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Effects of Exposure to Objectified Images of Males and Females on College Males' Sexual Self-Esteem

Martin Pino
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

EFFECTS OF EXPOSURE TO OBJECTIFIED IMAGES OF MALES AND FEMALES ON COLLEGE MALES' SEXUAL SELF-ESTEEM

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Martin Pino

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

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Indiana University of Pennsylvania
The School of Graduate Studies and Research
Department of Psychology

We hereby approve the dissertation of

Martin M. Pino

Candidate for the degree of Doctor of Psychology

4/25/11 _____

Maureen C. McHugh, Ph.D.
Professor of Psychology, Advisor

4/25/11 _____

Laurie Roehrich, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Psychology

4/25/11 _____

Eric W. Rosenberger, Ph.D.
Associate Professor, Counseling Center

ACCEPTED

_____ _____

Timothy P. Mack, Ph.D
Dean
The School of Graduate Studies and Research

Title: Effects of Exposure to Objectified Images of Males and Females On College Males' Sexual Self-Esteem

Author: Martin M. Pino

Dissertation Chair: Maureen McHugh, Ph.D.

Dissertation Committee Members: Laurie Roehrich, Ph.D.

Eric Rosenberger, Ph.D.

Exposure to objectified images of males and females has been found to have a negative effect on body esteem, self-esteem, and psychological health of men and women. Few studies have investigated the effects of exposure to objectified images on male sexual esteem. Ninety male college students participated in the current study, which examined the effects of exposure to objectified images of males and females on male sexual esteem and self-esteem. This study considered the constructs of gender role conflict and level of conformity to masculine norms as covariates that could exacerbate the negative effects of exposure to objectified images. Finally, the relationship between gender role conflict and adherence to masculine norms was investigated. Based on the results of a multivariate analysis of variance, exposure to objectified images of males and females did not negatively affect the self-esteem and sexual esteem of participants. Furthermore, a positive relationship was found to exist between gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms. Future research is necessary in order to better understand the effects of prolonged exposure to objectified images, which may increase the external and ecological validity of future studies.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The mass media's relentless depiction of the male muscular ideal has been found to have a detrimental effect on men's psychological and physical well-being. Advertisements directed at men frequently put forward the image of the hypermuscular man as ideal, which is a body type that is often difficult for most men to achieve (Hatoum & Belle, 2004). Numerous studies have been conducted investigating the effects of exposure to certain types of media images on male body image. Barlett, Vowels, and Saucier (2008) conducted a meta-analyses of these studies and concluded, based on five studies, and a total of 93 effect sizes, that the mass media did, in fact, cause men to feel negatively about their bodies through constant depiction of, and exposure to, images of the male muscular ideal. Overall, the meta-analysis found that as men felt more pressure from the media to achieve the masculine, muscular male ideal, these men were also found to feel worse about their bodies. Furthermore, issues related to body satisfaction, self-esteem, and psychological distress were all found to be negatively affected by the idealized body images put forth in the media, in addition to causing such behavioral outcomes as excessive exercise (Barlett, Vowels, & Saucier, 2008).

The media plays a significant role in how men perceive and feel about their bodies, in addition to affecting their overall *self-esteem*, which is defined as an "individual's positive or negative attitude toward the self as a totality" (Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995, p. 1410). However, a paucity of research exists regarding the manner in which exposure to idealized male images affects the *sexual esteem* of individuals. Sexual esteem is defined as "the dispositional tendency to evaluate positively one's capacity to relate sexually to others," (Snell, Fisher, & Schuh, 1992, p. 261). The construct of sexual esteem is related to a "generalized

tendency to engage in nonspecific internal reinforcement towards oneself, as a result of one's capacity to relate sexually to another person" (Snell & Papini, 1989, p. 257).

The literature has demonstrated the existence of a relationship between male body image and aspects of sexual esteem, including level of comfort and confidence during sexual intimacy. For instance, McDonagh, Morrison, and McGuire (2008) conducted a study that examined male body image self-consciousness during physical intimacy. The researchers found that body image self-consciousness correlated negatively with male sexual esteem and body esteem. However, little research has been conducted investigating the relationship between advertisements featuring idealized/objectified images in the mass media and sexual-esteem. When considering the effect that exposure to idealized male images has on male body esteem and drive for muscularity, and the relationship between body esteem and sexual esteem, a question is raised regarding the relationship between exposure to such images and sexual esteem. Does exposure to objectified media images, or images portraying the hypermuscular male ideal (often in an objectified manner), have an effect on how men view their sexuality? Furthermore, how does this relate to male sexual self-esteem? Given previous research indicating that exposure to muscular, idealized images of men negatively affects men's body esteem and self-esteem, it is hypothesized that exposure to these types of images would also have a negative effect on men's sexual esteem, as sexual esteem and body esteem are interrelated constructs. The current study investigates the relationship between exposure to objectified images of males and sexual esteem, in addition to global self-esteem.

Exposure to objectified images of women also seems to have adverse psychological effects on men. Johnson, McCreary and Mills (2007) conducted a study that exposed men to objectified images of males and females and found that men exposed to objectified images of

females reported higher levels of anxiety and hostility on the *Psychological Wellbeing Scale* as compared to those exposed to objectified images of males. Taking these findings into account, the current study exposed men to objectified images of females in order to assess whether or not the previously mentioned anxiety manifests in deficiencies in sexual esteem. Overall, the current study examines the possibility of a relationship between exposure to objectified media images of men *and* women on men's sexual esteem and global self esteem, two factors related to psychological health.

Gender role conflict is an aspect of male psychological health that has been extensively studied and assessed in the men and masculinity literature, and has been linked to the constructs of self-esteem and depression. Gender role conflict "occurs when rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles, learned during socialization, result in the personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self " (Good et al., 1995, p. 3). Gender role conflict has also been studied as a mediator/ moderator variable in numerous studies. For example, Hobza and Rochlen (2009) investigated the relationship between exposure to ideal, print-based masculine images and men's body esteem, while considering gender role conflict as a moderator. These researchers did not find that gender role conflict moderated the relationship between the two aforementioned variables. Nonetheless, the influence of gender role conflict on men's susceptibility to *different* types of media images should be investigated further. The current study builds upon the findings of the latter study by exposing men to *objectified* images of other men, as opposed to solely idealized images.

Objectification theory can help to explain the difference between *objectified* and *idealized* images. This theory is often used to conceptualize the way in which the mass media portrays women as sex objects, and provides a framework for understanding the manner in which

exposure to such images can affect the psychological health of individuals. Objectification theory is typically defined as women's "experience of being treated *as a body* (or collection of body parts) valued predominantly for its use or consumption by others" (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997, p. 174). Exposing females to objectified images has led to "habitual body monitoring" as well as "shame and anxiety" (Fredrickson & Roberts, p. 173). Recent research has begun utilizing objectification theory as the conceptual framework for understanding men's mental health issues as well, including male body image issues (Tiggeman and Kuring, 2004). The current study will also examine the construct of gender role conflict as a possible variable involved in the relationship between exposure to objectified images and sexual/ self-esteem.

Although gender role conflict is an important construct to consider when one is researching male psychopathology, it is equally important to assess individuals' levels of *conformity to masculine norms*. The concept of conformity to masculine norms is defined as "the extent that an individual male conforms or does not conform to the actions, thoughts, and feelings that reflect masculinity norms in the dominant culture in U.S. society" (Mahalik et al., 2003, p. 5). Mahalik and colleagues (2003) draw an important distinction between gender role stress and level of conformity to masculine norms, asserting that conformity to masculine norms "may often be adaptive and healthy and non-conformity may often be associated with societal stressors," while gender role conflict focuses on the "pathology associated with masculinity" (p. 4). Consequently, the current study assesses participants' levels of conformity to masculine norms, as well as its relationship to participants' level of gender role conflict. This study also examines the effect of exposure to objectified images of males and females on male sexual self-esteem and overall self-esteem, while considering the degree of gender role conflict present in the participant, in addition to the extent to which the participant adheres to masculine norms.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Individuals in the United States are constantly being exposed to advertisements containing idealized, objectified images of both men and women. Kilbourne (1999) states that Americans are "exposed to at least three thousand ads every day and will spend three years of [their life] watching television commercials" (p. 58). Many advertisements are not benign, often affecting the way viewers think and feel about a host of personal issues, including body-esteem and sexuality. Kilbourne contends that "advertising is our *environment*. We swim in it as fish swim in water. We cannot escape it. Unless, of course, we keep our children home from school and blindfold them whenever they are outside of the house…advertising messages are inside our intimate relationships, our homes, and our hearts" (Kilbourne, p. 58).

The alarming trend of exposure to these types of idealized images through advertising and marketing has even been observed in the development of children's toys. For instance, Pope, Olivardia, Gruber, and Borowiecki (1999) found that, over the past 20 years, children's action figure toys have become unrealistically muscular, thus perpetuating the concept of the ideal man as muscular. Furthermore, in a study conducted by Nichter and Nichter (1991), adolescent females described the ideal girl as being 5 ft 7 in. tall, having blonde hair and blue eyes, and being a size 5, which is a physical description that is clearly not typical of the majority of Americans. According to media analysts, the mass media plays a significant role in perpetuating this unrealistic body ideal or physical description (Groetsz, Levine, & Murmen, 2002).

Clearly, unrealistic depictions of male and female bodies now pervade almost all areas of popular media, including movies, music videos, and advertisements, which target both children and adults. This problem is compounded by the increased amounts of reported media use among

American youth. Roberts and Foehr (2008) state that American youth aged 8-18 report more than 6 hours a day of mass media use, including watching television and using their computers to access the Internet. Given the aforementioned data, it is not surprising that research has shown pre-adolescent children expressed a desire for thinness, and expressed other body image concerns (Feldman, Feldman, & Goodman, 1988; Gilbert, 1998). Specifically, children as young as 6 have been found to express body satisfaction concerns, as well as concerns about their weight (Smolak & Levine, 1994). Herbozo, Tantleff-Dunn, Gokee-LaRose and Thompson (2004) postulate that "repeated exposure to children's media exhibiting unrealistic body ideals may lead young viewers and readers to overestimate the actual prevalence of such body figures and feel pressured to conform to media's perceptions of what the body should look like" (p. 30). It is clear that, starting from a very young age, children are being exposed to images of the "ideal" body, and that exposure to these ideal body images may lead to an internalization of these images in both boys and girls, which can become exceedingly dangerous from a mental health standpoint, especially when these children find that their appearances often deviate significantly from the idealized media norms to which they are being exposed (Kilbourne, 1999).

Women and the Media

The vast majority of research analyzing the effects of media images on self-image and body satisfaction has been conducted primarily with female participants. Research suggests that exposure to these images does, in fact, have a negative effect on a number of different variables associated with body-esteem and sense-of-self in women. Groesz, Levine, and Murmen (2002) conducted a meta-analysis, which examined the effect that thin images of women in the media had on the self-image of females. The researchers found that a significant relationship existed between exposure to images of thin women and the development of negative self-image. Many

of the images present in the media portray women that depict the "thin ideal." In addition, the media often portray women in objectified roles. In her articulation of sexual objectification theory, Aubrey (2006a) refers to Bartky's (1990) description of sexual objectification as "the separating of a person's body, body parts, or sexual functions from his or her person, reducing them to the status of mere instruments" (p. 367). In the case of women being exposed to objectified images of males and females, past research has shown that viewing such images can have a detrimental effect on women's body image, self esteem, and eating behaviors (Johnson, McCreary, & Mills, 2007; Levine & Smolak, 1996; Mills, Polivy, Herman, & Tiggemann, 2002).

The relationship between media and body image concerns among women was also investigated in a meta-analysis conducted by Grabe, Ward, and Hyde (2008). The researchers utilized a sample of 177 studies, experimental and correlational in nature, yielding a total of 141 effect sizes. The results of the analysis indicated that "media exposure is linked to womens' increased investment in appearance, generalized dissatisfaction with their bodies, and increased disordered eating behaviors" (p. 471). Furthermore, it was found that media exposure was related to negative body image in women even when taking into account exposure to different types of media, as well as the age of participants.

A significant amount of research has been conducted investigating the effects of exposure to the thin female ideal portrayed in the media. Groesz and colleagues (2002) conducted a meta-analysis, which assessed the effect of experimental manipulations of the thin body ideal, as presented by the media, on female body image. The study, yielding 43 effect sizes from 25 different studies, concluded that the mass media does depict a standard of slender beauty that ultimately leads women to experience body dissatisfaction, as well as an overall dissatisfaction with themselves as people. Thus the negative effect that the media has on female body image and

self-esteem has been consistently documented. Recently, researchers have begun to examine the manner in which men are being portrayed within the media as well.

Media Images of Men

As female images presented in media have become significantly thinner throughout the years, the images of men seem to have become increasingly muscular (Garner, Garfinkel, Schwartz, & Thompson, 1980; Hatoum & Belle, 2004; Leit, Pope, & Gray, 2001). Interestingly, past research suggests that the number of objectified images of men has increased with the rise in appeal of magazine's such as *Men's Health*, *Men's Journal* and *Men's Fitness*; these magazines are known to depict unrealistic male body ideals (Hatoum & Belle, 2004). The literature suggests that the images of men depicted in media has changed significantly in the past 30 years. For instance, Leit, Pope, and Gray (2001) conducted a study which sought to assess whether or not cultural ideals of the male body, depicted in *Playgirl* magazine, had changed during the time period ranging from 1973-1997. The researchers calculated the body mass index (BMI) and fat-free mass index (FFMI) of Playgirl models by using the heights and weights quoted in the magazine, as well as visual estimates of body fat. Overall, the researchers concluded that the ideal male body has become increasingly more muscular and dense.

Furthermore, a content analysis of *Men's Health* magazine and *Men's Fitness* magazine, conducted in 2005, found that the content of the articles and advertisements were more likely to display images of men that were lean, had low body fat, and were highly muscular (Labre, 2005). Additionally, Labre (2005) suggests that exposure to these images could lead to a preoccupation or concern regarding the attainment of this type of ideal body physique. The researcher describes this ideal body physique as "an extreme, unrealistic representation, which may also contribute to body dissatisfaction and engagement in unhealthy, appearance- driven pursuits" (Labre, 2005, p.

198-199). Ultimately, Labre (2005) suggests that more research is required in order to understand more about the effects of exposure to idealized male images.

The literature supports the notion that men who are exposed to photographs of muscular men report lower levels of body dissatisfaction following exposure, and more dissatisfaction than men who were exposed to normal, less overtly muscular, images of other men (Lorenzen, Grieve, & Thomas, 2004; Baird & Grieve, 2006). The effect of exposure to idealized, muscular images of men on male body satisfaction was investigated by Lorenzen et al. (2004). During the study, 104 college males were exposed to either muscular, or non-muscular, images of males, and asked to complete the *Body Assessment* scale before and after exposure. The Body Assessment scale measures body satisfaction prior to, and after, exposure to muscular and non-muscular advertisements. The results of the study indicated that the participants' body satisfaction ratings decreased after exposure to images of muscular men, yet did not change after being exposed to images of men with average builds. Exposure to these types of images has also been reported to have a similar effect on adolescents' self-evaluations.

The effect that exposure to the male models displayed in *Sports Illustrated* had on male adolescents' self-evaluations was investigated by Farquhar and Wasylkiw (2007). In the study, 107 male adolescents were randomly assigned to either the male "body-as-object" condition, which depicts "the body as comprised of discrete parts that are evaluated based on aesthetic qualities," the "body-as-process" condition , which depicts "the body as a functional machine whose instrumentality is of greater consequence than it's beauty", or the neutral condition (Farquhar & Wasylkiw, 2007 p. 148). After exposure to the images, the participants completed a variety of questionnaires, including the *Current Thought Scale*, which measures state self-esteem, as well as the *Depression-Dejection* questionnaire. The results of the study indicated that

exposure to the "body-as-object" images contributed to negative self-evaluations, while exposure to the "body-as-process" condition led to positive self-evaluations. The results suggest that the detrimental effects of advertisements on self-image and self-esteem may depend on the manner in which the male is portrayed (i.e. in an objectified vs. non-objectified manner). Ultimately, the authors warned that men may be comparing themselves to idealized male images being displayed by the media, which may cause body dissatisfaction if, and when, men cannot achieve this ideal. In their study, Farquhar and Wasylkiw cited Garner's (1997) comprehensive survey on body image among men and women.

Garner (1997) developed a questionnaire that asked how participants "[saw], [felt], and [were] influenced by [their] bodies" (p. 32). The author used the first 4000 surveys that were returned for their analysis. The final sample consisted of 3,452 women and 548 men. The survey results indicated that men's dissatisfaction with their appearance rose from 15% in 1972, a finding gathered from the first *Psychology Today* national survey on body image, to 43% in Garner's 1997 study. Specifically, men were found to exhibit "escalating dissatisfaction with their abdomens (63 percent of respondents), weight (52 percent), muscle tone (45 percent), overall appearance (43 percent), and chest (38 percent)" (Garner, 1997, p. 36).

The Garner (1997) study also examined the effects of the media on body image and self-perception. The study reported that the media most strongly impacts those who are unhappy with their shape and who deviate most from the cultural ideal. Overall, as media representations of the male muscular ideal become more prevalent and continue to pervade television and magazine advertisements, it is hypothesized that men's dissatisfaction with the appearance of their bodies will continue to increase, especially in men who possess an already unstable body image.

The manner in which level of psychological distress correlates with the frequency and

intensity of exposure to unrealistic representations of the male body has received continued validation and empirical support in the literature. For example, the relationship between magazine exposure and internalization of the stereotypes presented in magazines, self-objectification, eating attitudes, and body satisfaction in males and females was investigated by Morry and Staska (2001). Results of the study indicated that reading fitness magazines, such as *Men's Health*, was related to "the internalization of societal ideals about appearance and eating problems" (Morry & Staska, 2001, p. 276). Furthermore, the study found that exposure to the "ideal" male form was related to problematic eating, body shame, and self-objectification (i.e. taking an outsiders perspective on one's own body) in both men and women. Overall, although past research has focused on the internalization of objectified images of females in female subjects, there is a growing body of literature suggesting that men can also internalize images of objectified males as well, which may also lead males to engage in self-objectification.

Objectification Theory

According to objectification theory, exposure to objectified images of females is thought to have a detrimental effect on women's mental health and body image. Szymanski and Henning (2007) postulate that "girls and women in US society are subjected to pervasive cultural practices (representations of women in the media, visual inspection of or gazing at the female body by some men, and sexual violence) that sexually objectify the female body and treat it as an object that exists for the pleasure of and use by others" (p. 45). The relationship between self-objectification and depression-related symptoms in women was assessed by Szymanski and Henning (2007). Self-objectification is said to occur when one "views the self in terms of externally perceivable attributes, or [feels] anxious or ashamed of [his or her] body" (Aubrey, 2006b, p. 159). The participant sample consisted of 217 women ranging in age from 18-63 who

were asked to complete Various assessment measures, including The *Self-Objectification Questionnaire*, the Body Surveillance Subscale of the *Objectified Body Consciousness Scale*, which assesses how frequently the subject watched her appearance, and the Private Body Consciousness Subscale, which looks at the "level of consciousness of bodily sensation typically considered internal or private by the respondent" (Szymanski & Henning, p. 47). In addition, the researchers developed the "Flow Scale," which assessed peak motivational states related to concentration and lack of worry. The findings of the study indicated that self-objectification led to increased body monitoring, greater shame with one's body, and greater anxiety related to appearance. Ultimately, the study supported the theory that women's mental health is affected negatively by exposure to objectifying practices occurring in US culture.

