

LOCUS OF CONTROL AND MEDIA INFLUENCE ON BODY SELF-SATISFACTION IN
LATE ADOLESCENT MALES

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to add to the small body of research on the relationship between locus of control and media influence on body self-satisfaction in late adolescent males. The subjects used in this study were 151 male students enrolled in undergraduate classes at a major research university in the Midwest during the 2008 fall semester. The ages ranged from 18 to 23, with 88.1% of the respondents being between the ages of 18 and 20. All respondents were to provide demographic information on their age, sex, weight, height, year in school, and approximate daily interaction (in hours) with selected mass media (cf. television, movies, magazines, newspaper, and internet). The respondents also completed Rotter's 29-item (I-E) Locus of Control scale (1966), the Body Image and Body Change Inventory (Ricciardelli & McCabe, 2001) and the Perceived Sociocultural Influences on Body Image and Body Change Questionnaire Media Influence Subscale (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2001). The study found a positive relationship between the total media's influence and body image importance. The results demonstrated that in late adolescence, there is a relationship between the chosen media and the appearance of their body, weight, and size and strength of muscles. In addition, the study discovered that externally controlled late adolescent males are more likely to place importance on the appearance of their body, weight, and muscle size and strength than do internally controlled late adolescent males.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Late adolescence is a time of change that brings on a search for identity, and the social ecology of the adolescent begins to send messages that shape their behavior in a range of areas. Adolescents begin to ask themselves, “Who am I?” and “How do I feel about how I look?”

The general sociocultural model proposes that adolescents seek their true selves (who they are and how they look) through peers, clubs, the media, political movements, etc. (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004). Moreover, the model assumes that these influences, including the media, are causal in the development of body dissatisfaction (Dohnt & Tiggemann, 2006). The average adolescent spends more than six hours each day using one or more media items, and this includes using different media simultaneously (Steinberg, 2008). One of the effects of television, movies, magazines, newspaper, and internet’s saturation is the misrepresentation and distortion of ideal societal beauty and performance (Tiggemann, 2006). Often magazines influence on “how to be a man,” while other masses manipulate cultural meanings of “proper manly conduct.”

There is no doubting that the conceptualization of masculinity has been interceded and mediated by television and textual entities such as magazines. This current cultural emphasis on the male body-as-process, or instruments of action, undoubtedly helps to explain why physical aptitudes are a relevant dimension of boys’ and young men’s body concepts (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2004), and also why their degree of muscular strength is related to positive body esteem, social confidence, and self-satisfaction (Franzoi & Klaiber, 2007).

In a 2004 study on male body image, 95% of college-aged men expressed dissatisfaction with some part of their bodies and 70% experienced a discrepancy between their current and ideal body shapes (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn). With that notion, researchers and clinicians have

recently recognized that there has been an inadequate conceptualization and assessment of body image and associated behavioral problems among males (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2001). While much focus has been on the media's influence in females, males have often been neglected. (Field, Camargo, Taylor, Berkey, Roberts, & Colditz, 2001).

Due to these influences on body self-satisfaction in late adolescents, many health problems can occur. Body image disturbances, often viewed as a continuum of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with one's physical appearance, has been linked to low self-esteem, depression, and social anxiety (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004). Along with women, a parallel struggle is occurring among males for physical attributes of attractiveness. While the mass media attaches an ideal of thinness to women, male-targeted media encourages more exercise and weight-lifting (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004).

Exposure to same-sex figures in the media and the desire to look like them constitute modeling in social comparison theory and sociocultural theory. There is voluminous experimental research and empirical literature that focus on body image and women. However, by focusing on these same areas that concern females, such as attractiveness and gender identity, males have often been neglected. (Field et al., 2001).

Statement of the Problem

The focus of the study is to examine the relationship between locus of control, the media, and late adolescent male self-perception and body satisfaction. There is little information on how binge eating, excessive exercise, or other behaviors associated with disturbed body image impact males (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2001). Although sources that emphasize the importance of physical beauty are omnipresent, the most influential force in forming, strengthening, and activating stereotypes has been the mass media (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004). "Today's

media do not distinguish between glorified fiction and reality, thus society regards media images as realistic representations of beauty and as appropriate comparison targets for appearance” (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004). While body dysmorphia does affect women more, late adolescent males may also have the same problems with eating disorders, anorexia nervosa, bulimia nervosa, and psychological problems that are attributed to body dysmorphic disorder and body image. For every ten to fifteen females diagnosed with an eating disorder twenty years ago, there was one male. Now that gap has closed significantly, with one male for every four females (Pompper, Soto, & Piel, 2007).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to add to the small body of research on the relationship between locus of control and media influence on body self-satisfaction in late adolescent males. Societal pressures have fashioned an ideal image that many males conjugate as the absolute truth. Unfortunately, these images are often unrealistic and set bad examples for members of society.

A large issue is that many studies (cf. Field, et. al, 2001; Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2003; McCabe, & Ricciardelli, 2001; McCabe, & Ricciardelli, 2003) have focused on how females are affected by the media, but very few studies have been completed on how the media affects male’s body self-satisfaction. Adolescents often feel lost in the world and they look at the media to identify the norm. The perceived standard, created by the media, constructs a maturational idealization, and the behavior to conform is affecting their physical, social, and emotional growth.

More studies need to be prepared so that researchers can see the affects of the media on late adolescent male's body self-satisfaction. To this end, this study will attempt to identify what correlation, if any, exists between the media and the adolescent male body image.

Justification for the Study

In recent years, researchers have increasingly focused on the role of the media in body image. However, a major limitation of body-image research is that the focus has primarily been on adolescent females. Gaps in literature have left researchers wondering whether males have not been studied as often as females because previous literature indicated that there was no relationship between the media and late adolescent males, that there has been no legitimate rationale to study the topic, or that late adolescent males have been simply overlooked or ignored in previous body image research. When body image studies have been completed, most have combined males and females into one study and may have overlooked attributes that are exclusively male. For example, very little research has investigated weight gain and muscle increase in boys (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2003).

Body image influence has been explored through many psychosocial theories. Exposure to same-sex figures in the media and the desire to look like them constitute modeling in Social Comparison Theory (Festinger, 1954). Older children through late adolescence may learn their social and physical activity behaviors through observation and modeling of influential and respected characters in their lives, including parents, peers, and media figures. This process of learning may be enhanced by a dynamic interaction with intrapersonal factors such as self-esteem and body satisfaction (Schwartz, 2004). The need for more research can help determine if there is an existing relationship between the media and late adolescent male body dissatisfaction.

Delimitations

This study was delimited to the following:

1. The participants willing to volunteer must have been between the ages of 18 and 23.
2. Upon receipt of a human subjects safeguard clearance from Indiana University, the study was conducted in professor approved classrooms at Indiana University, Bloomington.
3. The study took place during the 2008 fall semester.
4. The subjects are college students drawn from general education courses (Introduction to Criminal Justice, Introduction to Psychology, Introduction to Sociology, Human Sexuality, Introduction to Human Lifespan Development, and The Effects of Divorce on Children) in the fall semester of 2008.
5. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (2-tailed) was conducted to determine body image satisfaction, body image importance, strategies to increase weight, strategies to decrease weight, strategies to increase muscle tone, binge eating, food supplements, and the influence the media had.
6. The data collection lasted an estimate of one month.
7. The difference in the actual utilization of media, which consisted of television, magazines, newspapers, movies, and the internet. No other media were used.

Limitations

The results of this study were limited by:

1. The subjects' honesty and truthfulness to the questions on the questionnaire.
2. The participants willing to volunteer during the allotted research time.
3. The number of male subjects between 18 and 23 years old that were present in class when the questionnaire was distributed.

4. The actual number of subjects who completed the questionnaire.

Assumptions

The study was based on the following assumptions:

1. The maturational and environmental influences are unique to each male.
2. Late adolescent males are self conscious about their body image.
3. Late adolescent males compare themselves to figures in the media.
4. Late adolescent males have access to media.
5. The subjects answered the questionnaire with complete honesty and truthfulness.
6. The subjects understood the questions on the questionnaire and asked for clarification if they did not understand a question.

Hypotheses

The study was designed to test the following null hypotheses:

1. There is no relationship between the individual's Locus of Control (LOC) score and the Total Media Influence (TMI) score.
2. There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence concerning weight (BIC1).
3. There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence concerning shape (BIC2).
4. There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence concerning muscle size (BIC3).
5. There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence concerning different parts of the body (TBIC).

6. There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence and the importance of body weight (BII1).
7. There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence and the importance of body shape (BII2).
8. There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence and the importance of muscle size and strength (BII3).
9. There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence and the importance of different parts of the body (TBII).
10. There is no relationship between the individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence concerning weight (BIC1).
11. There is no relationship between the individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence concerning shape (BIC2).
12. There is no relationship between the individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence concerning muscle size (BIC3).
13. There is no relationship between the individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence concerning different parts of the body (TBIC).
14. There is no relationship between the individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence and the importance of body weight (BII1).
15. There is no relationship between the individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence and the importance of body shape (BII2).
16. There is no relationship between the individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence and the importance of muscle size and strength (BII3).

17. There is no relationship between the individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence and the importance of different parts of the body (TBII).

Definitions of Key Terms

Body Image. Body image may be conceptualized as a multidimensional construct that represents how individuals think, feel, and behave in relation to their physical appearance. Researchers traditionally regard body image as consisting of two components: body image evaluation, which comprises the evaluative thoughts and beliefs an individual may have about his or her appearance, and body image investment, which is the extent to which an individual focuses on his or her physical appearance and engages in body-altering behaviors (T.G Morrison, M.A Morrison, & Hopkins, 2003).

Body Satisfaction. Body satisfaction is the degree in which people are satisfied with their bodies. Essentially, a person's body satisfaction level is measured by how they perceive their appearance to be in comparison to others. If an individual is pleased about their body, they will have a positive sense of body self-satisfaction. However, if the individual is critical of their body, they will have a negative sense of body self-satisfaction (Furnham & Calnan, 1998).

