Network Site usage was found by Liu et al.(2013). Anxiety attachment was linked to a worse perception of interpersonal skills (D'Arienzo, Boursier, & Griffiths,2019).

Objectified Body Consciousness

According to a study, there are specific behaviours that women, particularly those who self-objectify, engage in prior to actively using social media that can lead to negative outcomes and body surveillance predicted taking multiple selfies before posting, which was linked to feelings of depression (Lamp et al., 2019). Self-objectification was linked to selfie editing and investment, as well as indirect relationships between selfie editing and investment and negative appearance concerns (appearance anxiety, body shame, and negative appearance evaluation) through self-objectification, according to the findings of a study (Terán, Yan, & Aubrey, 2020). A study showed that selfie-posting was predicted by self-objectification particularly among females with greater levels of imaginary audience ideation, emphasizing the critical impact of an internalised observer's perspective (Zheng et al.,2019). In another study, evidence suggesting the mediating effect of body image control in photos on the relationship between body appearance control beliefs and SNS problematic use in girls was found (Boursier et al., 2020). A study conducted among Chinese young adults showed the mediating role of body satisfaction between narcissism and selfie- posting, and the moderating effect of attitudes toward selfies on the relationship between body satisfaction and selfie-posting (Wang et al.,2020).

Another study's findings suggested that grandiose narcissism may have a protective relationship regarding body image in young Australian women population, whereas hypersensitive narcissism may be a risk factor (Carrotte, & Anderson, 2019). In another study it was found that body surveillance and body shame are outcomes of insecure romantic attachment in adulthood considering both insecure attachment styles, anxious attachment, in particular, was a stronger predictor of both body surveillance and body shame (DeVille et al.,2015). In a study it was revealed that attachment independently predicted body satisfaction both for general and close friend, but in romantic relationships, only body surveillance independently contributed to body satisfaction.

Interpersonal Sensitivity

According to a study, individuals who fail to achieve a secure attachment in childhood, are predisposed to separation anxiety throughout their lives and they tend to avoid the emergence of

separation anxiety by being highly sensitive to any threat to their interpersonal bonds (Boyce & Parker, 1989). A study conducted on 301 healthy Japanese showed that interpersonal sensitivity is associated with negative working models of the self and other indicating that it is linked to attachment insecurity (Otani et al., 2014). Another study conducted on students of Tehran and Iran Medical Sciences Universities found that students with an anxious attachment had higher interpersonal sensitivity as compared to students who had a close attachment (being comfortable with intimacy) and depend attachment (dependability of others) (Bonab & Koohsar, 2011). A study showed that anxiety factor in attachment styles predicted higher levels of all interpersonal problems and the avoidance factor negatively predicted interpersonal sensitivity, need for social approval and lack of sociability (Stepp et al., 2008). Another study showed that both the preoccupied and fearful attachment styles had statistically significant positive relationships with interpersonal sensitivity (Strand, Goulding, & Tidefors, 2015). A study highlighting the differences between the two faces of narcissism (grandiose and vulnerable) showed that vulnerable narcissism is responsive to interpersonal setbacks whereas grandiose narcissism is responsive to achievement setbacks (Besser, & Priel, 2010). Another study found that narcissism is linked to certain interpersonal and emotional processes, such as sensitivity to others' dominance, which leads to antagonistic behaviour in everyday life (Wright et al., 2017). A study found a positive relationship between Internet Addiction, Facebook Addiction and Selfie Behavior (Sharma, Ranjan, & Kohli, 2021) and in another study it was found that people scoring high on depression, anxiety, hostility, interpersonal sensitivity, and psychoticism were consequences of Internet Addiction Disorder (Dong et al., 2011). A study conducted on 349 Turkish university students found that the scores on the problematic Facebook use scale were predicted positively (32%) by subscales of interpersonal sensitivity (Capan, 2015).