The relationship between body objectification and certain mental health issues in women, such as disordered eating and depressed mood, was examined by Tiggeman and Kuring (2004). Utilizing a sample of 171 women, a cross-sectional study was conducted requiring participants to complete a questionnaire assessing participants' level of self-objectification, self-surveillance, body shame, appearance anxiety, experience of flow, awareness of internal bodily states, disordered eating, and depressed mood. The researchers found that depressed mood, as well as disordered eating, were both predicted by self-objectification and habitual self-surveillance. These findings indicate that clear negative consequences for women exist resulting from constantly monitoring one's appearance. Although the findings are correlational in nature, there is something to be said for the role that the media plays in objectifying women.

Objectification Theory: Application to Males

Some researchers are beginning to examine the claim that the media has been portraying men in increasingly objectified roles as well. This hypothesis was investigated in a study

conducted by Tiggeman and Kuring (2004). Utilizing a sample of 115 men, the researchers found that objectification theory is applicable to males as well. While men generally reported lower levels of self-surveillance than women, the men that did continuously monitor their external appearance were more likely to report body shame and anxiety related to their appearance, which "resulted in disordered eating and depressed mood" (Tiggemann & Kuring, 2004, p. 308).

Although objectification theory is primarily used as a "framework for understanding the experiential consequences of being female in a culture that sexually objectifies the female body," researchers are also starting to apply tenets of the theory to the male experience (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997, p. 173) Aubrey (2006a) conducted a study wherein objectification theory was utilized as the underlying theoretical basis for investigating the effect that the media's practice of objectifying human bodies had on female and male tendency to engage in body surveillance and self-objectification (taking an outsiders perspective on the physical self). The findings of the study indicated that exposure to sexually objectifying images predicted an increase in body surveillance for men. The findings also indicated that "there [was] relative gender equality in the media's ability to cultivate self-objectification" (p. 382). Fredrickson & Roberts (1997) conceptualized objectification theory as a primarily female experience, yet the study in question seems to suggest that men are negatively affected by exposure to objectified images as well.

Other researchers have suggested that objectification theory is applicable to the male experience as well (Thompson, 2000). For example, Morry and Staska (2001) suggest that while women are socialized to desire thinness, men are socialized to desire a physically fit body that represents the male physical ideal, and thus are socialized to become aware of how others view their bodies as well. While males and females clearly do not experience objectification in the

same manner, nor to the same degree, it is hypothesized that objectification theory, as a theoretical framework, could be utilized to help explain the media's effect on a number of variables including male body image and self-esteem. Interestingly, many of the aforementioned studies assessing objectification utilized similar methods, such that all of the studies were conducted using questionnaires regarding media exposure, without the delineation or manipulation of exposure to images as an experimental variable. It seems beneficial, both from a research and clinical standpoint, to measure the effects of exposure to objectified images, in vivo, through the presentation of various sexually-suggestive or sexually objectifying advertisements. An experimental design in which exposure to sexually objectifying images is assessed should assist researchers in gathering more information about how, or if, these images affect different aspects of mental health immediately following exposure.

Male Body Image and Gender Role Stress

Although the impact of exposure to objectified/idealized media images of men may be examined within the general framework of objectification theory, male gender role stress must also be assessed as a contributing construct. Gender role stress has been found to relate strongly to body image concerns in men (Mussap, 2008). For instance, Leit, Pope, & Gray (2001) postulate that as women have begun to take on more traditional "male roles", men have turned to muscle building in a final attempt to confirm, and display, their masculinity. Interestingly, Mussap (2008) postulates that some men may seek increased muscularity not only to make certain that they remain in congruence with the male ideal, but also in instances where men may want to make up for perceived deficiencies in other areas of their lives. Mussap (2008) conducted a study which examined the relationship between masculine gender role stress and the pursuit of muscularity within a sample of 129 men, aged between 18 and 40 years. The results of

the study indicated that "stress associated with conforming to the masculine gender role is related to a desire for greater muscularity and, to a lesser extent, a desire for less body adiposity" (Mussap, 2008, p. 82). The researcher reports that one of the most valuable pieces of information that can be gained from his study is that one must not only study gender identity, but instead study the amount of *stress* a person experiences while attempting to conform to a certain type of gender identity. All in all, Mussap (2008) postulates that the amount of concern men experience regarding deviation from masculine gender role is correlated with men's concerns about the male body ideal, which is typically conceptualized as muscular and fit. The aforementioned research begs the question: does exposure to objectified images of males, which oftentimes goes hand in hand with the male muscular ideal, further add to gender role stress in males and, if so, in what ways does gender role stress manifest?

When one considers the effect that exposure to objectified and idealized images of bodies can have on a man's psyche and sense-of-self, it is not surprising that an early study on male body image conducted with a sample of college males found that 95% of the men surveyed expressed some type of dissatisfaction with a part of their body, and 70% were found to exhibit a discrepancy between their current and ideal body shape (Mishkind, Rodin, Silberstein, & Striegel-Moore, 1986). Moreover, the aforementioned dissatisfaction seems to be correlated with mood disorders as well.

The effects that exposure to certain television advertisements, which depicted men with ideal body images, had on men's body image and mood was investigated by Agliata and Tantleff-Dunn (2004). The subjects taking part in the study consisted of 158 young men, aged between 17 and 27, with an average age of 21.3. The videotape stimuli utilized in the experiment consisted of two half-hour segments, one containing appearance-loaded advertisements, while

the other contained non-appearance-related advertisements. The advertisements were previously rated in a pilot study that assessed the extent to which the commercials portrayed the male ideal of attractiveness. Each participant was randomly assigned to either the appearance advertisement group (experimental group), or the non-appearance advertisement group (control group). The experimental group was exposed to television advertisements depicting males that represented the "ideal" body type, while the control group was shown neutral images. It is important to note that no significant differences were observed between the two participant groups within the areas of body mass index, television viewing variables, or demographic variables.

The researchers concluded that "exposure to ideal images of attractiveness...can significantly increase one's muscle dissatisfaction...and [is] also associated with a significant increase in depression" (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004, p. 16). Furthermore, the male participants became significantly more depressed after viewing these images in comparison to the participants exposed to neutral ads. Overall, research indicates that men are not only affected by viewing advertisements in which males are placed in objectified roles, but are also negatively impacted by sexually objectified images of women as well.

The findings of recent research have suggested that when men are exposed to advertisements of objectified women, these men began to judge their own bodies as less muscular, which has been found to lead to a desire for a more muscular, larger body (Lavine, Sweeney, & Wagner, 1999). All in all, the aforementioned findings suggest that exposure to idealized male and female media images can have a detrimental effect on body satisfaction, and overall mental health. Would exposure to these types of images affect other related constructs similarly, such as sexual esteem or global self-esteem? In addition, how would the relationship between these variables be affected by other constructs, such as the level of gender role conflict

or level of conformity to masculine norms present in the participant prior to exposure?

Male Gender Role Conflict

When evaluating the role of the media in influencing men's body image ideals and mood, one may consider the theory of gender role conflict as an important variable worthy of consideration and assessment. Gender role conflict is defined as "a psychological state where gender roles have negative consequences or impact on a person or others" (O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986). Gender role conflict can manifest, and is observable, within a number of different domains: unconscious, behavioral, affective, and cognitive, and can occur when one receives messages about having met, or failed to achieve, traditional male gender roles (Thompkins & Rando, 2003).

Gender role conflict has been found to relate to many different types of psychological distress among men. For instance, Thompkins and Rando (2003) conducted a study with 343 college students which examined whether or not a potential relationship existed between shame and gender role conflict. The researchers found that when men experience high levels of gender role conflict in the areas of emotional expression and/or the balancing of personal and professional responsibilities, high levels of shame seem to be present as well. Thompkins and Rando (2003) refer to literature which suggests, "the study of unhealthy male behavior and/ or psychopathology has consistently been related to men's struggles with gender role conflict and shame" (p. 81). Simply said, when considering the epidemiology of male psychological distress in a clinical setting, the presence and severity of any gender role conflict issues must be assessed.

Interestingly, research is beginning to suggest that gender role conflict may, in fact, develop when men with insecure attachment styles, which oftentimes serve to create distrust of others and feelings of negative self-worth, begin to over-identify with traditional aspects of

masculinity to assist in forming their identities (Schwartz, Waldo, & Higgins, 2004). In their study on the relationship being attachment style and gender role conflict in college men, Schwartz, Waldo, and Higgins (2004) referred to Bowlby's (1973) description of attachment theory, which postulated that individuals' early childhood experiences with primary caregivers ultimately shape the manner in which these individuals measure their self-worth and overall self-esteem, as well as influences the level of security individuals feel in relationships as adults. The authors hypothesized that men's insecure attachment styles, and gender role conflict issues, may exist in a type of feedback loop. For instance, gender role conflict, which is often conceptualized as a fear of being perceived as feminine, may cause men to display their emotions in an ineffective manner, while concurrently playing a role in men's desire for success and control over others. The aforementioned style of emotional expression, coupled with pursuit of success by any means, serves to continue the cycle of insecure attachment in future relationships. Ultimately, it seems that gender role conflict may actually be related to more deep-seated issues of "self", which speaks to the seriousness of gender role conflict in relation to functioning in interpersonal relationships, personality factors, and men's reactions to certain societal influences, such as media representations of men and women.

Ineffective or non-existent displays of emotion in men, which influence gender role conflict, are associated with a number of negative personality factors. Jakupcak, Tull, and Roemer (2005) conducted a study that examined the extent to which a number of different factors associated with masculinity, such as men's proneness to shame and fear of emotions, correlated with manifestations of overt anger, aggression, and hostility in men. The researchers found that a fear of emotion in males was a strong predictor of hostility and a general inability to control anger. The authors went on to suggest that men may benefit from treatment examining

the societal influences that play a role in the way men cope with and handle emotions. It is thought that the theory of gender role conflict could account for some of the shame and fear of emotions that many men seem to experience.

Although gender role conflict and gender role stress have been found to correlate positively with overall psychological distress in men, there is also evidence suggesting that men benefit from being able to adhere to traditional masculine gender roles as well. For instance, men who adhere to traditional role stereotypes tend to use their station in life, such as their occupation and salary, as a basis for their self-esteem and often find comfort in their role as "breadwinner" (Kilmartin, 2000). Still, a great deal of research is beginning to suggest that it can be quite difficult for men to live up to masculine gender role demands. Kilmartin (2000) asserts that men often compare themselves to other men who are more successful, have more money, or have a higher social status, which leads to consequences similar to those found in research investigating the detrimental effects of upward social comparison. Kilmartin (2000) postulates that "the expectation that men compete, achieve, [have to] be 'on top', and always look for more have left many men feeling driven, empty, disillusioned, and angry" (p. 13). Furthermore, many men may begin to suffer from a number of different stress-related physical and psychological problems when they feel as though they do not "measure up." Kilmartin (2000) refers to studies conducted by Blazina and Watkins (1990) and McCreary, Newcomb, & Sadava (1999), which found that men "with high levels of gender role conflict also had higher levels of reported alcohol use and alcohol related problems than men with lower levels of gender role conflict" (p. 287). Overall, gender role conflict seems to be associated with the development of a number of different mood and substance abuse disorders in men.

Conformity To Male Norms

Within the men and masculinity literature, the level of male gender role conflict experienced by an individual is oftentimes considered in relation to the construct of *conformity to masculine norms*, which is "the extent that an individual male conforms or does not conform to the actions, thoughts, and feelings that reflect masculinity norms in the dominant culture in U.S. society" (Mahalik et al., 2003, p.5). Overall, a complex interplay exists between the two constructs. That being said, there is also an important distinction to be drawn between gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms. Parent and Moradi (2009) shed light upon this distinction, postulating that measures such as the Gender Role Conflict Scale "focus on stress and conflict associated with adherence to traditional masculine norms" (p. 175) while measures such as the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory were developed in order to assess "endorsement of masculine ideology, which may not be negative in all contexts, and could be adaptive in some situations" (p. 175).

Mahalik and colleagues (2003) developed the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory, which includes an assessment of a number of different domains associated with male gender role: winning, emotional control, risk-taking, violence, power over women, dominance, playboy, self-reliance, primacy of work, disdain for homosexuals, and pursuit of status. It is important to note that adherence to masculine norms does not lead solely to negative outcomes. Research has shown that certain aspects of traditional masculine norms have been related to positive personality attributes as well. For example, Hammer and Good (2010) found that "men's greater endorsement of traditional western masculine norms such as risk-taking, dominance, primacy of work, and pursuit of status, [were] associated with higher levels of emotional courage, autonomy, endurance, and resilience" (p. 303). In other words, adherence to traditional

masculine norms does not necessarily equate to negative psychological symtomology or negative personality traits.

Clearly, studies exist linking conformity to masculine norms to positive attitudes and behaviors. However, the literature also highlights some of the problematic repercussions of significant adherence to traditional male norms. In their study analyzing the effects of masculine identity and gender role stress on aggression in men, Cohn and Zeichner (2006) reported that "masculine identity was moderately correlated with hostility and strongly correlated with social dominance and general aggression," and is strongly linked to "reports of psychological distress, aggression, violent behavior, and conduct problems in men" (p. 179-180).

It seems as though individuals experience emotional or psychological distress when there is an actual or perceived incongruence between one's perceived level of masculinity and the importance that one may place on adhering to traditional masculine norms. The literature suggests that gender role conflict occurs when men "deviate from or violate gender role norms of masculine ideology or experience discrepancies between their real self-concepts and their ideal self-concepts, based on gender role stereotypes and masculinity ideology" (O'Neil, 2008, p. 362). Overall, the literature indicates that a positive correlation exists between gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms, although data indicates that the two measures are, in fact, assessing differing constructs (O'Neil, 2008; Mahalik, 2003).

Detrimental Effects of Exposure To Objectified Media Images

Exposure to images of hyper masculine portrayals of men, which can sometimes challenge men's perceptions of their own ability to conform to masculine norms, has been found to have a negative affect on males' psychological health. For instance, the effect of viewing objectified male and female media images on male drive for muscularity and psychological well-

being was assessed by Johnson, McCreary and Mills (2007). The researchers found that, although viewing objectified images of both sexes did not have a negative effect on the participants' ratings of their bodies, "men who were exposed to objectified female images experienced greater levels of general anxiety and hostility as compared to men in both the objectified male image and neutral male images" (Johnson, McCreary and Mills, 2007, p. 99). The researchers postulated that the latter finding regarding increased levels of hostility was quite unexpected, thus providing an opportunity for further research in this area. Ultimately, although viewing these images did not seem to have an effect on body image, it did cause greater levels of anxiety and hostility. Assuming the previously mentioned study had considered gender role conflict in the analysis, would a correlation have been found between the anger and hostility reported after exposure to the female images and participants' level of gender role conflict?

Hobza and Rochlen (2009) conducted a study which analyzed the effect that viewing magazine advertisements depicting images of the muscular male ideal had on men's body esteem, self-esteem, and drive for muscularity. The participants, 82 college-aged men aged 18-50, were under the impression that they were participating in a research study investigating memory recall of advertisement contents. The researchers exposed participants to images containing either muscular male images (lean stomachs, toned bodies) or neutral images (household items, no humans). Prior to the presentation of stimulus materials, the participants filled out the pre-questionnaire packet, which included the *Gender Role Conflict Scale*, the *Body Esteem Scale*, the *State Self-Esteem Scale*, and the *Drive for Muscularity Scale*. After being presented with 25 slides, the pre-questionnaire packet was again administered as a post measure. The results of the study indicated that men in the physical image condition "who viewed advertisements featuring muscular men reported significantly lower body esteem following

image exposure" (Hobza & Rochlen, 2009, p. 126). However, a statistically significant difference was not found between experimental and control groups on self-esteem or drive for muscularity. Moreover, it was found that gender role conflict did not act as a moderator for men's changes in body-esteem or drive for muscularity.

Although gender role conflict was not found to be a moderator variable in the aforementioned study, other research has found evidence supporting a correlation between increased desire for muscularity in young men and the presence of gender role conflict. The complex interplay between drive for muscularity, masculinity, gender role traits, and gender role conflict was assessed by McCreary, Saucier, and Courtenay (2005). The researchers found that men who endorsed more traditional conformity to masculine norms were also found to possess an increased desire for muscularity. Furthermore, these men experienced "greater levels of gender role conflict with respect to a) society's expectations that they be successful, powerful, and competitive and b) balancing work and leisure" (McCreary et al., 2005, p. 90). Essentially, it seems as though body image amongst men, particularly in terms of desire for increased muscularity, is often related to more ingrained cognitions regarding masculinity and gender norms.

The literature suggests that men's body image is negatively affected by media images depicting images of idealized male bodies. Furthermore, the literature suggests that body image self-consciousness correlates negatively with male self-esteem and body esteem (McDonagh, Morrison, & McGuire (2008). However, does exposure to these types media images have an effect on men's sexual esteem? Sexual esteem is defined as "the dispositional tendency to evaluate positively one's capacity to relate sexually to others," (Snell, Fisher, & Schuh, 1992, p. 261). The literature is still unclear regarding the latter question. However, McDonagh, Morrison,

and McGuire (2008) conducted a study which investigated a releated concept. The researchers developed and tested a measure which assessed male body image self-consciousness during physical intimacy. The researchers concluded that "participants' body image self-consciousness correlated positively with their sexual anxiety and motivation to become more muscular, in addition to correlating negatively with their sexual esteem, body esteem, and self-rated physical attractiveness (McDonagh et al., 2008, p. 253). It seems that body image self-consciousness is correlated with a host of negative psychological outcomes. As was mentioned previously, there is a great deal of literature supporting the idea that the media can have negative influence on body image, self-esteem, and psychological health, including depression and anxiety.

The effect that media advertisements have on psychological health should be a major area of concern given what is now known regarding the amount of advertisements Americans are exposed to on a daily basis, as well as the amount of male and female objectification that occurs in many of these advertisements. Johnson, McCreary, and Mills (2007) found that men who were exposed to objectified images of females displayed increased levels of general anxiety, as well as hostility. However, no research has been conducted investigating the effect that exposure to objectified images of females has on male sexual esteem. As has been reported in the literature, symptoms of general anxiety and depression can play a role in male sexuality, including sexual functioning. Furthermore, depression can manifest as anger for many men, which may also be related to sexual dysfunction.

