The mass Medias influence on young men's sexual objectification of women

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TITLE: **The mass Medias influence on young men's sexual objectification of women**

ABSTRACT: **The aim of this study was to investigate if there was a correlation between the mass Medias influence and men's views on sexual objectification of women, as well as correlations between the Medias influence on men's views on how women should feel about appearance and body shaming. The research was carried out by giving quantitative based questionnaires to 99 men on the social networking website Facebook and returned to the researcher. The results showed that there was in fact a correlation between the mass Medias influence and men's views on sexual objectification of women. And furthermore correlations between the Medias influence on men's views on how women should feel about appearance as well as a correlation between media influence and body shaming.**

INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the literature

This present research will be based around the topic of Objectification of women. In particular, the sexual objectification of women and how the media may influences men's opinion on objectifying women. In 1997, Fredrickson and Roberts coined the term for a theory called Objectification theory. Objectification Theory suggests that both women and young girls typically are prone to internalize others observational view points as a primary view of their physical selves. This outlook that women have, can lead to a number of issues such as body monitoring, which can increase the opportunity for women to have anxiety and shame. It can also lessen awareness of internal bodily states, as well as lessen peak motivational states (Fredrickson and Roberts, 1997). Fredrickson and Roberts (p.174, 1997) believed that women experiencing such negative stressors such as these in their lives, could add to various different mental health issues. These health issues included eating disorders such as anorexia and bulimia, as well as sexual dysfunction and unipolar depression. The research also concluded that Objectification Theory did not just occur at one point in a woman's life but more so its changes in accordance with the development and aging of the female body. In other words, at each stage of a women's life, objectification added to mental health risks (Fredrickson and Roberts, 1997).

There has been a lot of research done on this issue both in psychology and in sociology. A lot of research has focused on the effects that sexual objectification has on women and young

girls, in particular eating disorders and negative mental issues (Calogero *et al*, 2005). Other researchers have focused more so on the objectification of men in society (Wiseman & Moradi, 2010). This is a particularly growing research topic in recent years and has been in correlation with young boys and men's self-image and identity (Michaels *et al*, 2012). Another research direction is the factors that contribute to the objectification of men and women. What are the internal and external influences that add to the various mental health issues associated with objectification theory. Mass media has been shown to be one of these external factors (Fredrickson and Roberts, 1997). It is therefore important to examine the research that has been done in the past to gain a greater understanding of the topic.

The effects of objectification

Eating Disorders

Self-objectification has been linked problematic issues in societies. Objectification Theory has shown that negative emotional experiences, self-objectification and negative eating behaviour and disorders are all interconnected in cultures where women's bodies are subject to sexual objectification (Calogero *et al*, 2005). The aim of Calogero, Davis and Thompson's particular research was to fill the gap, where empirical testing has not been done on samples of women who are suffering from having eating disorders. In this research, a sample was taken of women living in residential treatment facilities for eating disorders. When being admitted into the residence, 209 women completed a self-measuring report that tested the samples individual experiences with self-objectification, media influence, drive for thinness and body shame (Calogero *et al*, 2005).

The results from the research showed that ideals about appearance from the media that was internalised by women, predicted self- objectification. That result is not to be confused with using the media to gain knowledge about appearance and feelings of pressure to the ideals that media portrayed, as this did not bring about internalised self- objectification (Calogero *et al*, 2005).

The correlation between the need for thinness and internalisation of appearance ideals were to some extent mediated by self- objectification. But the internalised appearance ideal variable brought about from the media was also an independent predictor of variance (Calogero *et al*, 2005). The body shame variable was again to some extent mediated of the correlation between the drive for thinness and self- objectification within the sample group, once again as with internalised appearance ideals, self-objectification was shown to be an independent predictor of variance also (Calogero *et al*, 2005). This was in concurrence with the Objectification Theory.

The research concludes the study, by emphasizing the importance of awareness of the effects of self- objectification in particular for the women suffering from eating disorders or those who are at risk for eating disorders. The study also suggests focusing on including the effects of self- objectification into treatment (Calogero *et al*, 2005).

Cosmetic Surgery

Calogero also carried out another study examining women's beliefs on cosmetic surgery. This study's aim was to examine the attitudes of young women towards cosmetic surgery within the framework of the Objectification Theory. The research was done by qualitative questionnaires. One hundred mainly white, British college students were asked to complete a series of surveys including impression management reports, interpersonal sexual

objectification, self-surveillance, global self-esteem, body shame and three components of cosmetic surgery attitudes (Calogero *et al*, 2010). The findings showed that every one of the variables for objectification theory displayed greater contemplation towards future ideas and thoughts about having cosmetic surgery. Furthermore, both body shame and sexual objectification distinctively calculated social motives as a reason for cosmetic surgery. Self-surveillance however, calculated intrapersonal motives for cosmetic surgery (Calogero *et al*, 2010).

The hypothesis of the research was supported by the findings and the evaluation of the study proposes that the level of acceptance for cosmetic surgery and the changing of one's physical appearances depends on how much the individual see themselves though the views of self-objectification and sexual objectification (Calogero *et al*, 2010).

Dehumanization

Dehumanization plays a big part with regards to sexual objectification. According to Puvia and Jeroen (2013), when objectified the woman is reduced to no more than an object, to be judged on by their physical appearance. The aims of their research was to examine the relationship between women's views of themselves in regards to their physical appearance and their way of judging and dehumanizing other women based on their physical appearance (Puvia & Jeroen, 2013). The research was done by testing two mediational models. The first, to calculate the reasons behind women's want to look attractive to men and the second to examine women's internalization of the beauty standards within their society and the correlation between this and dehumanizing other women in regards to objectification theory. Self-objectification was explored in relation to both mediations (Puvia & Jeroen, 2013).

55 heterosexual college females from Italy participated in the study. The measurements for the study were 1) tendency to self-objectify, 2) the extent in which the participants internalized beauty standards and 3) the motivation to look attractive towards men (Puvia & Jeroen, 2013).

The findings suggested that sexually objectified women target were the only ones that were significantly dehumanized. Their non-objectified associates were not however dehumanized. Furthermore, both participants' motivational reasons to look attractive to males, as well as their inclination to internalize the sociocultural beauty criteria were seen to be linked positively with the dehumanization of the female targets who were sexually objectified (Puvia & Jeroen, 2013). These interactions were intermediated by the participant's degree of self-objectification, as expected. Higher levels of self-objectification were found in women who were motivated by looking attractive for men or if they were more likely to internalize beauty standards within their society, they would be more likely to dehumanize sexually objectified women (Puvia & Jeroen, 2013).

Self-Harm

Self-harm and depression have repeatedly been linked as issues that can develop because of self-objectification. This research suggests that one of the factors of objectification, body surveillance (which involves viewing oneself through the eyes of a judging observer) is connected to dissociation, which is a factor related to self-harm and depression (Erchull, *et al,* 2013). Erchull, Liss and Lichiello research hypothesised that normative experiences with regards to self-objectification could increase dissociation and therefore increase the likelihood of developing a link to depression and self-harm.

160 women participated in the study. The sample was provided through the social networking site Facebook and the age of the participants ranged from 18 to 35 years old (Erchull, *et al,* 2013). The researcher, using the sample collected via Facebook, tested a path model for which internalization of media ideals would lead to body surveillance, as well as body shame (Erchull, *et al,* 2013). The body surveillance that was occurring led to body shame and also dissociation. The dissociation and body shame then was suggested to leading to depression, this depression and dissociation led to an even more harmful issue, which was self-harm. The model used for the research had high significance to the data and the model was also used for the effects of age also (p. 583, 2013). The findings indicate that both dissociation and self-harm are results of trauma and that self-objectification and conceptualising objectification are both forms of trauma (Erchull, *et al,* 2013).