Locus of Control. The Rotter (IE) Locus of Control scale is a 29 item questionnaire developed by Julian B. Rotter. The questionnaire measures generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement by asking questions that characterize the extent in which individuals believe that they can control events that affect them (Rotter, 1966).

Internal Locus of Control. Internal control is regarded by an individual as the perception of events being a consequence of their own actions and therefore under personal control. For example, college students with a strong internal locus of control may believe that their grades were achieved through their own abilities and efforts (Rotter, 1966).

External Locus of Control. External control is regarded by an individual as the perception of events as being a consequence of actions unrelated to their own behaviors, therefore beyond their personal control. For example, college students a strong external locus of control may believe that their grades are the result of good or bad luck, or to a professor who designs bad tests grades capriciously (Rotter, 1966).

Media. In this study, media is defined as the limited sum of television, movies, magazines, newspapers, and the internet.

Sociocultural Theory. Lev Vygotsky (1934) developed the sociocultural theory as an approach that emphasizes how cognitive development proceeds as a result of social interactions between members of a culture. In addition, it seeks to explain how ways of thinking and understanding affect behavior. In model theorizes that as exposure to mass media containing idealistic representations of body increases, the evaluation of a favorable body image decreases (T.G. Morrison, M.A Morrison, & Hopkins, 2003).

Social Comparison Theory. Social comparison theory suggests that individuals learn about and assess themselves by comparison with other people. Proposed by Leon Festinger (1954), social comparison theory suggests that people have a tendency to compare themselves with others on dimensions of personal achievement and physical appearance. Social comparison theory helps explain why people yearn to emulate the models they see in the media. (Franzoi & Klaiber, 2007).

Summary

Chapter one introduced adolescence as the time when individuals search for identity. Within late adolescent exploration, late adolescents value their surrounding socioculture as a representation of accepted societal behavior. Within the socioculture, the media often sends

mixed messages that may influence individuals. In late adolescent males, our culture has placed emphasis on masculinity. Along with women, a parallel struggle is occurring among adult males for the physical attributes of attractiveness and muscularity.

The purpose of the study is to examine if there was a relationship between locus of control, media influence, and late adolescent male's body self-satisfaction. Within the chapter, the justification for the study, delimitations, limitations, assumptions, hypotheses, and the definitions of key terms were all discussed.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature related to the media's influence on body self-satisfaction in adolescent males is presented in this chapter. Compared to females, there have been fewer studies conducted on sociocultural influences and the media's impact on body dissatisfaction, weight loss, weight gain, and strategies to increase muscle tone in men (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2001; McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2003). To date, research has not speculated a definitive rationale why males have been neglected in body-image research. However recently, there is growing evidence that more studies must be conducted in order to get a better understanding of the little research that has been published on this topic.

The following study will present an organized review of previous literature as follows: (a) late adolescence and identity development, (b) late adolescence and cultural influences, (c) late adolescent males and body image, (d) effects of the media on late adolescent males and (e) health concerns. The next section of the literature review discusses practical theories that support the media's influence on adolescent body image. The discussed theories are (a) social comparison theory, (b) sociocultural theory, (c) internal and external locus of control, (d) summary of the related literature and (e) summary.

Late Adolescence and Identity Development

While most late adolescents share remarkably similar concerns focused around friends, parents, and school, the fundamental physical, cognitive, and psychosocial development of each adolescent is quite unique. During the general adolescent time frame, most individuals pass through a period of confusion, rebellion, and turmoil (Feldman, 2000). Late adolescents may find this period in their life as challenging and difficult. In a search to find themselves, late

adolescents may “try on” different hats to experience different roles within society. During personality and social developments of this period, late adolescence brings about major changes in how individuals must deal with the world (Feldman, 2000).

Robert Feldman (2000) explains that during late adolescence, voices will echo one common theme: a keen awareness and self-consciousness regarding their new place in society. A new-fangled sense of “Who am I?” can become very important during late adolescence. Researchers have traditionally distinguished between three aspects of identity development in late adolescence: changes in self-conceptions, changes in self-esteem, and changes in the sense of identity. The first approach emphasizes changes in self-conceptions – the ideas that individuals have of themselves with regard to various traits and attributes. An entirely different approach focuses on adolescents’ self-esteem, or self-image – how positively or negatively they feel about themselves. Finally, a third approach emphasizes changes in the sense of identity – the sense of who one is, where one has come from, and where one is going (Steinberg, 2008). Reasoning for the late adolescents’ new curiosity is because their intellectual capacities are becoming more adult-like, and they are trying to form a sense of themselves as individuals.

Late adolescents may only make small changes such as styling their hair, changing hair color, or changing their dress style, but to them, those changes are also altering their personality. The ongoing changes during late adolescence may prompt fluctuations in self-image and a re-evaluation of who he or she really is (Steinberg, 2008). In other words, developing an identity is a social as well as mental process.

Erik Erikson (1963) has proposed that the general adolescent period is one of eight developmental stages that encompass the life-span. He viewed the developing person as moving through stages that takes on special significance at a given period of the life cycle because

biological and social forces interact to bring crisis into prominence. During each of these eight stages, the individual attempts to establish ego integrity, or equilibrium, through a struggle, or psychological crisis, that is unique to that particular stage of development. During the late adolescent period of development, this ego struggle focuses on establishing a sense of ego identity or integrity while trying to avoid a sense of ego confusion. He branded the chief psychological crisis in adolescence as identity versus identity diffusion.

Both Jean Piaget (1958) and Heinz Werner (1961) have argued that an individual's cognitions about the physical world undergo important qualitative changes during adolescence.

The process of identity formation emerges as an evolving configuration – a configuration which is generally established by successive ego syntheses and resyntheses throughout childhood; it is a configuration gradually integrating constitutional givens, idiosyncratic libidinal needs, favored capacities, significant identifications, effective defenses, successful sublimations, and constant roles (Miller, 2002, p. 155).

The psychosocial modality of this stage is to find what fits the individual. In order to do so, a substantial reorganization and restructuring of the individual's sense of self must occur.

Achieving a balanced and coherent sense of identity is an intellectually and emotionally taxing process. In fact, according to Erikson, it is not until adolescence that one even has the mental or emotional capability to tackle this task (Steinberg, 2008). However, when the individual finds their best fit, they will raise self-efficacy and start to develop their own identity.

Unarguably, identity development is complex and multifaceted. Identity development involves changes in the way adolescents view themselves in relation to broader society. According to Montemayor and Eisen (1977), an individual's developing ability to think

abstractly allows them to differentiate between their appearance, or behavior, and underlying dispositional identity forms. However, the individual's sense of identity changes over the course of adolescence. Researcher James Marcia (1966), a supporter of Erikson, claims that

Identity diffused male subjects, or those subjects who have neither an identity crisis nor commitment, showed little resistance to self-esteem manipulation. That is, they quite readily changed their own opinions about themselves, [and] they were vulnerable to evaluative feedback about themselves, since they did not yet have a stable identity (Muuss, 1975, p. 72).

According to Marcia, it is the identity diffused, or ego confused, individuals that have the most difficult time distinguishing their individual self and therefore, are more likely vulnerable to societal influence.

Perhaps the most significant finding to emerge from research is that a coherent sense of identity generally is not established before the age of 18, and differences in identity status are most frequently observed between groups in the 18 to 21 year-old range (Steinberg, 2008). Steinberg (2008) reports that before entering college, 50% late of adolescents were judged to be in a state of identity diffusion, which suggests the notion that the identity crisis is unlikely to be resolved during high school. It is the late adolescents' increased intellectual abilities, logical reasoning, and social cognition that give them an enhanced mental capacity to forge a greater sense of self than their younger counterparts.

In general, Steinberg (2008) reports that changes in self-perception (whether positive or negative) are greater during middle and late adolescence, and that the late teens and early twenties seem to be the most critical times for crystallization of a sense of identity. In addition, adolescents whose self-esteem is wrapped up in the approval of others, may be at risk for

developing self-image problems and temporary drops in self-esteem. On the other hand, Erikson placed a great deal of weight on the role of society (and especially those who have influence over the late adolescent) in shaping the late adolescent's sense of self. Erikson argued that the key to resolving the crisis of identity versus identity diffusion lies in the late adolescents' interactions with others (Steinberg, 2008). Furthermore, the late adolescent's identity is the result of a mutual recognition between the individual and society. By responding to the reaction of society, the late adolescent selects and chooses from among many elements that could conceivably become part of their adult identity. Erikson (1963) once stated in his book, *Childhood and Society*, "We must try to formulate the way in which self-contradictions in American history may expose her youth to an emotional and political short circuit and thus endanger the individual's dynamic potential." The individual's potential is threatened when adolescents are given imagery that may have negative effects on them. There are many cultural and societal pressures that can influence a late adolescent.

Late Adolescence and Cultural Influences

As social beings, individuals are influenced by others' approval in their appearance as a means of developing a personal identity and sense of social belonging (Price, 2009). The male and female body image, or perceptions of his/her own physical appearance, has been primarily set by modern western culture (Tiggemann, 2006). Adolescents seek their true selves through peers, clubs, the media, political movements, and so on (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004). The ideology of society, this stage's counterpart in the social order, guides this role by conveying which roles are valued by society (Miller, p. 155). During adolescence, there is an extreme preoccupation with opinions and expectations of significant others (Caglar, 2009). In late adolescence and early adulthood, many of the attributes reflect personal beliefs, values, and

moral standards that have become constructed from their own experiences in society (Caglar, 2009).

Feelings of one's own body image are very important to men, especially those in late adolescence. From birth, boys are socialized to behave in "sex-appropriate" ways, that is, to conform to society's standards for acceptable masculine behavior (Steinberg, 2008). In addition, Steinberg (2008) emphasizes that the costs of being gender-atypical, are greater for boys than girls. Young males going through puberty are changing rapidly, and they are looking to maintain masculinity, which has been largely defined by physical appearance. Masculinity has greatly been altered since the celebrated values of the self-made man found its greatest source in self-determinism, autonomy, and individualism. The historic embodied belief used to rely on inherited wealth and social power but has been switched by cultural representation of physical strength and material success (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004).