The Massachusetts Male Aging Study conducted in the 1990's found a correlation between anger and erectile dysfunction. For example, men with minimal uncontrolled anger were at a 37% risk level of developing erectile dysfunction, while men with maximum anger were up to 77.4% risk level (Ducharme, 2004). Furthermore, Ducharme postulates that "traits of

dominance and depressed moods were also found to have a significant correlation with the presence of erectile dysfunction" (p. 172). One wonders what type of effect exposure to objectified image of males and females would have on a man's rating of his sexual esteem, given that participants may already be experiencing increased feelings of anger and hostility after exposure. Having this knowledge can provide crucial information regarding how men interact with romantic partners following exposure to such images. In other words, the ecological value of this information can be quite valuable in understanding the dynamics between couples.

Sexual Self-Esteem

Sexual esteem is a relatively new term, and little research has been conducted to date utilizing this concept. Furthermore, few test instruments have been developed to measure this construct. One such instrument was developed by Snell and Papini (1989), titled the Sexuality Scale, which measures the domains of "sexual-esteem, (the dispositional tendency to evaluate positively one's capacity to relate sexually to others), sexual-depression, (the chronic tendency to feel depressed about the sexual aspects of one's life, and sexual-preoccupation, (the persistent tendency to be absorbed and obsessed with sexual matters)" (p.261). Interestingly, a strong, positive relationship has been found between sexual esteem and femininity in men (Kelly & Erickson, 2007). Essentially, men who do not adhere to traditional male gender roles may be more able to communicate their feelings and needs to their partner, which is hypothesized to play a role in their level of sexual esteem. In other words, an individual low on gender role conflict should possess higher levels of sexual esteem. Research conducted by Snell (1992) utilizing the Sexuality Scale, found that sexual esteem was negatively correlated with heterosexual anxiety, sex-anxiety, and sex-guilt. Furthermore, positive correlations were found between the sexual-depression subscale and heterosexual anxiety, as well as clinical depression. As a consideration

for future research, the authors suggest that it may be beneficial to study the "developmental antecedents and consequences of [the latter] sexual tendencies" (Snell, 1992, p. 271).

Media and Sexual Self-Esteem

Research does suggest that the media has a significant negative impact on male self-esteem and body satisfaction. Furthermore, recent research has begun to assess the myriad of variables that may affect male sexual esteem. For instance, the relationship between male body image, a variable hypothesized to affect sexual esteem, and men's perceived sexual efficacy and attractiveness, was investigated by Filiault (2007). The study was conducted utilizing a sample of 105 male undergraduates recruited using an online recruitment system. Participation in the study required the completion of a pen-and-paper survey packet that included a number of different scales, including the *Sexual Body Efficacy and Attractiveness Scale* (SBEAS), and the *Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale.* The SBEAS is a 10-item questionnaire designed to measure participants' perceived efficacy as lovers, willingness to engage in various sexual activities, perceived attractiveness of their body during sex, and overall satisfaction with their sex lives. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale is a measure of global self-esteem. Demographic data assessing the participants' number of sexual partners, age at first sexual encounter, first masturbatory experience, religious affiliation, as well as height and weight was also gathered. Lastly, the *Somatomorphic Matrix* was administered, which is a computer-based program assessing perceived muscular inadequacy and perceived "over-fatness." The results of Filiault's (2007) study suggested " dissatisfaction with one's current level of muscle correlates significantly with a man's sense of sexual ability" (p. 135). In addition, the authors found that dissatisfaction with one's body, in relation to muscle and thinness levels, had a negative effect on men's overall sense of self, which was supported by a reported negative effect of the latter variables on global

self-esteem.

The purpose of this study here is to extend the aforementioned analysis by investigating the possible relationships between exposure to idealized images of muscular men and college-aged males' sexual esteem. It is hypothesized that exposure to objectified and idealized images of men and women could have a detrimental effect on male sexual self-esteem. To date, a paucity of research exists aimed at studying the effect that viewing images of objectified, idealized images of males and females has on male sexual esteem. Still, some researchers have begun to investigate sexual esteem in relation to certain types of media, such as pornography.

Morrison, Ellis, Morrison, Bearden, and Harriman (2006) examined the effect that exposure to pornography, or sexually explicit material, had on male college students' body esteem, sexual esteem, and attitudes towards one's own genitals. The young male students were provided with a questionnaire that included the *Body Image Scale*, *Male Genital Image Scale*, *Pornographic Magazine Checklist* and the *Sexual Esteem Scale*. The authors found that sexual esteem correlated negatively with exposure to internet pornography. Moreover, the results of the study indicated that level of exposure to sexually explicit material correlated inversely with genital esteem and "those who reported greater exposure to pornographic material on the internet evidenced lower levels of sexual esteem (Morrison et al., 2006, p. 218). In other words, sexual esteem, as well as satisfaction with one's genitals, is negatively affected by exposure to pornography.

Pornography clearly portrays males and females in objectified roles, and depicts actors that adhere to "idealized body images." It is hypothesized that magazine advertisements also place individuals in objectified roles as well, albeit not to the extent that pornography does. Would these types of magazine advertisements have a similarly detrimental effect on sexual

esteem? Can a form of media as mainstream, and oftentimes subtle, as a magazine advertisement be shown to negatively effect male sexual esteem and, if so, would such a relationship be affected by a variable such as gender role conflict or conformity to masculine norms? An admitted limitation of the aforementioned study, conducted Morrison et al. (2006), was the correlational nature of the analysis, thus the design did not allow for causal inferences regarding the effect that exposure to pornography had on sexual esteem The authors suggest that other constructs should be assessed in future studies, such as self-esteem and level of confidence with one's body.

The role of body-consciousness as a covariate between exposure to sexually objectifying media, such as television and magazines, and the variables of negative body emotions and sexual dysfunction was investigated by Aubrey (2007). During this study, a sample of 384 undergraduates were administered a questionnaire which assessed a number of variables: amount of exposure to sexually objectifying media, amount of body-self consciousness and negative body emotions, such as shame and sexual self-perceptions. In addition, global self-esteem and level of sexual experience were also measured. The results of the study indicated that exposure to sexually objectifying television and magazines was positively correlated with body surveillance and trait self-objectification. Furthermore, body surveillance and self-objectification were also found to be correlated with amount of body shame and appearance anxiety. Surprisingly, exposure to sexually objectifying television and magazines was not correlated with sexual esteem, as measured by the Sexuality Scale. Trait self-objectification and body surveillance were also not found to be related to sexual esteem. Lastly, it was found that the correlation between exposure to sexually objectifying magazines and body surveillance was stronger in men than women.

Aubrey (2007) delineated a number of limitations inherent within the study, which also seem to be limitations that are evident within studies investigating related topics, utilizing similar experimental designs and procedures. Essentially, the limitations lie in the correlational nature of the study, wherein causal claims cannot be made (Aubrey, 2007). Aubrey suggests that future research should aim to conduct experimental studies which measure the impact of sexually objectifying media on constructs such as self-consciousness; Aubrey also emphasizes the need to manipulate variables within the study. Lastly, Aubrey suggests exploration of other possible moderators between exposure to objectifying images and sexuality. The goal of the current study will be to expand and improve upon Aubrey's research through the analysis of the immediate effect of exposure to objectifying media on sexual esteem, while concurrently measuring the degree of gender role conflict present in the participant, as well as the extent to which the participant conforms to masculine norms.

Purpose

Overall, very little research has been conducted assessing the effect of media advertisements on gender role stress, body image, and especially sexual esteem in men, the latter being the focus of the current study (Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2009; Mussap, 2008). The purpose of the present study is to explore the effect that exposure to media images of objectified male and female images has on male sexual esteem and global self-esteem. In addition, the amount of gender role conflict and level of conformity to masculine norms present in the male subjects will also be investigated utilizing the Gender Role Conflict Scale and the Conformity To Masculine Norms Inventory. This study aims to contribute to existing literature by evaluating the immediate effect of objectified male images and female images on sexual esteem, in addition to global self-esteem. As the literature suggests, elevated gender role conflict may directly impact

men's susceptibility to media images, especially in the areas of body image and self-esteem. Hobza, Walker, Yakushko, and Peugh (2007) postulate that gender role conflict "may be an important factor to consider when examining media's negative effects on men" and that "elevated levels of gender role conflict may directly impact men's susceptibility to media images" (p. 169). Overall, this study is designed to investigate the relationship between sexual esteem, global self-esteem, gender role conflict, and conformity to masculine norms, in relation to exposure to objectified images of males and females.

Clinical Significance of the Problem

The issue of the relationship between exposure to objectified images, sexual self-esteem, gender-role conflict, and conformity to masculine norms, is quite relevant from a clinical standpoint, yet has not been widely assessed in the literature. For instance, when conducting psychotherapy with a male client, it is beneficial for the clinician to assess the amount of gender role conflict the client is currently experiencing. It is possible that the client's symptoms of depression or anxiety may be associated with a failure to behave or think in ways that are consistent with cultural norms of masculinity, many of which could have been internalized through media exposure. Furthermore, men with high levels of gender role conflict have been found to report higher levels of alcohol-related problems than those with low gender role conflict (Blazina & Watkins, 1990; McCreary et al., 1999). Additionally, it is important for clinicians to understand clients' levels of adherence to masculine norms, and how this may relate to any gender role conflict that client may be experiencing.

Considering the fact that the media has such a significant impact on how men see themselves in the world, it is important for research to analyze the effects of different types of media advertisements on men's sense-of-self, such as how men respond to objectified images of

males and females, in addition to how these advertisements affect different domains of psychological health. The domain of male sexual esteem has not received a great deal of attention in the literature, and it is hypothesized that there is a relationship between gender role conflict, conformity to masculine norms, and sexual esteem. For example, a positive relationship has been found between sexual esteem and femininity in men (Kelly & Erickson, 2007) The latter statement seems to suggest that men who do not adhere to traditional male gender roles may be more able to communicate their feelings and needs to their partner, which is hypothesized to play a role in males' levels of sexual esteem.

The relationship between gender role conflict and sexual esteem could serve as an important factor when conducting therapy with male clients. For instance, if a man presents in therapy with sexual concerns, which could be related to depression or anxiety, the clinician may be able to improve the client's symptoms by exploring the presence of different facets of gender role conflict, especially Factor 2 on the Gender Role Conflict Scale (Restrictive emotionality), and possibly Factor 3 (Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men). Snell, Fisher, and Schuh (2001) found that sexual-esteem was negatively correlated with heterosexual anxiety and anxiety related to sexual activity. Thus, exploring and modifying rigidly held beliefs regarding emotional expression, and overall issues related with masculine gender role stress, may serve to relieve the pressure related to sexual performance and sexual competence standards.

The relationship between level of global self-esteem, sexual esteem, level of gender role conflict, and adherence to masculine norms, should all be considered when analyzing men's susceptibility to objectified media images. Specifically, this study will focus on the relationship between exposure to these images, and the detrimental effect they may have on sexual self-esteem and global self-esteem. In addition, gender role conflict and conformity to masculine

norms will be investigated as possible covariates, which affect the extent to which individuals are negatively affected by the images.

Research Questions

1. What are the effects of exposure to objectified images of males on male college students' sexual esteem and overall self-esteem?

2. What are the effects of exposure to objectified images of females on male college students' sexual esteem and overall self-esteem?

3. What is the relationship between the effect of exposure to objectified images of males and females on male sexual self-esteem and overall self-esteem when considering the degree of gender role conflict present in the participant, as well as the extent to which the participant adheres to masculine norms?

4. Is there a correlation between gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms?

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

Participants

Ninety male participants were recruited from the subject pool at a mid-size University in the eastern United Sates. By taking part in this study, the students fulfilled the General Psychology 101 course requirement related to subject pool participation. Participants were identified using a specific code number comprised of their age, birth year, and first two letters of their home street address, which also allowed researchers to match the participants' pre-test results with the data obtained from the present study.

Stimulus Materials

The stimulus materials presented in this study contained images similar to those used in a study conducted by Johnson, McCreary, and Mills (2007). There were a total of three magazine advertisement conditions: objectified/idealized images of males (Condition 1), objectified/idealized images of women (Condition 2), and neutral images, (Condition 3). Magazine ads in the objectified/idealized male image condition were taken from magazines such as *Men's Health, GQ,* and *Men's Journal*. Advertisements in the objectified/idealized female image condition were taken from numerous fashion magazines, such as *Vanity Fair*, *Vogue*, and *Shape Magazine*. Advertisements included in the male condition (Appendix A) depicted objectified images of men with lean, muscular physiques. Advertisements included in the female condition (Appendix B) also depicted women in objectified roles, in addition to depicting women whose bodies conform to the "feminine ideal" (i.e., slender and attractive). Advertisements included in the image-neutral condition (Appendix C) consisted of simple household products, or foods, taken from magazines such as *Good Housekeeping*. The specific

nature of the advertisement was blurred out using a photo shop computer program, so as to not contaminate participants' perceptions of the image with any reactions the participant may have to the actual product being endorsed. The images were presented utilizing the Qualtrics system, with each image appearing on the computer screen with five questions about the image appearing directly below the image. The duration of exposure to the image was dependent upon how long it took participants to answer the five questions.

Instruments

The Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS-I; O'Neil, et al., 1986) is a 37-item questionnaire used to assess the level of gender role restrictions in men (O'Neil, 2008). Items are rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree, 6= strongly agree); higher scores suggest more gender role conflict. The scale is made up of four factors: *Success, Power and Competition* (10 items; e.g., "I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man"), *Restrictive Emotionality* (10 items; e.g., "Talking about my feelings during sexual relations is difficult for me"), *Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men* (8 items; e.g., "Hugging other men is difficult for me"), and *Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations* (6 items; e.g., "Finding time to relax is difficult for me"). A total GRCS score can be ascertained by adding the total scores from the four subscales (O'Neil et al., 1995). The internal reliability estimates for college students have ranged from .70-.89 utilizing Cronbach's Alpha. Over a 4-week period, test-retest reliability has been found to range from .78-.88 for the subscales (Good, Dell, & Mintz, 1989). Correlational data indicates good convergent and discriminant validity, as well as good construct validity (O'Neil, 2008). Refer to Appendix D.

The Sexuality Scale (Snell & Papini, 1989) is a 30-item self-report questionnaire measuring three different domains of human sexuality: *sexual esteem* (10 items; e.g., "I

sometimes have doubts about my sexual competence"), *sexual depression* (10 items; e.g., "I feel down about my sex life"), and *sexual preoccupation* (10 items, e.g., "I think about sex a great deal of the time"). Items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale (-2 = Disagree, +2 = Agree). The sexual-esteem subscale will be utilized for the purposes of this study. In men, the alpha for the sexual-esteem scale was found to be .93, .79 for the sexual pre-occupation scale, and .94 for the sexual depression scale (Snell & Papini, 1989). Regarding the validity of the scales, good factorial validity has been found in support of the independence of the three measures (Snell & Papini, 1989). Refer to Appendix E.

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) is a 10-item questionnaire measuring global self-esteem, which is "the individual's positive or negative attitude toward the self as a totality" (Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995, p. 1410). Items are rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree, 4= strongly agree). Scores are tabulated by summing the responses of the 10 items, where higher scores indicate higher amounts of self-esteem. Sample items include, "I feel that I have a number of good qualities" and "I certainly feel useless at times." Internal consistency estimates range from .72-.88 (Byrne, 1996). After a two-week interval, test-retest correlations with 28 participants were found to be .85 (Silber & Tippett, 1965). Good convergent and discriminant validity has also been supported by the literature (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). Refer to Appendix F.

The Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI; Mahalik et al., 2003) is a 94-item measure that assesses different feelings and behaviors associated with masculine norms. Items are rated on a 4-point Likert scale (0 = strongly disagree, 3 = strongly agree). The items generate 11 subscales (*winning, emotional control, risk-taking, violence, power over women, dominance, playboy, self-reliance, primacy of work, disdain for homosexuality, and pursuit of status*) as well

as a total score. Higher scores suggest feelings and behaviors consistent with traditional masculinity norms. Internal consistency estimates range from .75-.91 (Mahalik et al., 2003). Following a two-week interval, test-retest correlation was calculated at .95 for the CMNI total score, and was found to range from .76-.90 for the CMNI subscales. Refer to Appendix G.

Statistical Methods

Data was initially analyzed at the descriptive level. Means and standard deviations were calculated for the Gender Role Conflict Scale, Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory, the sexual esteem subscale of the Sexuality Scale, and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Skewness and kurtosis data were also calculated in order to assess the assumption of normality. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was then utilized to analyze the relationship between exposure to objectified images of males and females on male sexual esteem and global self-esteem.

Next, Pearson's *r* was calculated in order to assess whether a correlation existed between the scores of the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI) and the Sexual Esteem Scale, as well as between the CMNI scores and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale. In addition, Pearson's *r* was calculated in order to assess whether a correlation existed between the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) scores and the Sexual Esteem Scale, as well as between the GRCS scores and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale. Finally, Pearson's *r* was calculated in order to assess whether a correlation existed between Gender Role Conflict Scale scores and scores on the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory, after which exploratory analyses were conducted utilizing an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Fisher's least significant difference post-hoc test in order to gain more detailed information about the relationship between GRCS scores and CMNI scores.

Design and Procedures

The Gender Role Conflict Scale was administered as a pre-test measure. This measure was included as part of a standard questionnaire packet administered to all freshmen at the beginning of each semester. The administration of this measure as a pre-test ensured that the sensitive construct of gender role conflict remained unaffected by exposure to the images

The male participants were contacted via telephone or email to schedule a time to take part in the study. The study consisted of a three-condition between groups design. The procedure employed by this study was adapted from a similar experimental method utilized by Mills et al. (2002). The current study was conducted with small groups comprised of 10-15 men in each testing session. As part of the cover story, the experiment was presented to students as a market research study assessing advertising images. When the students arrived, they were asked to sign the informed consent, and were informed that they were participating in a study investigating the effectiveness of specific advertisements. The men were also informed that their names would not be used in the study, and that they had the option of withdrawing from the study at any point in time. They were then provided with an informed consent form (Appendix H). Prior to being exposed to the images, the participants were asked to fill out the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory Scale on the Qualtrics computer system. They were informed that the researcher was hoping to gather information regarding participants' attitudes towards masculinity prior to exposing them to the images. Utilizing the Qualtrics computer system, the Sexuality Scale and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale were administered immediately following exposure to the images. Questions regarding demographic information were also included, such as age, gender, sexual orientation, educational level, race and marital status.