Research Gap

There have been several studies on social media and internet addiction, but Selfitis is a relatively new concept (it was first mentioned in 2014), so the research literature available is very scanty and needs more attention. Various aspects of selfies, such as posting, editing, and selection, have been studied separately with other factors. The relationships between various determinants of selfitis like pathological narcissism, attachment styles, objectified body consciousness and interpersonal sensitivity still remain under the unexplored umbrella of topics. When it comes to gender research

the previous studies have mostly focused on young women or single gender samples (Nguyen, 2014); so, there is an increasing need to investigate the selfie behaviour of mixed sex and age groups (Albury, 2015). The current study has been conducted to gain better understanding of gender differences in selfitis and the role of pathological narcissism, attachment styles, objectified body consciousness and interpersonal sensitivity in prediction of selfitis.

Motivation for the study

According to Cooley (1902), the people get their sense of self from the ideas and concepts other individuals have about them. According to him, people use themselves like mirrors and therefore his theory is rightly called the looking-glass. Selfies are now acting like these mirrors. Excessive amount of selfie clicking has been linked to various factors like self -esteem, narcissism, self-isolation and even suicide (Bushak, 2015). Considering the increasing use of social media and content consumption especially in the Covid-19 pandemic, it was important to explore the selfie related- behaviours in more depth.

OBJECTIVES

1. To study the relationship between pathological narcissism and selfitis.
2. To study the relationship between attachment styles and selfitis.
3. To study the relationship between objectified body consciousness and selfitis.
4. To study the relationship between interpersonal sensitivity and selfitis.
5. To study the gender differences in selfitis score.
6. To identify the best predictor of selfitis.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Self-verification theory (Swann, 1987) stated that people want others to see them the way they see themselves and hence wish to be validated by others resulting in prediction and exertion of some control in their lives. According to some researchers, excessive selfie-taking has been linked to low self-esteem, narcissism, social isolation, and even suicide (Bushak, 2015). According to sociocultural theories of body image, the media plays a major influence in promoting and propagating unrealistic body ideals for both men and women (Cash,2012).

Taking inspiration from the study conducted by Wang et al. (2020), in which body satisfaction, narcissism and selfie-posting in young adults, were studied, the current study tries to understand the role of pathological narcissism, attachment styles, objectified body consciousness, inter-personal sensitivity in determination of selfitis.

HYPOTHESES

H₁: Pathological Narcissism will be positively correlated with Selfitis.

H₂: Anxious Attachment Style will be positively correlated with Selfitis

H₃: Avoidant Attachment Style will be negatively correlated with Selfitis.

H₄: Objectified body consciousness will be positively correlated to Selfitis.

H₅: Interpersonal sensitivity will be positively correlated to Selfitis.

H₆: Females will have higher selfitis score than males.

CHAPTER-3

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The sample consisted of 150 participants (75 females and 75 males) in the age range of 18-45 years.

Design

A correlational design was used. The predictor variables were pathological narcissism, attachment styles (anxious and avoidant), objectified body consciousness and interpersonal sensitivity. The criterion variable was selfitis. Independent t- test was performed for studying gender differences in selfitis in which gender was independent variable.

Statistical Analyses

The Statistical Package for Social Science software (SPSS 22.0) was used for analyzing the data. Descriptive statistics, Independent t- statistics and Stepwise regression were calculated using SPSS.

Tools used

Five psychometric scales will be used- Brief Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Adult Attachment scale, Selfitis Behaviour scale, Objectified Body Consciousness Scale and Interpersonal Sensitivity Measure.

Brief Pathological Narcissism Inventory is a brief but sound measure of pathological narcissism at the facet level and it is a 28-item version of the Pathological Narcissism Inventory. It was developed by Schoenleber et al.(2015). It is composed of seven facet scales where Grandiosity was composed of Exploitativeness, Self-Sacrificing Self-Enhancement, and Grandiose Fantasy; Vulnerability was composed of Contingent Self-Esteem, Hiding the Self, Devaluing, and Entitlement Rage. Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .73 for Narcissistic grandiosity and .87 for Narcissistic Vulnerability were reported.

Adult Attachment Scale (AAS) developed by Collins and Read (1990) consists of 18 items and contains three subscales, each composed of six items. The three subscales are Close, Depend, and

Anxiety. The Close scale measures the extent to which a person is comfortable with closeness and intimacy (e.g., “I get nervous when someone tries to get too close to me”). The Depend scale measures the extent to which a person feels he/she can depend on others to be available when needed (e.g., “It’s easy for me to depend on others”). The Anxiety subscale measures the extent to which a person is worried about being abandoned or unloved (e.g., “I often worry that an important person could leave me”). Items employ a 5-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. Collins & Read (1990) reported Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of .69 for Close, .75 for Depend, and .72 for Anxiety.

Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS) is a self-report measure of body consciousness. The OBCS has three subscales; Body Surveillance, Body Shame and Appearance Control Beliefs. It was developed by McKinley and Hyde (1996). It consists of 24 items and internal consistency for the OBCS, Cronbach’s $\alpha=0.75$.

Interpersonal Sensitivity Measure (IPSM) was developed by Boyce and Parker (1989). The IPSM generates a total score as well as five sub-scale scores: Interpersonal awareness, need for approval, separation anxiety, timidity and fragile inner-self. It consists of 36 items. The overall reliability of the scale came out to be 0.85.

Selfitis Behaviour Scale was developed by Janarthanan Balakrishnan and Mark D. Griffiths in 2018 and it measures Selfitis. The scale has six sub scales which are - environmental enhancement, social competition, attention seeking, mood modification, self-confidence, and social conformity. The scale has 20 items and it is a reliable and valid instrument for assessing selfitis. A 5-point Likert-type response scale was used, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. The overall reliability of the scale was 0.876.

Procedure

Due to the current pandemic situation, the survey will be administered using Google Forms. The survey will consist of 126 items, where 28 items will measure pathological narcissism, 18 items will measure adult attachment style, 20 items will measure selfitis, 24 items will measure objectified body consciousness and 36 items will measure interpersonal sensitivity. The participants will also be asked demographic questions regarding their name, age and gender. The instructions were predefined at the beginning of the survey and informed consent will be obtained.

CHAPTER-4

RESULTS

The study examined the pathological narcissism, attachment styles, objectified body consciousness and interpersonal sensitivity as predictors of selfitis with the help of Pearson's Product-Moment correlation and stepwise regression and t-test analysis. The results for the current study were computed on SPSS 22.0.

Table No. 1: Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Pathological Narcissism	85.93	18.78	150
Anxious Attachment Style	17.20	5.05	150
Avoidant Attachment Style	38.03	8.30	150
Objectified Body Consciousness	93.49	16.07	150
Interpersonal Sensitivity	97.13	20.82	150
Selfitis score	47.62	17.91	150

Table No. 1 shows the descriptive statistics of Pathological Narcissism, Anxious Attachment Style, Avoidant Attachment Style, Objectified Body Consciousness, Interpersonal Sensitivity and Selfitis score. The mean value of Pathological Narcissism the mean was 85.93 (SD=18.78), for Anxious Attachment Style it was 17.20 (SD =5.05), for Avoidant Attachment Style it was 38.03 (SD = 8.30), for Objectified Body Consciousness it was 93.49 (SD =16.07), for Interpersonal Sensitivity it was 97.13 (SD = 20.82), and for Selfitis Score 47.62 was (SD =17.91).

Table No. 2: Correlation

	Pathological Narcissism	Anxious Attachment Style	Avoidant Attachment Style	Objectified Body Consciousness	Interpersonal Sensitivity	Selfitis score
Pathological Narcissism	1	.578**	.324**	.388**	.558**	.563**
Anxious Attachment Style	.578**	1	.133	.286**	.447**	.477**
Avoidant Attachment Style	.324**	.133	1	-.048	.114	.034
Objectified Body Consciousness	.388**	.286**	-.048	1	.414**	.464**
Interpersonal Sensitivity	.558**	.447**	.114	.414**	1	.454**
Selfitis score	.563**	.477**	.034	.464**	.454**	1

Table No. 2 represents the product moment correlation analysis of Pathological Narcissism, Anxious Attachment Style, Avoidant Attachment Style, Objectified Body Consciousness, Interpersonal Sensitivity and Selfitis score. A significant positive correlation was found between Pathological Narcissism and Selfitis ($r=.563$, $p<0.01$). There was a positive significant correlation between Anxious Attachment Style and Selfitis score ($r=.477$, $p<0.01$). A positive correlation was found between Objectified Body Consciousness and Selfitis score ($r=.464$, $p<0.01$). There was also a positive correlation between Interpersonal Sensitivity and Selfitis score ($r=.454$, $p<0.01$). Meanwhile, there was no significant correlation between Avoidant Attachment Style and Selfitis score ($r=.034$, $p>0.05$).