Around adolescence, males and females gain more autonomy from their parents. With more independence comes the ability to control decisions and behaviors. With sovereignty, many late adolescents will deliberate to the media during their free-time. Several explanations can help explain why adolescents pay more attention to the media. First, the availability of media in people's homes is remarkable. For example, 99% of all American adolescents live in homes with a television, and 75% of all adolescents live in a home with internet access (Steinberg, 2008). Moreover, Steinberg (2008) reports that two-thirds of adolescents report watching television while eating meals or that the TV remains on all day regardless if anyone is watching it.

Given the considerable amount of time adolescents spend exposed to the media, it is not surprising the impact that the mass media has on adolescent behavior and development. One of

the effects of television, movies, magazines, newspaper, and internet's saturation is the insidious misrepresentation and distortion of ideal societal beauty and performance (Tiggemann, 2006). Often magazines influence "how to be a man" while other masses control cultural meanings of "proper manly conduct." There is no doubting that the mass media helps mold and shape late adolescent's interests, motives, and beliefs about the world. Many young men resort to the formation of their own subculture, which is quite often different from, and even antagonistic to, the prevailing culture. This subculture may satisfy to some degree the adolescent's need for identity, but it does not deal with other needs which may be met only by taking on an approved role in the cultural mainstream (Dicaprio, 1974, p. 69). Without reservation, it is incontrovertibly apparent that the conceptualization of decision making about masculinity has been handed over and mediated by television and scriptural entities such as magazines.

The media's exploitation of unrealistic images has entered into American culture via television, movies, and magazines. Even men who turn a blind eye from the pejorative slang of "trash TV" cannot avoid the newspaper sitting out on the front step or internet material that is accessible at the touch of a button.

From *Playgirl* and *Chippendales*, debuting in the 1970's, to muscle movies such as *Rambo* in the '80s, to the male cosmetic surgeries of the '90s, the emphasis on appearance that long plagued women has been increasingly directed toward men. *Playgirl* centerfolds have become increasingly dense and muscular, and the emphasis on masculinity is communicated to even the youngest males through toy action figures which are becoming significantly more muscular and now exceeding world-class body builders. Thus the ideal male body is becoming

increasingly unattainable, resulting in real-ideal discrepancies (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004, p. 18).

Although sources that emphasize the importance of physical beauty are omnipresent, the most influential force in forming, strengthening, and activating stereotypes has been the mass media (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004). While the proposed scrutiny is that the media sends negative messages to individuals, isolation from the media may result in missed societal cues that can also be damaging to human development. From a sociological perspective, the media represents the greater society's values and beliefs. While this contemporary viewpoint may be distorted, without some exposure to the media, late adolescents may fail to follow fundamental changes that exist in the world, such as social transitions, economic stress, and ethnic inequalities, just to name a few. Although limited contact with the media may be questionably beneficial, today's media still do not distinguish between glorified fiction and reality, thus, society regards media images as realistic representations of beauty and appropriate targets for body image comparison (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004).

Late Adolescent Males and Body Image

Late Adolescence is a period of significant physical and psychological change, and the development of a satisfactory body image is especially important at that time. Much of the research on body image and dissatisfaction, which has primarily focused on females, shows that they are dissatisfied with their bodies (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2001; McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2003). Similar research, on males, has suggested that they tend to be happier with their body weight, body shape, and physical appearance than their female counterpart (Furnham & Calnan, 1998). However, increasing evidence suggests that this is no longer the case. Males are more obsessed with body image than they like to admit; hence why they look in the mirror. Research

contends that, to men, the male body image is becoming progressively more negative (Morrison, Hopkins, & Morrison, 2003). In a study on male body image, 95% of college-aged men expressed dissatisfaction with some part of their bodies, and 70% experienced a discrepancy between their current and ideal body shapes (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004).

Body image may be conceptualized as a multidimensional construct that represents how individuals think, feel, and behave in relation to their physical appearance. Researchers traditionally regard body image as consisting of two components: body image evaluation, which comprises the evaluative thoughts and beliefs an individual may have about his or her appearance, and body image investment, which is the extent to which an individual focuses on his or her physical appearance and engages in body-altering behaviors

(Morrison et al., 2003, p. 111)

Body dissatisfaction is different for males and females. Dissatisfaction in females tends to operate in the direction of weight loss, while males focus on both weight loss and weight gain (Furnham & Calnan, 1998). Furnham and Calnan (1998) also report that 4.4% of females desired to gain weight, whereas, eighteen year old boys were split into those who wish to lose weight and those who wish to gain weight. Moreover, 46.8% of males desired to be more muscular (Furnham & Calnan, 1998).

It is most often noted that men report that the ideal body type is either the “triangular or V-shaped muscular mesomorph or the ecto-mesomorph, a man with a well-proportioned build. In sharp contrast to this [ideal] are the thin, weak-looking ectomorph and the fat endomorph” (Pompper, Soto, & Piel, 2007). In other words, today’s standard of attractiveness for men is

characterized by a well-developed upper torso containing built pectoral muscles, arms and shoulders while the lower torso, waist, and hips should remain slim.

T.G. Morrison, Kalin, and M.A. Morrison (2004) reported that 72% of male and female participants believed that society has an ideal body shape for men. When asked to describe this ideal, approximately 74% reported that it was muscular, with only 8% stating that it was slim. They also reported that participants of both sexes evaluated male figures with muscular chests as more assertive, athletic, sexually active, confident, and popular. Negative descriptors, such as lonely and depressed, were assigned to the figure possessing the least muscular, or most ectomorphic, chest. Even more research from Morrison et al. (2004) suggests that sociocultural pressures concerning men's health and fitness may be intensifying.

Because early research did not indicate body dissatisfaction in males, it can be argued that history did not subject males to the same sociocultural pressure of obtaining an ideal body shape as they do today. However, a study conducted in 1992 found that although the female targeted media does suggest more diet related materials, the male targeted media contained more shape change media (Furnham & Calnan, 1998), and thus it would seem that males do not escape the sociocultural pressure to achieve the ideal body shape. This phenomena alone, should have suggested a need for more studies on the effects of the media on late adolescent males.

Effects of the Media on Late Adolescent Males

The cultural emphasis on the male body-as-process, or instruments of action, undoubtedly helps to explain why physical aptitude are a relevant dimension of boys' and young men's body concepts (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2004), and also why their degree of muscular strength is related to positive body esteem, social confidence, and self-satisfaction (Franzios & Klaiber, 2007).

In one of the few articles that examines the effects of media images on men, Grogan, Williams, and Conner (1996) indicated that body-esteem scores for both men and women decreased after viewing same-gender photographic models. In another study, men with high body dissatisfaction reported less pleasure while viewing slide images of themselves than when viewing ideal images of same-sex others (Morrison et al., 2004). A more recent study found that men who viewed ideal male images in TV advertisements reported higher levels of muscle dissatisfaction and depression following image exposure than men who viewed nonappearance related advertisements (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004). Leit, Gray, and Pope (2002) also found measurable body dissatisfaction in men who were exposed to advertisements featuring muscular men. This dissatisfaction was revealed in the form of large discrepancies between self perceived muscularity and ideal levels of muscularity following participant exposure to ideal images of muscular men. Hargreaves and Tiggemann (2003) have shown that adolescents with a positive body image have higher self-esteem. Boys with higher self-esteem have been shown to do better in school, be socially outgoing, and thrive better in life. Research also shows that late adolescent depressive symptoms are substantially reduced when body image is controlled. In contrast, researchers found that underweight men saw themselves as less handsome, less good natured, and as having less sex appeal (Morrison et al., 2003).

Health Concerns

Besides, a self-described, reduced physical appearance, many other health problems can occur due to media influences on body self-satisfaction in late adolescents. “Body image disturbances, often viewed as a continuum of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with one’s physical appearance has been linked to low self-esteem, depression, and social anxiety” (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, p. 7, 2004). In a national survey, underweight men had increased odds of suicidal

ideation and suicide attempts in relation to average weight men (Morrison et al., 2003). Along with women, a parallel struggle is occurring among adult males for the physical attributes of attractiveness. While the mass media attaches an ideal of thinness to women, male-targeted media encourages more exercise and weight-lifting (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004).

Although it does disproportionately affect women more, late adolescent males still have the same problems with eating disorders, anorexia nervosa, bulimia nervosa, and psychological problems that are attributed to body dysmorphia and body image. For every ten to fifteen females diagnosed with an eating disorder twenty years ago, there was one male, Now, that gap has closed significantly, with one male for every four females (Pompper et al., 2007). These statistics may even somewhat of an underestimate since there may be reluctance on the part of clinicians to diagnose eating disorders in males (Furnham & Calnan, 1998). There have also been gender differences, noted by clinicians, in the labeling of behavior. In females, eating a bulk of food in a short sitting is considered bingeing, whereas males do not label ingestion of large quantities of food as bingeing (Furnham & Calnan, 1998).

The impact of ideal media images may also be seen in the increasing prevalence of eating disorder symptomatology, body dysmorphia, excessive exercise, and steroid use among men. In terms of eating pathology, recent attention has been given to body (muscle) dysmorphia, or “reverse anorexia.” This disorder involves a pathological preoccupation with one’s body, obsessive–compulsive involvement with dieting, weightlifting and related activities, and severe impairment of social and occupational functioning (Morrison et al., 2004). Indeed, excessive exercise trends have indicated that men’s health and fitness activities are found in almost 25% of men surveyed (Morrison et al., 2004).

Social Comparison Theory

Feelings of one's own body image can be very important to men, especially late adolescents. Most young males are changing rapidly and they can be looking to maintain masculinity, which has been largely defined by physical appearance. Cultural norms have set many unrealistic ideals for adolescents, which is why the schools gyms are packed with boys looking to gain muscle mass. Social comparison and attention to cultural standards is an important means by which people evaluate their bodies.