Effects of Muscularity-idealising for Men

According to Micheals, Parent and Moradi (2012) most body objectification theory research is done with regards to the effects it has on women, another smaller but just as important branch of research is the effects that body objectification has on men. This smaller body of research generally entails experimental designs that explore what the casual effects of objectification are for men, however more research needs to be developed for a greater understanding. This research, the focus is more so on muscularity-idealizing in society and this effects men (Michaels *et al*, 2012).

Both heterosexual and minority men were investigated to see if there was any difference between the two units. For the research 140 heterosexual men and sexual minority men participated. Those participants were all undergraduates in college. The experimental design in the research was to test the effects of showing muscularity idealizing images from the

media and also showing control images such as objects, animals and landscapes (Michaels *et al*, 2012). The researcher would then examine how the muscularity idealizing images effected the participants own body image thoughts, both the heterosexual and minority men's. Five dependent variables were examined for both samples they were as follows: 1) drive for muscularity, 2) body dissatisfaction, 3) body surveillance, 4) body shame, 5) social physique anxiety (Michaels *et al*, 2012).

Results found that heterosexual men did not report any negative body images when viewing the muscularity idealizing images compared to the control images in regards to the 5 variables. However, sexual minority men were found to have a more negative view on three of the variables, body dissatisfaction, body surveillance and social physique anxiety (Michaels *et al*, 2012).

Male Sexual Orientation and Objectification

Kozak, Frankenhauser & Roberts (2009) study focused more so on the influence of a man's sexual orientation with regards to self-objectification and the objectification of others. The sample consisted of 30 gay men and 29 heterosexual men (Kozak *et al,* 2009). The research design was correlational quantitative design and involved the use of questionnaires to gather the necessary data concerning the degree of measurement the participants had on objectification, including how they viewed themselves, other men and women in their physical appearance- based versus body competence- based terms (Kozak *et al,* 2009). These result showed that indeed gay men objectified, in regards to themselves and others. However, heterosexual men objectified women much more than they did to men. The research suggested that there was a clear correlation between the amount of self-objectification and the degree of objectification towards other men, for homosexual men, whereas for heterosexual

men self-objectification did not seem to have a correlation with the use of objectification against others men (Kozak *et al,* 2009).

Summary of objectification effects

As shown above the effects of objectifycation is vast and varied. The issues related to objectification consist both of physical problems and mental health problems. Mental health problems such as eating disorders that have been linked with self- objectification, internalised ideal body expectations, body shame and an unhealthy need for thinness (Calogero *et al*, 2005). These are all serious mental health issue. Issues involving negative body surveillance and dehumanization is also linked to sexual objectification. And a real concern is that not only are women self- objectifying and dehumanizing themselves but also objectifying and dehumanizing other women too (Puvia & Jeroen, 2013). Creating a negative focus to how an individual's body should look rather than how one body should feel health wise.

The physical effect created by objectification are also of concern. Having unnecessary surgeries to improve one's social standard of beauty is now suggested as being as socially acceptable (Calogero *et al*, 2010). More hazardous issues surrounding objectification is that it is linked to self-harm, as dissociation and body shame has be shown to cause depression and therefore the risk of self-harm also (Erchull, *et al,* 2013).

Men are not invulnerable to the effects of self-objectification and sexual objectification either. Sexual minority men have felt such effects as body surveillance, social physique anxiety and body dissatisfaction (Michaels *et al*, 2012). And as well as this have been known objectify other men (Kozak *et al,* 2009). The research has suggested that heterosexual men however, have been prone to focus more so however on sexually objectifying women (Kozak

et al, 2009). The following literature reviews will focus on the Medias portrayal of women for further potential explanation as to why this sexual objection occurs.

<u>Medias influences on the portrayal of women</u>

Media-portrayed idealized images.

Monro and Huons 2005 research studys main aim was to establish the effect of the idealisation image of a woman by the media, on young women's issues with appearance anxiety and issues on body shame (Monro & Huon, 2005). Another aim of the study was to determine if the effects are governed by the samples self- objectification and governed by the type of advertisement. This research was created by using a sample of 39 college students, all of which were females (Monro & Huon, 2005). The researchers used twenty four adverts from magazines which consisted of two types of adverts. Twelve adverts were non body related products and the other twelve were body related products. The two types of adverts were mixed half with idealised body images and the other half were not. The sample were measured for body shame issues and appearance anxiety issues before and after they were shown the adverts (Monro & Huon, 2005).

The findings for this study showed that after viewing the adverts that consisted of idealised images of women appearance anxiety increased. The interconnection between idealised body and self- objectification was also significant when the presence of idealised images were present compared to when they were absent (Monro & Huon, 2005). Body shame issues increased within the sample after viewing the idealised images adverts compared with before they were viewed, this was the case whether the adverts were body related or non-body related. This was also the case with case with self- objectification, there was no difference

between body related or non-body related adverts but more so about the idealised body images portrayed in the adverts (Monro & Huon, 2005). The study showed that idealised portrayals of women by advertisements had indeed negative effects on both body shame and appearance anxiety in young women. The study also showed how different components of body images had different effects on young women. The researchers hope that the study will help combat body image and eating disorders through early intervention and prevention (Monro & Huon, 2005).

Women in Advertisements

The aim of Zimmerman and Dahlberg 2008 study was to measure the attitudes of young women in regards to advertisers using sexual objectification in adverts. The study was done by combining elements of two previous survey studies (Zimmerman & Dahlberg, 2008). This new altered survey was then administered to a sample of 94 female undergraduates. The results of the study showed that there was a significant change in the attitudes of educated young women (Zimmerman & Dahlberg, 2008). The participants of the study agreed that females were in fact portrayed in advertisements as sexual objects, rather than individuals. However, this sample of participants in 2000 were less offended by the portrayal of women than the women who participated in 1991(Zimmerman & Dahlberg, 2008). As well as this, the findings of the studies suggest that the women of the year 2000 attitudes toward the advertisement itself, would have little influence on whether or not the women would purchase what was being advertised. This is also highly different in comparison to the respondents' attitudes of 1991 (Zimmerman & Dahlberg, 2008).

Pornography

Hernandez aim for the research paper was to briefly review the previous literature within this topic but with particular concern for the effects that the consumption of pornography has on mens attitudes in regards to women. The paper shows many different examples of theories that's aim is to help aid in the explanation of the effects pornography has on the consumer (Hernandez, 2011). These example theories include social learning theory, aggression models and feminist theories. Not only does the research try to explain the effects for the consumer but it also investigates the correlation between the consumption of pornography and the issue of gender discrimination (Hernandez, 2011).

The research mentioned shows that a correlation appears to be present between the consumption of pornography and attitudes that suggest support of violence against women, as well as men having control and dominance over women along with supportive attitudes towards the objectification of women. It research also proposes that the consuming of pornography is linked with attitudes where women are expected within a sexual setting to want the same sexual acts and to also act and behave the same way as the women the pornography act and behave, which is known to be subordinate towards the men the pornography (Hernandez, 2011). These results in particular with humanist and feminist groups hold very strong significance as gender discrimination and gender stereotypes are highly focused on within these groups. These findings can be added to the other research in order to help combat particular social issues such as violence against women, sexual exploitation, male entitlement and the ethical role that the media has on the subject of gender inequalities (Hernandez, 2011).