Table No. 3: Predicting Selfitis from Pathological narcissism, Anxious, Avoidant Attachment style, Objectified body consciousness and Interpersonal sensitivity

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R square
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
1	(Constant)	1.499	5.699		.263	.793	
	Pathological Narcissism	.537	.065	.563	8.283	.000	.312
2	(Constant)	-19.470	7.413		-2.626	.010	
	Pathological Narcissism	.430	.067	.451	6.437	.000	
	Objectified body consciousness	.323	.078	.290	4.138	.000	.380
3	(Constant)	-21.148	7.299		-2.897	.004	
	Pathological Narcissism	.323	.077	.339	4.193	.000	
	Objectified body consciousness	.306	.077	.275	3.989	.000	
	Anxious Attachment style	.719	.275	.203	2.609	.010	.403

Dependent Variable: Selfitis score

Table No. 3 shows that Pathological narcissism is responsible for 31.2% of variance in selfitis score, whereas Pathological narcissism and Objectified body consciousness together are responsible for 38% variance in selfitis score. Pathological narcissism, Objectified body consciousness and Anxious

Attachment Style together predict a variance of 40.3% in selfitis score. Therefore, Pathological narcissism is the best predictor of selfitis.

Table No. 4: Independent t- statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig
Selfitis score	Male	75	47.00	17.20	-.423	.291
	Female	75	48.24	18.69		

Table No. 4 shows mean of selfitis score of males, which was 47.0 (SD= 17.20) and for females mean was 48.24 (SD= 18.69). The computed t- value was found to be insignificant, $t(150) = -.423$, $p > .05$

CHAPTER-5

DISCUSSION

The study aimed at investigating the role of pathological narcissism, attachment styles, objectified body consciousness and interpersonal sensitivity in prediction of selfitis. According to first hypothesis, pathological narcissism will be positively correlated with selfitis and it was accepted. The second hypothesis stated that anxious attachment style will be positively correlated with selfitis which was accepted whereas the third hypothesis which stated that avoidant attachment style will be negatively correlated with selfitis was rejected. The fourth which stated objectified body consciousness will be positively correlated to selfitis was accepted and fifth hypothesis stated that interpersonal sensitivity will be positively correlated to selfitis was also accepted. It was hypothesized that females will have higher selfitis score than males but the hypothesis was rejected.

In case of pathological narcissism a lot of research does pointing the same direction showing shown that the trait of narcissism is associated to selfie behavior (Buffardi & Campbell 2008). Another research study of Italian young men and women showed that narcissistic grandiosity was a significant predictor of selfie engagement (Boursier, Gioia, & Griffiths, 2020). When it comes to attachment styles and selfitis, there is not a lot of research but few studies like Adler (2017) showed that anxious attachment was predictive of higher selfie posting. A study by Zheng et al.(2019) showed that self-objectification predicted selfie-posting especially among girls with higher levels of imaginary audience ideation, highlighting the pivotal role of an internalized observer's view. In a study it was found that people scoring high on depression, anxiety, hostility, interpersonal sensitivity, and psychoticism were consequences of Internet Addiction Disorder (Dong et al., 2011). Although most research studies show that females have higher selfie related behaviours but considering the dearth of studies, more research is required. As selfitis is a recent topic of interest, some more studies should be conducted.

CHAPTER-6

CONCLUSION

The purpose of the study was to examine the role of pathological narcissism, attachment styles, objectified body consciousness, and interpersonal sensitivity in the prediction of selfitis. According to first hypothesis, pathological narcissism will be positively correlated with selfitis and it was accepted. The second hypothesis stated that anxious attachment style will be positively correlated with selfitis which was accepted whereas the third hypothesis which stated that avoidant attachment style will be negatively correlated with selfitis was rejected. The fourth which stated objectified body consciousness will be positively correlated to selfitis was accepted and fifth hypothesis stated that interpersonal sensitivity will be positively correlated to selfitis was also accepted. It was hypothesized that females will have higher selfitis score than males but the hypothesis was rejected. It was concluded that selfitis is a topic which needs more research and should be studied with various other factors.