As originally articulated by Festinger, and supported by social psychology research, when people engage in social comparison, they seek to compare themselves with others who are similar to them on the relevant domain. The theory postulates that the more similar other people are to them, the more likely they will be able to use the information gained through social comparison in better understanding themselves and their future plans of action (Franzoi & Klaiber, 2007).

Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory postulates that: (1) individuals have a drive to evaluate their opinions and abilities; (2) in the absence of objective, nonsocial criteria, individuals engage in social comparison (i.e., they compare their opinions and abilities to those of other individuals); and (3) whenever possible, social comparisons are made with similar others (Morrison et al., 2004).

According to Festinger, people are constantly comparing and evaluating themselves to others. Social comparison theory hypothesizes that people's desire for stable, accurate self-appraisals, might motivate them to evaluate their opinions and abilities by comparing themselves with others. Although temporal comparisons are also a useful source of self-knowledge, social

comparisons are perceived as providing the most useful information to the self. (Franzoi & Klaiber, 2007).

In social comparison theory, individuals use social contacts to make a series of appraisals their body and its appearance (Price, 2009). Social theorists note that, rather than working with one uniform norm of appearance, late adolescents appear to spend a great time comparing their appearance against a wide range of group norms to decide whether they are socially acceptable and to determine what to do to enhance their social chances (Price, 2009).

Late adolescents are more acutely aware of norms and boundaries than one might suppose. Older adolescents may learn their physical activity behaviors through observation and modeling of influential and respected characters in their lives, including parents, peers, and media figures. When late adolescents feel inadequate compared to their peers, they will often have low self-esteem and create dangerous lifestyles in order to achieve the look they want. These risks include, but are not limited to, anorexia nervosa, bulimia, and other health problems such as heart abnormalities, kidney damage, hypertension, and muscle atrophy, and psychological disorders (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn).

The vast majority of research on physical self-comparison has involved the experimental manipulation of the comparison process by exposing participants to targets who either closely match or significantly diverge from ideal physical appearance standards. Consistent with social comparison theory, these studies generally show increased body dissatisfaction and social physique anxiety following exposure to comparison targets who closely match cultural ideals of physical appearance (Franzoi & Klaiber, 2007).

Sociocultural Theory

In a general sense, full understanding of development and its cognitive progression is impossible to consider without taking into account the culture in which the individual developed. Lev Vygotsky (1934) developed the sociocultural theory as an approach that emphasizes how cognitive development proceeds as a result of social interactions between members of a culture. In addition, it seeks to explain how ways of thinking and understanding affect behavior. To a far greater extent than social comparison theory, sociocultural explanations of development suggest that culture shapes development.

Few researchers have explored the ways in which sociocultural theory may be used to examine body-image evaluation and investment among males. Having said this, one of the most established perspectives on the development of body dissatisfaction is sociocultural theory. Sociocultural influences, in particular the media, are considered to be powerful sources of body image disturbance (Morrison et al., 2003). Sociocultural theory views the mass media and other sources of sociocultural pressure as powerful transmitters and reinforcers of sociocultural body ideals (Dittmar, 2005). According to Morrison et al. (2003), sociocultural theory assumes that as exposure to mass media containing idealistic representations of the body increases, body image evaluation becomes less favorable and body image investment intensifies. Specifically, the researchers argued that (a) the mass media influences men's perception of an ideal body, (b) the emphasis the mass media place on bodily perfection encourage men to view their bodies as objects, and (c) men perceive deviation from the body type that is promoted by the mass media as tantamount to being unattractive (Morrison et al., 2003). Vygotsky infers that individuals do not develop in a cultural vacuum. Instead their route is directed by society to certain areas (today's culture being the exploitation of mass media).

Sociocultural theorists suggest that when individuals compare their perceived appearance with some other imagined or idealized person, anxiety over personal body image occurs (Morrison et al., 2004). The central proposal is that individuals come to feel bad about their bodies because they are exposed to unrealistic beauty ideals by their sociocultural environment, consisting of the mass media, peer groups, friends, and family (Dittmar, 2005). The theory, known as the self-ideal discrepancy hypothesis, proposes that the greater the discrepancy between one's perceived self and the perceived ideal, the greater the dissatisfaction. Greater dissatisfaction in turn leads to higher levels of eating disturbance.

Significant paths towards developing and refining the sociocultural model of body dissatisfaction further lie in identifying (a) vulnerability factors that contribute to making individuals more responsive to sociocultural pressures for an ideal body (Dittmar, 2005), and (b) mapping the psychological processes by which sociocultural pressures come to impact body image, particularly those involved in lowering body satisfaction (Dittmar, 2005).

Internal – External Locus of Control

A large facet of influence is based on whether a person feels that they have control over the situation or the person's belief about what causes the good or bad results in his or her life. Understanding of the concept was developed by Julian B. Rotter in 1954 and refined in 1966. Rotter defined external and internal control of reinforcement as follows:

When reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action, then, in our culture, it is typically perceived as being a result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others, or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, we

have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behavior or his own relatively permanent characteristics, we have termed this a belief in internal control (Gross, 1984, pg. 35).

Thus, internal control is regarded by an individual as the perception of events being a consequence of their own actions and therefore under personal control. External control is regarded by an individual as the perception of events as being a consequence of actions unrelated to their own behaviors, therefore beyond their personal control. For example, college students with a strong internal locus of control may believe that their grades were achieved through their own abilities and efforts, while college students with a strong external locus of control may believe that their grades are the result of good or bad luck, or to a professor who designs bad tests or grades capriciously. Individuals differ in the degree to which they consider control to be contingent upon their own behavior.

Summary

Body image is a very important aspect in a physical, cognitive, and socioemotional developing late adolescent male. The recent trend has been that a lean and muscular male body is the ideal and that all males must mimic the models they see in the media. While there has been a quantifiable amount of research performed on the benefits of physical attractiveness, such as better jobs, better grades, etc, little research has been done on the negative effects of body dissatisfaction and the problems that the media induces. The media has introduced and encouraged weight loss, over exercising, and under eating to today's youth, which has caused many physical, psychological, and eating disorders because the cultural norms are unattainable. With more research, the possible causes of this breakout can be reduced, which may lead to a healthier lifestyle for late adolescent males.

Chapter 3

METHODS

The purpose of the study was to determine if there is a relationship between exposure to the media and body self-satisfaction in late adolescent males. The topics discussed in this chapter include: (a) selection of subjects, (b) instrumentation, (c) procedures for data collecting, (d) data analysis, and (e) summary.

Selection of the Subjects

The subjects used in this study were male students enrolled in undergraduate classes at a major research university in the Midwest during the 2008 fall session. The target populations for this study were late adolescent male students between the ages of 18 and 23, which, while may vary depending on the human developmentalist, is the broad spectrum of late adolescence (Steinberg, 2008). The specificity of the age was chosen because a true identity is generally not established before the age of 18, and differences in identity status are most frequently observed between groups in the 18 to 21 year-old range (Steinberg, 2008). Also, in general, Steinberg (2008) reports that changes in self-perception (whether positive or negative) are greater during middle and late adolescence, and that the late teens and early twenties seem to be the most critical times for crystallization of a sense of identity.

The data were collected in classes such as: Introduction to Psychology, Introduction to Sociology, Human Sexuality, and Introduction to Human Lifespan Development

Instrumentation

All respondents were asked for demographic information on age, sex, weight, height, year in school, and approximate daily interaction (in hours) with selected media (e.g. television, movies, magazines, newspaper, and the internet) (Appendix B). They also completed Rotter's 29

Question (I-E) Locus of Control scale (Rotter, 1966), the Body Image and Body Change Inventory (Ricciardelli & McCabe, 2001) and the Perceived Sociocultural Influences on Body Image and Body Change Questionnaire (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2001).

The Body Image and Body Change Inventory consists of seven scales: Body Image Concern; Body Image Importance; Body Change Strategies to Decrease Weight; Body Change Strategies to Increase Weight; Body Change Strategies to Increase Muscle Tone; Binge Eating Practices; and Food Supplements (Appendix D). These scales have been shown to be reliable and valid in four previous studies (Ricciardelli & McCabe, 2002). The scales have been subjected to both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis using oblique rotation. They demonstrate high levels of internal consistency ($\alpha > .92$), concurrent and discriminant validity, and satisfactory test-retest reliability ($\alpha > .75$) (Ricciardelli & McCabe, 2002).

In this study, only the Body Image Concern and Body Image Importance scales were used. Both of these instruments have demonstrated high levels of reliability ($\alpha > .77$), have been subject to both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, and have demonstrated good reliability and validity with a number of adolescent populations (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2001).

The Body Image Concern instrument is a 5-point Likert scale (e.g. extremely satisfied, fairly satisfied, neutral, fairly dissatisfied, and extremely dissatisfied) and yielded four subscales. The first subscale was Body Image Concern 1 (BIC1) which asked, "How satisfied are you with your weight?" The second subscale was Body Image Concern 2 (BIC2) which asked, "How satisfied are you with your body shape?" The third subscale was the Body Image Concern 3 (BIC3) which asked, "How satisfied are you with your muscle size?" Finally, the fourth subscale comprised of seven questions concerning total satisfaction with different parts of the body

(TBIC) (e.g. hips, thighs, chest, abdominal region/stomach, size/width of shoulders, legs, and arms).

The Body Image Importance instrument is a 5-point Likert scale (e.g. extremely important, fairly important, neutral, fairly important, and extremely important) and also yielded four subscales. The first subscale was Body Image Importance 1 (BII1) which asked, “How important to you in what you weigh compared to other things in life?” The second subscale was Body Image Importance 2 (BIC2) which asked, “How important is the shape of your body compared to other things in life?” The third subscale was Body Image Importance 3 (BIC3) which asked, “How important is the size and strength of your muscles compared to other things in life?” Finally, the last subscale totaled seven questions about how important is the look of different parts of the body (TBII) (e.g. hips, things, chest, abdominal region/stomach, size/width of shoulders, legs, and arms).