Participants were randomly assigned to one of the three image conditions (males, females, neutral images) based on the order in which they arrived to the study. Participants were then exposed to 10 advertisements, displayed on the computer-based Qualtrics system, depending on the group to which they have been randomly assigned. The participants were asked to complete a modified version of The Consumer Response Questionnaire (Appendix I) after viewing each image, adapted from the Mills et al. (2002) study, in order to rate the effectiveness of the advertisements. The original Consumer Response Questionnaire is a 9-point Likert scale, which asks the participant to measure: "overall attractiveness of the ad, the attractiveness of the model in the ad (if applicable, the extent to which they see themselves as being similar to the model in the ad (if applicable), the effectiveness of the ad in making them want to buy the advertised product, the age group to which they think the ad would appeal, and how good the ad made them feel" (Mills et al., 2002, p. 1690.) For the purposes of the current study, the scale was modified to a 5-point Likert scale (1=very unattractive, 5=very attractive). Item 4 ("please rate the effectiveness of the advertisement in making you want to buy the advertised product") was removed, as only the image associated with the advertisement was presented. It was thought that having participants complete this questionnaire after viewing each individual advertisement would serve to keep them focused on the advertisement, as well also maintain the validity and integrity of the cover story. After the participants viewed and rated all of the advertisements, the Qualtrics system then displayed the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, followed by the Sexuality Scale. After students completed the assessments, they were provided with a written debriefing form explaining the focus and goals of the study (Appendix J).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Ninety male college students participated in the current study, which investigated the effects of exposure to objectified images of males and females on male self-esteem and sexual esteem. The study also considered participants' levels of gender role conflict and level of conformity to masculine norms as possible covariates which could increase the strength of the effect that exposure to the images would have on their self-esteem and sexual esteem. Demographic data were gathered at both pre-test and during participation in the study. The Gender Role Conflict Scale was included as part of a standard questionnaire packet administered to 341 male freshmen at the beginning of the semester, 90 of whom participated in the current study. The majority of the participants ranged from 17-24 years of age, and most identified as freshman or sophomores. As shown in Table 1, an overwhelming majority of the participants identified as white/ Caucasian and single; all participants identified as heterosexual.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Participants (N = 90)

Characteristic	n	%
Age		
17-19	61	67.8
20-24	26	28.9
25-34	3	3.3
Education		
Freshman	59	65.6

Table 1 Continued

Characteristic	n	%
Education		
Sophomore	20	22.2
Junior	9	10.0
Senior	2	2.2
Marital Status		
Single, never married	82	91.1
Married with children	1	1.1
Living with partner	7	7.8
Race		
White/ Caucasian	81	90
African-American	3	3.3
Hispanic	2	2.2
Asian	1	1.1
Other	3	3.3
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	90	100.00

Descriptive data indicated that the mean score of the Conformity to Male Norms Inventory (CMNI) for all respondents (n= 90) was 142.22 (SD= 24.417). See figure 1. The mean and standard deviation of the CMNI that were found in the current study are consistent with normative data reported in other studies. For instance, Mahalik and colleagues (2003)

administered the CMNI to 997 men and found the total mean score to be 134.45 (SD=24.64). It is important to note that item 94 was missing from the final data set for all respondents due to computer error. As a result, the total score for the dominance subscale of the CMNI was not comparable to other data. Refer to Appendix L for Consumer Response Questionnaire data.

Due to difficulties in matching the respondents of the current study with those that took the pretest, only 75 out of 90 Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) scores were matched with the identities of the individuals that participated in the current study. The mean score of the Gender Role Conflict Scale for all respondents (n=75) was 164.01 (SD= 20.248). Refer to figure 2. Interestingly, the mean score of the GRCS for participants in the current study was significantly higher (in most cases greater than 1 standard deviation) than the means reported in the literature for college males, which generally ranges from 131.77 to 147.10 (Good and Wood, 1995; Rochlen & O'Brien, 2002). The standard deviation found in the current study remained consistent with other normative data reported in the literature (Cohn & Zeichner, 2006).

The mean score of the Sexual Esteem Scale for all respondents (n= 90) was 7.57 (SD=5.270). Refer to figure 3. This data is also consistent with the normative data found in the literature for the sexual esteem scale. For instance, mean normative data for undergraduate males has been reported to range from 7.21 to 8.00, while standard deviations range from 7.17-7.77 (Snell, W.E., Fisher, T.D., & Schuh, T., 1992).

The mean score of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) for all respondents (n=90) was 16.67 (SD=3.259). Refer to figure 4. Unfortunately, items 1 and 4 of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale were missing from the data set for all of the respondents due to computer error, thus only allowing for the analysis of 8 out of 10 items. In order to assure that the scale was internally consistent without items 1 and 4, Cronbach's alpha was calculated, which equaled

.743, suggesting that the internal consistency of the scale was acceptable. No substantial increases in alpha could have been achieved by eliminating other items. Due to the fact that two items were missing from the scale, it is not possible to compare means of the RSES with normative data found in the literature.

Skewness and kurtosis data indicated that the assumption of normality was met for the total scores of the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory and the Gender Role Conflict Scale, as well as subscale scores. Table 2 depicts the subscale scores for the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory and the Gender Role Conflict Scale Scores.

Table 2

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory and Gender Role Conflict Scale (N = 90)

Characteristic	M	SD
Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory	142.22	24.417
Winning	17.17	4.185
Emotional Control	16.97	5.652
Risk-Taking	16.66	3.442
Violence	13.90	4.189
Power Over Women	10.28	4.059
Dominance	4.74	1.277
Playboy	14.08	6.540

Table 2 Continued

Characteristic	M	SD
Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory		
Self-Reliance	7.49	3.077
Primacy of Work	10.24	2.900
Disdain for Homosexuality	19.27	5.054
Pursuit of status	11.43	2.167
Gender Role Conflict Scale	164.01	20.248
Success, Power, Competition	51.96	9.044
Restrictive emotionality	31.24	8.498
Restrictive Affectionate behavior Between Men	29.28	8.417
Conflicts Between Work and Leisure- Family Relations	19.81	5.915

Results of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1 one stated that a multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) would show that participants in Group 1, comprised of those exposed to objectified images of males, would have significantly lower scores on both the Sexual Esteem subscale of the Sexuality Scale and the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale, when compared to participants in Group 3, comprised of individuals exposed to neutral images.

Results showed that in the Group 1 "male images condition," the mean score of the Sexual Esteem scale was 7.53 (SD= 5.355), while the mean score of the Sexual Esteem Scale for the Group 3 "neutral images condition" was 7.47 (SD=4.71). Results also indicated that the mean score of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for the Group 1 "male images condition" was 17.13

(SD= 2.874), while the Group 3 "neutral images condition" mean score on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale was 16 (SD=3.151) A one-way MANOVA did not yield statistically significant results, Wilks' Lambda= .963, ($F(2,57)=1.105.$, $p=.338$). Thus, hypothesis 1 was not confirmed. Tests of between subjects effects indicated that significant univariate main effects were not found for the Sexual Esteem scale ($F(1,58)=.003$, $p=.959$) or the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale ($F(1,58)=2.119$, $p=.151$). Tables 3 and 4 detail these findings.

Table 3

Multivariate Tests- Wilk's Lambda

Effect	Value	F	DF	DFerror	Sig. (p)
Group 1 x 3	.963	1.105	2	57	.338

Table 4

Univariate Follow-Up tests

Source	Dependent Variables	MS	Df	F	Sig. (p)
Group 1 x 3	Sexual Esteem Scale	.067	1	.003	.959
	Rosenberg Self-Esteem	19.267	1	2.119	.151

Hypothesis 2 predicted that a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) would also show that participants in Group 2, comprised of those exposed to female images, would have significantly lower scores on both the Sexual Esteem subscale of the Sexuality Scale and the Rosenberg Self Esteem scale, when compared to the Group 3 "neutral images" condition.

Results show that in the Group 2 "female images condition", the mean score of the Sexual Esteem scale was 7.60 (SD= 5.276),while the mean score of the Sexual Esteem scale in the Group 3 "neutral images condition" was 7.47 (SD= 4.71), Results also indicate that the

Group 2 "female images condition" mean score on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was 16.87 (SD= 3.060), while the mean score on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale for Group 3 "Neutral Images" was 16.00 (SD=3.151). A one-way MANOVA did not yield statistically significant results, Wilks' Lambda=.980, ($F(2,57)=.594$, $p=.556$), thus hypothesis 2 was not confirmed. Tests of between subjects effects indicated that significant univariate main effects were not found for the Sexual Esteem scale ($F(1,58)=.011$, $p=.918$) or the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale ($F(1,58)=1.168$, $p=.284$). Tables 5 and 6 detail these findings.

Table 5

Multivariate Tests- Wilk's Lambda

Effect	Value	F	DF	DFerror	Sig. (p)
Group 2 x 3	.980	.594	2	57	.556

Table 6

Univariate Follow-Up tests

Source	Dependent Variables	MS	Df	F	Sig. (p)
Group 2 x 3	Sexual Esteem Scale	.267	1	.011	.918
	Rosenberg Self-Esteem	19.267	1	1.168	.284

Hypothesis 3 predicted that a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) would show that sexual-esteem, as measured by the Sexual Esteem subscale of the Sexuality Scale, and self-esteem, as measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale, would decrease after exposure to objectified images of males and females, especially when gender role conflict and/ or conformity to masculine norms (covariates) were found to be high. In other words, it was hypothesized that

the negative effect of the objectified images on self-esteem and sexual esteem would be even greater when gender role conflict and/or conformity to masculine norms were found to be elevated.

Prior to conducting the MANCOVA, Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated between the covariates of gender role conflict/ conformity to masculine norms and the dependent variables of Sexual Esteem and Self-Esteem, in order to assure that correlations existed between the covariates and dependent variables. When discussing assumptions that must be met in order to conduct a MANCOVA, Grimm and Yarnold (1995) assert that a covariate should only be used if there is a statistically significant linear relationship between the covariate and the dependent measures, which can be tested with a simple correlation between the covariate and each dependent measure.

Data indicated that a significant correlation was not observed between the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI) and the Sexual Esteem Scale or between the CMNI and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale. Moreover, no significant correlation was found between the Gender Role Conflict Scale and the Sexual Esteem Scale, or between the Gender Role Conflict Scale and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Conducting a MANCOVA without correlations existing among the covariates and dependent variables would have violated a fundamental assumption of the MANCOVA, thus the analysis was not conducted.

There were, however, some interesting correlations found between the subscales of certain measures. For instance, a significant positive correlation was found between scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale and the *Winning* subscale of the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (p= .035). Moreover, a significant negative correlation was found between the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and the *Self-Reliance* subscale of the CMNI (p= .020). Finally, a

significant positive correlation was found between the Sexual Esteem Scale and the *Disdain for Homosexuals* subscale of the CMNI (p=.002). Refer to table 7 for correlations among total scores and refer to Table 8 for subscale correlations.

Table 7

Correlations Between Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory, Gender Role Conflict Scale, Sexual Esteem Scale, and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

Measure	SES Total	RSES Total
CMNI Total	.185	.066
GRCS Total	-.137	-.073

Note: CMNI= Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory; GRCS= Gender Role Conflict Scale; SES=Sexual Esteem Scale; RSES= Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

Table 8

Correlations between CMNI/GRCS subscales and SES/RSES Total Scores

Scale	SES	RSES
CMNI		
Winning	.132	.223*
Emotional Control	-.092	-.072
Risk-Taking	.093	.042
Violence	.194	.202
Power Over Women	.142	.137
Dominance	.136	.076
Playboy	.196	-.149
Self-Reliance	-.042	-.297*

Table 8 Continued

Scale	SES	RSES
Primacy of Work	.115	.161
Disdain for Homosexuality	.397**	.294
Pursuit of Status	.131	.150
GRCS		
Success, Power, Competition	-.086	-.044
Restrictive emotionality	-.133	-.096
Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men	-.004	.027
Conflicts Between Work and Leisure	-.131	-.084

Note. Note: CMNI= Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory; GRCS= Gender Role Conflict Scale; SES=Sexu Esteem Scale; RSES= Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale
** $p< 0.01$
* $p < 0.05$

Hypothesis 4 predicted that gender role conflict, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS), and conformity to masculine norms, as measured by the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI), would be positively correlated. Results indicate that hypothesis 4 was confirmed; a moderate-sized correlation was found to exist between these two measures (r= .29, p =.012)

Following examination of hypothesis 4, exploratory correlations were then scrutinized utilizing a correlational matrix of the sub-scales. Refer to correlations in table 9. The subscale of *Power over Women* on the CMNI was found to correlate positively with the *Restrictive Emotionality* subscale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale (p=.01). The CMNI *Winning* subscale also correlated positively with the *Success, Power, Competition* subscale of the GRCS (p=.022),

while the *Emotional Control* subscale of the CMNI correlated positively with the *Restrictive Emotionality* subscale of the GRCS (p=.013). Also, the *Emotional Control* subscale of the CMNI correlated positively with the *Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men* subscale of the GRCS (p=.012). The CMNI *Self-Reliance* subscale was found to correlate positively with the GRCS *Success, Power, Competition* subscale (p=.043), the *Restrictive Emotionality* subscale (p=.037), and the *Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men* subscale (p=.003). The CMNI *Disdain For Homosexuality* subscale was found to correlate positively with the *Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men* subscale of the GRCS (p=.001). Finally, the *Pursuit of Status* subscale of the CMNI was found to correlate positively with the *Success, Power, Competition* subscale of the GRCS (p=.001). Refer to Table 9.

Table 9

Correlations between CMNI and GRCS Subscales

Scale	SPC	RE	RAM	CBWF
CMNI				
Winning	.264*	.042	.133	-.016
Emotional Control	.047	.284(*)	.290(*)	-.182
Risk-Taking	178	.124	.036	-.057
Violence	.074	.162	.127	-.083
Power Over Women	.064	.296(**)	.139	-.075
Dominance	.155	.081	.055	.168
Playboy	.077	.104	.021	-.050

Table 9 Continued

Scale	SPC	RE	RAM	CBWF
Self-Reliance	.235*	.241*	.335**	.033
Primacy of Work	.119	-.049	.069	.175
Disdain for Homosexuality	.026	.218	.371**	-.008
Pursuit of Status	.367**	.012	.049	-.148

Note: SPC=Success, Power, Competition; RE= Restrictive Emotionality; RAM= Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CBWF= Conflict Between Work and Family; CMNI= Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory; GRCS= Gender Role Conflict Scale
** $p < 0.01$
* $p < 0.05$

Due to the fact that a positive correlation was found between the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) and the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI), analyses were conducted in order to gather more specific information about this correlation. The CMNI scores that included corresponding GRCS scores were divided into three groups: low CMNI scores (131 and below, n=24), medium CMNI scores (133-149, n=24), and high CMNI scores (152 and above, n=27). Then, the mean GRCS score was calculated for each group. The mean GRCS score for group 1 was 155.04 (SD= 19.284), while the mean GRCS score for group 2 was 165.79 (SD= 18.769), and finally the mean GRCS score for group 3 was 170.41 (SD= 20.165). It appeared that the higher a participant's level of conformity to masculine norms, the higher his GRCS score.

After finding that the groups differed on their average GRCS score, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted in order to ascertain whether or not the differences between the mean GRCS score of each of the 3 groups was significant. The ANOVA results indicated that there was a significant difference between at least 1 of the 3 groups based on their GRCS score ($F(2, 74) = 4.114$, $p=.020$). Fisher's least significant difference test (LSD) was then utilized

in order to analyze specific differences among the GRCS means of the 3 groups. A significant difference was found between group 1 (CMNI scores 131 and below) and group 3 (CMNI scores above 152). In order to ascertain the size of the effect between group 1 and 3, Cohen's d was calculated, and was found to equal .78, indicting an effect size bordering on large. Results of the LSD test further indicated that a difference bordering on significant was found between group 1 and group 2 (CMNI scores 133-149). Cohen's d was again calculated and was found to equal .56, indicating a moderate effect size between the groups. Refer to tables 10 and 11.

Table 10 *Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)*

GRCS Total	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)
Between groups	3111.551	2	1555.776	4.114	.020
Within Groups	27227.435	72	378.159		
Total	30330.987	74			

Note: GRCS=Gender Role Conflict Scale, DF= Degrees of Freedom, Sig.= Significance

Table 11 *Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test Between Mean GRCS Scores for Groups 1-3 (Post Hoc Test)*

Group	vs. Group	MD	Std. Error	Sig. (p)	95% CI		Cohen's d
					LB	UB	
1	2	-10.750	5.61	.059	-.21.94	.44	.56
	3	-15.366	5.46	.006*	-26.24	-4.49	.78
2	1	10.750	5.61	.059	-.44	21.94	.56
	3	-4.616	5.46	.400	-15.49	6.26	.24
3	1	15.366	5.46	.006*	4.49	26.24	.78
	2	4.616	5.46	.400	-6.26	15.49	.24

Note: MD=Mean Difference, Std. error= Standard Error, Sig. = Significance, CI= Confidence Internal, LB= Lower Bound, UB= Upper Bound, * $p < .01$

Conclusion

In summary, there was no evidence to support hypotheses 1, 2, and 3, while evidence was found in support of hypothesis 4. Results of this study concluded that exposure to objectified images of males and females did not have a negative effect on participants' overall self-esteem or sexual esteem. Results also indicated that no correlation was found to exist between the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI) and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, or the Sexual Esteem Scale. Furthermore, no correlation was found to exist between the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, or the Sexual Esteem scale. Originally, A MANCOVA was to be calculated in order to analyze the effects of gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms as covariates. However, a MANCOVA was not calculated due the fact that no correlations were found among the covariates of gender role conflict/ conformity to male norms and the dependent measures of sexual esteem and self-esteem, thus violating one of the major assumptions of a MANCOVA.

Results did indicate that a positive relationship existed between gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms, which is consistent with findings in the literature. Furthermore, an ANOVA, and follow up post-hoc tests, indicated that the GRCS scores of those with lower CMNI scores differed significantly from the GRCS scores of those with higher CMNI scores, suggesting that those who adhere more strongly to traditional masculine norms also experience high levels of gender role conflict, while those who adhere less to traditional masculine norms tend to experience average levels of gender role conflict.

Additionally, exploratory findings concluded that the *Power over Women* subscale of the CMNI was found to correlate positively with the *Restrictive Emotionality* subscale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS), while the *Winning* subscale of the CMNI also correlated positively

with the *Success, Power, Competition* subscale of the GRCS. Moreover, a significant negative correlation was found between the *Self-Reliance* subscale of the CMNI and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, in addition to a significant positive correlation observed between the *Disdain for Homosexuals* subscale of the CMNI and the Sexual Esteem Scale. The CMNI *Disdain For Homosexuality* subscale was also found to correlate positively with the *Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men* subscale of the GRCS, while the *Pursuit of Status* subscale of the CMNI was found to correlate positively with the *Success, Power, and Competition* subscale of the GRCS. Furthermore, the *Emotional Control* subscale of the CMNI correlated positively with the *Restrictive Emotionality* subscale of the GRCS, as well as the *Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men* subscale of the GRCS. Finally, the CMNI *Self-Reliance* subscale was found to correlate positively with the *Success Power and Competition, Restrictive Emotionality,* and *Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men* subscales of the GRCS.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of exposure to objectified images of males and females on male sexual esteem and self-esteem. In addition, this study sought to explore the constructs of gender role conflict and level of conformity to masculine norms as covariates that could exacerbate the potential negative effects of exposure to objectified images. Finally, this study examined whether the levels of gender role conflict measured in participants would be found to correlate positively with participants' general adherence to male norms.