Implications, Limitations and Future scope

With increasing technology, we have landed in a digital era and it is critical for mental health professionals to investigate the impact of selfie related behaviours in order to be competent enough to understand how self- esteem, body image issues and various other problems are connected to just technology. People need to learn new ways to unwind and relax. Many health professionals can benefit from such research studies.

The results cannot be generalized since it is a relatively tiny fraction of the population. The sample needs to be larger and more diverse in case of age. Attempts must be taken at both the personal and social levels to decrease technological overload in order to reestablish a healthy balance of life, work, and technology.

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APPENDIX A

Brief Pathological Narcissism Inventory

Please indicate how much each of the following statements is typical of you.

1. I can usually talk my way out of anything.
2. When people don't notice me, I start to feel bad about myself.
3. I often hide my needs for fear that others will see me as needy and dependent.
4. I can make anyone believe anything I want them to.
5. I get annoyed by people who are not interested in what I say or do.
6. I find it easy to manipulate people.
7. Sometimes I avoid people because I'm concerned that they'll disappoint me.
8. I typically get very angry when I'm unable to get what I want from others.
9. When others don't meet my expectations, I often feel ashamed about what I wanted.
10. I feel important when others rely on me.
11. I can read people like a book.
12. Sacrificing for others makes me the better person.
13. I often fantasize about accomplishing things that are probably beyond my means.
14. Sometimes I avoid people because I'm afraid they won't do what I want them to.
15. It's hard to show others the weaknesses I feel inside.
16. It's hard to feel good about myself unless I know other people admire me.
17. I often fantasize about being rewarded for my efforts.
18. I am preoccupied with thoughts and concerns that most people are not interested in me.
19. I like to have friends who rely on me because it makes me feel important.
20. Sometimes I avoid people because I'm concerned they won't acknowledge what I do for them.
21. It's hard for me to feel good about myself unless I know other people like me.
22. It irritates me when people don't notice how good a person I am.

23. I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve.
24. I try to show what a good person I am through my sacrifices.
25. I often fantasize about performing heroic deeds.
26. I often fantasize about being recognized for my accomplishments.
27. I can't stand relying on other people because it makes me feel weak.
28. When others get a glimpse of my needs, I feel anxious and ashamed.

APPENDIX B

Adult Attachment Scale

Please read each of the following statements and rate the extent to which it describes your feelings about romantic relationships. Please think about all your relationships (past and present) and respond in terms of how you generally feel in these relationships. If you have never been involved in a romantic relationship, answer in terms of how you think you would feel.

1. I find it relatively easy to get close to others.
2. I do not worry about being abandoned.
3. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on others.
4. In relationships, I often worry that my partner does not really love me.
5. I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like.
6. I am comfortable depending on others.
7. I do not worry about someone getting too close to me.
8. I find that people are never there when you need them.
9. I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others.
10. In relationships, I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me.
11. I want to merge completely with another person.
12. My desire to merge sometimes scares people away.
13. I am comfortable having others depend on me.
14. I know that people will be there when I need them.
15. I am nervous when anyone gets too close.
16. I find it difficult to trust others completely.
17. Often, partners want me to be closer than I feel comfortable being.
18. I am not sure that I can always depend on others to be there when I need them.

APPENDIX C

Selfitis Behaviour Scale

Please indicate how much each of the following statements is typical of you.

1. Taking selfies gives me a good feeling to better enjoy my environment.
2. Sharing my selfies creates healthy competition with my friends and colleagues.
3. I gain enormous attention by sharing my selfies on social media.
4. I am able to reduce my stress level by taking selfies.
5. I feel confident when I take a selfie.
6. I gain more acceptance among my peer group when I take selfie and share it on social media.
7. I am able to express myself more in my environment through selfies.
8. Taking different selfie poses helps increase my social status.
9. I feel more popular when I post my selfies on social media.
10. Taking more selfies improves my mood and makes me feel happy.
11. I become more positive about myself when I take selfies .
12. I become a strong member of my peer group through selfie postings.
13. Taking selfies provides better memories about the occasion and the experience.
14. I post frequent selfies to get more 'likes' and comments on social media.
15. By posting selfies, I expect my friends to appraise me.
16. Taking selfies instantly modifies my mood.
17. I take more selfies and look at them privately to increase my confidence.

18. When I don't take selfies, I feel detached from my peer group.
19. I take selfies as trophies for future memories.
20. I use photo editing tools to enhance my selfie to look better than others.

APPENDIX D

Objectified Body Consciousness Scale

For each item, please circle the answer that best characterizes your attitudes or behaviors.

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Somewhat Disagree

4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree

5 = Somewhat Agree

6 = Agree

7 = Strongly Agree

1. I rarely think about how I look.
2. I think it is more important that my clothes are comfortable than whether they look good on me.
3. I think more about how my body feels than how my body looks.
4. I rarely compare how I look with how other people look.
5. During the day, I think about how I look many times.
6. I often worry about whether the clothes I am wearing make me look good.
7. I rarely worry about how I look to other people.
8. I am more concerned with what my body can do than how it looks.
9. When I can't control my weight, I feel like something must be wrong with me.
10. I feel ashamed of myself when I haven't made the effort to look my best.
11. I feel like I must be a bad person when I don't look as good as I could.
12. I would be ashamed for people to know what I really weigh.
13. I never worry that something is wrong with me when I am not exercising as much as I should.

14. When I'm not exercising enough, I question whether I am a good enough person.
15. Even when I can't control my weight, I think I'm an okay person.
16. When I'm not the size I think I should be, I feel ashamed.
17. I think a person is pretty much stuck with the looks they are born with.
18. A large part of being in shape is having that kind of body in the first place.
19. I think a person can look pretty much how they want to if they are willing to work at it.
20. I really don't think I have much control over how my body looks.
21. I think a person's weight is mostly determined by the genes they are born with.
22. It doesn't matter how hard I try to change my weight, it's probably always going to be about the same.
23. I can weight what I'm supposed to when I try hard enough.
24. The shape you are in depends mostly on your genes.

APPENDIX E

Interpersonal Sensitivity Measure

A number of statements are listed below which relate to how you might feel about yourself and other people in your life. Please indicate with a tick in the appropriate place how each one applies to you - i.e. whether it is "very like you", "moderately like you", "moderately unlike you" or "very unlike you". Respond to each statement in terms of how you are **GENERALLY** and not necessarily just at present. There are no right or wrong answers

1. I feel insecure when I say goodbye to people
2. I worry about the effect I have on other people
3. I avoid saying what I think for fear of being rejected
4. I feel uneasy meeting new people
5. If others knew the real me, they would not like me
6. I feel secure when I'm in a close relationship
7. I don't get angry with people for fear that I may hurt them
8. After a fight with a friend, I feel uncomfortable until I have made peace
9. I am always aware of how other people feel
10. I worry about being criticised for things I have said or done
11. I always notice if someone doesn't respond to me
12. I worry about losing someone close to me
13. I feel that people generally like me
14. I will do something I don't want to do rather than offend or upset someone
15. I can only believe that something I have done is good when someone tells me it is

16. I will go out of my way to please someone I am close to
17. I feel anxious when I say goodbye to people
18. I feel happy when someone compliments me
19. I fear that my feelings will overwhelm people
20. I can make other people feel happy
21. I find it hard to get angry with people
22. I worry about criticising other people
23. If someone is critical of something I do, I feel bad
24. If other people knew what I am really like, they would think less of me
25. I always expect criticism
26. I can never be really sure if someone is pleased with me
27. I don't like people to really know me
28. If someone upsets me, I am not able to put it easily out of my mind
29. I feel others do not understand me
30. I worry about what others think of me
31. I don't feel happy unless people I know admire me
32. I am never rude to anyone
33. I worry about hurting the feelings of other people
34. I feel hurt when someone is angry with me
35. My value as a person depends enormously on what others think of me
36. I care about what people feel about me