The Perceived Sociocultural Influences on Body Image and Body Change Questionnaire contains five scales: feedback from father, feedback from mother, feedback from best male friend, feedback from best female friend, and media influences. For this study, only the Media Influences subscale was used.

The Media Influences scale (Appendix E) assessed the perceived influence of magazines, newspapers, television, movies, and the internet on body image and body change strategies. Respondents were asked the extent to which the media outlets gave them the idea they should be slimmer, exercise more to gain weight, exercise more to lose weight, eat more to gain weight, eat less to lose weight, be more muscular, exercise more to be more muscular, eat more to be muscular, and eat less to be more muscular. Responses were indicated using a 5-point Likert scale (e.g. strongly agree, agree, unsure, disagree, strongly disagree). All of these scales have

demonstrated high levels of internal consistency ($r > .84$) and have been subject to both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis using oblique rotation (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2001). In this study, the Total Media Influence score, which consists of 10 total questions, has scores ranging from 10 - 50. This score is derived by summing the scores of the three subscales.

In addition, participants completed the Rotter (I-E) Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966). The Locus of Control is a 29 item questionnaire that measures generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement (Appendix C). People with an internal locus of control believe that their own actions determine the rewards that they obtain, while those with an external locus of control believe that their own behavior doesn't matter much and that rewards in life are generally outside of their control. The respondent was required to select one statement or the other. An example is “a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck” or “b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.”

The scale provides a score that can range from 23 – 46. A low score indicates an internal control while a high score indicates external control. The Rotter scale was chosen because it sampled a broad range of life situation where locus of control might affect behavior. For internal consistency, the Rotter scale ranged from .65 to .76 on the Spearman-Brown and Juder-Richardson techniques, respectively. These scores came from samples at The Ohio State University and a National Stratified Sample Purdue Opinion Poll. (Gross 1984, p. 57,). The test-retest reliability scores ranged from .49 to .83 in differing sample studies (Gross 1984, p. 57).

Procedures for Data Collection

The procedure for data collection was in compliance with policies for the protection of human subjects in research. Once the protocol for the study had been approved by the Human

Research Protection Program, the researcher contacted faculty who gave their permission to collect data in their class and arranged a data collection time.

The researcher arrived at the class at the agreed upon time, introduced the study to the students, explained that the responses are completely anonymous, and distributed the questionnaire. While the researcher remained in the classroom to answer any questions that might arise, a box or large envelope placed away from the researcher was made available to the students in which they were to place their completed questionnaires. The students were informed that they would “shake up” the box or “shuffle” the questionnaires in the envelope upon completion. Once the final student had left the classroom, the researcher retrieved the box or envelope.

Data Analysis

Once the questionnaires were collected, the responses were placed into an electronic data management format (SPSS) for analysis. Statistical analysis consisted of correlation analysis using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (2-tailed). Pearson’s correlation coefficient was used in order to quantify the strength and directional relationship of two hypothesized variables. In this study of relationships, two variables are said to be correlated if change one variable test score, is accompanied by change in the other test score – either in the same or reverse direction.

Summary

Chapter three explained the research procedures and methods for this research. The subjects used in this study were male students enrolled in undergraduate classes at a major research university in the Midwest during the 2008 fall session. The target populations for this study were male students between the ages of 18 and 23. All respondents were asked questions

to elicit demographic information on age, sex, weight, height, year in school, and approximate daily interaction (in hours) with the media (e.g. television, movies, magazines, newspaper, and the internet). They also completed Rotter's 29-item (I-E) Locus of Control scale (Rotter, 1966), the Body Image and Body Change Inventory (Ricciardelli & McCabe, 2001) and the Perceived Sociocultural Influences on Body Image and Body Change Questionnaire (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2001). The procedure for data collection was in compliance with policies for the protection of human subjects in research. Once the researcher arrived at the class and introduced the study to the students, explained that the responses are completely anonymous, and distributed the questionnaire. Once the questionnaires were collected, the responses were placed into an electronic data management format (SPSS) for analysis. Statistical analysis consisted of correlation analysis using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (2-tailed). The variables were used to assess an individual's internal/external control and the perceived media influence in relation to body-image concern and body image influence.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between media influences, locus of control, and the body image importance and body image concerns of college aged males. A Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) was computer to assess the relationship between variables. The alpha level was set at 0.05 and 0.01 ($\alpha = .05$, $\alpha = .01$) respectively.

Both the age and total number of respondents are presented in Table 1. In general, the respondents used in this study are undergraduates (freshman – senior), located at a large university in the Midwest, and are between the ages of 18 – 23. The mean age was 19.30 and there were a total of 151 respondents.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics for both the participant's age and total number of respondents used in the analysis.

Age	N	Cumulative Percentage
18	53	35.1
19	53	70.2
20	27	88.1
21	12	96.0
22	4	98.7
23	2	100.0
Total	151	

Both the year in school and total number of respondents are presented in Table 2. There were a total of 151 respondents.

Table 2

Descriptive statistics for both the participant's year in school and total number of respondents used in the analysis.

Year in School	N	Cumulative Percentage
Freshman	84	55.6
Sophomore	43	88.4
Junior	21	98.0
Senior	3	10.0
Total	151	

In general, it can intuitively be assumed that there would be a high level of inter-correlation between the respondents Total Media Influence (TMI) and Locus of Control (LOC) scores. The natural postulation would be that an externally controlled individual would be more influenced by external influences and internally controlled individuals would be less controlled by external influences.

To determine if this assumption existed, participants completed the Media Influences Scale and the Locus of Control instrument. The Media Influences Scale is comprised of three subscales assessing pressure to lose weight; pressure to gain weight; and pressure to increase muscle tone. The Locus of Control tool is a 29-item questionnaire that measures generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. People with an internal locus of control believe that their own actions determine the rewards that they obtain, while those with an external locus

of control believe that their own behavior doesn't matter much and that rewards in life are generally outside of their control. Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics for the Total Media Influence and Locus of Control scales used in this study.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics for the Mean, Standard Deviation, and Range for both the Total Media Influence and the Locus of Control questionnaires.

Instrument	N	<u>M</u>	S.D.	Range
TMI	141	30.4	7.4	13 - 50
LOC	133	43.8	2.4	36 - 50

Examination of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is no relationship between the individual's Locus of Control (LOC) score and the Total Media Influence (TMI) score.

Because it can be assumed that individuals who exhibit a high degree of external control may be more vulnerable to influences presented in the media, the first analysis sought to clarify this relationship. A Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was used to identify the relationship between Locus of Control and Total Media Influence is presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Pearson's correlation analysis between Locus of Control and Total Media Influence.

Hypothesis	Instrument	Total Media Influence Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N = 133
1	Locus of Control	-0.6	0.47	

This analysis demonstrates that there is no relationship between media influence and locus of control [$r = -0.6$, $n = 133$, $p = 0.47$]. Do not reject the null hypothesis. Because of this lack of relationship, further analysis on the impact of Total Media Influence and Locus of Control has on the body image importance and body image concern will be investigated separately.

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics for Body Image Concern 1 (BIC1), Body Image Concern 2 (BIC2), Body Image Concern 3 (BIC3), Total Body Image Concern (TBIC), Body Image Importance 1 (BII1), Body Image Importance 2 (BII2), Body Image Importance 3 (BII3), and Total Body Image Importance (TBII)

Table 5

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Range statistics for Body Image Concern 1 (BIC1), Body Image Concern 2 (BIC2), Body Image Concern 3 (BIC3), Total Body Image Concern (TBIC), Body Image Importance 1 (BII1), Body Image Importance 2 (BII2), Body Image Importance 3 (BII3), and Total Body Image Importance (TBII).

Instrument	N	<u>M</u>	S.D.	Range
BIC1 – Item 1 on the BIC scale	145	3.5	1.1	1 - 5
BIC2 – Item 2 on the BIC scale	145	3.4	1.1	1 - 5
BIC3 – Item 3 on the BIC scale	145	3.2	1.0	1 - 5
TBIC – Items 4-10 on the BIC scale	145	34.3	7.7	10 - 45
BII1 – Item 1 on the BII Scale	144	3.1	1.0	1 - 5
BII2 – Item 2 on the BII Scale	144	3.3	1.0	1 - 5
BII3 – Item 3 on the BII Scale	144	3.2	1.0	1 - 5
TBII – Items 4 – 10 on the BII scale	144	31.7	8.2	10 - 50

Media Influence

In order to test the hypotheses two, three, four, and five (that there is no relationship between media influence and body image concern), a Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient procedure was used. The Body Image Importance instrument investigates how satisfied an individual is with their weight. Table 6 presents the results of these analyses.

Table 6

Pearson's Correlation Analysis between Total Media Influence and Body Image Concern subscales.

Hypothesis	Instrument	Total Media Influence Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N = 141
2	Body Image Concern 1 Item 1 on the BIC scale	-.10	.24	
3	Body Image Concern 2 Item 2 on the BIC scale	-.15	.07	
4	Body Image Concern 3 Item 2 on the BIC scale	-.07	.43	
5	Total Body Image Concern Items 4-10 on the BIC scale	-.16	.06	

** Correlation is significant at the $P < 0.01$ level (2-tailed)

* Correlations is significant at the $P < 0.05$ level (2-tailed)

Table 6 is an examination of the findings between Total Media Influence and its relationship with Body Image Concern. In addition to the Total Body Image Concern, each scale was broken down into three separate subscales.

Hypothesis 2: There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence concerning weight (BIC1).

The Body Image Concern 1 instrument is the first item on the Body Image Concern scale and is linked to the individual's satisfaction of their own weight. To elucidate the relationship between Total Media Influence and Body Image Concern 1, a Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was used. The analysis demonstrates that there is no relationship between media influence and an individual's satisfaction with their own weight [$r = -0.10$, $n = 141$, $p = 0.24$]. Therefore, we have failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence concerning shape (BIC2).