Contrary to expectations, the results of the study found that exposure to objectified images of males and females did not have a negative effect on participants' overall self-esteem or sexual esteem, which was inconsistent with the hypotheses of this study. However, this finding is important given that it is a replication of Aubrey's (2007) findings, which indicated that exposure to sexual objectification in television and magazines was not correlated with sexual esteem. Essentially, Aubrey's (2007) study conducted analyses of participants' media viewing habits and their responses on assessments such as the Sexual Esteem Scale. Aubrey's study suggested that future research should aim to conduct experimental studies measuring the impact of objectifying media on constructs such as self-consciousness and sexual esteem. Furthermore, the researcher emphasized the need to manipulate variables within the study. Having designed a study that addresses some of the limitations evident in Aubrey's study, it is important to note that the findings of Aubrey are confirmed here. The current study aimed to build upon those limitations through the manipulation of variables utilizing a randomized, experimental, between-groups design, assessing the effects of objectifying media on other constructs (i.e. self-esteem),

as well as by assessing how the covariates of gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms may affect the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Nonetheless, this current study came to conclusions similar to those found in the Aubrey (2007) study, ultimately indicating that male sexual esteem and self-esteem were not affected by exposure to objectified images of males and females.

Contrary to the latter findings found in Aubrey (2007), as well as in the current study, Morrison, Ellis, Morrison, Bearden, and Harriman (2006) found that sexual-esteem was, in fact, negatively affected by participants' self-reported amount of exposure to *pornographic* materials. The study conducted by Morrison and colleagues (2006) examined the effects of sexually explicit material on male student's sexual esteem by having college students fill out the *Pornographic Magazine Checklist* and the *Sexual Esteem Scale*, among other measures, and attempted to find correlations between the responses on the assessments. Although the researchers ultimately found that sexual esteem was lower in those who viewed more pornographic materials, the authors acknowledged many limitations inherent in the study. For instance, the authors stated that the data and findings were correlational and that variables were not changed or manipulated between groups. This study here sought to address and correct those limitations as well.

In the current study, the sexual esteem and self-esteem scores of three different groups of males were compared, with each group having been exposed to either objectified images of men, women, or neutral images. It is important to note that, clearly, the magazine advertisements utilized in this study were not as sexually graphic as those displayed in pornography, which could play a role in this study's finding that sexual esteem remained unaffected by exposure. Furthermore, these findings also indicate that prolonged exposure to images on a regular basis

may be required to produce the results found in the Morrison and colleagues (2006) study. Essentially, it is thought that the fact that individuals are often exposed to these types of media images over extended periods of time, often since childhood, may be more of a contributing factor to individuals' overall sexual esteem and self-esteem than the brief exposure that occurred during the current study. In other words, consistent exposure to objectified media images over a span of many years may cause more negative psychological effects than the limited exposure that occurred in this study. Future studies may aim to create prolonged exposure to objectified images by exposing participants to long commercials or scenes from movies, which may have a more "real world" applicability, thus increasing the external and ecological validity of the study. In addition, future studies may also aim to gather information about participants' media usage habits in order to gain a more thorough understanding of how self-reported, and self-selected, exposure to objectified images affects different aspects of an individual's psychological health.

The results of the current study also indicated that there was no correlation between participants' adherence to masculine norms and their levels of self-esteem or sexual esteem. This finding was somewhat surprising given literature suggesting that a strong, positive relationship exists between sexual esteem and femininity in men, indicating that men who do not adhere to traditional male gender roles may be more able to communicate their feelings and needs to their partner in a more "stereotypically female" manner. In general, level of emotional expression is hypothesized to play a role in men's levels of sexual esteem (Kelly & Erickson, 2007). Furthermore, the results of the current study found that no correlation existed between participants' levels of gender role conflict and their overall feelings of self-esteem, or sexual esteem. This latter finding has also not been supported in the literature, which has consistently found that positive self-esteem has been negatively correlated with gender role conflict scores

across five diverse groups, including White college American, Japanese, Korean, African – American, and Mexican men (O'Neil, p. 385). Regarding self-esteem and sexual esteem being unaffected by exposure to objectified images, it is possible that the constructs of sexual esteem and self-esteem are much more stable and deeply ingrained than what was previously thought, thus resulting in these constructs being relatively unaltered by brief exposure to objectified images.

A significant finding of this study indicated that a moderately positive correlation was found between gender role conflict and adherence to masculine norms, which has been supported in the literature (Mahalik et al., 2003). O'Neil (2008) notes that the convergent validity of the GRCS with other popular masculinity scales (i.e. the *Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale, Brannon Masculinity Scale, Masculine Role Norms Scale, Male Role Norm Inventory, Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory*) is moderately significant. The consistently moderate nature of the correlations suggests that gender role conflict is a different construct than conformity to masculine norms, which was a finding that was replicated in the current study as well. Overall, although both measures are assessing differing constructs, it does seem that men who adhere to traditional male norms, and are unable to realistically meet these standards, may experience some levels of gender role conflict.

Exploratory analyses, which were conducted to further explore the correlation between gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms, showed that individuals who greatly adhere to traditional masculine norms also experience high levels of gender role conflict, while those who place less importance on adhering to traditional masculine norms tend to experience average levels of gender role conflict. This finding highlights the negative psychological effects of conforming or adhering to typically masculine traits, such as pressure to be self-reliant, tendency to suppress one's emotions, experiencing pressure to win and be successful at all times,

as well as feeling pressure to appear dominant or in control of others. It seems as though individuals who adhere to male norms, especially those involving suppression of emotion or need for power, experience higher levels of gender role conflict, especially when they are unable to act in a manner that they perceive to be more "masculine," or if their inner experience is one that constantly strives to reach an ideal of masculinity that is unattainable.

A factor unique to this current study is the relatively high Gender Role Conflict Scale scores found among the participants, which was found to be 1 to 2 standard deviations higher than the means found in the literature for males. It is hypothesized that this finding could be attributed to the specific sample of college students measured. First, gender role conflict has been found to be significantly higher in younger, college-aged males than in older males, especially in the areas of restrictive affectionate behavior between men, and conflict over success, power, and competition (O'Neil, 2008). Furthermore, the sample of subjects that participated in the current study, the majority of which were Caucasian and heterosexual, were attending a college in a rural area of Pennsylvania. Research has found that "men who are less acculturated and who identify mainly with the dominant culture experience greater gender role conflict" (O'Neil, 2008). Although specific levels of acculturation, SES, and identification with the dominant culture were not assessed in the current study, it is hypothesized that these aspects may have played a role in the elevated Gender Role Conflict Scale scores of this particular sample. Future studies would benefit from taking into account factors related to SES and rural vs. metropolitan upbringing when assessing gender role conflict scores.

Worthy of note were some of the exploratory findings of the study, which pointed to a positive correlation between a number of the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI) subscales and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. For example, significant positive correlations

were found between scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and the *Winning* subscale of the CMNI, as well as the *Disdain for Homosexuals* subscale of the CMNI. The correlation between the latter subscales of the CMNI and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale may require future analysis, as there has been minimal research conducted exploring the relationship between these two constructs. Additionally, a negative correlation was observed between the *Self- Reliance* subscale of the CMNI and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale. This latter finding seems somewhat counterintuitive in that one would assume that the more self-reliant one is, the higher one's level of self-esteem would be. However, this study found an inverse relationship between the two constructs. It is possible that individuals who are more self-reliant tend to seek less help from others, thus suggesting that their overall levels of self-esteem and confidence are lacking, as evidenced by their inability to display vulnerability to others and ask for help. It is also possible that some men don't seek help because they are shy, introverted, or socially awkward, thus their tendency to be more self-reliant is a coping mechanism being used to deal with these other issues.

The finding of an inverse relationship between self-reliance and self-esteem was supported by Hammer and Good (2010), who investigated the beneficial effects of conforming to male norms in relation to constructs such as self-esteem, resilience, and satisfaction with life. The authors found a strong negative correlation between self-reliance and self-esteem. Ultimately, the authors suggested that high self-reliance may actually suggest low levels of autonomy, such that self-reliance implies a "conformity to the expectations of others rather than a demonstration of one's ability and inclination to chart a path independent of other's expectations" (Hammer & Good, 2010, p. 312). In other words, those with higher self-esteem may have more courage, a stronger sense-of self, and/ or more ego strength, which could, in

theory, increase their tendency to base their goals, and ideas related to success, on values and expectations that may not be consistent with some of the more constricting masculine gender role paradigms.

Limitations of This Study and Future Directions

There were some limitations inherent in this study that warrant discussion. First of all, due to errors in data gathering within the Qualtrics system, as well as experimenter error when entering the assessment measures into the Qualtrics system, data for specific items on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory were not able to be collected. Specifically, item 94 was missing from the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory, thus causing the total score for the *dominance* subscale to be inaccurate. Additionally, items 1 and 4 were missing from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Furthermore, there were some difficulties in matching the respondents of the current study with those that took the pretest, such that only 75 out of 90 Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) scores (pretest) were matched with the identities of individuals that participated in the main study. This problem resulted from difficulties in the assignment of the identifier code used to match individuals' pretest scores with their scores on the main study measures. This identifier code consisted of participants' age, birth year, and first two letters of their home street address. It was impossible to match some individuals' identifier codes with those provided during the pretest due to the fact that the codes were identical to the identifier codes of other participants. Additionally, some individuals provided *different* identifier codes during the pretest as compared to the main study. In general, this study may have benefited from utilizing a larger sample size and assigning more memorable, reliable identifier codes.

Another limitation of the study relates to the fairly homogenous sample of individuals who

participated in the study, comprised mostly of Caucasian, 17 to 19 year-old freshmen. As a result, variables related to race and ethnicity could not be assessed in the current study, which limits the generalizability of the results. Overall, the results of the study are mostly generalizable to white, college-aged males. As a result, future studies should aim to explore the effects of media on self-esteem and sexual esteem utilizing a cross-cultural sample.

The statistical reality that correlation does not imply causation highlights a significant limitation of this study. Although the correlations found between the Gender Role Conflict Scale and the Conformity to Masculine Norm Inventory (CMNI) were statistically significant, this correlation does not prove that conforming highly to masculine norms directly causes gender role conflict, or vice-versa. Furthermore, the correlations found between some of the subscales of the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale, although statistically significant, also do not imply causation. In other words, it is possible that other unexplored constructs may be responsible for the relationship between those variables. Specifically, elevated scores on the *winning* subscale of the CMNI may not necessarily be caused by high self-esteem. Future studies may also aim to further assess the relation between conformity to masculine norms and self-esteem in racially diverse populations.

The experimental design utilized in the study, wherein participants were exposed to ten magazine advertisements scanned into the Qualtrics system, may be considered another limitation of this study. It is possible that these images were not as powerful or realistic as advertisements displayed through television commercials in duration of exposure, intensity, and level of realism. A similar limitation was evident in a study conducted by Johnson, McCreary, and Mills (2007), which analyzed the effects of exposure to objectified images of males and females on men's

psychological well-being. The experimental design utilized in the Johnson (2007) study was recreated in the current study, thus causing similar limitations in the current study. It is possible than the participants in the current study may have been more resilient to the negative effects of limited exposure to the objectified images. Future studies may benefit from exposing participants to more prolonged exposure to the stimulus images. Another design-related limitation may have been caused by having the participants complete the Conformity to Male Norms Inventory (CMNI) immediately prior to exposing them to the stimulus images. This study design may have "primed" the participants to begin thinking about their level of masculinity prior to exposure to the images, which may have skewed their ability to answer honestly, especially if their sense of their own masculinity was challenged by completing the CMNI.

Another possible limitation related to the experimental stimuli utilized in this study consists of the fact that the stimuli chosen in this study were based on descriptions within the literature of what constitutes an objectified image (Garner, Garfinkel, Schwartz, & Thompson, 1980; Hatoum & Belle, 2004; Leit, Pope, & Gray, 2001). As a result, this study may have benefited from having a panel of males and females analyze the images used in this study and rate them based on the extent to which the images displayed could be considered idealized or objectified, which could have provided more or less support for the images in question to be utilized as stimulus materials. Future studies may benefit from having a panel rate stimuli images prior to experimental use, so as to avoid experimenter bias, and to provide strong rationale for the inclusion of a particular image into the experiment.

The fact that the current study did not assess participants' media habits and preferences is thought to be another significant limitation. It is hypothesized that the participants in the study

varied in their level of exposure to media displaying objectified images of males and females, as well as in their pornography viewing habits. All of these specific factors may play a role in individuals' pre-experiment levels of self-esteem and sexual esteem, and may also affect their levels of desensitization to the objectified images to which they were exposed in the study. Future studies would benefit greatly from gathering this type of information, which would provide important data which could be utilized to assess correlations between scores on assessment measures and pre-experiment media habits, while also providing the opportunity to control for different variables not assessed within this study, such as body-esteem.

Conclusions

The intention of this study was to explore the effects of exposure to objectified images of males and females on male self-esteem and sexual esteem, while considering gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms as possible variables that may influence the degree to which the esteem variables were affected, as well as to assess whether or not a relationship existed between conformity to masculine norms and gender role conflict. Results of the study found that the self-esteem and sexual esteem of participants remained unaffected after exposure to the objectified images, and also found that a positive correlation existed between participants' level of gender role conflict and level of conformity to male norms.

The results of the study support the findings of past research, which indicated that sexual esteem remains unaffected by exposure to objectified magazine images. This study expanded and improved upon previous research by conducting an experimental design, instead of utilizing self-report measures assessing participants' use of media and pornography, and by comparing those variables to participants' scores on psychological measures. The utilization of this type of experimental design was suggested throughout the literature on media effects. Overall, it seems

as though the constructs of self-esteem and sexual esteem may be more stable, ingrained aspects of psychological health than was previously assumed. Although many of the hypotheses of this study were not supported, it is suggested that these findings are meaningful, as they provide questions and areas of future research within the areas of media's effects on the psychological health of males.

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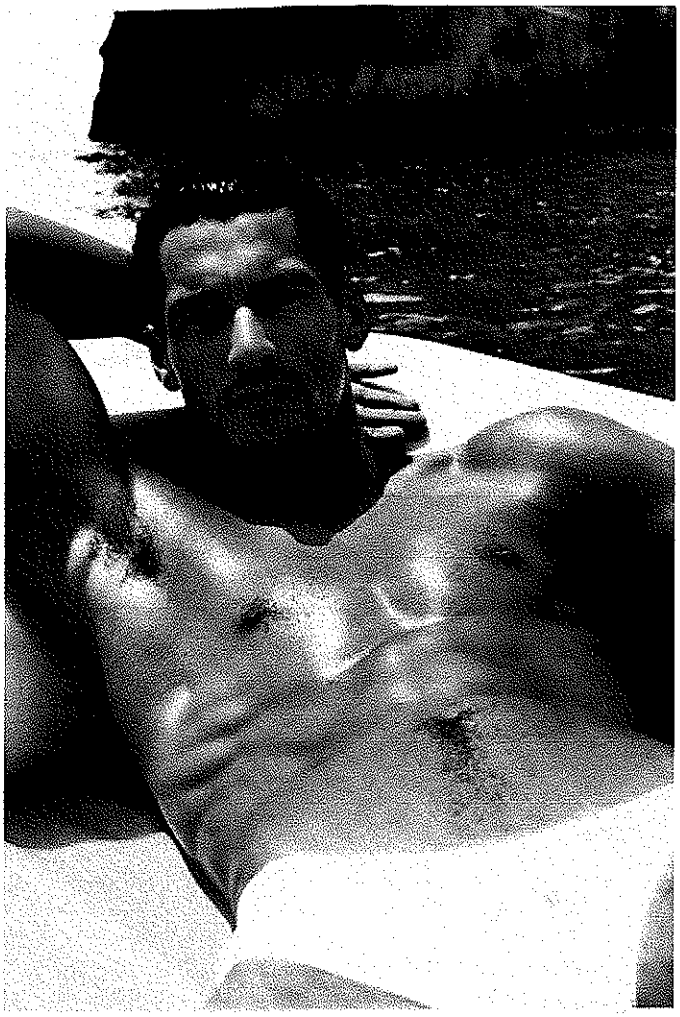
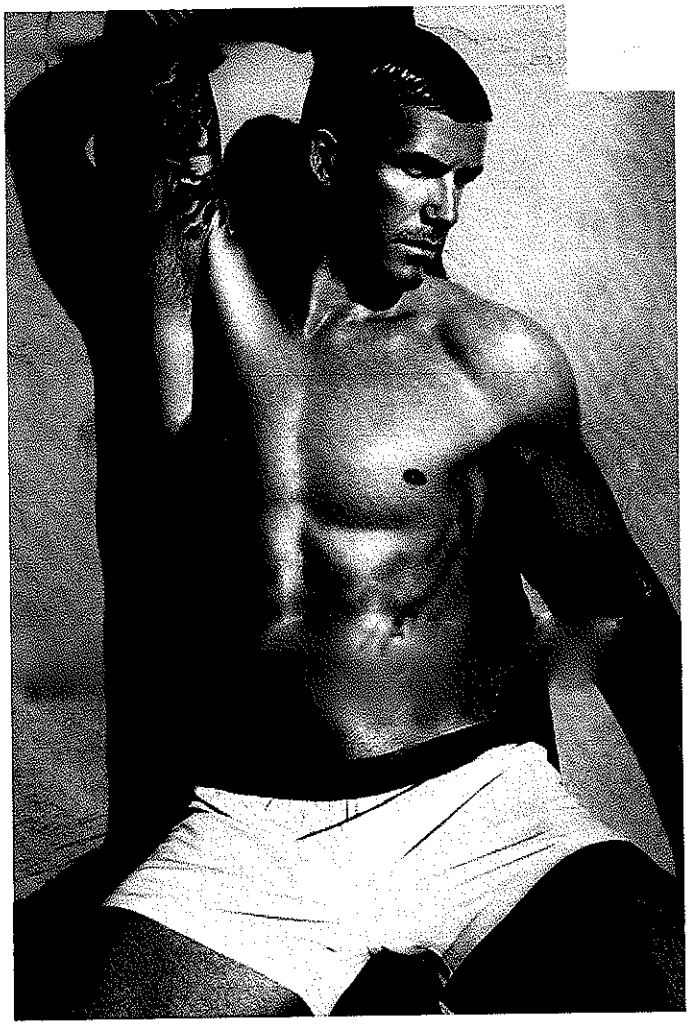
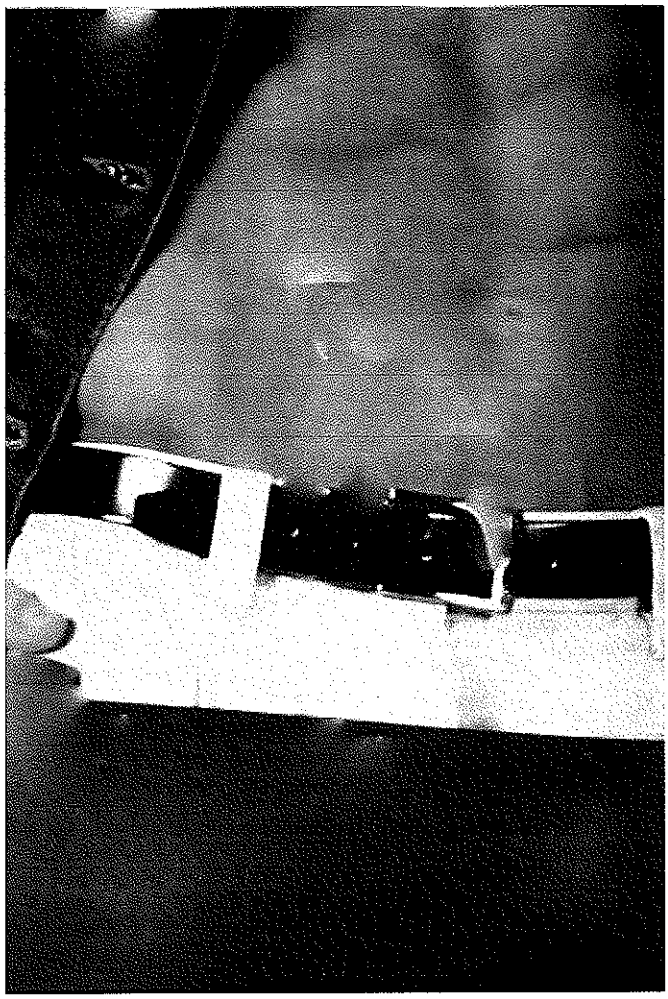
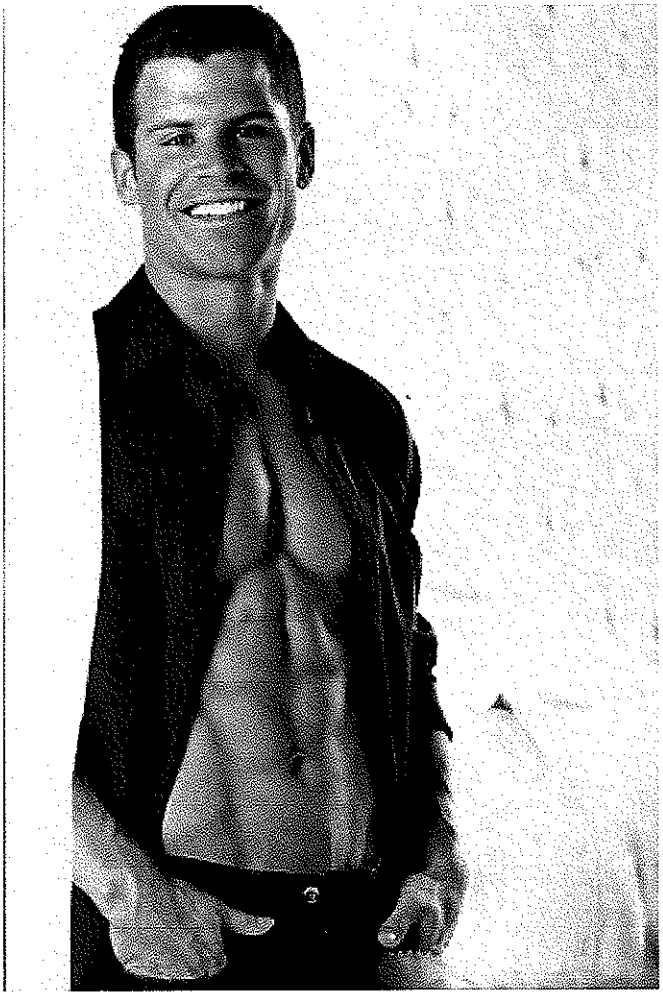
Appendix A