Adolescent Boys and Girls and Media Pressures

Knauss, Paxton and Alsaker 2008 research main objective was to explore a theoretical measuring model that labels the correlation between components of consciousness bodily objectification. This included body surveillance and body shame as well as body dissatisfaction, perceived media pressure, body mass index and internalisation of media body ideals (Knauss *et al,* 2008). The sample focus was adolescent girls and boys from Sweden. The age bracket for the adolescent sample was from 14 years of age to 16 years of age and consisted of 791 girls and 819 boys (Knauss *et al,* 2008). The research was carried out by the participants completing a self-measuring report in regards with the body objectification components. The measuring model was supported by the equation model in both adolescent girls and boys. The results of the research showed that the adolescent girls suffered more from body shame and body surveillance than adolescent boys (Knauss *et al,* 2008).

Sexual Objectification in Music Videos

Sexual objectification is very apparent within the mass media culture, however music videos are seen as being one of the most obvious examples there is for sexual objectification (Aubrey & Frisby, 2011). The main aim of Aubrey and Frisbys study was to develop a measuring system using coding, to measure the correlation between music videos and sexual objectification. The research focused on four music genres in particular, which included pop, country, hip-hop and R&B. The research then compared those four genres to the gender of the artists that were being sexual objectified (Aubrey & Frisby, 2011). The results of the research was specifically focused on with Objectification Theory and sexual agency in mind. The results showed that female artists were subject to more sexual objectification than the male artists were. The female artists were also more prone to exhibit sexually appealing

behaviour and were held to a higher standard in regards to their appearance than their male counterparts (Aubrey & Frisby, 2011). Furthermore the findings showed that sexual objectification was present more so in hip-hop, pop and R&B music videos more than it was present in country music videos (Aubrey & Frisby, 2011).

Music Videos and College Men's Sexual Beliefs

This study, also produced by Aubrey (and also Hopper and Mbure) main aim is to investigate how the sexual objectification of female music artists in their music videos has correlation effects young male undergraduate sexual beliefs. The results of the research showed that participants who watched the music videos consisting of exceedingly sexually objectified female music artists had significantly more adversarial sexual beliefs and were more in acceptance of interpersonal violence (Aubrey *et al,* 2011). With a marginal level of significance the findings found that those who watched the objectified music videos had more negative attitudes regarding sexual harassment. These findings were in comparison to the participants who were assigned to watch the lower level of exposure to sexual objectification female artists' music videos. Path models suggest that adversarial sexual beliefs mediated he correlation condition concerning 1) the level of acceptance towards interpersonal violence and 2) the undesirable attitudes with regards to the sexual harassment of women (Aubrey *et al,* 2011).

Medias effects on Sexual Empowerment

Murnen and Smolak aim of this particular 2011 study was to continue on with lamb and Petersons 2011 discussion with regards to the development of sexual empowerment in young

girls and the discussion as to what the social forces that influences that development. Media has had a major focus on portraying women as sexual objects for the enjoying of men and sexist ideas and sexist treatment of both girls and women is seen in media consistently (Murnen & Smolak, 2011).

The study was done in the United States and focused on gathering previous research that aids in the understanding of patriarchy control over female sexuality. The study reviewed research that shows a linkage between the sexist media messages and the development of sexual objectification, as well as supportive attitudes and behaviours with regards to stereotyped gendered based sexual roles (Murnen & Smolak, 2011). The study suggested that a lot of research is focused on women, but that there is a lack of research focusing on girls and the developing of sexual empowerment. The study then suggests that more research should be done on girls with an ecological framework that would permit for further investigation of the media messages from various sources systematically within a developmental framework (Murnen & Smolak, 2011).

Summary conclusion

The above literature has not only shown the ways in which way women have been portrayed in the media, but also the many different avenues to which the mass media has portrayed women. Influence by the media has been suggested to start young in an individual's life (Knauss *et al,* 2008). This is to suggest that the effects of objectification for boys and girls also starts a younger age. Both adolescent boys and girls were shown to have issues with negative body surveillance and body shame. Adolescent girls however were seen to suffer more so from the issues (Knauss *et al,* 2008). It is not just body shame and surveillance that effects young girls, but also their opinion on their own sexual empowerment. The way in

which media portrays women as sexual desires for the enjoyment of men is significantly apparent and links a sexist message for young girls that a man's sexual desire is more important than a woman's healthy feeling of sexual empowerment for their own self (Murnen & Smolak, 2011).

The negative ideas of how a woman should be is included in all types of mass media. Women are highly sexually objectified in pornography in particularly, and are once again often showed as subordinate objects to be controlled by men. This has been linked to serious dangerous issues such as sexual harassment and violent abusive behaviour towards women (Hernandez, 2011). Women in music videos are portrayed similarly, even those who have musical talent who are portrayed sexually, have been sexually objectified by participants in research. And like pornography the beliefs of individuals who watch the music videos have been linked to higher levels of acceptance with regards to violence (Aubrey *et al,* 2011)

It is this shown view from previous research that gives way to the suggestion that the way men see women portrayed in the media may be linked to mens acts of sexual objectification towards women.

Hypotheses

This study consists of three hypotheses.

The main hypothesis of this research study is that mass media does influence men's view on the sexual objectification of women.

The research has also constructed two other secondary hypotheses which includes:

The hypothesis the way in which men believe women should feel about their appearance is influenced by the mass media.

And also the hypothesis that there is a correlation between body shaming women and the influence of the mass media.

METHOD:

Design

This research used a quantitative research design. This type of research was a correlational design approach. The reason for it being a correlational design was because the researches aim was to find the relationship that is between mass media and sexual objectification of women. In this correlational approach the variables were Mass Media influence as the Predictor Variable (PV) and Sexual Objectification of women as the Criterion Variable (CV).

Method of Analysis:

The method of examining the relationship between the two variables; mass Medias influence (PV) and sexual objectification (CV) will help to understand how/if the PV effects the CV by using correlational analyses.

Materials

The materials used for this research included the computer programme SPSS v22, this programme was used to input, compute total scores and correlate data. As well as this SPSS V22 was used to recode negative answers where was it was necessary. Also used as the internet website application called Survey Monkey. This application helped the researcher to construct a survey through an easily manageable technique. Survey Monkey was also used to gather and analysis and conserve the data that was gathered. Survey monkey was able to gather the sample participants by using the social networking site Facebook. Using Survey

Monkey the researcher sent out a link via Facebook for the required sample participants to take part.

There were two survey questionnaires used for the research. Both surveys were altered to fit the present research focus. This was done by leaving out some of the items deemed unnecessary by the researcher and slightly changing the wording in survey question that were used see appendix one for a copy of the original questionnaires by (McKinley & Hyde, 1996 and Stice, Nemeroff, & Shaw, 1996) and appendix two for the altered versions of these questionnaires used in the present research.

The first survey was the self-objectification survey by McKinley & Hyde, (1996). For this questionnaire the researcher also divided it into three sub sections for correlation with the media variable. A total of 15 questions were used from the self-objectification questionnaire. 15-75

The first was a total appearance variable which included the questions 1, 4, 6, 7, 9,11,13,14. This meant that the lowest result that could be obtained was 8 and the highest result that could be obtained was 40 with higher scores indicating a higher pre-occupation with women's appearance. Sample items included question 4. I think it is more important that women clothes are comfortable than whether they look good on them, question 9. Women should worry about whether the clothes they wear make them look good and question 14. Personality is more important than a woman's looks.

The second variable created was a total body shame variable which included the questions 2, 5, 8 and 12. This meant that the lowest result that could be obtained was 4 and the highest result that could be obtained was 20 with higher scores indicating a higher pre-occupation with women's body shame. Sample items included question 8. I think something is wrong

with women if they don't exercising as much as they should and question 5. I feel embarrassed for women when they haven't made the effort to look their best.