Body Image Concern 2 is the second item on the Body Image Concern scale and is associated with an individual's satisfaction of their own body shape. A Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was used to identify if there was a relationship between media influence and an individual's satisfaction of their own body shape. The correlation showed no relationship between the media's impact on an individual's satisfaction with their own body weight [$r = -0.15$, $n = 141$, $p = 0.07$]. Do not reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4: There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence concerning muscle size (BIC3).

The third analysis examined item three on the Body Image Concern scale - the relationship of the media's influence on an individual's satisfaction with their own muscle size (Body Image Concern 3). Again, the Pearson Correlation Analysis found no relationship between the media influence and owns satisfaction in their muscle size [$r = -0.07$, $n = 141$, $p = 0.43$]. Once again, we have failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5: There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence concerning different parts of the body (TBIC).

In the final Total Media Influence and body concern correlation, the examination was conducted using Total Body Image Concern (items 4 – 10) and Total Media Influence. Total Body Image Concern assessed how satisfied an individual was with different parts of their body. The results revealed that no relationship was found [$r = -0.16$, $n = 141$, $p = 0.06$]. The hypothesis, again, has failed to be rejected.

In a separate section of the questionnaire, the questionnaire solicited information on Body Image Importance. Presented in Table 7 are the findings of Body Image Importance in relationship with Total Media Influence. The relationship is measured using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. This analysis will help investigate hypotheses six through nine.

Table 7

Relationship between Total Media Influence and Body Image Importance subscales

Hypothesis	Instrument	Total Media Influence Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N = 141
6	Body Image Importance 1 Item 1 on the BII scale	.17	.04*	
7	Body Image Importance 2 Item 2 on the BII scale	.15	.07	
8	Body Image Importance 3 Item 3 on the BII scale	.18	.04*	
9	Total Body Image Importance Items 4-10 on the BII scale	.27	.001**	

** Correlation is significant at the $P < 0.01$ level (2-tailed)

* Correlations is significant at the $P < 0.05$ level (2-tailed)

Hypothesis 6: There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence - the importance of body weight (BII1).

Hypothesis six uses the selected characteristic of how important an individual's weight is in comparison to other things in life (Body Image Importance 1/item 1 on the BII scale). When correlated with Total Media Influence, the research found a positive relationship [$r = 0.17$, $n = 141$, $p = 0.04$]. This result indicates a strong possibility that there is a relationship between media and the importance of what an individual weighs in comparison to other things in life. We can safely reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 7: There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence - the importance of body shape (BII2).

Body Image Importance 2 examined how important the shape of an individual's body is compared to other things in life (item two on the BII scale). A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was conducted and no relationship was found between TMI and BII2 [$r = 0.15$, $n = 141$, $p = 0.07$]. Based on these findings, we have failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 8: There is no relationship between the individual's media influence score and their score on body image influence on the importance of muscle size and strength (BII3).

Body Image Importance 3 studied the relationship of how important the size and strength of an individual's muscles is compared to other things in life and the media's influence (item three on the BII scale). The research found a positive relationship [$r = 0.18$, $n = 141$, $p = 0.04$]. The result of the analysis signifies that there might be a relationship between the media's influence and how important size and strength of muscles are when compared to other things in life. The null hypothesis has been rejected.

Hypothesis 9: There is no relationship between media influence and body image influence on the importance of different parts of the body (TBII).

Finally, a relationship between Total Media Influence was with Total Body Image Importance (how important to an individual are the look of different body parts) was analyzed (items 4 – 10 on the BII scale). A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was conducted and found a positive relationship [$r = 0.27$, $n = 141$, $p = 0.001$]. Therefore, we can confidently reject the null hypothesis and confirm that this result might indicate that the media does have a relationship with the importance of different body parts to an individual.

Locus of Control

In order to test the hypothesis that there is no relationship between locus of control and body image concern, a Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was used. Table 8 presents the results of these analyses. Table 8 will help explain hypotheses ten through thirteen.

Table 8

Relationship between Total Locus of Control and Body Image Concern subscales using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient

Hypothesis	Instrument	Total Locus of Control Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N = 145
10	Body Image Concern 1 Item 1 on the BIC scale	-.17	.04*	
11	Body Image Concern 2 Item 2 on the BIC scale	-.16	.07	
12	Body Image Concern 3 Item 2 on the BIC scale	-.07	.01*	
13	Total Body Image Concern Items 4-10 on the BIC scale	-.20	.02*	

** Correlation is significant at the $P < 0.01$ level (2-tailed)

* Correlations is significant at the $P < 0.05$ level (2-tailed)

Table 8 presents Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient between Total Locus of Control and Body Image Concern 1, Body Image Concern 2, Body Image Concern 3, and Total Body Image Concern. The Total Locus of Control score predicts whether a person is internally or externally controlled. A negative correlation represents that an individual is externally controlled and a positive correlation represents internal control.

Hypothesis 10: There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence concerning weight (BIC1).

The first correlation in Table 6 shows Body Image Concern 1 (item one of the Body Image Concern scale). Body Image Concern 1 poses satisfaction in one's weight. Body Image Concern 1 had a significant and negative correlation with Total Locus of Control [$r = -0.17$, $n = 144$, $p = 0.04$]. Therefore, one can extrapolate the relationship that the more externally controlled an individual is, there is a larger possibility that they are concerned about their own weight. The null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 11: There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence concerning shape (BIC2).

The second analysis involved Body Image Concern 2, which asks how satisfied the individual is with their body shape (item two on the Body Image Concern scale). The research found no correlation between satisfaction in weight and locus of control [$r = -0.16$, $n = 144$, $p = 0.07$]. We have failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 12: There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence concerning muscle size (BIC3).

Body Image Concern 3 investigated how satisfied an individual was with their muscle size (item three on the Body Image Concern scale). The correlation with Total Locus of Control, found that locus of control does have a significant and negative relationship with Body Image Concern 3 [$r = -0.20$, $n = 144$, $p = 0.01$]. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis because the research demonstrates a potential relationship between an externally controlled individual and concern with their own muscle size.

Hypothesis 13: There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence concerning different parts of the body (TBIC).

Lastly, Total Locus of Control was correlated with Total Body Image Concern (items 4-10 on the Body Image Concern scale). Total Body Image Concern seeks to find out how satisfied individuals are with different parts of the body. After analysis, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient shows that locus of control does have a significant and negative relationship with Total Body Image Concern - satisfaction with different body parts [$r = -0.20$, $n = 144$, $p = 0.02$]. Therefore, we can reject the null hypothesis and report that there is a possibility that there is relationship between externally controlled individuals and an increased concern with the satisfaction of different body parts.

In order to test the hypothesis that there is no relationship between locus of control and body image importance, a Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient procedure was used. Body image importance challenges individuals to compare the importance of weight, body shape, muscle size and strength, and different body parts in comparison to other things in life. Table 9 presents the results of these analyses. The analysis will help evaluate hypotheses fourteen through seventeen.

Table 9

Relationship between Total Locus of Control and Body Image Importance subscales using the Pearson Correlation Analysis.

Hypothesis	Instrument	Total Locus of Control Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N = 144
14	Body Image Importance 1 Item 1 on the BII scale	-.13	.11	
15	Body Image Importance 2 Item 2 on the BII scale	.01	.93	
16	Body Image Importance 3 Item 3 on the BII scale	.00	.97	
17	Total Body Image Importance Items 4-10 on the BII scale	-.08	.35	

** Correlation is significant at the $P < 0.01$ level (2-tailed)

* Correlations is significant at the $P < 0.05$ level (2-tailed)

Hypothesis 14: There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence and the importance of body weight (BII1).

The first correlation test was configured using Body Image Importance 1 and Total Locus of Control. Body Importance 1 sought to compare what an individual weighs and its importance to other things in life (item one on the Body Image Importance scale). The analysis resulted in a non-significant outcome and we have failed to reject the null hypothesis [$r = -0.13$, $n = 144$, $p = 0.11$].

Hypothesis 15: There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence and the importance of body shape (BII2).

Body Image Importance 2 inquired about an individual's body shape and the importance they placed on it in comparison to other things in life (item two on the Body Image Importance

scale). After analysis was conducted with the Total Locus of Control, the research found that there is no relationship, and we fail to reject the null hypothesis [$r = 0.007$, $n = 144$, $p = 0.93$].

Hypothesis 16: There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control score and their score on body image influence and the importance of muscle size and strength (BII3).

Body Image Importance 3 asked the individual to compare the importance of size and strength of muscles compared to other things in life (item three on the Body Image Importance scale). Again, analysis was conducted with the Total Locus of Control. The result produced no significant result, and we have failed to reject the null hypothesis [$r = 0.00$, $n = 144$, $p = 0.97$].

Hypothesis 17: There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control score and their score with body image influence on the importance of different parts of the body (TBII).

The final correlation looked at Total Body Image Importance and Total Locus of Control. Total Body Image Importance was the sum of the instrument (items 4 – 10 on the Body Image Importance scale). The result found no relationship, and again, it was a failed rejection of the null hypothesis.

Summary

The results produced in this chapter were based on data collected from four individual instruments: Locus on Control; Media Influence; Body Image Concern; and Body Image Importance. Body Image Concern and Body Image Importance were each both then broke down into four different sections respectively. Those scales were then tested separately with the Total Media Influence scale and Total Locus of Control scale. The analysis was conducted using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient to test the hypotheses located in chapter one. The study found a positive relationship between the total media's influence and body image

importance. The results demonstrated that in late adolescence, there is a strong possibility that there is a relationship between the chosen media and the appearance of their body, weight, and size and strength of muscles. In addition, the study discovered that externally controlled late adolescent males are might be more likely to place importance on the appearance of their body, weight, and muscle size and strength than internally controlled late adolescent males. The analysis of the mixed results will be discussed further in chapter five.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose and primary goal of this study was add to the research on the relationship between locus of control, media influence and body self-satisfaction in late adolescent males. To this end, participants responded (strongly disagree, disagree, unsure, agree, strongly agree) to statements about whether or not the media (television, magazines, newspaper, movies, and the internet) depict a suggestive body composition. To measure personal body image, two instruments were used – Body Image Concern and Body Image Importance. Specifically, the instruments measured two relevant psychological and physical concentration areas:

1. Body Image Concern - To what degree of satisfaction do late adolescent males place concern about their body image weight, body shape, and muscle size. The study also investigated to what degree of satisfaction do late adolescent males place concern about different parts of the body (i.e. hips, thighs, chest, abdominal region/stomach, shoulders, legs, and arms).
2. Body Image Importance – To what degree of importance do late adolescent males place on weight, body shape, and size and strength of muscles compared to other things in life. The study also considered the degree of importance late adolescent males place on the looks of different parts of the body.