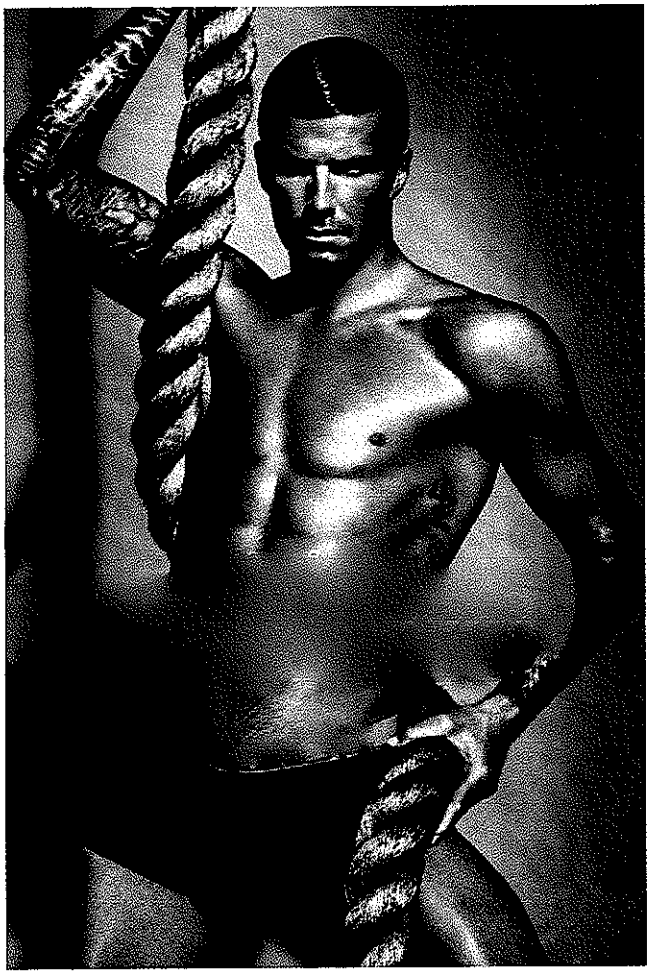
Male Images

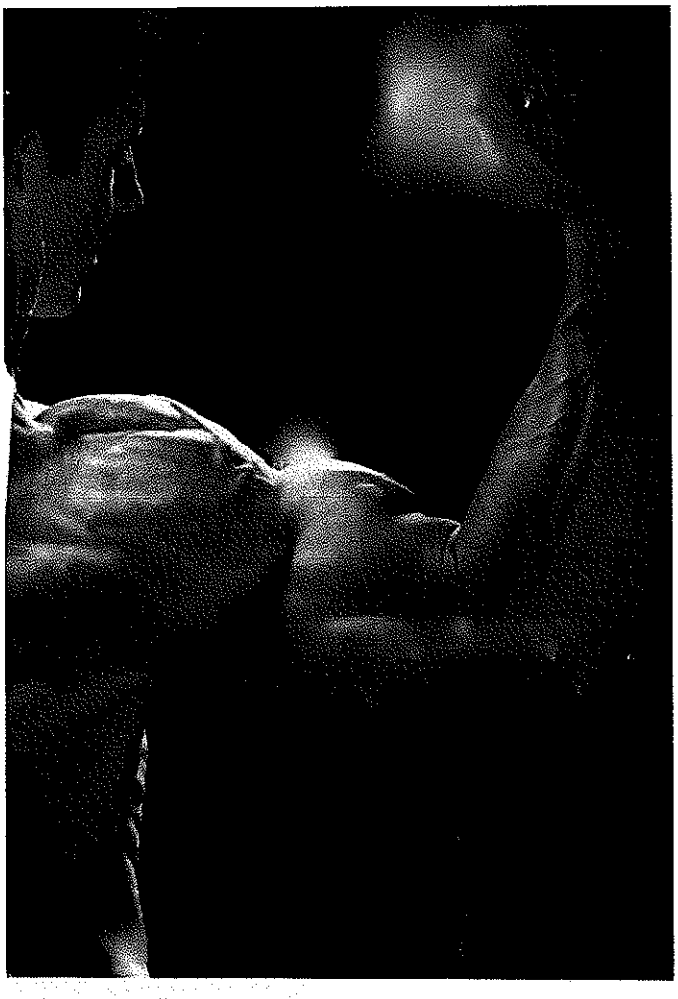


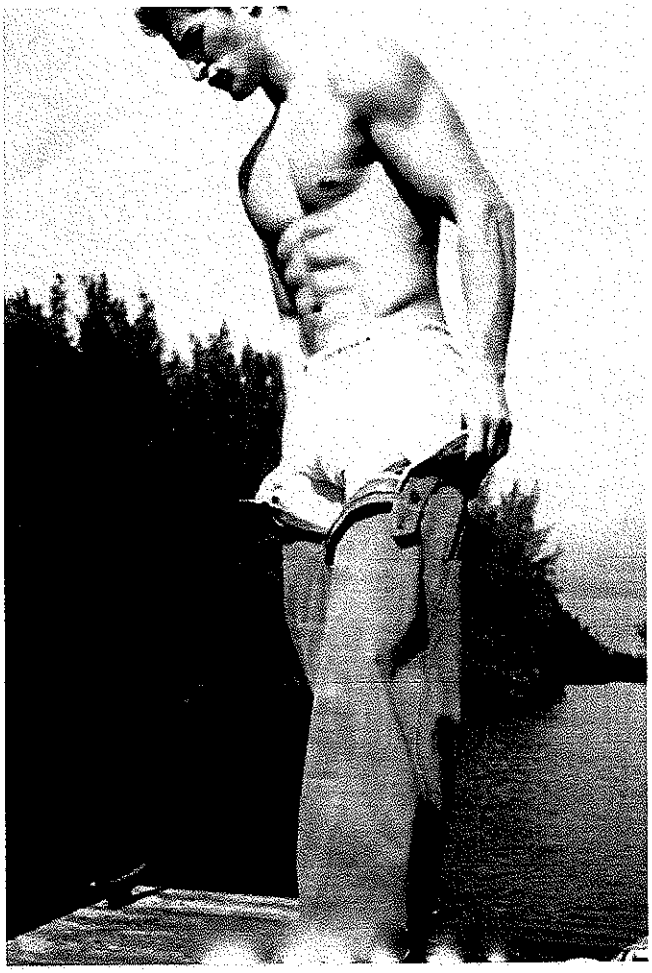


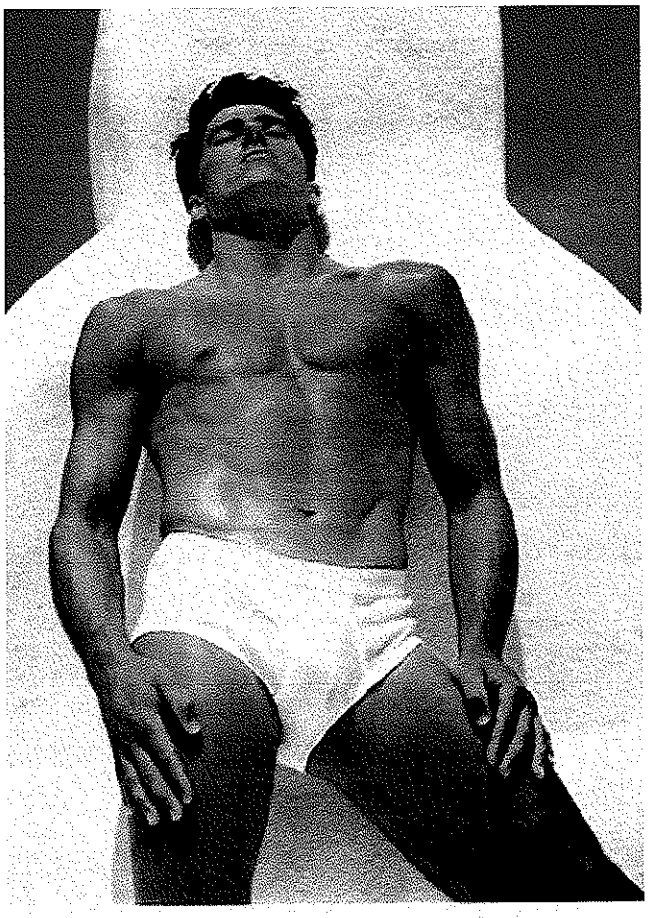






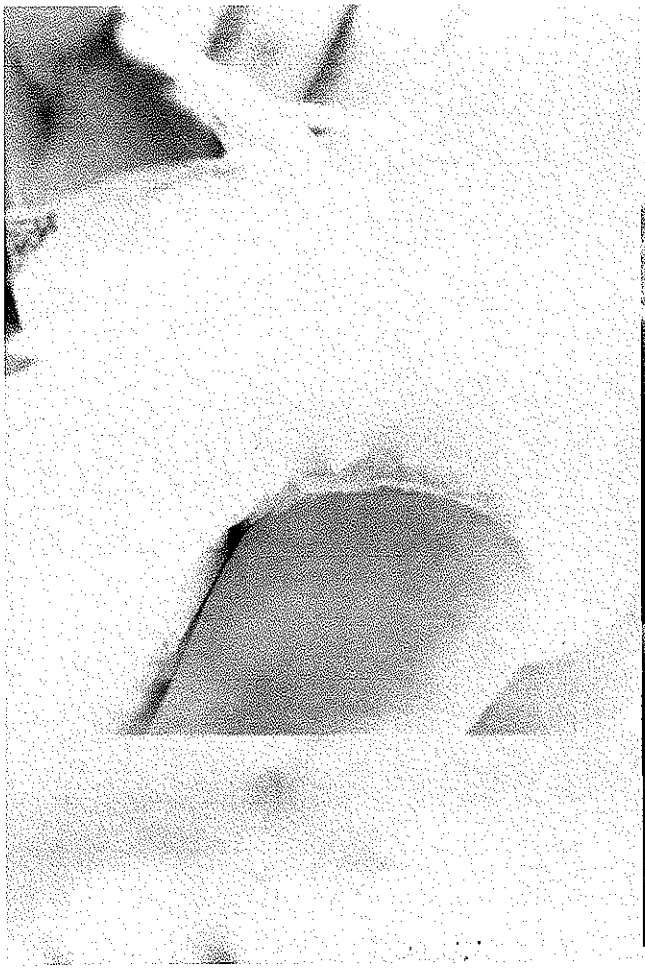


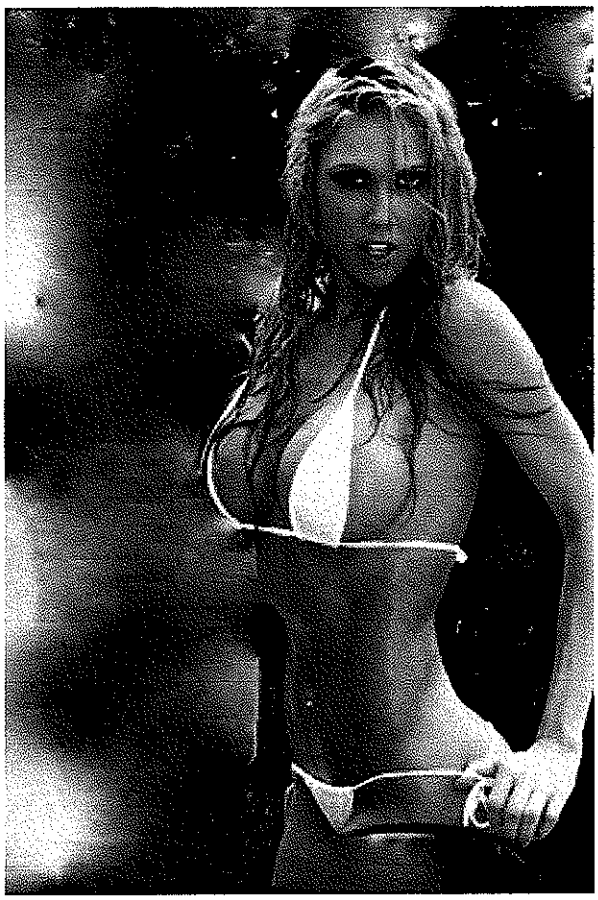


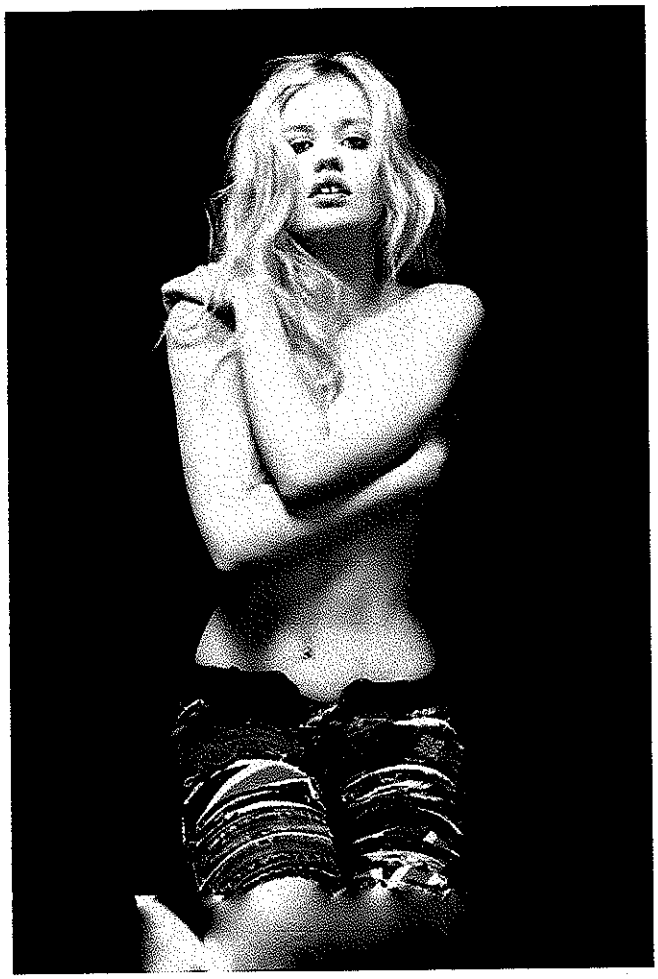


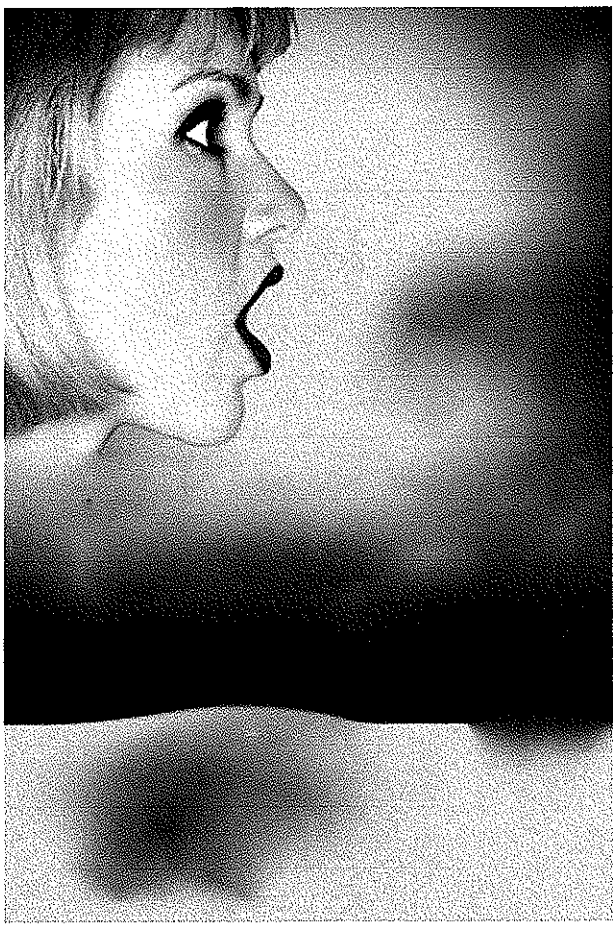
Appendix B

Female Images



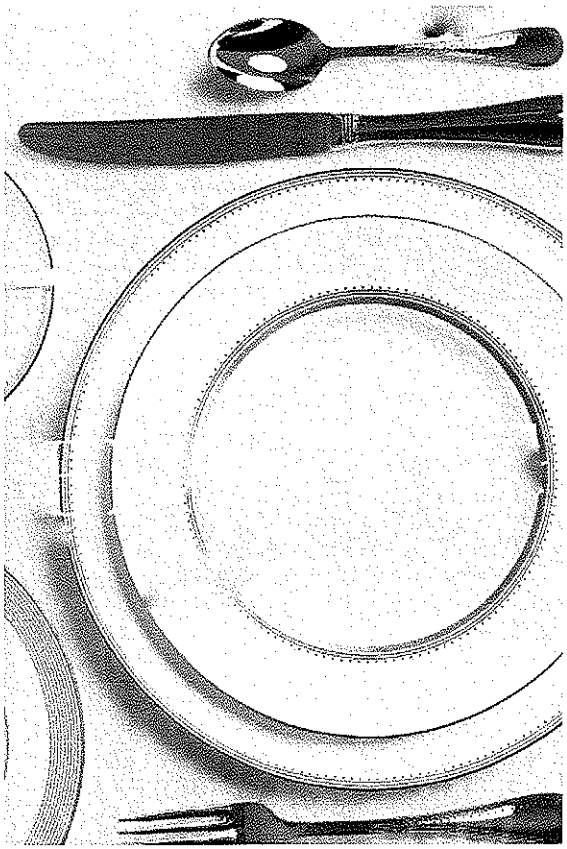


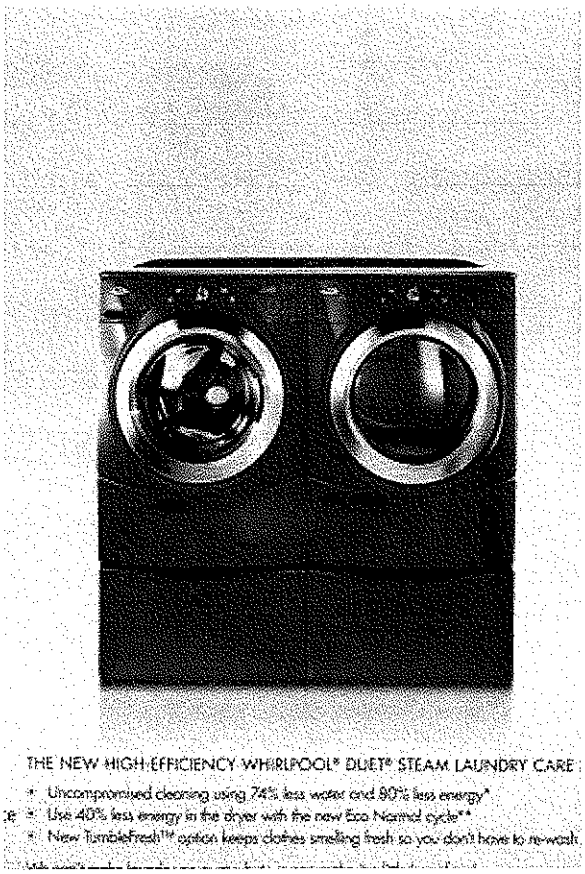




Appendix C

Neutral Images





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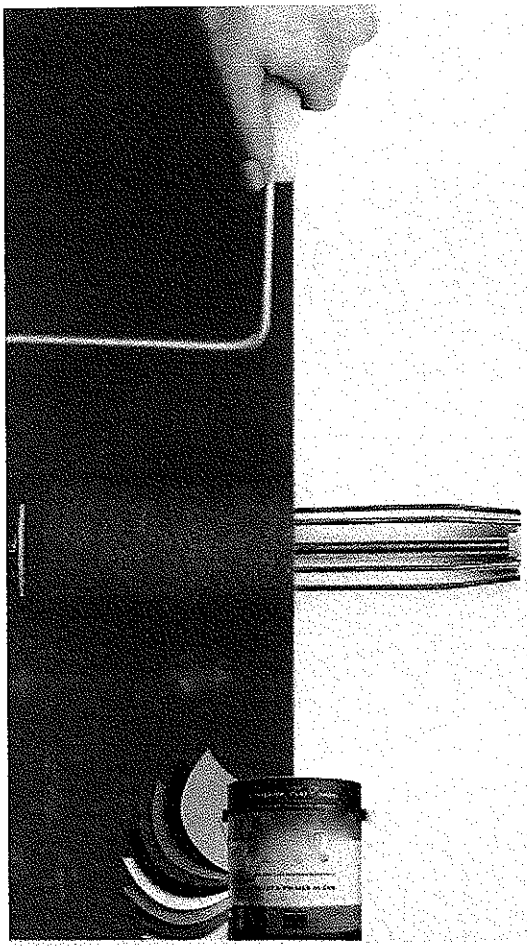

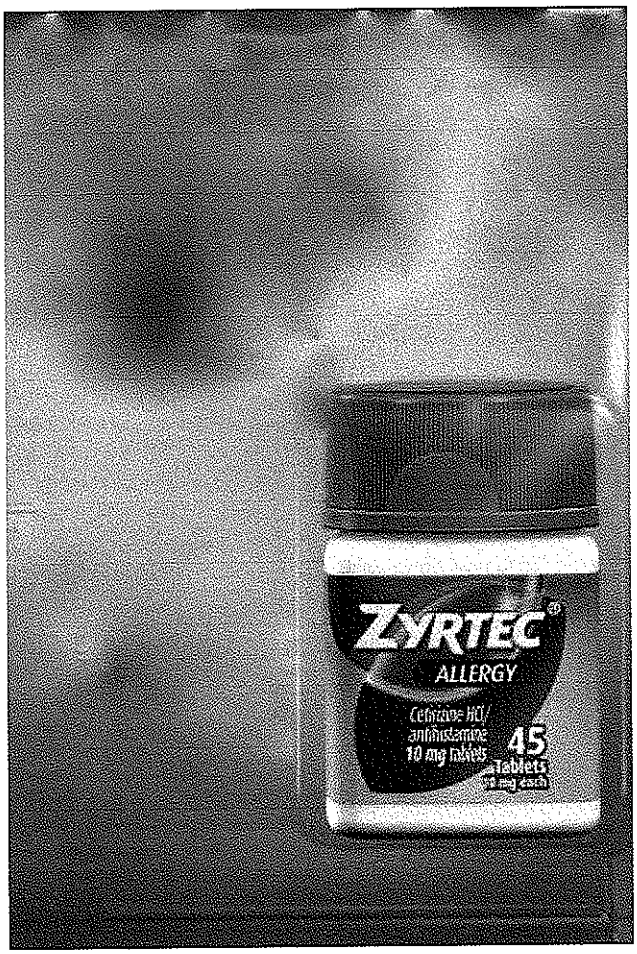
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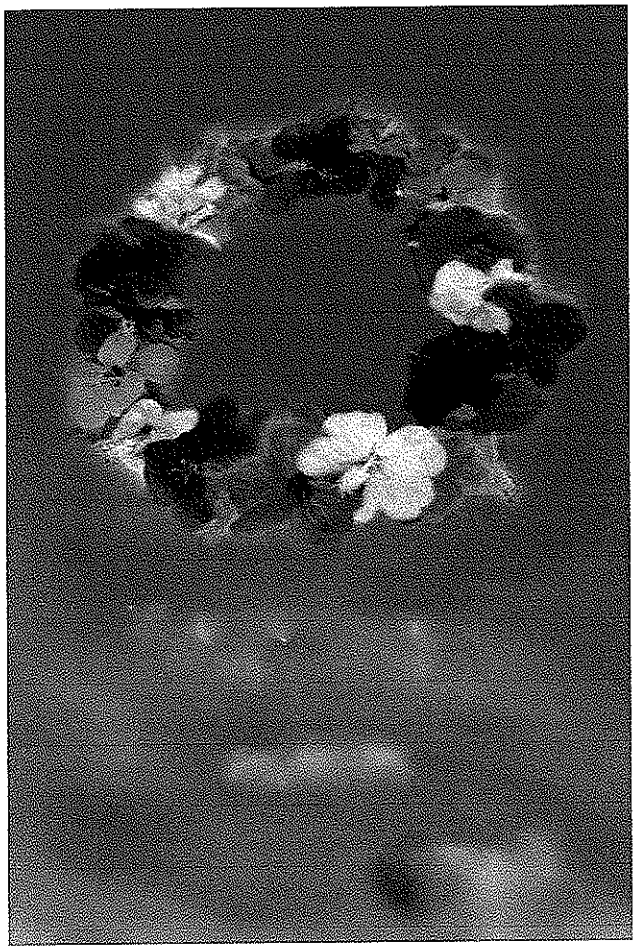
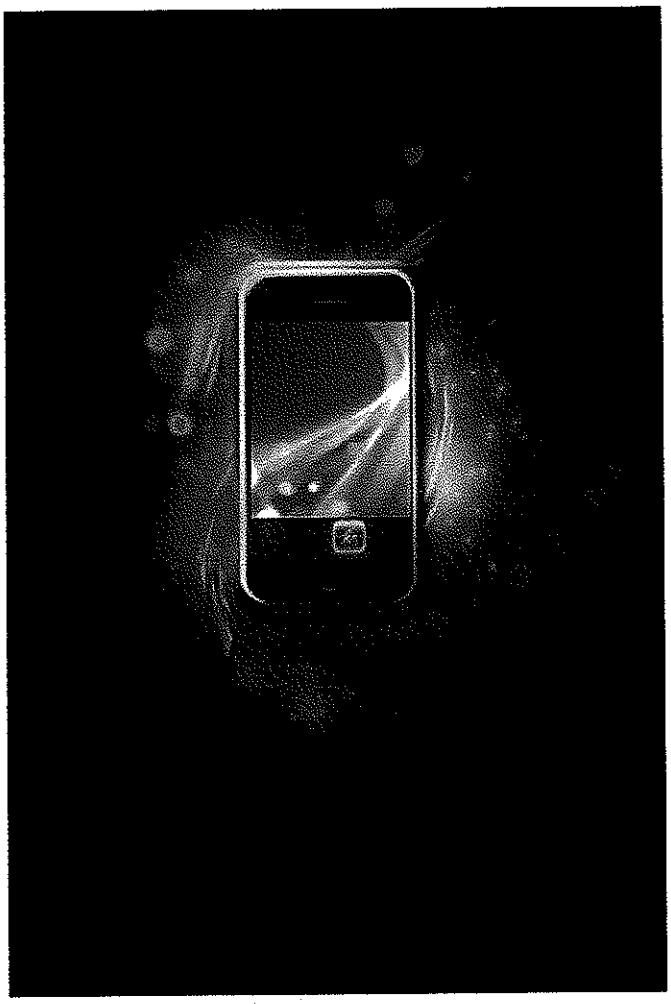
Tablets


Snap!





Appendix D

Gender Role Conflict Scale

1. Age: _____

2. Educational Level: (Check the highest level that fits you.)

____Freshman ____Sophomore ____Junior ____Senior

3. Present Marital Status: ____Married ____Single ____Divorced ____Remarried

4. Race: ____White ____Black ____Hispanic ____Asian American

Instructions: In the space to the left of each sentence below, write the number that most closely represents the degree that you Agree or Disagree with the statement. There is no right or wrong answer to each statement; your own reaction is what is asked for.

Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
6	5	4	3	2	1

1. ____ Moving up the career ladder is important to me.

2. ____ I have difficulty telling others I care about them.

3. ____ Verbally expressing my love to another man is difficult for me.

4. ____ I feel torn between my hectic work schedule and caring for my health.

5. ____ Making money is part of my idea of being a successful man.

6. ____ Strong emotions are difficult for me to understand.

7. ____ Affection with other men makes me tense.

8. ____ I sometimes define my personal value by my career success.

9. ____ Expressing feelings makes me feel open to attack by other people.

10. ____ Expressing my emotions to other men is risky.

11. ____ My career, job, or school affects the quality of my leisure or family life.

12. ____ I evaluate other people's value by their level of achievement and success.

Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
6	5	4	3	2	1

13. ____Talking about my feelings during sexual relations is difficult for me.

14. ____ I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man.

15. ____ I have difficulty expressing my emotional needs to my partner.

16. ____ Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable.

17. ____ Finding time to relax is difficult for me.

18. ____ Doing well all the time is important to me.

19. ____ I have difficulty expressing my tender feelings.

20. ____ Hugging other men is difficult for me.

21. ____ I often feel that I need to be in charge of those around me.

22. ____ Telling others of my strong feelings is not part of my sexual behavior.

23. ____ Competing with others is the best way to succeed.

24. ____ Winning is a measure of my value and personal worth.

25. ____ I often have trouble finding words that describe how I am feeling.

26. ____ I am sometimes hesitant to show my affection to men because of how others might perceive me.

27. ____ My needs to work or study keep me from my family or leisure more than would like.

28. ____ I strive to be more successful than others.

29. ____ I do not like to show my emotions to other people.

30. ____ Telling my partner my feelings about him/her during sex is difficult for me.

Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
6	5	4	3	2	1

31. ____ My work or school often disrupts other parts of my life (home, family, health leisure.

32. ____I am often concerned about how others evaluate my performance at work or school.

33. ____Being very personal with other men makes me feel uncomfortable.

34. ____Being smarter or physically stronger than other men is important to me.

35. ____ Men who are overly friendly to me make me wonder about their sexual preference (men or women).