The final subsection that was produced was the control variable, however because of the limited control questions, no correlation was made between the control variable and the mass medias influence. Sample items include question 10. When a person doesn't exercise enough, they should question whether they are a good enough person and question 15. The shape a woman is depends mostly on genes.

The type of research questionnaire that used for this study was a Likert scale questionnaire. This meant that the participants were given statements regarding sexual objectification and were then asked to choose a number regarding their feelings on the given statement. This included the appearance variable, the control variable and the body shame variable within the questionnaire. The measuring items consisted of 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= indifferent, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree. 11-55

The second questionnaire was the mass media influence survey by Stice, Nemeroff, & Shaw (1996). This questionnaire contained a total of 11 items. The higher the scores that the participants obtained suggested that the participants was more likely to be influenced by the mass media.
Sample items included question 5. I like to browse in shopping centres I pay attention to attractive women shopping for latest fashion, question 8. I like to watch exercise/fitness videos and shows on T.V. featuring well-toned women and question 3. When I see a picture of a female model or actress, I pay attention to her body.

The Likert scale questionnaire was also the type of scale used for the media influence questionnaire. This meant that the participants were again given statements regarding the medias influence and were then asked to choose a number regarding their feelings on the given statement. The measuring items again consisted of 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= indifferent, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree.

Participants

The sample for this research consisted of 99 participants. All participants were males. All participants were also categorised within four different age group, including 18 to 21 years of age, 22 to 25 years of age, 26 to 29 years of age and 30 and upwards age group. The sample participants were gathered via the internet and chose to participate on their own accord.

Procedure

The researcher began the research firstly by developing the three hypothesis, one primary hypothesis and two secondary hypothesis. This was done through examining and investigating previous research. Once all known relevant research journals were studied and the three hypothesis were created, the researcher then chose the best possible way to get the necessary results. A Quantitative questionnaires was seen as the best possible way of gathering the required data. The researcher altered two ready known research questionnaire (self-objectification by McKinley & Hyde (1996) and media questionnaires by Stice, Nemeroff, & Shaw (1996)) to fit the present research. Little was altered in the questionnaires, mainly the researcher changed the wording where appropriate and did not include certain

question that would be irrelevant for the present research (see index). Once the questionnaires were altered for the research, the researcher then created an online survey using the programme Survey Monkey. A total of 26 questions were conducted as well as a question grouping the sample in to four different age categories. The survey was then posted out via the social networking site Facebook, where the researcher asked heterosexual males over the age of 18years to take part in a research study. The full purpose of the study was not explained to the sample until the end of the questionnaires as not to create a biased view within the participant's heads before completing the survey. Once the participants were finished the survey the research gave the participants the choice of contacting the researcher if the participants required more information. Once the correct amount of data needed for the study was collected (99 questionnaires were filled out), the survey was stopped and the researcher then began to analysis the data. This included recoding negative answers, computing total scores, running correlation test on different variables (including the strength of the correlation, positive and negative correlations) and the level of significance that the research had achieved. The data was analysed using both Survey Monkey and the SPSS v22 programme.

Ethical considerations

Like all research there were ethical issues and risks that were addressed for this study. The research aimed was to ensure to the participants received the upmost standard of care and concern possible and that all ethical issues were covered. These ethical issues included ensuring that the participants were aware to some extent what the research was about (without influencing the participants' opinions), ensuring that all participants were over the age of 18 and also ensuring that participants were aware that they were free to stop their

involvement at any point of the research. As well as this the questions on the questionnaire that the researcher produced, were appropriate and were not of too sensitive an issue for the sample participants. And finally the researcher ensured that the identity of the participants were kept anonymous at all costs and that the participants were aware of this. One ethical concern involving anonymity was the issue of the IP address that was automatically present when Survey Monkey gathered the data. However, to best ensure that anonymity and privacy was present in the survey, the researcher changed the settings within the Survey Monkey application so that the IP addresses were not shown.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

The following table shows the overall average means and standard descriptive results for the total media, total objectification, total appearance and total body shame.

Table 1 showing means and standard deviations for all variables use in analysis

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Total media	32.45	8.26	94
Total object	49.76	7.14	91
Total appearance	27.70	4.50	94
Total body shame	10.08	2.74	97

As can be seen from table one above, the means average for total media is 32.45 and the standard deviation is 8.26. For the means average on total objectification the findings showed 49.76 with a standard deviation of 7.14. Furthermore the means average for total appearance is 27.70 with a standard deviation of 4.50. And lastly the average means for total body shame is 10.08 and a standard deviation of 8.26.

Table 2 showing the age categories of the participants

Answer Choices	Responses
18-21	10.42%
	10
22-25	59.38%
	57
26-29	17.71%
	17
30+	12.50%
	12
Total	96

The above table shows the age categories that were included into the research. Showing that the majority age category was the age category of 22- 25 years with 59.38% (57 participants) of the overall response data.

Inferential statistics

The main hypothesis which is that mass media does influence men's view in regards to the sexual objectification of women. The results suggest that the main hypothesis for this study is supported.

The correlation between the media and objectification was a positive correlation and it ranged on the higher level of a moderate strength correlation Cohen (1988). The Pearson's (r) showed the level of strength as .488.

The significance level for this correlation was found as highly significant, meaning that the repetition of this research would very much so be likely to result with the same findings. The significance level showed the level at .0001Figure 1: Scatterplot showing correlation between total objectification scores and media influence
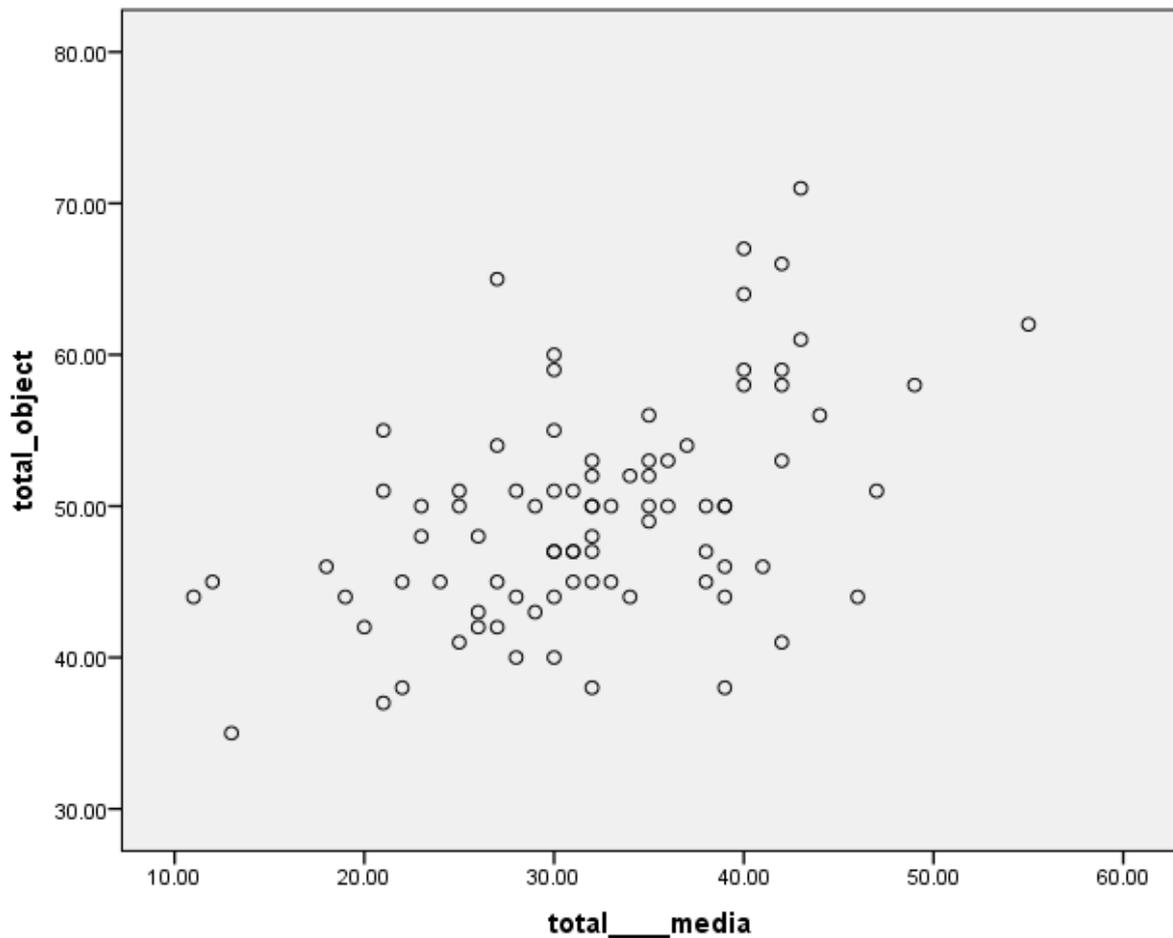
Figure 1 scatter plot for objectification and the mass media

The first graph above shows that the relationship between sexual objectification and media influence is going towards a positive direction.

The results also showed that the second hypothesis was also supported. The hypothesis which predicted that the way in which men believe women should feel about their appearance is influenced by the mass media.

The correlation between the media and appearance was a positive correlation and it ranged at a moderate strength correlation level. The Pearsons (r) showed the level of strength as .484.

The significance level for this correlation was found as highly significant, meaning that the repetition of this research would very much so be likely to result with the same findings. The significance level showed the level at .0001.

Figure 2: Scatterplot showing correlation between total appearance scores and media influence
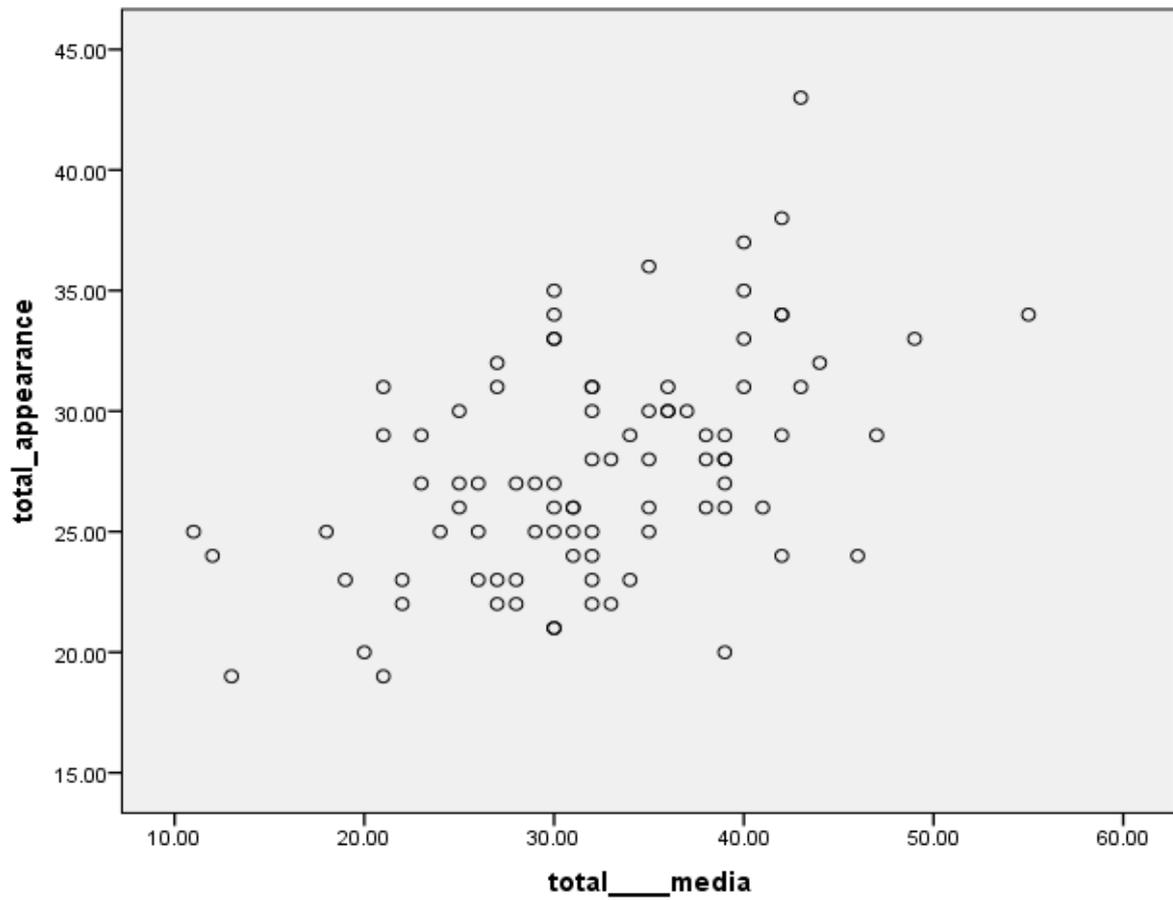
Figure 2 scatter plot for appearance and the mass media

The second graph above shows that the relationship between appearance and media influence is also going towards a positive direction.

Figure 3: Scatterplot showing correlation between total body shame scores and media influence
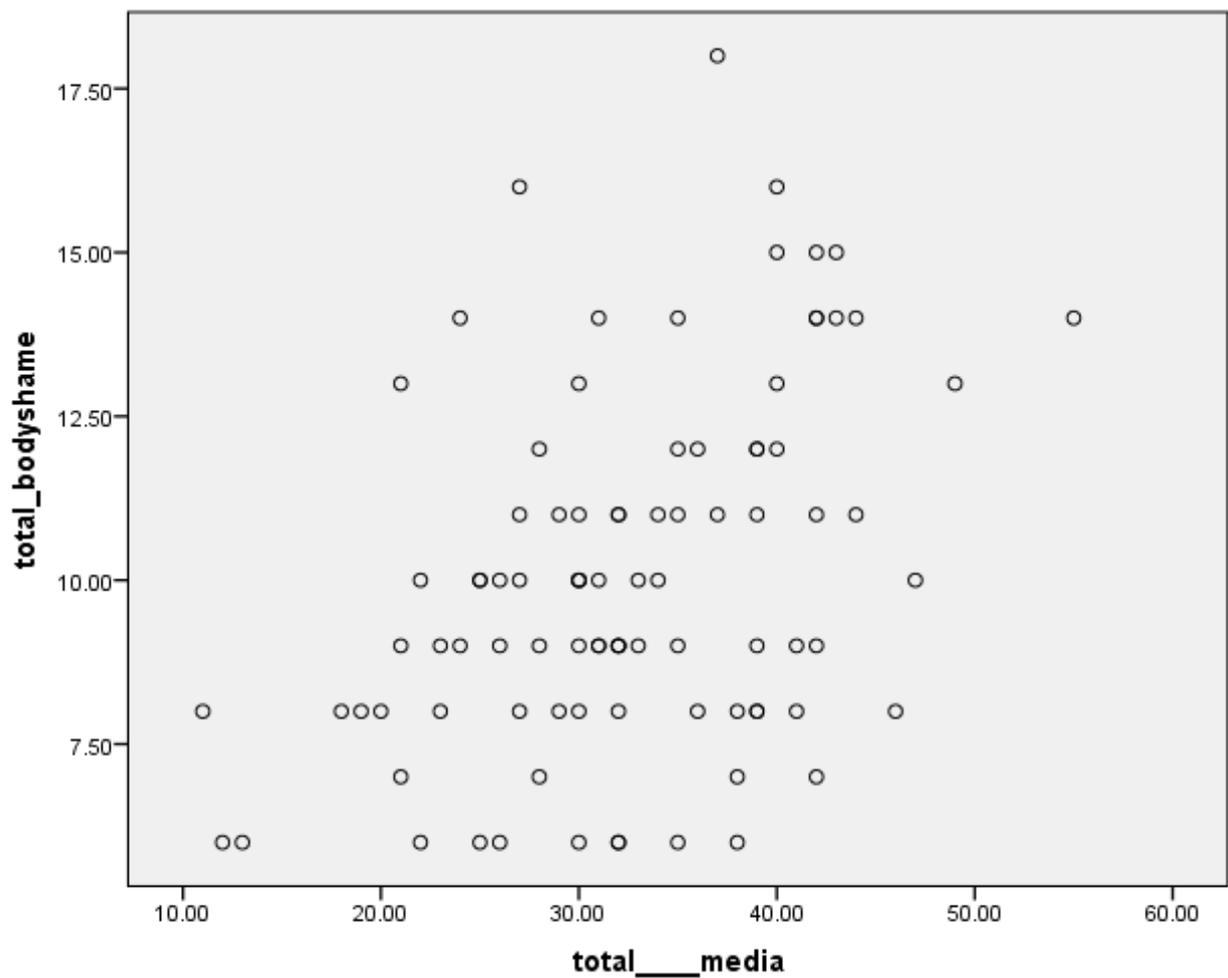
The final scatterplot graph shows no clear relationship between body shame and the Medias influence

Furthermore, the results showed that the final hypothesis was also supported. The hypothesis which predicted that there is a correlation between men's views on body shaming women and the influence of the mass media.

The correlation between the media and the body shame was a positive correlation and it ranged at a moderate strength correlation level. The Pearsons (r) showed the level of strength as .409.

The significance level for this correlation was found as highly significant, meaning that the repetition of this research would very likely result with the same findings. The significance level showed the level at .0001.

DISCUSSION

The findings

There were three main aim of this research, one primary research aim and two secondary research aims. The aims included 3 hypothesis which were as follows

Hypothesis 1. The mass media does influence men's view on the sexual objectification of women, hypothesis 2. The way in which men believe women should feel about their appearance is influenced by the mass media and hypothesis 3 that there is a correlation body shaming women and the influence of the mass media.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was to see if there was a relationship between the sexual objectification of women and the mass Medias influence on men. As shown in the results section above the first hypothesis has been supported. The results show that there was a correlation between the Medias influence and men's sexual objectification of women. The correlation was of moderate strength that suggests that although there was a link between the two variables, the link its self was not that strong. This suggests that the participants were influenced by the media to some extent but not as much as the researcher expected. This would also suggest that the participants did partake in objectifying women but not to the extremity that the researcher expected. The significance level was high, which is an interesting factor for researchers who want to replicate the research, as this means that the likelihood of this research being successfully replicated is high.

This supported hypothesis is consistent with the previous research that has been given within the study. As with the previous literature that was reviewed, the study showed a relationship between the media and negative attitudes towards women. Such previous research includes the music industries portrayal of women (Aubrey & Frisby, 2011). In particular the music videos. That research showed that there was a significant link that men who watched women music artist who were portrayed as objects of desire for men, were more in acceptance of sexual harassment towards women. Like the present research, Aubrey, Hopper and Mbure 2011 research also suggests a very prominent link between the way the media portrays women and the negative attitudes that men have towards women. It is not only sexual harassment that the participants were more in acceptance of, but also interpersonal violence. Music videos are not the only media output that has a correlation between sexual objectifying women, a more perhaps obvious media avenue is the pornography industry that also has a link with violence (Hernandez, 2011). That research suggest that as with the present research, the media influences men to see women in a negative light and are seen as sexual objects of desire for men. The implications for that research however shows the effects that sexual objectification could result in, the past research suggest a higher acceptance in attitudes towards domestic violence and also attitudes that suggest how an actress in a pornography film behaves is how a women in real life is supposed to act, in particular with regards to a sexual relationship (Hernandez, 2011). The most common behaviour in pornography for women, is for the woman to be subordinate and under control of the male actor. However, the actors are in fact acting and the films are an unrealistic portrayal of sexual intimacy (Hernandez, 2011). This is one of many behaviours that has been shown in past research, and the current research suggests a consistency between past and present research.

Hypothesis 2.

The second hypothesis predicted the way in which men believe women should feel about their appearance is influenced by the mass media. As shown in the results section the second hypothesis has also been supported. The results show that there was a correlation between the Medias influence and men's beliefs on how women should feel about their appearance. The correlation was of moderate strength that again suggests that although there was a link between the two variables, the link its self was not that strong. This would indicate that the participants were influenced by the media to some extent but not as much as the researcher expected. This would also suggest that the participants did have beliefs on how women should feel about their appearance but not to the extremity that the researcher expected. In addition to that, the significance level was high as well, which is an interesting factor for researchers who want to replicate the research, as this means that the likelihood of this research being successfully replicated is high.

This supported hypothesis is consistent with the previous research that has been given within the study. However, more studies in the past have focused more so on how media influence effects the women themselves (such as Erchull, Liss & Lichiello study on self-harm) rather than the influence that the media has on men's beliefs on how women should feel about their appearance, such as the current research focus was on. The relationship between body image idealisation in the media and self-objectification is a much discussed issue in research. An example of this is the study on the media pressure that young teenagers is particularly relevant. Like the appearance variable in the present study, this study showed the pressure that the media placed on appearance on boys and girls, but particularly girls. However, Knauss, Paxton and Alsaker (2008) study showed the participants suffered from negative body surveillance and body shame that was linked to the Medias influence. This study is particularly of interest as the standards of attractiveness that the teenagers are made to feel, is

in fact unrealistic standards as the adolescent participants have not even reached full bodily maturity yet (Knauss *et al*, 2008).

The current hypothesis has been shown to support previous less prominent research however. According to Kozak, Frankenhauser & Roberts (2009) men who are shown to be judging the women on their appearance are not always heterosexual, homosexual men have been shown to do so as well. This may be consistent with the present hypothesis as the study did not specify as to what sexuality the participants were. This is consistent with the present research that the monitoring of a women's appearance is not just in relation to sexual objectification, but also the blatant social standards of what is expected from a women. The study on women dehumanizing each other by Puvia and Vaes (2013) also supports this research. The study shows the link between the standards of beauty pressured on women and the objectification of women by other women (Puvia and Vaes, 2013). Furthermore, research has shown that within the music industry women artist are held to a higher standard in regards to their appearance than their male counterparts are (Aubrey & Frisby, 2011)

Hypothesis 3

The final aim was to see if there was a correlation between body shaming women and the influence of the mass media. As shown in the results section the third hypothesis has been supported. The results show that there was a correlation between the Medias influence and the body shaming of women. The correlation was of moderate strength that suggests that although there was a link between the two variables, that once again the link its self was not that strong. This suggests that the participants were influenced by the media to some extent but not as much as the researcher expected. This would also suggest that the participants did partake in the body shaming woman but not to the extremity that the researcher expected. The

significance level was high as it was for the other two hypothesis, which again is an interesting factor for future researchers who want to replicate the research, as this means that the likelihood of this research being successfully replicated is high.

The relationship between body shaming and media influence is also a much discussed issue in research. The present research has been shown to support previous research such as the study which links the body shame encouraged by the media as motivation to get plastic surgery (Calogero *et al*, 2010). Women are shown to change their appearance with unnecessary surgery to feel less body shame and again a socially accepted standard of appearance that is portrayed by the mass media.

The present study is also consistent with more physically affecting issues such as the studies on self-harm and eating disorders such as Calogero, Davis and Thompson's (2005) study on those with serious eating disorders has suggested a link was present between the Medias influence and the participants body shame, self-objectification and behavioural eating issues. And of equal concern is the research by Erchull's (2013) study that shows linkage between depression and self-harm with media influence of body shame. As suggested in the study, media pressures of idealized body images has be shown to lead to body surveillance and body shame. This body shame in turn lead to dissociation and depression which was furthermore was linked self-harm (Erchull *et al*, 2013).

Another study that was highly supported by the current research was Monro & Huon, (2005), that suggested similar findings. As with the present study, this also supports the hypothesis as an example of research with high significance levels. The study showed advertising images to a sample group consisting of women. Half the adverts did not show idealised images of women, the other half did show idealised images of women (Monro & Huon, 2005). The

women who were shown the idealised women images were seen as significantly more effected by the images. The participants were not only linked to feelings of body shame but also feeling of social appearance anxiety (Monro & Huon, 2005).

Conclusion of Hypothesis Discussion

The two main topics discussed in the presented literature included the effects of objectification and the Medias portrayal of women. These two topics have been shown as two intertwining factors in past research. These intertwining links have been shown to have concerning results for those who are objectified. This includes physical issues such as unnecessary cosmetic surgery to obtain the idealised standards of beauty portrayed by the media (Calogero *et al*, 2010). As well as the issue of self-harm due to women feeling the pressures of what a woman is supposed to be in terms of how others view her (Erchull, *et al,* 2013). Objectification has been linked to severe eating disorders where women are admitted to residential treatment facilities (Calogero *et al*, 2005). And studies on women's cosmetic surgery attitudes has linked with the way in which media has stereotyped women as sexual objects, suggests the most important human feature is a women physical features rather than their individual human abilities (Calogero *et al*, 2005), as well as dehumanizing and objectifying other women as well. Creating even more negative issues surrounding body image (Puvia and Vaes, 2013).

These are all delicate issues of concern, which is why the input of consistent and current research such as this present research is of importance. Firstly to see if the media and objectification topic is an increasing topic of concern, or are the problems with this topic decreasing. And secondly to explore in greater detail, to gather more information to help combat the effects and issues surrounding this topic. The current research has helped to

further support the body of research that shows what seems to be a clear indication that media influences the perception of women in a negative way. It is also important to note that although this research helps to add to a body of research that is similar, this study differs from some of the previous research as it seems to be a unique perspective. While most of the study reviews for this research concentrates their focus on self-objectification or how the media effects the women themselves (Calogero *et al*, 2005). This present research focused more on how the media influences men views of women, in relation to sexual objectification. However, that is not to say that this present research stands purely alone. Other research has focused on how media effects men ideas on of women, but the researches focus was on what type of media outlets had been of more importance. Examples of this include the research that has been done on the relationship between the consumer of pornography and the ideas and behaviours of that consumer towards women (Hernandez, 2011). As well as this, there has also been research carried out to see the correlation between the sexual objectification of women in music videos and the effects that it has on men's thoughts on women and violence (Aubrey *et al,* 2011). The way in which this present research differs from those however, is that it did not focus on just one mass media avenue. The questions within the research questionnaire were varied in the type of media that may influence men's sexual objectification. The questions varied from media forms such as advertising, movies, TV, magazines and health and fitness video. This allows future researchers and readers of the study to see the vastness that sexual objectification of women can be portrayed, which in turn, allows for a certain amount of awareness of the importance of the topic and social relatability that it has on society, as mass media is so significant in so many societies.

To conclude further, all three hypothesises were supported both by the present research and the reviewed literature. All three research hypothesises also showed a high strength in regards to significance. The most interesting results to emerge from the research however, is that all

participants scored moderately on the sexual objectification and the media questionnaires. Meaning that the participants answered the questions in such a way that they were indeed influenced by the media, but not very strongly influenced by it. This in particular is of interest as the researcher had expected the research was to find a much stronger influence.

Implications

Questionnaire

As stated in the above section, all three hypotheses had correlations, but the strength of the correlation was moderate. There are a number of different reasons as to why the response is less significant than the researcher would have expected. One reason as to why the correlation was only moderate could be the way in which the questionnaire was configured. The "indifferent" answer could be investigated further. Use of the word "indifferent" in the surveys could have gave participants a response in which the participants did not have to put much thought into the answer of the question. Another factor may have been that the participants could not justify agreeing or disagreeing with a given statement without the need to explain why the participant agreed or disagreed, so therefore used the "indifferent" answer.

This would suggest that a mixture of both quantitative and qualitative research may have been more beneficial to find out more detailed and knowledgeable responses to the statements given to participants. Also a possible reason was that the questions themselves were too vast, and that the participants may have not known how to answer the questions. This would suggest that a different group of survey questions that may have been more accessible, or a newer up to date version of the surveys could have been used. Both the original questionnaires used were dated back to 1996, almost 10 years old. Another aspect to keep in mind is that as with all self-measuring reports, there is always the issue of

participants not expressing their genuine views and attitudes in fear of others somehow finding out their answers, no matter how improbable it may be.

Participant Sample

Another implication was the sample of the participants that took part in the research. The sample for this study might have been too limiting. There were 99 participants, which were taken from a broad pool of men on Facebook. There were no detailed questions put to the participants about where they were located, if the participants were from a city, or a rural location in Ireland. If the participants were living in Ireland or if the participants were living abroad was not specified. The ethnicity nor the nationality of the participants were also not specified. Different cultures from different communities and geographical locations could have different values and attitudes on both the media and how women are viewed within societies. The socioeconomic status of the participants were not specified for the research either, which might have given more understanding as to whom within the participation sample may have been shown as more influenced by the media or were more likely to objectify women from different socioeconomic statuses. As is the same with the educational level of the sample participants. This type of identification factors may have given a more detailed understanding as to what kind of varied sample of men took part in the research.

The only specified identity question put to the participants were what age they were. The results showed that the majority of participants that took part in the research where aged between 22- 25 years of age 59.38% (57 participants), this may indicated that men of this age category may not be as influenced by the media or take part in objectifying women as thought by the researcher. However, further research should be done to include more detailed identifying questions for the participants in order to suggest more accurate information.

Future Research suggestions

As stated above further research could benefit from asking more identifying questions that could investigate who in society is more so influenced and involved in sexual objectification of women. Another factor that may help further research is using a larger scale participation sample to therefore gain more access to a more variety sample group. As well as this, using more up to date or renewed version of quality standards questionnaires could help to benefit future research with understanding the answers that future participants give, a clearer indication of what the participants are expressing within their questionnaire answers. Another way in which further researchers could help to understand the participants in a more detailed fashion would be to include a qualitative aspect to the research study. This would help as it would give the participants a more expressive way of answering the questions of the study.

Overall Conclusion

This study has shown past research on its topic of interest. With the past research, the researcher created its own niche area of interest within the topic area and formulated hypothesises. These hypothesises were that mass media does influence men's view on the sexual objectification of women, that the way in which men believe women should feel about their appearance is influenced by the mass media and that there is a correlation between body shaming women and the influence of the mass media.

The researcher then constructed and carried out quantitative research to investigate if the hypothesis were supported. All three hypothesis were supported, with interesting results as to how moderate all three correlation were. The researcher than compared its present findings

with past research and discussed in depth if the present research was consistent with past research. Furthermore, the researcher explored why the present research was of importance eg. To see the vastness that sexual objectification of women can be portrayed in the media, which in turn, allows for a certain amount of awareness of the importance of the topic and social relatability that it has on society. The research then finished by examining the implications and future research suggestions.

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Altered version of media influence scale and The Revised Objectified Body Consciousness Scale

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read each question and circle the appropriate number on your answer sheet. Please answer all questions.

1 = strongly disagree

2 = disagree

3 = indifferent

4 = agree

5 = strongly agree

1. I like to read mens magazines that feature attractive models.

    1   2   3   4   5

2. I like to watch shows on T.V. that feature thin models

    1   2   3   4   5

3. When I see a picture of a female model or actress, I pay attention to her body

    1   2   3   4   5

4. I like to watch shows featuring physically attractive celebrities

    1   2   3   4   5

5. I like to browse in shopping centres I pay attention to attractive women shopping for latest fashion

    1   2   3   4   5

6. The media influences my views of women

    1   2   3   4   5

7. I like to browse the internet for pictures of physically attractive women

   1   2   3   4   5

8. I like to watch exercise/fitness videos and shows on T.V. featuring well-toned women.

   1   2   3   4   5

9. I like to watch movies with attractive actresses

   1   2   3   4   5

10. I like to watch videos on MTV with attractive women musicians.

   1   2   3   4   5

11. Women in advertising helps to sell products

   1   2   3   4   5

1. I rarely think about how women look

1   2   3   4   5

2. When women can't control their weight, I feel like something must be wrong with them.

1   2   3   4   5

3. I think a person is pretty much stuck with the looks they are born with

1   2   3   4   5

4. I think it is more important that women clothes are comfortable than whether they look good on them

1   2   3   4   5

5. I feel embarrassed for women when they haven't made the effort to look their best.

1   2   3   4   5

6. Women should compare how they look with how other women look.

1   2   3   4   5

7. During the day, women should think about how they look numerous times.

1   2   3   4   5

8. I think something is wrong with women if they don't exercising as much as they should.

1   2   3   4   5

9. Women should worry about whether the clothes they wear make them look good.

1   2   3   4   5

10. When a person doesn't exercise enough, they should question whether they are a good enough person

1   2   3   4   5

11. Women should rarely worry about how they look to other people.

1   2   3   4   5

12. Even when a woman can't control their weight, I think they're an okay person.

1   2   3   4   5

13. It important for a woman to look good

  1   2   3   4   5

14. Personality is more important than a woman's looks.

  1   2   3   4   5

15. The shape a woman is depends mostly on genes.

  1   2   3   4   5

Media Influence Scale

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read each question and circle the appropriate number on your answer sheet. Please answer all questions.

1 = strongly agree

2 = agree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = disagree

5 = strongly disagree

1. I like to read fashion magazines that feature thin models.

       1   2   3   4   5

2. I like to watch fashion shows on T.V. that feature thin models.

       1   2   3   4   5

3. When I see a picture of a female model or actress, I pay attention to her body

shape.

       1   2   3   4   5

4. I like to watch entertainment shows featuring thin celebrities.

       1   2   3   4   5

5. I like to browse in malls and pay attention to the latest fashions.

       1   2   3   4   5

6. If I could afford it, I would like to go to New York fashion shows.

       1   2   3   4   5

7. I like to watch award shows on T.V. and admire the clothes worn by famous

female stars.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

8. I like to watch exercise/fitness videos and shows on T.V. featuring well toned women.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

9. I like to watch movies with famous actresses.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

10. I like to watch videos on MTV with popular music stars.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

The Revised Objectified Body Consciousness Scale

Measures

1. The Revised Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (Quinn & Lewis, 2005) was developed and validated to measure objectified body consciousness in young people. It contains 3 subscales, (a) surveillance (viewing the body as an outside observer), (b) body shame (feeling shame when the body does not conform), and (c) appearance control beliefs.

(a) *Surveillance.* The surveillance subscale measures how frequently individuals would monitor their body and how often they would think of their body in terms of how it looks, rather than how it feels. This subscale consists of 8 items (e.g. 'I often worry about whether the clothes I am wearing make me look good'). Responses are scored on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) 'strongly disagree', (2) 'disagree', (3) 'not sure', (4) 'agree', and (5) 'strongly agree'. Scores can range between 8 and 40 with higher scores indicating a higher level of body surveillance.

(b) *Body shame*. The body shame subscale assesses the extent to which a respondent feels shame if they do not fulfil cultural expectations for their body. This subscale consists of 8 items (e.g. 'I feel like I must be a bad person when I don't look as good as I could'). Responses are scored on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) 'strongly disagree', (2) 'disagree', (3) 'not sure', (4) 'agree', and (5) 'strongly agree'. Scores can range between 8 and 40 with higher scores indicating a higher level of body shame.

(c) *Control.* The control subscale measures an individual's sense of control that they have over their weight and appearance. A high scorer would believe that they could control their weight and appearance if they work hard enough, whereas a low scorer would believe that weight and appearance is controlled by factors such as genes or heredity. This subscale consists of 8 items (e.g. 'I can weigh what I'm supposed to when I try hard enough'). Responses are scored on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) 'strongly disagree', (2) 'disagree', (3) 'not sure', (4) 'agree', and (5) 'strongly agree'. Scores can range between 8 and 40 with higher scores indicating a higher sense of control over weight and appearance.

(See below for measure)

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read each statement below and circle number that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each one:

    1 = strongly agree

    2 = agree

    3 = neither agree nor disagree

    4 = disagree

    5 = strongly disagree

1. I rarely think about how I look…………………………….1   2   3   4   5

2. When I can't control my weight, I feel like something

    must be wrong with me………………………...……….1   2   3   4   5

3. I think a person is pretty much stuck with the looks

    they are born with……………………………………….1   2   3   4   5

4. I think it is more important that my clothes are comfortable

    than whether they look good on me………………………1   2   3   4   5

5. I feel ashamed of myself when I haven't made the

    effort to look my best……………………………….....1   2   3   4   5

6. A large part of being in shape is having that kind of

    body in the first place……………………………….....1   2   3   4   5

7. I think more about how my body feels than

    how my body looks……………………………………..1   2   3   4   5

8. I feel like I must be a bad person when I don't

    look as good as I could…………………………………1   2   3   4   5

9. I think a person can look pretty much how they want
   to if they are willing to work at it…………………………1   2   3   4   5

10. I rarely compare how I look with how other
    people look………………………………………………1   2   3   4   5

11. I would be ashamed for people to know what
    I really weigh…………………………………………..1   2   3   4   5

12. I really don't think I have much control over how
    my body looks…………………………………………1   2   3   4   5

13. During the day, I think about how I look many times……...1   2   3   4   5

14. I never worry that something is wrong with me when
    I am not exercising as much as I should……………………1   2   3   4   5

15. I think a person's weight is mostly determined by
    the genes they are born with………………………………..1   2   3   4   5

16. I often worry about whether the clothes I am
    wearing make me look good………………………....……1   2   3   4   5

17. When I'm not exercising enough, I question whether
    I am a good enough person………………………………..1   2   3   4   5

18. It doesn't matter how hard I try to change my weight
    it's probably always going to be about the same…………...1   2   3   4   5

19. I rarely worry about how I look to other people…………...1   2   3   4   5

20. Even when I can't control my weight, I think

    I'm an okay person………………………………………1   2   3   4   5

21. I can weigh what I'm supposed to when

    I try hard enough...1   2   3   4   5

22. I am more concerned with what my body can

    do than how it looks……………………………………...1   2   3   4   5

23. When I'm not the size I think I should be,

    I feel ashamed..1   2   3   4   5

24. The shape you are in depends mostly on your genes……….1   2   3   4   5