In addition, the study examined the relationship between media influence and internal/external locus of control and the relationship between body image satisfaction and internal/external locus of control. The locus of control measures generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. To measure locus on control, the respondent was required to select one statement or the other. An example is “a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly

due to bad luck” or “b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.” According to social comparison theory, it can be assumed that males who are more externally controlled will place higher concern and importance on their body when compared to media images. Therefore, they are more likely to be influenced by media images.

There were a total of 151 male respondents who were enrolled in a large university located in the Mid-West. The age ranged from 18 to 23, but 88.1% of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 20.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to determine whether there were any overall relationships between the media and locus of control. It was intuitively assumed that there would be a high level of correlation between Total Media Influence (TMI) and Locus of Control (LOC) because preconceived observations would believe that individuals who exhibit a high degree of external control may be more susceptible to influence presented in the media. If an individual relies on socio-sources (e.g.. the media), one would postulate that their personal standards and ideals are guided by societal influence. As a weakness however, the analysis demonstrated no relationship between media influence and locus of control. Because of the lack of this relationship, the relationship between TMI and LOC scores were used separately to test the body image concern and body image importance scores.

The quantitative analysis will add to existing literature in the following ways;

1. This study found a positive relationship between the total media’s influence and body image importance. Therefore, there is a strong possibility that the media can serve as an evaluative tool for the way college-age men compare their weight, size and strength of muscles, and the way men judge the look of different parts of their body. As the perceived media influence increases, the likelihood of body image importance may also increase. In

previous research, most body image emphasis was placed on girls and not boys. This study provides some strength that the male adolescent may also be vulnerable and susceptible to body image conflicts.

One possible explanation validates the theory presented in *Theories of Adolescence*, that identity diffused male subjects, or those subjects who have neither an identity crisis nor commitment, showed little resistance to self-esteem manipulation. That is, they quite readily changed their own opinions about themselves. Late Adolescents are vulnerable to evaluative feedback about themselves, since they did not yet have a stable identity. (Muuss, 1975, p. 72).

Consistent with social comparison theory, we found that people who most frequently compare their bodies to a particular reference group are those more likely to compare themselves to same-sex people in their society. The media tends to expose men to elite athletes, professional models, and stunning celebrities. A late adolescent who is actively or passively searching for an identity is might take notice to the superior treatment that comparably aged men in the media receive, and therefore, they might try and mimic their physical condition.

From a developmental perspective, it can be assumed that the media, and that power that be, has saturated itself into the cognitive progression of thinking and understanding how the world works. Socioculture theory has a based premise that culture shapes development and when individuals compare their perceived appearance with some other imagined or idealized person, anxiety over personal body image occurs (Morrison et al., 2004). Therefore, socioculture theory supports the hypothesis that individuals might be more concerned over their body when they see unrealistic images of people like them in the media. The central

proposal is that individuals come to feel bad about their bodies because they are exposed to unrealistic beauty ideals by their sociocultural environment (Dittmar, 2005).

According to many researchers (cf. Marcia, Erikson, Festinger), it is these identity-confused individuals that might be most susceptible to the media's exploitation. Consistent with social comparison theory, studies have generally showed an increase in body dissatisfaction and social physique anxiety following exposure to comparison targets who closely match cultural ideals of physical appearance (Franzoi & Klaiber, 2007). This study reinforced that notion and found a positive relationship between the total media's influence and body image importance.

The study found that the media has a direct and significant relationship with the way college-age men compare their weight, size and strength of muscles, and how the important men gauge the look of their different parts of the body. Contrary to previous literature (cg. McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2001 and McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2003), this study did find a relationship between the media and late adolescent body satisfaction. In 2001, McCabe and Ricciardelli suggested either that boys are not detecting the different nature of messages sent out by the media or that fewer messages in the media address the ideal body shape for men. This present study may add some opposition to those statements. In addition, McCabe and Ricciardelli (2003) suggested that adolescent boys do not perceive that the media is addressing body image messages to them or that boys are not impacted because they choose not to respond to them. Again, this study might serve as an objection to that information. The aforementioned research could demonstrate how the psychological minds of the adolescents are progressing or that media images may be more prevalent, but further research is necessary to determine which, if any, of these explanations are supported.

The central proposal of the socioculture theory is that individuals come to feel bad about their bodies (and are likely to develop disordered eating patterns alongside their body dissatisfaction) because they are exposed to unrealistic beauty ideals, which they then feel pressured to achieve by their sociocultural environment, consisting of the mass media, peer groups, friends, and family (Dittmar, 2005).

2. The results of the analysis may also suggest that individuals, who scored to be highly externally controlled, may also be more concerned about their body image. The ideology of society, or internal's counterpart, guides this role by conveying which roles are valued by society (Miller, p. 155). Externally controlled males were possibly more concerned about the satisfaction with their weight, muscle size, and the satisfaction with different parts of the body. Therefore, the more the individual relies on external variables, the stronger the possibility that they are influenced by external values, here being the media.

Without a stable sense of self, a late adolescent male might be more likely to search extrinsically for what is acceptable in society. If the media is sending ideologic messages about masculinity, an extrinsic person might pick up the societal cues and seek to define themselves by the media's portrayed image. Furthermore, the self-objectification, or internalizing views about themselves as perceived by others, exemplifies that late adolescent males may attempt to conform to culturally inspired images. In doing so, adolescents' might compromise their self-worth by comparing their physical appearance against the culture's sexually objectifying and unrealistic standards of beauty.

Since late adolescents might seek their true selves through peers, clubs, the media, and political movements, it is troubling to perceive that today's media do not always differentiate between overvalued fiction and reality. America's "body is beauty" society might regard

media images as realistic representations of attractiveness and as appropriate comparison targets for appearance. Social comparison theory affirms this idea by stating that individuals learn about and assess themselves in comparison with other people. Social comparison theory and externally esteemed individuals help explain why people strive to emulate the models they see in the media. In addition, socioculture theory explains that the self-ideal discrepancy hypothesis, which proposes that the greater the discrepancy between one's perceived self and the perceived ideal, the greater the dissatisfaction, would suggest that an individual who is externally controlled, would naturally have a lower sense of self and body satisfaction. If a person relies on their socioculture to shape their development, they are possibly going to be exposed to various forms of the media. In turn the media is might render impractical reinforcement of body ideals and therefore extend greater dissatisfaction to the individual's own body.

If late adolescents feel they do not have control over their own behavior, then how are they supposed to change their behavioral actions? I believe our culture might need to re-evaluate their morals and peripheral symbolism into order to bring upon a virtuous change and positive influences to its receptors, here being late adolescents.

Images of men are “plastered” all over the world and most reveal good looking men as having a happier and wealthier life than their not-so-pretty counterparts. The fact there was no significant relationship between media influence and locus of control might indicate that both internal and external individuals are not explained by the media. There is not a certain “type” of a person that takes more interest in the ever-present media images, so everyone has a fair chance to be subjugated.

In addition, a weakness of this study was the media influence instrument and limited generalizable use. The instrument was designed to investigate questions about weight, exercise, strength, and eating habits in the media. As a restraint, the instrument only solicited a total of ten questions. A more comprehensive instrument may have broadened areas of the media, thus providing more validity and reliability to the media influence and body satisfaction scores. Additionally, the results that were found do come with limitation. The sample size was from one specific location, thus making it impossible to draw general conclusions and make it universally applicable.

However, as a member of society, it is frightening that the impact of ideal media images may also be seen in the increasing prevalence of eating disorder symptomatology, body dysmorphia, excessive exercise, and steroid use among men. This disorder involves a pathological preoccupation with one's body, obsessive-compulsive involvement with dieting, weightlifting, and related activities, and severe impairment of social and occupational functioning (Morrison et al., 2004). In addition to the rest of societal pressures to protect and take heed of today's youth, now another crisis has come into our realms of living.

Recommendations for a Future Study

The following recommendations are made for further research:

1. There are many fields in social science which seek to explain psychological, socio-emotional, and physical relationships among adolescent males and females. This study was limited in many ways (eg. age, location, participant participation, time, resources, etc), it would be beneficial for future studies to consider succinct variability of adolescent male's vulnerability to their own body image. A larger and more specific study could find more directional conclusions.

2. There are many factors which might take a look at media influence.. This study only examined correlations with body satisfaction. A future study may want to examine causal relationships.
3. Personality inventories other than locus of control scales should be utilized to determine if differences exist between the media's influence and body self-satisfaction.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
HUMAN SUBJECTS INFORMED CONSENT FORM

STUDY INFORMATION SHEET

Study # 08-13302

**INDIANA UNIVERSITY - BLOOMINGTON
STUDY INFORMATION SHEET
Media influences on young adult male's male body image**

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between how young adult males view their bodies and how the "male image" is presented in the media.

INFORMATION

You are being asked to complete an anonymous questionnaire (no personal information or information that can be used to identify you is to be placed on the questionnaire. Once you have completed the questionnaire, you are to place it in the box that has been provided. If you wish, you may "shake up" the questionnaires.

It is estimated (based on trial runs) that it should not take longer than 15-20 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

BENEFITS

You will not receive any direct benefits for participating in this study. Your participation in this study will help us better understand the relationship between the media and body image.