36. ____ Overwork and stress caused by a need to achieve on the job or in school, affects/hurts my life.

37. ____ I like to feel superior to other people.

Appendix E

Sexuality Scale

INSTRUCTIONS: The statements listed below describe certain attitudes toward human sexuality which different people may have. As such, there are no right or wrong answers, only personal responses. For each item you will be asked to indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statement listed in that item. Use the following scale to provide your responses:

A = Agree.
B = Slightly agree.
C = Neither.
D = Slightly disagree.
E = Disagree.

1. I am a good sexual partner.	A	B	C	D	E
2. I am depressed about the sexual aspects of my life.	A	B	C	D	E
3. I think about sex all the time.	A	B	C	D	E
4. I would rate my sexual skill quite highly.	A	B	C	D	E
5. I feel good about my sexuality.	A	B	C	D	E
6. I think about sex more than anything else.	A	B	C	D	E
7. I am better at sex than most other people.	A	B	C	D	E
8. I am disappointed about the quality of my sex life.	A	B	C	D	E
9. I don't daydream about sexual situations.	A	B	C	D	E
10. I sometimes have doubts about my sexual competence.	A	B	C	D	E
11. Thinking about sex makes me happy.	A	B	C	D	E
12. I tend to be preoccupied with sex.	A	B	C	D	E
13. I am not very confident in sexual encounters.	A	B	C	D	E
14. I derive pleasure and enjoyment from sex.	A	B	C	D	E
15. I'm constantly thinking about having sex.	A	B	C	D	E
16. I think of myself as a very good sexual partner.	A	B	C	D	E
17. I feel down about my sex life.	A	B	C	D	E
18. I think about sex a great deal of the time.	A	B	C	D	E
19. I would rate myself low as a sexual partner.	A	B	C	D	E
20. I feel unhappy about my sexual relationships.	A	B	C	D	E
21. I seldom think about sex.	A	B	C	D	E
22. I am confident about myself as a sexual partner.	A	B	C	D	E
23. I feel pleased with my sex life.	A	B	C	D	E
24. I hardly ever fantasize about having sex.	A	B	C	D	E
25. I am not very confident about my sexual skill.	A	B	C	D	E
26. I feel sad when I think about my sexual experiences.	A	B	C	D	E
27. I probably think about sex less often than most people.	A	B	C	D	E
28. I sometimes doubt my sexual competence.	A	B	C	D	E
29. I am not discouraged about sex.	A	B	C	D	E
30. I don't think about sex very often.	A	B	C	D	E

Appendix F

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

Please respond to the following items using the scale below:

SA= Strongly Agree

A= Agree

D= Disagree

SD= Strongly Disagree

These Questions ask for your opinions of yourself on the whole, please circle the corresponding number:

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	SA	A	D	SD
2. At times, I think I am no good at all.	SA	A	D	SD
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	SA	A	D	SD
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	SA	A	D	SD
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	SA	A	D	SD
6. I certainly feel useless at times.	SA	A	D	SD
7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	SA	A	D	SD
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.	SA	A	D	SD
9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	SA	A	D	SD
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.	SA	A	D	SD

Appendix G

Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory

The following pages contain a series of statements about how men might think, feel or behave. The statements are designed to measure attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors associated with both traditional and non-traditional masculine gender roles.

Thinking about your own actions, feelings and beliefs, please indicate how much you personally agree
or disagree with each statement by circling SD for "Strongly Disagree", D for "Disagree", A for "Agree",
or SA for "Strongly agree" to the left of the statement. There are no right or wrong responses to the
statements. You should give the responses that most accurately describe your personal actions, feelings and
beliefs. It is best if you respond with your first impression when answering.

1. It is best to keep your emotions hidden	SD	D	A	SA
2. In general, I will do anything to win	SD	D	A	SA
3. If I could, I would frequently change sexual partners	SD	D	A	SA
4. If there is going to be violence, I find a way to avoid it	SD	D	A	SA
5. It is important to me that people think I am heterosexual	SD	D	A	SA
6. In general, I must get my way	SD	D	A	SA
7. Trying to be important is the greatest waste of time	SD	D	A	SA
8. I am often absorbed in my work	SD	D	A	SA
9. I will only be satisfied when women are equal to men	SD	D	A	SA
10. I hate asking for help	SD	D	A	SA
11. Taking dangerous risks helps me to prove myself	SD	D	A	SA
12. In general, I do not expend a lot of energy trying to win at things	SD	D	A	SA
13. An emotional bond with a partner is the best part of sex	SD	D	A	SA
14. I should take every opportunity to show my feelings	SD	D	A	SA
15. I believe that violence is never justified	SD	D	A	SA
16. Being thought of as gay is not a bad thing	SD	D	A	SA
17. In general, I do not like risky situations	SD	D	A	SA
18. I should be in charge	SD	D	A	SA
19. Feelings are important to show	SD	D	A	SA
20. I feel miserable when work occupies all my attention	SD	D	A	SA
21. I feel best about my relationships with women when we are equals	SD	D	A	SA
22. Winning is not my first priority	SD	D	A	SA
23. I make sure that people think I am heterosexual	SD	D	A	SA
24. I enjoy taking risks	SD	D	A	SA
25. I am disgusted by any kind of violence	SD	D	A	SA
26. I would hate to be important	SD	D	A	SA
27. I love to explore my feelings with others	SD	D	A	SA
28. If I could, I would date a lot of different people	SD	D	A	SA

29. I ask for help when I need it	SD	D	A	SA
30. My work is the most important part of my life	SD	D	A	SA
31. Winning isn't everything, it's the only thing	SD	D	A	SA
32. I never take chances	SD	D	A	SA
33. I would only have sex if I was in a committed relationship	SD	D	A	SA
34. I like fighting	SD	D	A	SA
35. I treat women as equals	SD	D	A	SA
36. I bring up my feelings when talking to others	SD	D	A	SA
37. I would be furious if someone thought I was gay	SD	D	A	SA
38. I only get romantically involved with one person	SD	D	A	SA
39. I don't mind losing	SD	D	A	SA
40. I take risks	SD	D	A	SA
41. I never do things to be an important person	SD	D	A	SA
42. It would not bother me at all if someone thought I was gay	SD	D	A	SA
43. I never share my feelings	SD	D	A	SA
44. Sometimes violent action is necessary	SD	D	A	SA
45. Asking for help is a sign of failure	SD	D	A	SA
46. In general, I control the women in my life	SD	D	A	SA
47. I would feel good if I had many sexual partners	SD	D	A	SA
48. It is important for me to win	SD	D	A	SA
49. I don't like giving all my attention to work	SD	D	A	SA
50. I feel uncomfortable when others see me as important	SD	D	A	SA
51. It would be awful if people thought I was gay	SD	D	A	SA
52. I like to talk about my feelings	SD	D	A	SA
53. I never ask for help	SD	D	A	SA
54. More often than not, losing does not bother me	SD	D	A	SA
55. It is foolish to take risks	SD	D	A	SA
56. Work is not the most important thing in my life	SD	D	A	SA
57. Men and women should respect each other as equals	SD	D	A	SA
58. Long term relationships are better than casual sexual encounters	SD	D	A	SA
59. Having status is not very important to me	SD	D	A	SA
60. I frequently put myself in risky situations	SD	D	A	SA
61. Women should be subservient to men	SD	D	A	SA
62. I am willing to get into a physical fight if necessary	SD	D	A	SA
63. I like having gay friends	SD	D	A	SA
64. I feel good when work is my first priority	SD	D	A	SA
65. I tend to keep my feelings to myself	SD	D	A	SA
66. Emotional involvement should be avoided when having sex	SD	D	A	SA
67. Winning is not important to me	SD	D	A	SA
68. Violence is almost never justified	SD	D	A	SA
69. I am comfortable trying to get my way	SD	D	A	SA
70. I am happiest when I'm risking danger	SD	D	A	SA
71. Men should not have power over women	SD	D	A	SA
72. It would be enjoyable to date more than one person at a time	SD	D	A	SA
73. I would feel uncomfortable if someone thought I was gay	SD	D	A	SA
74. I am not ashamed to ask for help	SD	D	A	SA

75. The best feeling in the world comes from winning	SD	D	A	SA
76. Work comes first	SD	D	A	SA
77. I tend to share my feelings	SD	D	A	SA
78. I like emotional involvement in a romantic relationship	SD	D	A	SA
79. No matter what the situation I would never act violently	SD	D	A	SA
80. If someone thought I was gay, I would not argue with them about it	SD	D	A	SA
81. Things tend to be better when men are in charge	SD	D	A	SA
82. I prefer to be safe and careful	SD	D	A	SA
83. A person shouldn't get tied down to dating just one person	SD	D	A	SA
84. I tend to invest my energy in things other than work	SD	D	A	SA
85. It bothers me when I have to ask for help	SD	D	A	SA
86. I love it when men are in charge of women	SD	D	A	SA
87. It feels good to be important	SD	D	A	SA
88. I hate it when people ask me to talk about my feelings	SD	D	A	SA
89. I work hard to win	SD	D	A	SA
90. I would only be satisfied with sex if there was an emotional bond	SD	D	A	SA
91. I try to avoid being perceived as gay	SD	D	A	SA
92. I hate any kind of risk	SD	D	A	SA
93. I prefer to stay unemotional	SD	D	A	SA
94. I make sure people do as I say	SD	D	A	SA

Appendix H

Informed Consent Form

You are invited to participate in this research study. The following information is provided in order to help you to make an informed decision regarding whether or not to participate. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to ask. You are eligible to participate in this study because you are a student in the General Psychology course at Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP).

The purpose of this study is to gather information regarding men's reactions to images that might be included in advertising. You will be shown a series of images and asked to rate them. In addition, we will ask you to complete a few attitudinal questionnaires that include questions regarding feelings about yourself. This process should last roughly 40 minutes.

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in this study, or to withdraw at any time, without adversely affecting your relationship with the investigators or IUP. Furthermore, your decision will not result in any loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you choose to participate, you may withdraw at any time by notifying the Project Director or the individual administering the study. Upon your request to withdraw, all information pertaining to you will be destroyed. If you choose to participate, all information will be held in strict confidence, and will have no bearing on your academic standing or services you receive from the University. Your response will be considered only in combination with those from other participants, and your identity will remain confidential even to the researchers. You will be asked to create a unique identifier code comprised of your age, birth year, and first two letters of your home street address, which will allow researchers to identify your specific set of responses. This identifier code will not link to your name or personal identity in any way. The information obtained in the study may be published in scientific journals or presented at scientific meetings, but your identity will be kept strictly confidential.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the statement below and return it to the person administering the study. Please take the extra, unsigned copy with you. If you choose not to participate, simply give the unsigned copies back to the researcher. When you are finished taking part in the study, you will be given a referral sheet providing you with contact information for counseling services, which can be used in the event that you feel the need to discuss any issues that may have arisen from participation in this study. However, it is important to note that there are no known risks associated with participation in this study.

_____ _____

Participant Name Date

_____

Participant Signature

To receive further information please contact:

Student Researcher:
Martin Pino, M.A.
Uhler Hall
1020 Oakland Avenue
Indiana, PA 15705
732-522-0814

Dissertation Chair:
Maureen McHugh, Ph.D.
Uhler Hall, 224
1020 Oakland Avenue
Indiana, PA 15705
724-357-2448

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

Appendix I

The Consumer Response Questionnaire

Please indicate the Advertisement Number ____

Please respond to the Following Item by circling the corresponding number:

1) Please rate the overall attractiveness of the advertisement:

Very Unattractive	Unattractive	Neutral	Attractive	Very Attractive
1	2	3	4	5

2) Please rate the attractiveness of the model in the advertisement (If Applicable):

Very Unattractive	Unattractive	Neutral	Attractive	Very Attractive
1	2	3	4	5

3) Please rate the extent to which you see yourself as being similar to the model in the ad (If Applicable):

Extremely Dissimilar	Dissimilar	Neutral	Similar	Extremely Similar
1	2	3	4	5

4) Please rate how good the advertisement made you feel:

Very Negatively	Negatively	Neutral	Positively	Very Positively
1	2	3	4	5

Appendix J

Debriefing Form

Dear Student,

Hello my name is Martin Pino. Thank you for participating in my research study. The purpose of this study was to gather information regarding men's reactions to images that might be included in advertising. I am writing this letter to both thank you for your participation, as well as to provide you with more information about the nature of the study.

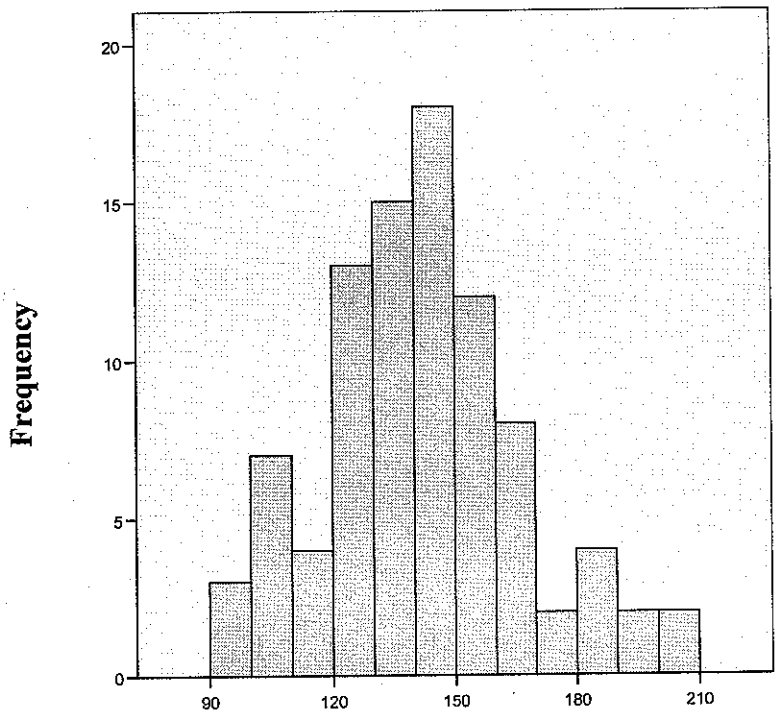
Research has shown that exposure to certain types of advertisements can have a negative effect on how women feel about themselves and their bodies. Some ads may make women self conscious or depressed. Recent studies have begun to look at the effects of advertisements on male psychological health as well. Results have indicated that certain types of advertisements can have a negative effect on male psychological health. However, few studies have looked at the connection between response to advertisements and issues related to masculinity. The study in which you participated looked to add to the research in this area. It was thought that exposure to certain advertisements would have a negative effect on how men feel about themselves. We are particularly interested in whether images that show well-developed muscular men make some men feel bad about themselves. Some ads that show virile looking men may make the male viewer feel concerned about his own sexual attractiveness. We also used two scales to see if we could understand which men might be most concerned in response the male images. Information gathered from the Gender Role Conflict Scale (which measure how much conflict men experience about masculinity) and the Conformity to Masculine Norms Scale (which measures how much men conform to social norms about how men should act) will be utilized to examine how these attitudes impact men's responses to male images in advertisements. The overall aim of the study was to examine the effect of exposure to magazine advertisements on different areas of male self-esteem.

If you have any questions about the procedures involved in the study, any general questions, or would like to receive the results of the study, please contact Martin Pino, M.A. at rdqn@iup.edu. Furthermore, if you would like to learn more about the effects of advertisements on psychological health, please refer to Jean Kilbourne's book *Can't Buy Me Love: How Advertising Changes the Way We Think and Feel* or *Media Sex: What Are the Issues*, written by Barrie Gunter. In the event that you feel the need to discuss any psychological or personal issues that may have resulted as a result of answering questions aimed at assessing your level of self-esteem, I have provided contact information for counseling services at Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

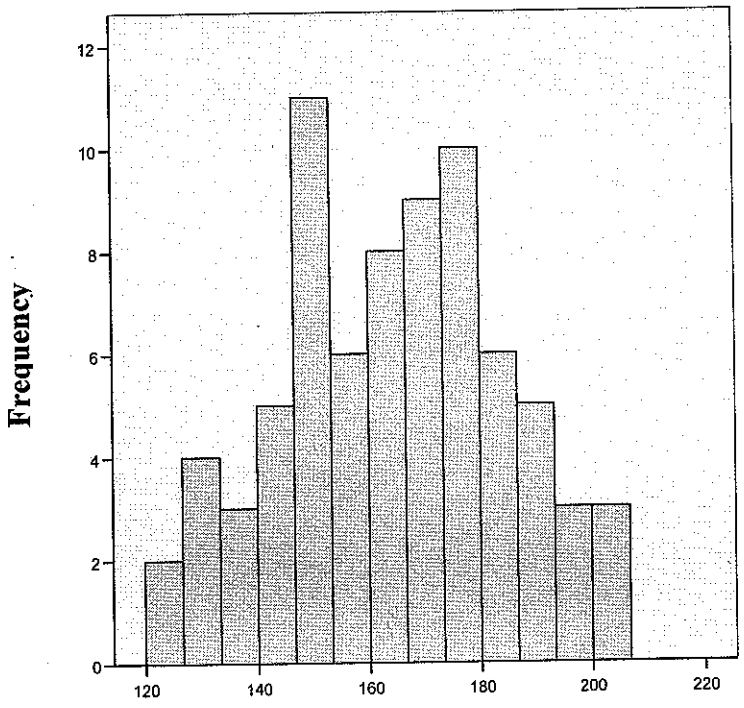
IUP Student Counseling Center
901 Maple Street
Indiana, PA 15705
Phone: 724-357-2621

Martin Pino, M.A.
Doctoral Candidate
The research project is sponsored by the IUP Department of Psychology. The primary investigator is Martin Pino, M.A.

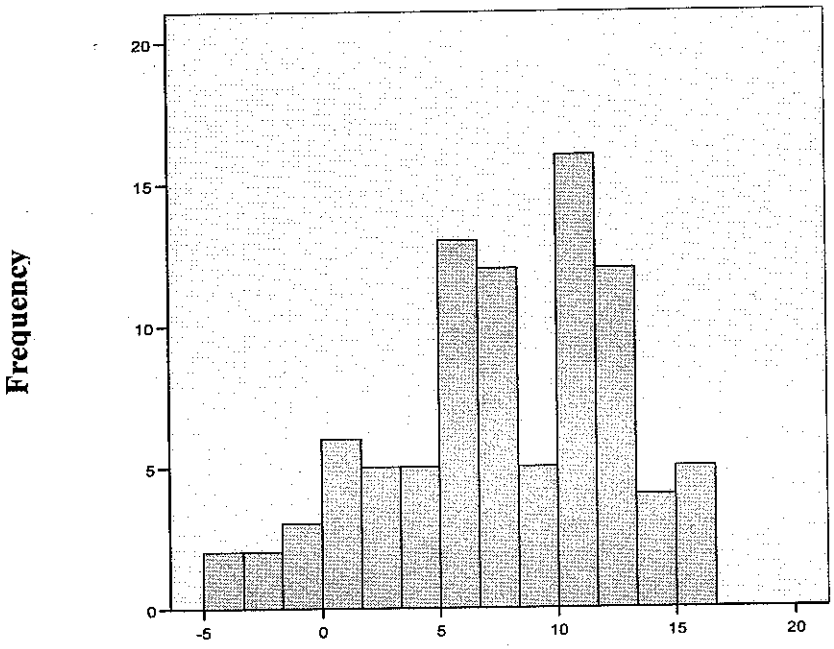
Appendix K



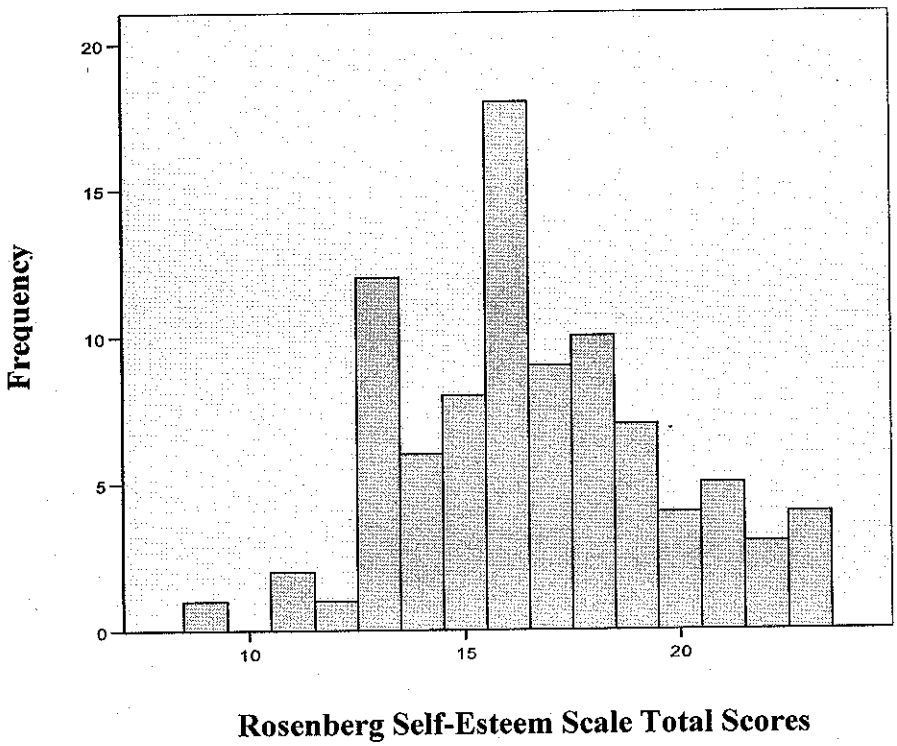
Appendix K1. Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory Distribution of Scores.



Appendix K2. Gender Role Conflict Scale Distribution of Scores.



Appendix K3. Sexual Esteem Scale Distribution of Scores



Appendix K4. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale Distribution of Scores

Appendix L

Consumer Response Questionnaire Descriptive Data Across Groups

	Group 1 Male Images		Group 2 Female Images		Group 3 Neutral Images	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Image 1						
Question 1	2.27	1.081	3.07	.868	2.40	.814
Question 2	2.70	1.208	3.30	1.022	2.96	.982
Question 3	2.13	1.042	1.43	.626	3.90	.481
Question 4	2.07	.868	3.00	.830	3.90	.481
Image 2						
Question 1	2.30	1.055	4.43	.626	2.80	.847
Question 2	2.50	.938	4.80	.407	3.42	1.180
Question 3	2.63	.999	2.40	1.037	3.63	.718
Question 4	2.57	.858	4.20	.610	3.70	.651
Image 3						
Question 1	2.13	1.167	3.90	.712	4.33	.606
Question 2	2.33	1.061	4.10	.759	3.51	1.173
Question 3	1.90	.995	2.50	1.009	2.87	.937
Question 4	1.97	.890	3.73	.785	2.87	.776
Image 4						
Question 1	2.33	1.061	3.47	1.358	2.90	.845
Question 2	2.33	.994	4.13	1.167	3.16	1.189
Question 3	2.03	.928	2.23	1.104	3.23	.728
Question 4	2.23	.858	3.43	1.165	3.30	.651
Image 5						
Question 1	2.60	1.133	4.57	.728	3.20	.714
Question 2	2.70	1.149	4.77	.430	3.46	1.265
Question 3	2.23	.935	2.47	1.106	--	--
Question 4	2.37	.928	4.30	.750	1.40	.770
Image 6						
Question 1	1.86	.789	3.20	1.186	2.40	.563
Question 2	2.23	.971	3.17	1.315	2.13	1.351
Question 3	2.23	1.006	2.10	.885	1.53	.730
Question 4	1.97	.850	3.13	.973	2.13	.571
Image 7						
Question 1	2.47	1.224	3.93	1.258	1.40	.724
Question 2	2.57	1.278	4.13	1.167	2.50	1.730
Question 3	2.27	1.048	2.23	1.006	2.07	.691
Question 4	2.13	.937	3.67	1.093	--	--
Image 8						
Question 1	1.93	.907	4.40	.855	1.53	.819
Question 2	2.17	.950	4.62	.622	1.94	2.465
Question 3	2.10	.759	2.57	1.104	.20	1.270
Question 4	2.00	.695	4.17	.747	.67	.711
Image 9						
Question 1	2.03	.964	4.40	.770	1.80	.610
Question 2	2.10	1.081	4.77	.430	2.03	2.529
Question 3	2.03	.765	2.80	1.095	.13	.860
Question 4	2.07	.828	4.17	.747	-.93	1.363
Image 10						
Question 1	2.10	1.062	2.63	1.033	-1.00	1.017
Question 2	2.33	1.184	3.10	1.029	1.57	2.028
Question 3	2.17	.928	2.10	.803	.93	.828
Question 4	1.90	.803	2.87	.900	-.70	1.149