CONFIDENTIALITY

You are to complete the questionnaire in an anonymous manner. Please do not place any identifying information on the questionnaire. Once the questionnaire is completed, please place it in the box provided. Once the data on the questionnaires have been transferred to an electronic format, the questionnaires will be destroyed. There will be no way to match your responses with you. All papers, reports, publications will present the data in aggregate form only.

COMPENSATION

You will receive no compensation for participating in this study.

CONTACT

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact either the researcher at:

Marc Lodyga; 616 Poplar Building, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405; or
mlodyga@indiana.edu.

OR the faculty sponsor at:

Dr. Robert Billingham; 616 Poplar Building, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405; 812-855-5208; billingh@indiana.edu

If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or your rights as a participant in research have not been honored during the course of this project, you may contact the office for the Indiana University Bloomington Human Subjects Committee, Carmichael Center L03, 530 E. Kirkwood Ave., Bloomington, IN 47408, 812/855-3067, or by e-mail at iub_hsc@indiana.edu.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary, you may refuse to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at anytime without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be returned to you or destroyed.

Information Sheet date: June 9, 2008

APPENDIX B
BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Background Information

1. What is your Age? _____
2. What is your Sex? ___ Male; ___ Female
3. What is your Weight? _____
4. What is your Height? _____
5. What is your current year in school: ___ Freshman; ___ Sophomore; ___ Junior; ___ Senior;
___ Masters level graduate student; ___ Doctoral level graduate student
6. What is your Ethnicity: ___ Caucasian; ___ African American; ___ Asian; ___
___ Hispanic (black); ___ Hispanic (non-black); ___ Native American;
___ Other (Please identify _____)
7. What is your families combined yearly income? _____
8. In your own mind, and compared to other men you know, would you describe your FATHER
as:
___ Highly successful; ___ Moderately successful; ___ Average level of success;
___ below average level of success.
9. In your own mind, and compared to other women you know, would you describe your
MOTHER as ___ Highly successful; ___ Moderately successful; ___ Average level of
success; ___ below average level of success.
10. Were your parents ever divorce?
___ No
___ Yes - If yes, how old were you when they divorced? _____
11. For all media combined, (see list below) what would you say is your Daily interaction (in
hours)
___ Less than 1 hour; ___ 1-3 hours; ___ 3-5 hours; ___ 5+ hours
12. For each of the following medium, please identify (in hours) the amount of time you spend in
daily interaction with:
Television: ___ Less than 1 hour; ___ 1-3 hours; ___ 3-5 hours; ___ 5+ hours
Movies (regardless of format): ___ Less than 1 hour; ___ 1-3 hours; ___ 3-5 hours; ___ 5+
hours
Magazines: ___ Less than 1 hour; ___ 1-3 hours; ___ 3-5 hours; ___ 5+ hours
Newspaper: ___ Less than 1 hour; ___ 1-3 hours; ___ 3-5 hours; ___ 5+ hours
On the WEB: ___ Less than 1 hour; ___ 1-3 hours; ___ 3-5 hours; ___ 5+ hours

13. For each of the following forms of communication, please identify (in hours) the amount of time you spend in daily interaction with others using:

Face to face interaction: ____ Less than 1 hour; ____ 1-3 hours; ____ 3-5 hours; ____ 5+ hours

E-mail: ____ Less than 1 hour; ____ 1-3 hours; ____ 3-5 hours; ____ 5+ hours

Text messaging: ____ Less than 1 hour; ____ 1-3 hours; ____ 3-5 hours; ____ 5+ hours

Instant messaging (IM) : ____ Less than 1 hour; ____ 1-3 hours; ____ 3-5 hours; ____ 5+ hours

Phone calls : ____ Less than 1 hour; ____ 1-3 hours; ____ 3-5 hours; ____ 5+ hours

APPENDIX C
ROTTER LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

Directions: Circle the statement A or B that you most strongly believe to be true.

1. A. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
B. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
2. A. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck?
B. People's misfortunes results from the mistakes they make.
3. A. One of the major reasons that we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics?
B. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
4. A. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
B. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized not matter how hard he tries.
5. A. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
B. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
6. A. Without the right breaks on e cannot be an effective leader.
B. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
7. A. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
B. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
8. A. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
B. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they are like.
9. A. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
B. Trusting to fate has never turned out well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
10. A. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such thing as unfair tests.
B. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
11. A. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.
B. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
12. A. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
B. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
13. A. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.

- B. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune.
14. A. There are certain people who are just no good.
B. There is some good in everybody.
15. A. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
B. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
16. A. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
B. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it.
17. A. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
B. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
18. A. Most people can't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
B. There is really no such thing as luck.
19. A. One should always be willing to admit his mistakes.
B. It is always best to cover up one's mistakes.
20. A. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
B. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
21. A. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
B. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
22. A. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
B. It is difficult for people to have much control over the little things politicians do in office.
23. A. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
B. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
24. A. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
B. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.
25. A. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen.
B. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
26. A. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.

- B. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.
27. A. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
B. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
28. A. What happens to me is my own doing.
B. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
29. A. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
B. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

APPENDIX D

BODY IMAGE AND BODY CHANGE QUESTIONNAIRE

Body Image and Body Change Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to obtain information on how you feel about your body, and things you may do to change your body.

Your answers are completely anonymous. No-one will know what answers you provide.

There are no right or wrong answers. We just want to know how you feel and what you do. It is important not to take too long to answer each question. Simply circle the response that best applies to you.

Body Image (Concern)

1. How satisfied are you with your **weight**?

extremely satisfied fairly satisfied neutral fairly dissatisfied extremely dissatisfied

2. How satisfied are you with your **body shape**?

extremely satisfied fairly satisfied neutral fairly dissatisfied extremely dissatisfied

3. How satisfied are you with your **muscle size**?

extremely satisfied fairly satisfied neutral fairly dissatisfied extremely dissatisfied

The remainder of the questions in this section ask about how satisfied you feel with different parts of your body.

4. Your hips.

extremely satisfied fairly satisfied neutral fairly dissatisfied extremely dissatisfied

5. Your thighs.

extremely satisfied fairly satisfied neutral fairly dissatisfied extremely dissatisfied

6. Your chest.

extremely satisfied fairly satisfied neutral fairly dissatisfied extremely dissatisfied

7. Your abdominal region/stomach.

extremely satisfied fairly satisfied neutral fairly dissatisfied extremely dissatisfied

8. The size/width of your shoulders.

extremely satisfied fairly satisfied neutral fairly dissatisfied extremely dissatisfied

9. Your legs.

extremely satisfied fairly satisfied neutral fairly dissatisfied extremely dissatisfied

10. Your arms.

extremely satisfied fairly satisfied neutral fairly dissatisfied extremely dissatisfied

Body Image (Importance)

1. How important to you is **what you weigh** compared to other things in your life?

extremely important fairly important neutral fairly unimportant not important at all

2. How important is the **shape of your body** compared to other things in your life?

extremely important fairly important neutral fairly unimportant not important at all

3. How important is the **size and strength of your muscles** compared to other things in your life?

extremely important fairly important neutral fairly unimportant not important at all

The remainder of the questions in this section ask about how important to you is the look of different parts of your body

4. Your hips.

extremely important fairly important neutral fairly unimportant not important at all

5. Your thighs.

extremely important fairly important neutral fairly unimportant not important at all

6. Your chest.

extremely important fairly important neutral fairly unimportant not important at all

7. Your abdominal region/stomach.

extremely important fairly important neutral fairly unimportant not important at all

8. The size/width of your shoulders.

extremely important fairly important neutral fairly unimportant not important at all

9. Your legs.

extremely important fairly important neutral fairly unimportant not important at all

10. Your arms.

extremely important fairly important neutral fairly unimportant not important at all

Food Supplements

1. How often do you take food supplements (for example, diet pills) to lose weight?

always	almost always	frequently	sometimes	never
--------	---------------	------------	-----------	-------
2. How often do you feel like taking food supplements (for example, diet pills) to lose weight?

always	almost always	frequently	sometimes	never
--------	---------------	------------	-----------	-------
3. How often do you think about taking food supplements (for example, diet pills) to lose weight?

always	almost always	frequently	sometimes	never
--------	---------------	------------	-----------	-------
4. How often do you worry about taking food supplements (for example, diet pills) to lose weight?

always	almost always	frequently	sometimes	never
--------	---------------	------------	-----------	-------
5. How often do you take food supplements (for example, sustagen) to increase your muscles?

always	almost always	frequently	sometimes	never
--------	---------------	------------	-----------	-------
6. How often do you feel like taking food supplements (for example, sustagen) to increase your muscles?

always	almost always	frequently	sometimes	never
--------	---------------	------------	-----------	-------
7. How often do you think about taking food supplements (for example, sustagen) to increase your muscles?

always	almost always	frequently	sometimes	never
--------	---------------	------------	-----------	-------
8. How often do you take steroids?

always	almost always	frequently	sometimes	never
--------	---------------	------------	-----------	-------
9. How often do you feel like taking steroids?

always	almost always	frequently	sometimes	never
--------	---------------	------------	-----------	-------
10. How often do you think about taking steroids?

always	almost always	frequently	sometimes	never
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APPENDIX E

PERCEIVED SOCIOCULTURAL INFLUENCES ON BODY IMAGE AND CHANGE
QUESTIONNAIRE – MEDIA INFLUENCES SUBSCALE

Media Influences

1. Do the media (ie. T.V, Movies, Magazines and Newspapers) give the idea that you should be **slimmer**?

 Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree

2. Do the media give the idea that you should **eat less** to lose weight?

 Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree

3. Do the media give the idea that you should **exercise more** to lose weight?

 Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree

4. Do the media give the idea that you should **gain weight**?

 Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree

5. Do the media give the idea that you should **exercise more** to gain weight?

 Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree

6. Do the media give the idea that you should **eat more** to gain weight?

 Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree

7. Do the media give the idea that you should be more **muscular**?

 Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree

8. Do the media give the idea that you should **exercise more** to be more muscular?

 Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree

9. Do the media give the idea that you should **eat less** to be more muscular?

 Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree

10. Do the media give the idea that you should **eat more** to be more muscular?

 Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree