

**Body image: Investigating body image satisfaction, self-esteem and eating behaviour
among a sample of male students at the University of the Western Cape**

A mini-thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Masters in Psychology at the University of the Western Cape

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Keywords: Body image, self-esteem, self-worth, eating behaviour, eating disorders,
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Abstract

Body image has mainly been conducted to be a female concern, as studies have shown females to be more dissatisfied with their bodies than males. However there is a growing interest in male body image research suggesting that there may be dissatisfaction in body shape amongst males. The literature on body dissatisfaction indicates that factors that have influenced females are evident in male body dissatisfaction as well. Such factors include, self-esteem, which describes the worth an individual places on him or herself, as well as the effects of negative eating behaviors, which describes the extreme measures an individual will adopt to achieve the unattainable ideal that he or she is exposed to through society and ultimately through ones environment. Therefore, much like females research has shown that an increase in body dissatisfaction has also lead to a decrease in the worth males place on themselves .The aim of this research was to establish body image satisfaction, self-esteem and eating behaviour among a sample of male students at UWC. Because of the dearth in literature on male's perception of body image in South Africa, the rationale of this study was to broaden the knowledge base of body dissatisfaction from the South African male perspective. To acquire information that will provide an understanding to the complex interrelated phenomenon which is body image, the researcher undertook a quantitative approach based on a sample of 68 Psychology first year students between the ages of 17-67 years, coloured (61.8%), black (27.9%) and are mainly from the Arts faculty. The Body shape Questionnaire (BSQ-16), Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale and the Eating Attitudes test (EAT-26) was used to collect the information from participants. The findings indicated that there were no significant relationship between body image and the participants eating attitude. However, the results indicated that self-esteem is an important factor in both ones perception of one's body image and ones attitude towards food.

DECLARATION

I declare that this whole thesis is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Crystal Samuels

Date

The logo of the University of the Western Cape, featuring a classical building facade with six columns and a pediment, rendered in a light blue color. Below the building, the text "UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE" is written in a serif font, with "UNIVERSITY" and "WESTERN CAPE" in all caps and "of the" in lowercase.

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

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Firstly I would like to thank God who gave me strength and made it possible for me to do this study.

To my supervisor, Prof. Mwaba thanks for your supervision.

To my parents, Mr. Ronald Samuels and Mrs. Lynette Samuels, thank you for being such good role models in my life. I am here because of your unconditional love and support.

To my brother, Randall thanks for helping me when I am in need. To my sister, Melody, thank you for being my best friend and all that a little sister needs. I am truly blessed to have a family that loves me so much.

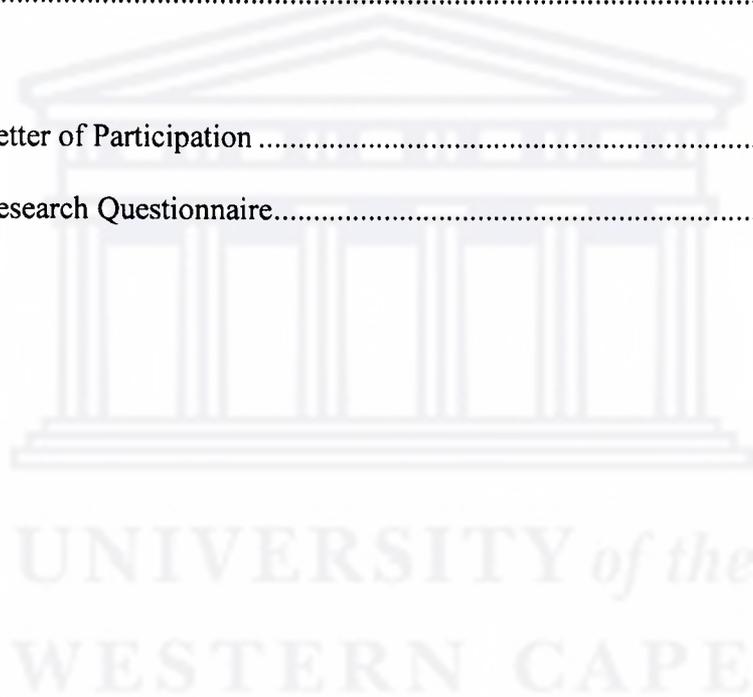
And finally to the participants thank you for taking part in this study.



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Definition of Terms and Concepts

The following definitions were used in this study:

- Body Image:** An umbrella term for a large number of concepts as they relate to the human perception of the body. Thus in the following research, body image included all constructs related to how a person feel about as well as their perception of their body.
- Self-Esteem:** A feeling of pride in oneself as it relates to global image as well as the congruence with a desired image of oneself.
- Eating attitude:** Eating attitude refers to the relationship the individual has with food. A negative relationship could be conducive to developing eating disorders, such as anorexia nervosa or bulimia nervosa.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. Background and Rationale

The late Michael Jackson sang about 'the man in the mirror', the lyrics of the song focused on how every individual can make a personal contribution to the world. However, it seems that many people were more fascinated with Michael Jackson's physical appearance than the message of the song. The engagement and interest to the human body did not start with Michael Jackson, rather it has been a growing concern to scholars and researchers alike for many centuries, especially in determining whether the mind or the body governs an individual (Leone, 2007). Studies of the female body have and still are the central component of discourse associated with pathologising women both medically and psychologically (Tommy, 2002). However, what is less known is that the male body has also been a topic of interest for centuries, ranging from the Greek mythology of Adonis, to the sculpture of David, by Michelangelo. Much like the female body, a central component of the male body is that it represents sexuality for attracting the opposite sex, although on the other hand representations of strength and power are often correlated to the masculine body (Pope, Philips & Olivardia, 2000). Many researchers believe that issues about anxiety of one's body weight, shape and the attempts made to diet has historically both locally and internationally been viewed as issues that can only be identified by women. Feminist theorists have recognized that the body is an important aspect in the oppression of women, and therefore has examined the complexities of women's relationships and how it is related to eating disorders (Shefer, 1987 & Marshall, 1996). While distinctions between the male and female gender is clearly evident, similarities concerning issues on body image has become more prominent in recent decades.

The term body image is described as “...*something we are born with, like our eye colour...it is something we acquire through our interaction with our environment and others*” (Papadapaulas, 2004, p8). Thus, body image is viewed as a multidimensional construct because there are many layers to how one view oneself, as ones body image incorporates both personal and social meanings to the individual (Bottamini, Ste-Marie & Diane, 2006). Hence, when viewing body image by its individual parts, ‘body’ represents the somatic component of one’s physical self, while ‘image’ is described as ones perceptual view of oneself and the reactions of others (Leone, 2007).

In the South African context different cultures have different views on body weight, shape and size, therefore what one culture views as being plump and unhealthy may be viewed in another culture as beautiful and healthy (Papadapaulas, 2004). It is therefore clear that there are two observations to body image, namely; how the body is viewed literally referring to what is evident in sight, and secondly what the body itself represents referring to what is associated to the body, for example, the male body may be associated to images of power. When ones external view of oneself links to how one feel internally, the term self-esteem is used. Self-esteem is a broad term, which refers to the individual’s sense of his or her own worth (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). When self-esteem is used to imply a sense of self in a more specific domain such as ones body; concepts such as body esteem is derived. Researchers have identified two facets to self-esteem, namely: competence and worth (Burke & Cast, 2002). Competence refers to the degree to which an individual sees his or herself as capable and efficacious, where as worth refers to whether an individual feels he or she is a valued person or a person of value (Burke & Cast, 2002). Studies have shown that having dissatisfaction with oneself has been related to the ‘drive for thinness’ in women (Cooley & Toray, 2001). Research on South African

female students by Bodiba, Madu, Ezeokana and Nnedum (2008) showed that there is a relationship between body mass and the individuals' self-esteem or self-concept as overweight participants exhibited a lower self-esteem compared to participants not classified as overweight. On the other hand, Elliot and Baker (2001) have argued that the belief of eating disorders only being a female concern has led to the misdiagnosis and even silence among males who exhibit the same feelings. Cooley and Toray (2001) found that issues of dissatisfaction on weight, eating behaviour and confidence have in recent years become specific issues on university campuses. Therefore, one will find that these issues are not limited to one gender alone which would account why many researchers (Bottamini et al., 2006 & Corson, 2007 & Cooley & Toray, 2001 & Karaznia et al., 2008) have argued that images of the unattainable ideal of beauty that pervades the lives of millions of women daily, are extended to the male gender where similar images of lean muscular male bodies are dominating the covers of men's magazines.

It is clear that self-esteem and eating behaviour interacts to the degree that it does influence how one views oneself. Although, body image research has been quite extensive, there remains a fragmented trend to classifying what causes people to become dissatisfied with their bodies (Leone, 2007). Research on body image has also illustrated that there are difficulties in conceptualizing body image from the male perspective, especially within South Africa. It is for this reason, that this study locates itself within the South African context; and more specifically aims to determine body image satisfaction, self-esteem and eating behaviour among male undergraduate students at the University of the Western Cape.

For the purpose of this study eating disorders was characterized in two ways, namely, as an individual refusing to maintain a normal body weight, someone who exhibits a significant

disturbance in his or her body shape, known as Anorexia Nervosa (DSM-IV-TR, 2000). Lastly as an individual binge eating and using inappropriate methods to prevent weight gain, known as Bulimia Nervosa (DSM-IV-TR, 2000).

1.1 Aim and Objectives of the study

The aim of this study was to establish how male university students view their bodies and how their perception may be related to self-esteem and eating behaviour.

The objectives of this study were:

- To determine body image satisfaction among male students
- To establish self-esteem among male students
- To establish eating behaviour among male students
- To ascertain the relationship between body image satisfaction, self-esteem and eating behaviour.

1.2 Hypotheses

The aims and objectives of this study have led to the formulation of the following hypotheses:

1. Most students have a positive body image.
2. Most students have a positive self-esteem.
3. Most students have a positive eating attitude.
4. Body image is positively correlated with self-esteem and eating behaviour.

1.3 Significance of the study

The concept of body image has over the years been inundated by numerous studies from researchers; however research has predominantly focused on the female perspective (Bodiba et

al., 2008 & Drewnowski & Yee, 1989 & Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). Literature has suggested that the psychological impact of body dissatisfaction especially amongst females have been associated with an increase in eating disorders relating to dieting and over exercising. The increase in eating disorders implies that more women are feeling dissatisfied with their bodies, which means women are generally displaying negative self-esteem. The psychological impact of body image dissatisfaction has therefore resulted in the increase of eating disorders and a decrease in self-worth, or self-esteem. Issues on body image are generally not considered to be serious health related issues and tend to be specifically related to females. However, statistics indicate that between 5-10% of men who show body image dissatisfaction reported eating disorders (Drummond, 2002). Also Karaznia et al., (2008) state that body image is prevalent among males in the United States and as many as 90% of undergraduate males express a desire to be more muscular (Frederick et al., 2007). Since research on body image in South Africa has mainly focused on the female perspective (Bodiba et al., 2008), research concerning males is limited. Thus, the following study will attempt to contribute to bridging the gap in literature by determining whether males are experiencing the same challenges concerning body image satisfaction, self-esteem and eating behaviour that has historically been viewed from the female perspective.

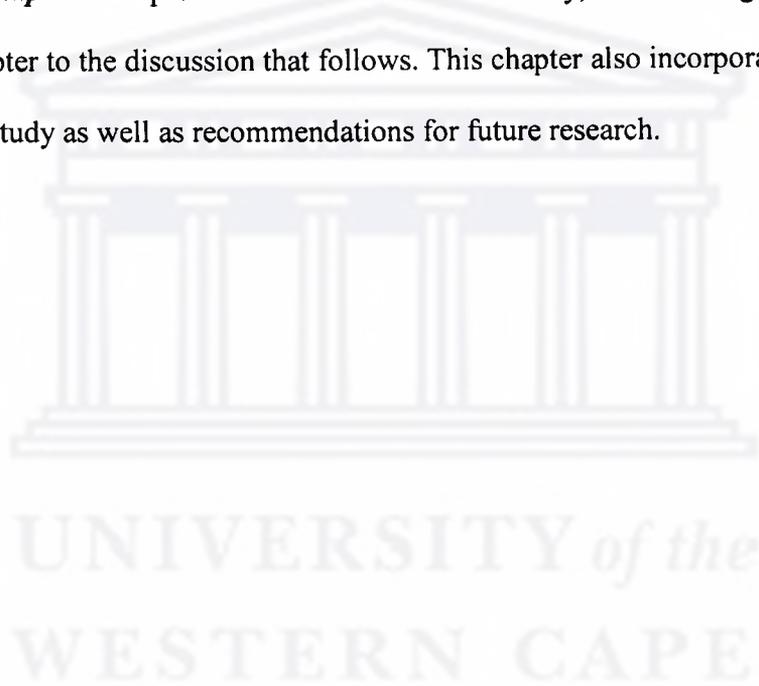
1.4 Overview of the chapters

The following report has five chapters; each structure forms an integral part to understanding the topic under investigation. *Chapter Two* is a review of the available literature that incorporates relevant issues relating to the male genders perception of body image, as well as establishing whether factors such as eating behaviour and self-esteem influence males' perception of body image satisfaction. Chapter two has been sub divided to address these various subjects surrounding body image as it affects the males.

Chapter Three explains the methodological approach that addresses the research design, selection of participants, procedure, data collection instruments, data analysis plan and ethical considerations.

Chapter Four is dedicated to the results of the findings, which comprises of four sections and a brief demographic outline of the sample of participants.

The last chapter, *Chapter Five* presents a conclusion to this study, which amalgamates the findings in the chapter to the discussion that follows. This chapter also incorporates the limitations of this study as well as recommendations for future research.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This literature review addresses body image by providing a brief background description into the perceptions of body image, how body image is influenced by factors such as self-esteem, in terms of the worth one places on oneself, as well as issues surrounding low self-esteem and the expectancy outcome of negative eating behaviours or the development of eating disorders. In addition the theoretical framework will address the many facets involved in ones perception of body image. In doing so, the literature review will be divided into three sections: *perceptions of body image satisfaction, body image and self-esteem, body image and eating behaviour*. In order to address these issues the researcher has acquired to conceptualize body image perceptions by referring to the Social Learning Theory as theoretical framework.

2.1.1 Perceptions of body image

Gleeson and Frith (2006) describes body image as the mental schema an individual carries that incorporates the beliefs, attitudes, feelings and perceptions about ones body, which would account for the differences of body image perception in each individual. According to Gleeson and Frith (2006) there are four assumptions that underpin research on body image, these are: body image exists, body image is a (socially mediated) product of perception and body image is internal and therefore of the individual and body image can be treated as real and accurately measured. Thus, researchers such as Gleeson and Frith (2006) views these assumptions as central in research, as they are used to reveal the impact body image has upon health-related behaviour. There are many facets to body image and one of the most interesting aspects is whether there are differences between males and females? These questions led to empirical studies, which showed that the formation of body image for both males and females begins when

they are very young (Anderson & Westermoreland-Corson, 2002). Images of how a male or female should look like are reinforced through the toys children play with, toys such as Barbie dolls, which has over the past 50 years become thinner in shape and action figures for boys such as GI Joe which has become more muscular over the past 40 years (Anderson & Westermoreland-Corson, 2002). According to Anderson and Westermoreland-Corson (2002) as boys get older they are overwhelmed by perpetuated images of muscular males in the media, whilst at the same time being exposed to the power dynamic in the workplace as they become adults. Anderson and Westermoreland -Corson (2002) describes men as feeling that they are facing new competition and that the only method to regain a sense of control and power is by controlling the shape of their bodies, this is proclaimed by the size of their (men's) chest, shoulders and height to society.

Bottamini, Ste-Marie and Diane (2006) describe body image as multidimensional as one's body image is "influenced by one's thoughts, emotions and behaviours". In so doing, Bottamini et al., (2006) views body image in males as having similarities to females, as both males and females strive to attain the unattainable ideal, only for men this ideal is known as the mesomorphic or muscular body type. These potential mental health ramifications according to Bottamini et al., (2006) may result in the engagement of unhealthy behaviours associated with achieving muscle. This may lead some men to doing excessive weightlifting; consuming supplements such as creatine and in some severe cases lead to the use of anabolic steroids (Bottamini et al., 2006).

Connell (Sweetman, 1997) argues that male body image goes back to the man's definition of masculinity which draws on the aspect that there are many ways to being a man, and that some ways might be regarded as more valued than others. Wanting to fit within these valued

perceptions of masculinity puts pressure on men to conform to the dominant ideas of being a man, also known as hegemonic masculinity as it depends on the estimation of what other people thinks. Therefore, Connell (1997) views being a male and being masculine as largely based on the opinion of the public or our environment. To conform to the public's opinion may cause one to fear the scrutiny of others that is set by unrealistic expectations and intense self criticism, which ultimately may be conducive to dissatisfaction in body image among males (Sweetman, 1997).

Thus, Pope, Philips and Oliviarda (2000) state that there is a crisis in men and boys, which is the preoccupation with the appearance of their bodies. Pope et al., (2000) describes body image as a crisis in men because it is rarely spoken of. Men are taught through society that they are not supposed to be concerned with the way they look, however although men do not speak about it their actions show that body image does affect them, as men are sacrificing their times to exercise compulsively at the gym, hoping for a bigger chest (Pope *et al.*, 2000). This obsession is called the "Adonis Complex". Pope et al., (2000) explains "in the Greek mythology Adonis was half man and half God...the ultimate in masculine beauty" (Pope et al., 2000, p.6). Therefore, the embodiment of the male physique connotes images of a strong, powerful and even domineering man (Pope et al., 2000).

On the other hand, Gill (2008) did a qualitative study where she interviewed 140 men from four surrounding states within the United Kingdom, the aim of the research was to uncover whether masculinity is in crisis? In her findings Gill (2008) argues that men are not in crisis, and neither are their masculine statuses. Gill's (2008) findings stated that men have given up the notion of having a job for life; this led to men wanting to assert their masculinities through new sources of identity, which is ultimately shown through the maintenance of their bodies. Thus, Gill

(2008) concluded that the change in males' appearance is less driven by negative feelings, and more driven by looking for opportunities for constructing themselves in a positive sense of identity and belonging.

Having a positive sense of one's identity has led to the emergence of a new type of male, known as the *metrosexual*. Khanna (2004) explains that the term 'metrosexual' is one that encompasses the trend setting male of the 21st century. Simply put a metrosexual man is someone who is muscular but suave, confident and yet image conscious and assertive while still being in touch with his feminine side.

On the contrary, according to *This Day* (25 August 2004, p.11) the term metrosexuals is just another ploy to get men on the same "*high gloss and glamour insecurity trick*" that cosmetic giants have and is still using on women. Rather the term metrosexuals should be "*an image-conscious heterosexual who is not afraid to pamper himself by spending too much time and money at some department store cosmetics counter or to hang out at The Body Shop like it was offering the answer to perfect holidays and understanding the meaning of everything*". This is because the average guy is not as concerned about his beauty routine, nevertheless the rise in cosmetics sales shows that men too have fallen for the advertising hype "*Hook, line and sinker*" (25 August 2004, p.11).

Watson (2000) argues that one's body should be conceptualized as a lived and relational process. In other words bodies should not be read in relation to culture, but rather one's body is defined in relation to the interactions with and the resistance to the public. Thus, Watson (2000) views masculinity as an embodiment of one's drive to "being in shape", this directly relates to the individual's body image that comprises of various modes of construction, which includes:

normative (presentational), experiential (emotions), pragmatic (the everyday social body) and visceral (hidden biological depths that may be medically visualized) modes.

For this reason Pleck (1981) claims that the basis of defining masculine identity goes back to when the man is a young boy and his ability to link his 'ideal' masculine role to his experiences in life. Gender role becomes even more problematic for boys because there is a level of social expectation when they become men. These expectations mean that the basis of what a man is should include the male having: power, being strong and also being sexually competent (Pleck, 1981). When the boy does not meet his own expectations as a man, feelings of failure may arise (Pleck, 1981 cited in Sweetman, 2003) which may affect the males' view of his worth.

2.1.2 Body image and self-esteem

Contemporary theories have demonstrated that body image is an important aspect of self-representation and self-evaluation through out one's life (Moreira et al., 2005). Many researchers define body image as a multidimensional construct; this is because it consists of how one views ones size, shape and overall appearance (Moreira, 2005, Cash & Deagle, 1997). In many instances research has shown that the subjective perception that one has of oneself may be regarded as having more importance than the objective reality of ones appearance (Moreira, 2005).

According to Mann, Hosman, Schaalma and De Vries (2004) the general label of ones feelings about oneself is defined as self-concept and self-esteem. Self-concept is defined "as a sum of an individual's beliefs and knowledge about his or her personal attributes and qualities" (p.357). On the other hand self-esteem is an "evaluative and affective dimension of the self-concept, and is equivalent to self-regard, self-estimation and self-worth" (Hartner, 1999 in Mann et al, 2004).

Therefore, Mann et al., (2004) views self-esteem as referring to a person's global appraisal of his or her positive or negative value which is based on the different domains of ones life. Positive self-esteem according to Mann et al., (2004) acts as a protective factor that aids as a buffer against the impact of negative influences and therefore helps to promote healthy functioning that is reflected in life through achievements, success, satisfaction and the ability to cope with any challenge. In contrast, negative self-esteem plays a critical role in the development of mental and social problems, such as: depression, anorexia, bulimia, violence, substance abuse and high-risk behaviours (Mann *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, Mann et al. (2004) views self-esteem as an influential factor both in physical and mental health.

As per Cooley and Toray (2001), being socially connected is a very important aspect for students at college and being part of a club or residence can in many cases be the primary social, academic, and support network for a student. Cooley and Toray (2001) also highlights that the need for approval and acceptance from such groups are critical components of students' existence, and not fitting in might add pressure on students to belong which could lead to a heightened drive for thinness in order to achieve social acceptability

Frederickson and Roberts (1997) argue that girls and women (in American cultures) tend to see themselves through a veil of sexism, measuring their self-worth by evaluating their physical appearance against their culture's sexually objectifying and unrealistic standards of beauty. Similarly Tigermann, Winefield, Winefield and Goldney (1994) have argued that women places importance on their attractiveness and therefore a woman's satisfaction with her weight can be directly linked with her overall satisfaction of herself (cited in Tommy, 2002).

Franzoi and Shields (1984) found that as in women, men's body esteem appears to have three primary factors, which includes Physical Attractiveness referring to the males facial features to which a man is judged handsome or "good-looking" by society. A second aspect of body esteem in men is composed of upper body parts and functions that can be changed through exercise. The third aspect of male body esteem identified in the study of Franzoi and Shields, (1984), is the Physical Condition, which reflects the males' feelings about his stamina, strength, and agility. Franzoi and Shields (1984) analysis indicates that men's sense of physical condition is different from women's. Items such as waist, appearance of stomach, and appetite, which are associated with weight concern in women, load high on men's Physical Condition factor, as in the study it appears that men associate these body parts and functions, not with how they and others assess them as static objects, but with how they will help or hinder physical activity (Franzoi and Shields, 1984).

Griffin and Kirby (2007) completed a study on 60 participants to examine whether there are differences amongst females and males on the affect of the activity on self-esteem and body image. The study took approximately six weeks, and consisted of three groups, namely, a physical exercise group, computer course group and the no intervention control group. Firstly, the results showed that body image improved in those male participants who took part in the physical activity intervention, and secondly, the males who took part in the computer intervention showed an improvement in their self-esteem. Although, the study does not support the notion that physical activity improves self-esteem, it does however show that self-esteem can be improved by participating in meaningful activities. Griffin and Kirby's (2007) findings showed that self-esteem and body image only increased significantly for males and not for females, this according to researchers (Davis and Katzman, 1998; Lowland, 1998; Marsh et al., 1995 & Marsh, 1998) means that men have a significantly "better" body image than women.

This is because women tend to focus on their body in terms of their aesthetic statement, where as men tend to focus on the dynamic aspects of their bodies such as coordination, strength and speed (Griffin & Kirby, 2007).

On the other hand a study performed on 50 males and 98 females ranging in age between 65 and 85 years by Baker and Gringart (2009) examined whether one's body image and self-esteem are related to ones age. In other words, whether ones body image and self-esteem weakens or strengthens with age (Baker & Gringart, 2009). The findings of the study showed that body image concerns are significant to self-esteem in older adulthood, but that these concerns may vary in terms of the person's age and gender. The study showed that women were more likely to benefit from the ageing process because they were no longer exposed to the pressures that are emphasized through the importance of ones appearance (Baker & Gringart, 2009). While, on the contrary men in the study reported an increasing dissatisfaction with their physical appearance as they aged, this also results in a decline in men's self-esteem (Baker & Gringart, 2009).

Ones age can an important variable as Pope, Gruber, Mangwenth, Bureau, deCol, Jouvent and Hudson (2000) investigated 190 college men, ranging from countries such as Austria, France and the United States of America. The study investigated whether men in Western societies desired to have a leaner and more muscular body than the one they had or perceived themselves to have. In the study Pope et al., (2000) found that there were only moderate differences between body measurements and perceived body fat in males (Pope et al., 2000). However, the findings on muscularity showed that men from all three countries indicated that they would like, and they believed that women would prefer more muscle than what they actually had (Pope et al., 2000).

Consequently, Frederick, Buchanan, Peplau, Haselton and Lipinski (2007) believe that images of the idealized male physique increases body dissatisfaction in men. Frederick et al., (2007) found in their research that the more time men spend reading health and fitness magazines are correlated to a higher level of body dissatisfaction. In a study examining advertisements in leading magazines in the United States of America (Cosmopolitan and Glamour), researchers found that images of men undressed increased from 3% in the 1950's to 35% in the 1990' (Cohane, Borowiecki, Oliviarda & Pope, 2001). This shows that the male physique has become even more objectified over the years. Frederick et al., (2007) highlighted documented research which states that being exposed to representations of the same-sex bodies does effect how the viewer or in this case the reader assess their body image satisfaction. Accordingly, some researchers have argued that individuals assess themselves by comparing themselves to gender-specific roles that are communicated to them by their society (Frederick et al., 2007). The findings of Frederick et al., (2007) correspond to existing studies that have shown that a higher endorsement of traditional masculine norms is related to a higher level of body dissatisfaction (Kimmel & Mahalik, 2004).

2.1.3 Body image and eating behaviour

In reviewing the literature one will find that many researchers suggest that women express a greater dissatisfaction with their body than men and dissatisfaction leads more women to developing eating disorders than men (Tommy, 2002). This finding is similar to Drewnowski et al., (1989) who stated that nine out of ten anorectics and bulimics are women, in contrast to men where the percentage is much lower. Theorists therefore suggest that there are more sociocultural pressures on women to be thin, which would account for the difference in prevalence amongst women when compared to men. Drewnowski et al., (1989) did a study where he collected a sample of 231 first year students, 100 were men and 131 were women, the study was done to

evaluate whether body weight, dieting and physical exercise is as a concern to men as it is to women. In his research Drewnowski et al., (1989) concluded that 18 year old men were almost evenly split between those who wished to lose weight and those who wished to gain weight. In conclusion Drewnowski et al., (1989) expressed that the desire to lose weight is not an intrinsic characteristic for men, therefore women are more likely to be dissatisfied with their body than men. Although the study done by Drewnowski et al., (1989) showed that women have a bigger concern with weight than men, one has to bear in mind that it did not disprove that men are dissatisfied with their bodies. Therefore, in an indirect manner the study does show that men are concerned about their body image.

In contrast Bromon-Bosch, Troop and Treasure (2000) studied a sample of male and female patients that were part of a victims program for eating disorders to research whether there are any gender differences. The findings of the study showed that there were no significant difference in the degree of severity in eating disorders amongst males and females. The study also found that in some instances men exhibited a higher degree of depression, suicidal attempts and anxiety when compared to females.

According to Pope, Phillips and Olivaria (2000), many men suffer from body image disorders that are characterized by alter perceptions. In studies that were applied on both American and European men, researchers found that men with eating disorders viewed themselves as significantly fatter than men not exhibiting eating disorders (Pope et al., 2000). This syndrome is also called “reverse anorexia nervosa” or “muscle dysmorphia”. Pope et al., (2000) argues that men with muscle dysmorphia may refuse to allow their bodies to be viewed in public settings, and in some extreme cases they may avoid social, recreational or occupational settings altogether. Men with muscle dysmorphia may exhibit a chronic preoccupation in thinking that

they look to 'small' (Pope et al., 2000).

Monaghan (2007) argues that powerful institutions present the message to people that fatness equals badness and sickness, which is a growing problem all around the world. Monaghan (2007) highlights that agencies such as the World Health Organization (WHO, 1998) states that there is a global obesity epidemic, these views not only conflate overweight and obesity but also inflates the perceived seriousness of the putative problem to which almost "everyone everywhere" (Gard & Wright, 2005) is ill, diseased or at risk because of their weight (BMI ≥ 30 kg/m²). Monaghan (2007) argues that these messages are expressed with authority that reproduces the unacceptability of being seen as "fat", which in the larger society is seen as an index of one's self, and the social consequence of being seen as 'fat' is perceived as bodily neglect, which is a lowering of one's acceptability as a person (Monaghan, 2007).

Gregor (2004) believes that body image dissatisfaction in men can be associated with body dysmorphia, which is the opposite of anorexia, as men are more concerned with their body shape than their body weight. Therefore, the shame that the individual or man has about his body may lead him to become exercise dependent and even in some cases lead to the use of steroids (Gregor, 2004). Gregor (2004) states that many men don't seek help pertaining to eating disorders because eating disorders is labeled as a "female problem", which would explain why the percentages for female eating disorders is higher than that of the male counterpart. Therefore, to acknowledge having an eating disorder as a man would be a great challenge to the man's masculinity (Gregor, 2004).

On a broader spectrum Marais, Wassenaar and Kramers (2003) concluded in their study on eating disorders amongst males that there is a higher prevalence of eating disorder pathology in

Black men than in White men. In other words, not only are eating disorders an issue that is evident for both males and females, but distinctions can be made between males from different races as well.

2.2 Defining the theoretical framework

The following study will be employing the Social Learning Theory as theoretical framework. The social learning theory as proposed by Bandura (1986) is based on the premise that people function as contributors to their own motivation, behaviour and development, and that an individual's internal events such as ones feelings are influenced by ones external environment and vice versa. Bandura (Glanz, Lewis & Rimer, 2002) also believes that people learn behaviours by observing other people modeling the desired behaviour, being able to symbolize the meanings of behaviour, being aware of the outcome of behaviour patterns, being able to self-regulate and self-determine behaviour and to reflect and analyze one's own experience (Glanz et al., 2002). Bandura (1986) does however make a clear distinction that people do not imitate all the behaviours that are modeled, only those behaviours that the individual view as yielding the best reward. Thus, when applying the social learning theory to this study, male students answered questions to establish how they view themselves in proportion to their environment, in other words what is their *motivation* for viewing themselves as having a good sense of self or as being attractive. The *behaviour* aspect of the social learning theory within this study will look at whether a negative or positive self-image has an effect on the students' eating habits. Lastly, the *development* aspect evaluated what degree of these views are influenced by the worth students place on themselves, in other words will being deemed as attractive among peers be contributing to the development of acceptance, or will being rejected by ones peers be contributing to the development of a negative self-image and lead to negative eating behaviours such as anorexia

nervosa or bulimia nervosa.

2.3 Conclusion of Literature Review

In conclusion literature does show that research on body image has predominantly focused on women, however because of the interest surrounding this topic in recent decades, more information has been acquired about body image concerning the male gender. Self-esteem and eating behaviour has been important factors contributing to how one perceives oneself. However, it is clear that research on body image concerning the male gender is very new, and specifically on South African university campuses research is scarce. Many studies surrounding issues of body image within South Africa has focused on adolescents at high school and on the female university students' perception of body image. With the limited literature on males body image, the key theme that many researchers have found is that with the rise of interest in the male body, not only has eating disorders increased but the worth some men place on themselves in relation to their body has decreased.

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CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

This research employed a cross-sectional non-experimental study. It is understood that the emphasis of quantitative research is to understand a complex; interrelated phenomenon that is especially relevant when using an empirical methodology such as the survey research design that was employed in this study (Trochim, 2001). The non-experimental hypothesis-testing research does not acquire participants to be randomly assigned to groups that consist of different levels of independent variables; this is because the independent variable tends to differ for each participant, which emphasizes that survey research is best suited for this study (Welman and Kruger, 2001). The survey was conducted to determine male students' body image satisfaction, establishing eating behaviour and their level of self-esteem and in doing so, the researcher initiated a self administered questionnaire survey. Literature suggests that body image is mainly viewed as a female concern and most male students might not be comfortable speaking about issues concerning their bodies, therefore the researcher has employed the survey research design as the best method suited to acquire information from a large sample, as well as enabling the researcher to gather information from male students that are pertinent to this study without obtruding on the male students' sense of masculinity.

3.2 Selection of participants

It is ideally the choice of every researcher to use random sampling when selecting participants, as this type of sampling allows the researcher to gather information that is representative of the total population from which the sample is drawn. However, because of limited time constraints for this study, the researcher used convenient sampling. The sample consisted of 68 first year Psychology students whose ages ranged from 17 - 63 years of age, with a standard deviation of

1.66. Psychology students were chosen because they incorporate an array of students from different faculties, ranging from the law faculty to the sport sciences faculty. The location was a classroom setting and the research took place only after the lecturer had completed the lecture. Thus, for convenience as well as ease of access, self-administered questionnaires were given to participants after the lecture was completed.

3.3 Procedure

Firstly, permission was granted by the Senate Higher Degrees of the University of the Western Cape, to conduct the research at the University. Then permission was sought from the lecturers in the Psychology department in order for the researcher to access the students. At the beginning of the Psychology I lecture, the class was informed that a study would take place after the lecture was completed, the importance of the study was reiterated and the participants were advised that their participation was voluntary. The students who participated in this study were given consent forms, and informed that the self-administered test was not confined to a time limit. The researcher enlisted the aid of assistants who were briefed on how to administer the questionnaires. The survey took about 20 minutes to complete. After the survey was completed, the questionnaires were deposited into a folder and sealed until it was required in the analysis and questionnaire-checking phase. All questionnaires that were completed were considered to be part of this study, which totaled to 74 completed questionnaires. However, after a review, incomplete questionnaires were discarded and the final captured sample was 68 questionnaires.

3.4 Ethical Considerations

The data collection instrument was preceded by a cover page stating the following: Purpose of the study, instructions for completing the survey, ethical statement informing participants that participation was voluntary. Also, a declaration assuring confidentiality was stated on the cover

page and participants were not required to fill in their names. The conclusion of the survey was indicated with a statement of appreciation to participants for their involvement in this study. The participants were advised that counselors at the student-counseling centre were available to assist them should they require any help or simply need to speak to someone after completing the questionnaire.

3.5 Data collection instruments

The data collection tool consisted of four questionnaires, namely:

The Biographical questionnaire were used to gather general information from the participants, such as: their age, their faculty, ethnicity and general questions on how students view their body and whether their perception has changed compared to when they were younger.

The Body Shape Questionnaire (Cooper, Taylor, Cooper, & Fairburn, 1987) was used to assess the participants' body image. The BSQ16 is a 34-item self-report measure (adjusted to 16 items following the pilot study) designed to assess negative feelings about one's body size and shape by evaluating the fear of putting on weight, feelings of low self-esteem because of one's appearance, the desire to lose weight and body dissatisfaction (Ramberan, Austin & Nichols, 2006). This instrument utilizes a six-point Likert scale rated from "never" to "always. Because body image exists on a continuum (i.e., positive and healthy to negative and unhealthy), a range of responses are possible for each section and for the

overall instrument. For instance, each question is assigned an inherent "value" of positivity or negativity.

Example: "Have you been afraid that you might become fat?"

<i>NEVER</i>	<i>RARELY</i>	<i>SOMETIMES</i>	<i>OFTEN</i>	<i>USUALLY</i>	<i>ALWAYS</i>
1	2	3	4	5	6

→ [Likert scale options]

→ [Inherent values]

In this case, if the participant responds with “never” or “rarely,” a value of “1” or “2” will correspond to a pre-determined rating of “satisfaction,” whereas “usually” or “always” corresponds with a value of “dissatisfaction.” Body image dissatisfaction scores can range from 16 -96. Scores of 1- 19 indicate ‘no concern’ with body image, 20- 49 ‘moderate’ body image dissatisfaction and 50 and above indicate strong or ‘marked’ body image dissatisfaction. This tool has extensively been researched in studies to measure body image satisfaction and has demonstrated reliability and validity.

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE; 1965) was used to assess participants’ self-esteem. The RSE contains 10 items rated along a four-point scale. The scale ranges from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Example: “In general I am satisfied with myself.”

<i>SA</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>DA</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	2	3	4

→ [*Likert scale options*]

→ [*Inherent values*]

The first item included questions 1 through 3 and received a positive score if two or three of its questions were answered positively. Questions 4, 5, 9 and 10 were aggregated into two other items that were scored positively, if both questions in the item had positive answers. Questions 6 through 8 counted individually formed the final three items. For the negatively worded RSE questions, responses that expressed disagreement and, hence, were consistent with high self-esteem, were considered positive. The scores ranged between 10- 40. A score of 1 to 14 was viewed as ‘low’ self-esteem and 15-26 was viewed as ‘normal’ self-esteem. Rosenberg (1965) has reported reproducibility values of 0.92 for a sample of high school students. Pretorius (1991) also reports internal consistency (coefficient alpha) scores of 0.77 on a university sample of 658 undergraduate students in Cape Town, South Africa. A coefficient of reproducibility of 0.90 or more has according to Wylie (1974) been arbitrarily taken as the minimum level at which one can infer that a scale is reliable.

Kafaar (2004) did a study on 724 students using the RSE (1965) and calculated a reliability score of 0.75, which indicates a reasonable reliability of the RSE.

The Eating Attitudes Test (Garner & Garfinkel; 1979) was used to assess the person's attitudes, feelings and preoccupations in relation to food. The questionnaire has a six-point scale that ranges from "never" to "always".

Example: "I am terrified about being overweight".

NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	USUALLY	ALWAYS
1	2	3	4	5	6

→ [Likert scale options]
→ [Inherent values]

The EAT-26 scores can range from 26-156. A score of 1-19 indicates positive eating behaviour or attitude, where as a score of 20 and above indicates a negative eating attitude. Studies conducted in South Africa, such as Szabo and Hollands (1997) who reported alpha values of 0.75 for black participants and 0.79 for white participants, where as the study conducted by Senekal et al., (2001) yielded a value of 0.62. This shows that the test is both consistent and reliable, because similar results were obtained with different samples.

3.6 Pilot Study

The above tools were piloted on a convenient sample of five students to ensure that the questionnaires were appropriate for the sample it was intended. The students were randomly approached and asked whether they would participate in the study. Henceforth, the students were informed about the nature of the study and what was expected from them in completing the questionnaire, and after completing the questionnaire. The students were given an estimated time to complete the questionnaires, which were followed by a discussion session where students could air their concerns in terms of what questions needed to be clarified. The students had no major concerns with the questionnaire, however they did find the body shape questions to be very time consuming. In light of the information given by the pilot study, that section of the

questionnaire was modified to a shortened version. In accordance with the suggested changes, the questionnaire was taken to be acceptable for use in the following research.

3.7 Data Analysis Plan

After receiving all the questionnaires, the researcher reviewed each questionnaire and those that had left out any section of the questionnaire were discarded and destroyed. When all the questionnaires were checked the researcher began the procedure of capturing every question, by recording every question in to the table of inputs and using each line to represent a different individual's questionnaire. By using this data base the researcher was able to manage the large data set by placing data based on strings of code within the data set. After the data set was fully captured and coded, the researcher proceeded to export the data onto an analysis software package called the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 17.0). Henceforth, the researcher used descriptive statistics and inferential statistics to analyze the data.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 presents the data from the fieldwork process while discussing the implications and possible reasons behind the occurrence of particular data in the survey. The results of this survey are presented in terms of the different influences to body image that was investigated.

4.1.1 Demographic details

4.1.1 Age of Participants

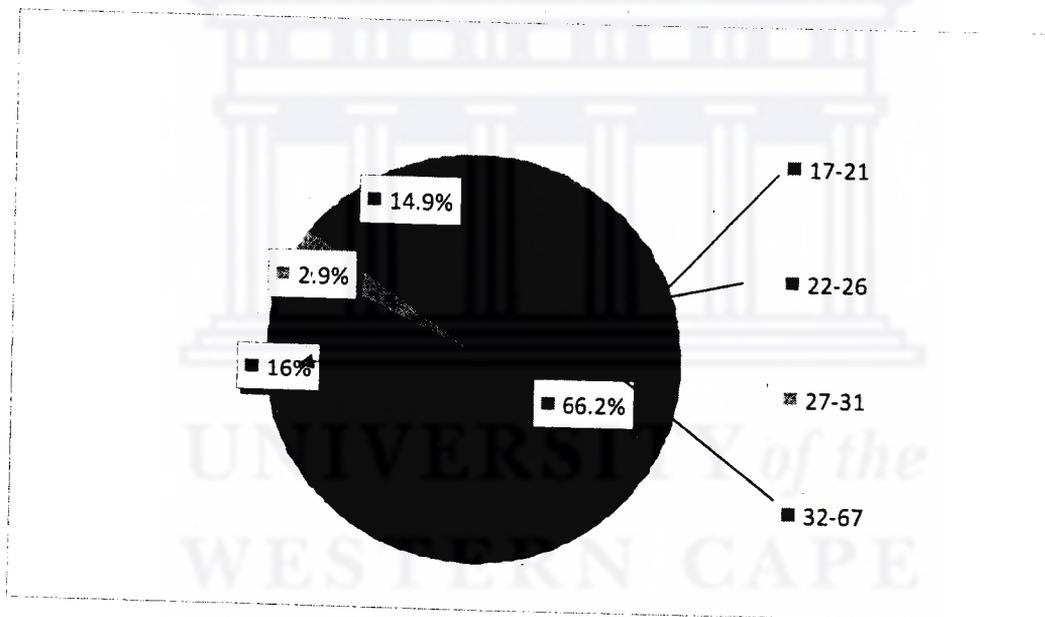


Chart 1: Age groups (n=68)

The above Chart 1 shows that across the Psychology students surveyed the final sample consisted of 68 male participants. The ages of the male participants varied from 17 years of age to 63 years of age, with the majority of students in the sample being between the ages of 17 and 21 years of age (66.2%). The second largest group of the participants was also found to be between the ages of 22 and 26 years (16.1%). The age range 27-31 was the smallest group in the sample, while students between the ages of 32 to 67 accounted for 14.9% of the sample, which makes this age range the third largest group in this study.

4.1.1.2 Home language of participants

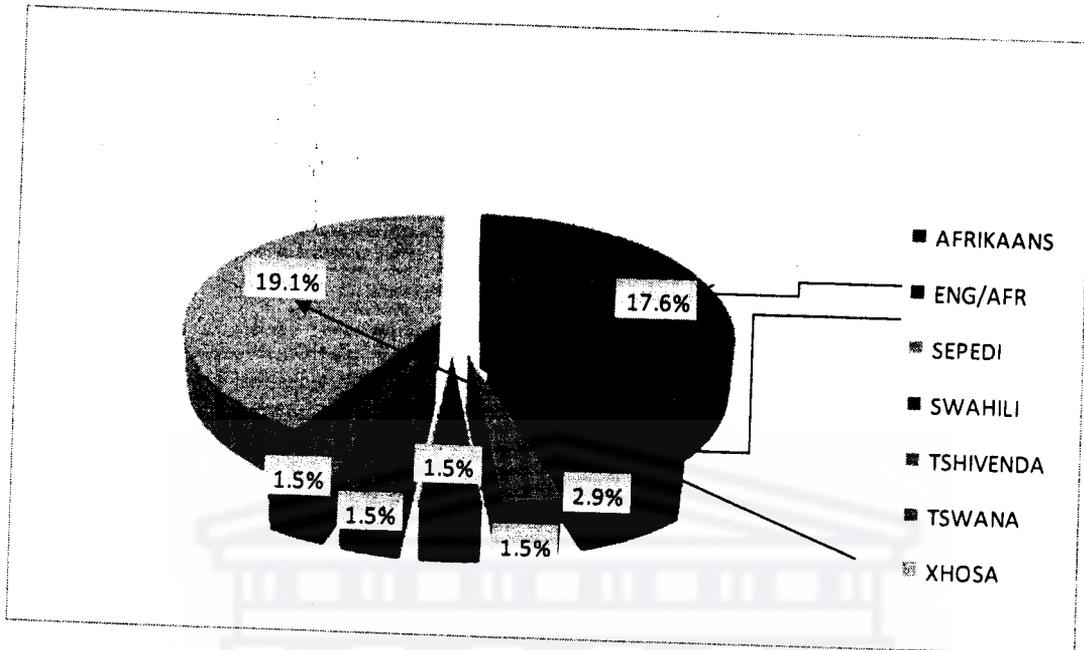


Chart 2: Home language (n=68)

Another demographic variable that was considered was home language. Chart 2 above shows that although there are 11 official languages within South Africa, in the present sample three language groups emerged as being the most active amongst the participants. The most widely used language was English as more than half of the sample identified English as being their primary language (52.94%). The second largest group was IsiXhosa (19.12%) followed by the Afrikaans group (17.65%).

4.1.1.3 Faculties of participants

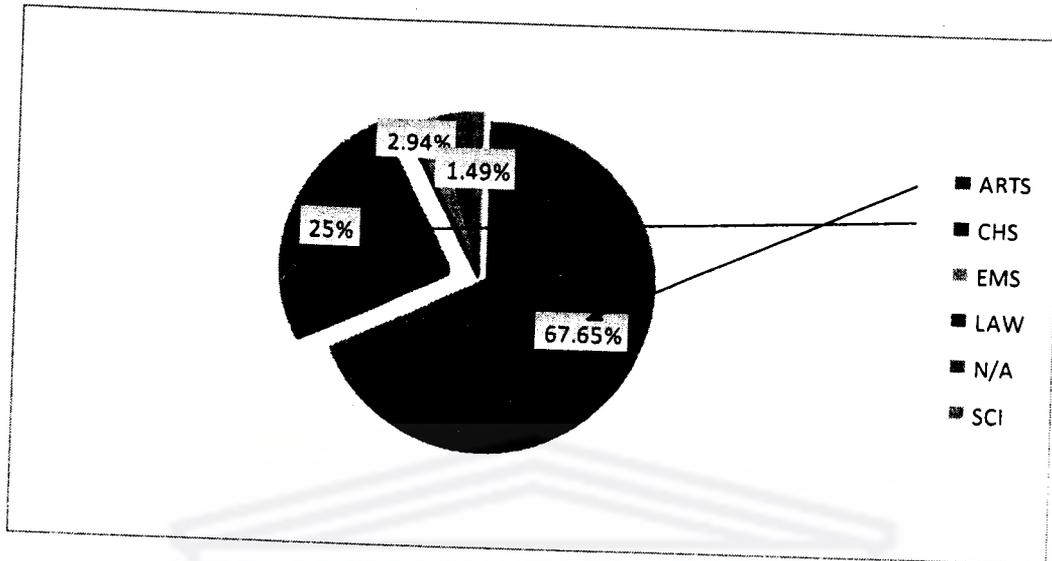


Chart 3: shows the sample represented in their faculties (n=68)

The Faculty demographic was added to substantiate which faculties the majority of the participants were presently situated in. The results showed that more than half of the participants in the sample were from the Arts faculty (67.65 %). The second largest group (25%) came from the Community and Health Sciences faculty (CHS); where as faculties such as science and economics only consisted of 1.49 % respectively. Thus, Chart 3 above clearly shows that Psychology as a subject does consist of students from an array of different faculties.

4.1.1.4 Race of participants

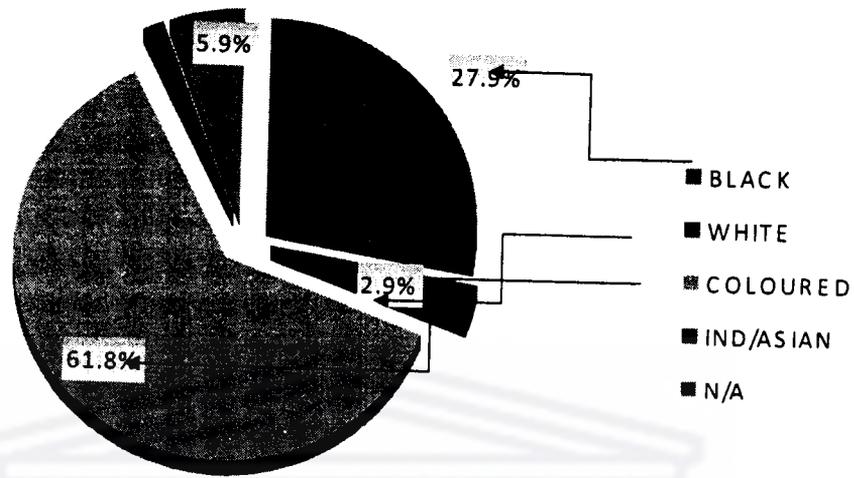


Chart 4: shows the different races of the sample (n=68)

The race variable gives one an understanding of the different races that were present within the sample of this study. The results showed that a large amount of the participants were from the 'coloured' community (61.8%), the second largest group came from the 'black' community (27.9%) and the smallest groups came from the 'white' (2.9%) and Indian or Asian communities (1.5%). Because race is a sensitive subject, this variable was added as an open ended question, with those participants who did not want to specify their race leaving this option blank, the results showed that a total of 5.9% of the sample participants chose not to specify their race.

4.2 Determining body image satisfaction

Hypothesis 1: *Most students have a positive body image*

Table 1: BSQ SCALE

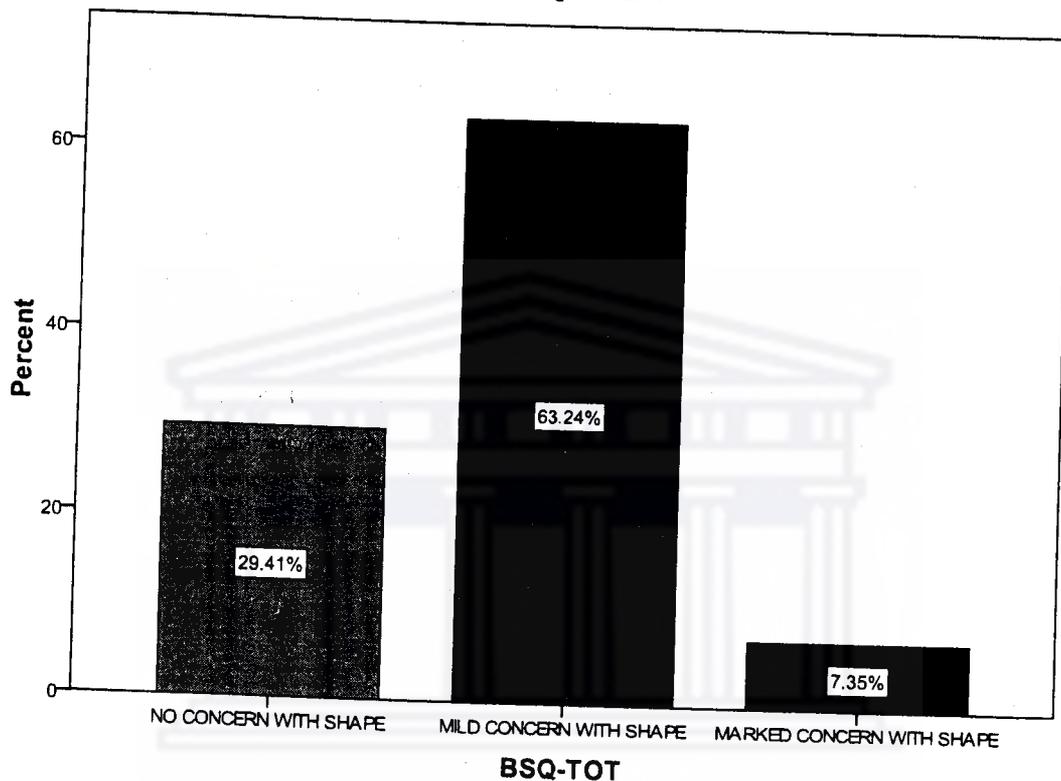


Table 1 above represents the frequency scores that the participants in the sample received on the body shape questionnaire. The results showed that the majority of the participants in the sample conveyed a mild concern with the shape of their body (63.2%), 29.4% of the participants conveyed that they had no concern with the shape of their body, while 7.3% of the participants demonstrated a marked concern with the shape of their body. A chi-square test was used to establish whether there were any statistical relationship between the participants' race and how they perceived their bodies in terms of their observed and expected scores. The results showed that the majority of 'black' students illustrated a mild concern with their body image; where as the majority of 'white' participants conveyed no concern with their body image. The chi-square of 8.00 and 19.000 displayed statistical significance for the 'black' and 'coloured' participants

in the sample at the 0.05 level. Hence forth, the age variable was added to establish whether there is a relationship between the age of the participants and their perception of their body. The results showed that there were no significant relationship between the age of participants and their perceived view of their body ($p>0.05$).

4.3 Establishing self-esteem

Hypothesis 2: Most students have a positive self-esteem

Table 2:SES-SCALE

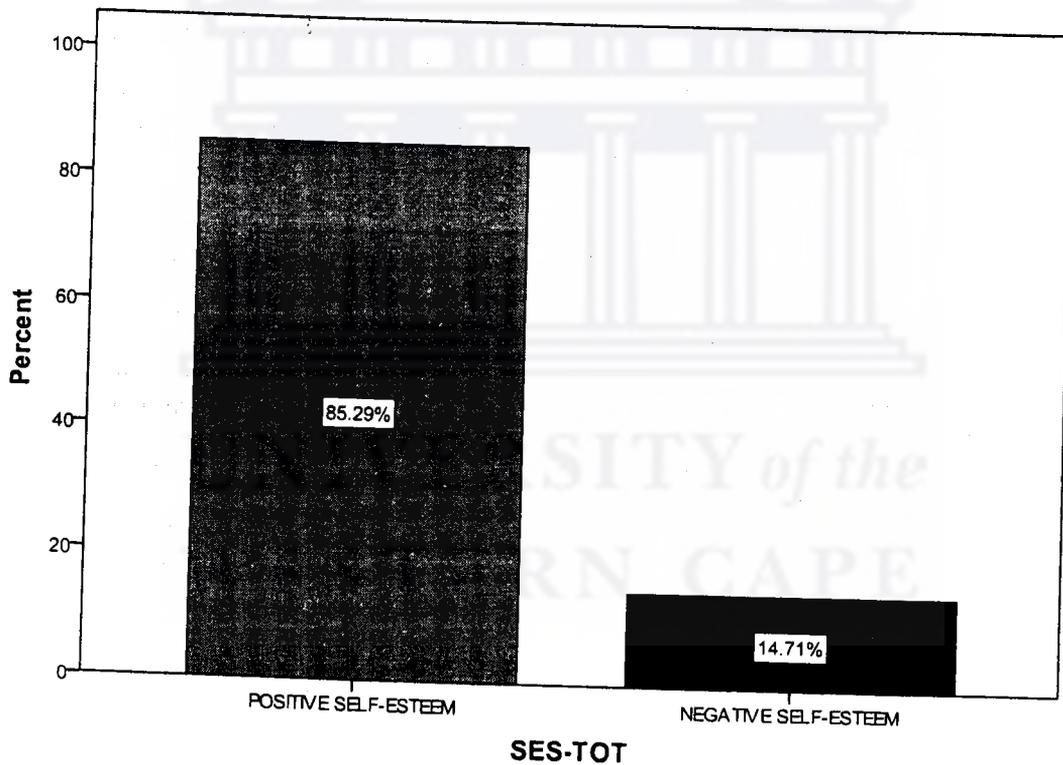


Table 2 above illustrates that the majority of the participants in the sample exhibited a positive self-esteem (85.3%). Taking into consideration the demographic variables, the race variable showed that the majority of the students conveying a positive and negative self-esteem were predominantly from the 'coloured' participants; the chi-square test showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between race and the perceived self-esteem of the 'black' and

'coloured' participants. The chi-square of 8.90 for the 'black' participants and a chi-square of 24.38 for the 'coloured' participants in the sample displayed a statistical significance at the 0.05 level. In contrast, the age variable illustrated no statistically significant relationships between the ages of the participants and their perceived sense of worth ($p > 0.05$).

4.4 Establishing Eating attitudes

Hypothesis 3: *Most students have a positive eating attitude*

Table 3: EAT-SCALE

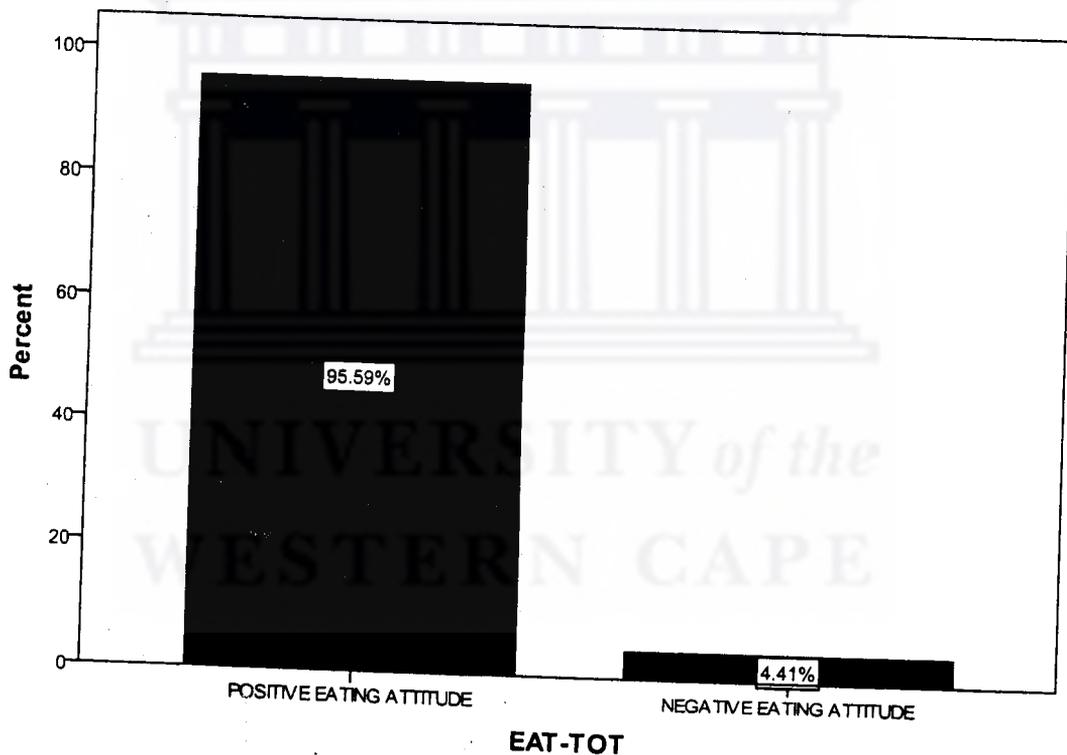


Table 3 above shows that the majority of the participants in the sample displayed a positive eating attitude (95.6%); where as 4.4% of the participants conveyed a negative eating attitude. The majority of the participants displaying a positive attitude towards food came from the 'black' and 'coloured' participants. A chi-square test of 11.84 displayed significance between the 'black'

participants' race and their eating attitude; on the other hand no significant relationship was displayed between the age of the participants and their attitude toward food ($p>0.05$).

4.5 Establishing the relationship between body image, self- esteem and eating behaviour

Hypothesis 4: *Body image is positively correlated to self-esteem and eating behaviour*

		EAT-TOT	SES-TOT	BSQ-TOT
EAT-TOT	Pearson Correlation	1	.315**	.084
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.009	.496
	N	68	68	68
SES-TOT	Pearson Correlation	.315**	1	.236
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009		.053
	N	68	68	68
BSQ-TOT	Pearson Correlation	.084	.236	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.496	.053	
	N	68	68	68

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlational analyses indicated no significant relationship between the participants' attitude toward food and the perception of how they view their bodies. However, a positive and significant relationship was evident between the participants' self-esteem and their relationship toward food as well as their perception of their body image, significance was proven at the level of 0.05. However, no significant relationship was evident between the participants' perception of their body image and their attitude toward food ($p<0.05$). Thus, the results showed that self-esteem is a central variable that is an important factor in both the participants' perception of their body and their attitude toward food.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary Discussion

After presenting the detailed results of this study within the preceding chapter, it is important to discuss these findings in relation to the aims that were set out in chapter one. This study aimed to address these bodily concerns by establishing how male students view themselves and whether these perceptions are correlated to their relationship with food (eating attitude) and their perception of their worth (self-esteem). Following this discussion the chapter concludes with a detailed discussion of the limitations as well as recommendations for future research.

As one views the literature one key aspect is that having dissatisfaction with oneself, especially in terms of one's physical appearance can have many side effects. Living in the age of technology, and being surrounded by pervasive images of beautiful, flawless and muscular bodies can be an overwhelming aspect, as it moves one to question one's own appearance.

5.1.1 Perception of body image

Pope et al., (2000) found in their study of 190 male college students, that the majority of students were dissatisfied with the shape of their body. The results of the present study are consistent with the literature, as 63.2% of the participants within this study displayed a mild concern with the shape of their bodies. What's more, this resulted in a positively significant relationship between body image and self-esteem ($p < 0.05$). Thus, when the participants' self-esteem increased they tend to have a more positive view of their body image. In other words, as ones starts to find oneself worthy, one tends to be more positive about ones outside appearance. In this sense hypothesis 1 can be accepted. The findings also indicate that no relationship existed between the participants' age and their view of their body image. In so doing, the results contradicts the findings of Baker and Gringart (2009) who argues that as men get older their dissatisfaction with

their body increases. A possible explanation for the discrepancy could be that the majority of the participants were between the ages of 17-21, with less than half of the sample between the ages of 30 years of age and older. On the other hand, the results showed that the chi-square test for the 'black' participants in the sample displayed a significant relationship between their race and body image. This means that the 'black' participants had a more positive view of themselves than any other racial group within the sample.

5.1.2. Establishing self-esteem

The results indicated by the data showed that self-esteem is a key variable in both the perception of ones body image as well as ones eating attitude, or ones relationship with food, as the Pearson Correlation displayed significance at the level of 0.01. These results correspond to the findings of Griffin and Kirby (2007), who showed that self-esteem increased significantly for males than for females. When taking the present study into consideration one could find that a possible reason for the increase in male students' self-esteem could be attributed to the fact that they view themselves as having a purpose, thus their purpose is to study further and reach their goal. In so doing, the results correspond to the study by Griffin and Kirby (2007), which discovered that self-esteem, can be improved when one partakes in meaningful activities. The demographic variables of age once again did not hold any significant relationship to the samples self-esteem, however the race variable showed significance for the 'black' and 'coloured' participants. In so doing, displaying that the 'black' and 'coloured' participants had a more positive self-esteem than the 'white', 'indian' or 'asian' participants. On the other hand, because there has not been much research within South Africa focusing on the race variable, one could attribute the results to the fact that there was not an equal distribution of participants from each race.

5.1.3 Establishing eating attitudes

Drewnowski and Yee (1989) reported in their study on 231 first year students that females expressed more dissatisfaction with their body than males. Similarly, the data in the study showed that 95.6% of males within the sample displayed a positive eating behaviour. Although, the results is promising as it corresponds to Hypothesis 2 which stated that most students will exhibit a positive eating attitude, one has to bear in mind that unlike the study by Drewnowski and Yee (1989) the sample of male students were not compared to female students. Perhaps, if the sample had been compared the study would have yielded different results. Also, as Gregor (2004) affirmed eating disorders is mainly viewed as a female concern, and therefore many men don't seek help because of their fear of being ostracized by society's view of how a man should be. In terms of the demographic variables, age did not display any significant relationship and the chi-square did however illustrate a statistical relationship between eating attitudes and ones race, particularly for the 'black participants. Therefore, the results contradict the study by Marais et al., (2003) who showed that 'black' men exhibited a higher prevalence of eating disorders than 'white' men. The chi-square test revealed that the majority of participants who displayed positive eating attitudes came from the 'black' participants; this means that 'black' participants had a more positive eating attitude than any other racial group within this sample. Alternatively one could acquire the results to the fact that almost half of the sample was 'black' and a representative sample of each race was not present within this study.

5.1.4 Establishing the relationship between body image, self- esteem and eating behaviour

Mann et al., (2004) defines positive self-esteem as a protective factor that reacts as a buffer against any negative influences in one's life, in this sense they argue that self-esteem is important

for both ones physical and mental health. Results from the data indicated that the perception of one's body image and ones attitude toward food is influenced by the worth one places on oneself, also known as ones self-esteem. This is because the underlying premise in ones actions is constructed through whether one views that particular action as a contributing factor to arriving at ones preset goal. In other words, as Bandura explained people model those behaviours, which they view as yielding the best results. Therefore, if one view oneself as being worthy, one would take all the necessary steps to ensure that one is provided for oneself in a worthy manner, this is reiterated in how one view oneself physically. In so doing, one attitude toward food becomes a factor that can be controlled. On the other hand, when one has a negative eating attitude the controlling factor becomes all the more important, this is because feelings cannot be controlled but what one places within one's body can be.

5.1.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, it seems that the attitudes expressed by the students in the sample follow similar trends to those shared by students internationally. The attitudes of the participants were mainly positive which shows that males within the sample not only have a good sense of worth but also a good perception of their body image. It also appears that within all three scales the 'black' participants displayed not only a better view of their body image, but also a more positive attitude toward eating and a more positive view of their worth. In light of this information one cannot ignore the fact that racial distinctions are an aspect that needs further investigation, especially within South Africa. Starting university is an exciting and yet daunting aspect for any individual, therefore it is imperative that further research tap into the other aspects influencing one's body image to broaden the view of body image research that encompasses more than ones age or racial classification.

5.2 Limitations and Recommendations

5.2.1 Limitations

Factors beyond control are inherent in all research designs. According to Isaac and Michael (in Leone, 2007) these limitations beyond the control of the researchers may impact the studies reliability and validity. The following study was limited as follows:

A key limitation was that of the sample size. Due to the constraints of time the sample was small and not randomly selected, therefore the sample was not representative of the male student population at the University of the Western Cape. Thus, racial or ethnic groups such as 'Whites', 'Blacks', 'Indians' and 'Asians' were underrepresented, where as students from the 'Coloured' population was over represented. Because of the restriction on time, the sample was only taken from one department, namely the Psychology department. Although, students from many faculties were present, the majority of students came was Psychology students which may have limited the study because they may be more knowledgeable about eating disorders and self-esteem issues than students from other faculties.

Another limitation was the age of participants. Although, the age of participants was 17 - 67, the majority of students were between the ages of 17 -21, which once again is not a representation of the ages of the male students at the university. Due to these limitations the sample cannot be generalized to the male student population at the university.

The survey questionnaire was limited in time, and therefore questions were limited to numbered options, perhaps with more time more open ended questions could have been added to the questionnaire, that would have allowed participants to elaborate their answers and in doing so, provide a more in-depth understanding of body image and its constructs.

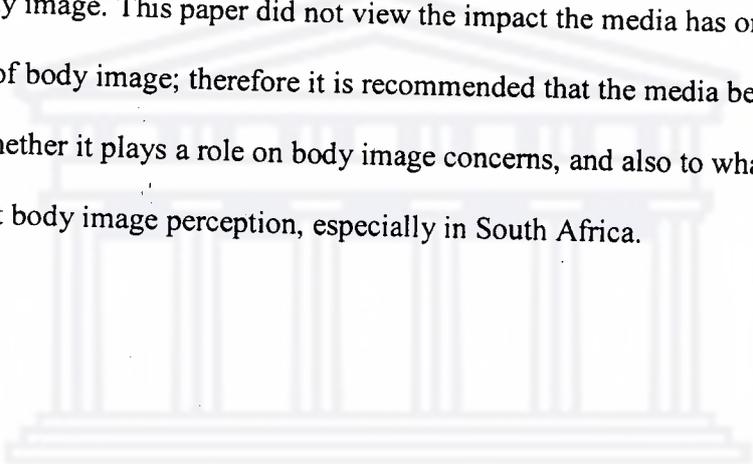
Also, this study was limited in the fact that it did not incorporate the impact of the media or even ones familial environment onto students' perception of body image. In so doing, creating a one-dimensional view to body image perception. Finally, the study was limited as it only investigated the view of male students. By incorporating a female sample better comparisons could have been made between the two genders, therefore enhancing the depth of the study by uncovering the different layers to body image as perceived by males and females.

5.2.2 Recommendations

Future research on male body image dissatisfaction is warranted based on results from this study. The following recommendations for future research are presented based on findings from this study:

- Although, students attending the University of the Western Cape are from many regions, the majority of students reside within the region of the Western Cape, i.e. Cape Town. Therefore, it would be interesting to conduct the same research in other geographic regions of South Africa, to establish whether the same results will be mirrored.
- It is also important that a more in depth and qualitative survey be conducted on different university campuses, therefore establishing whether there is a trend in male students' view of their body image. Also, body image concerns is an aspect that many researchers argue develops when one is a young age, thus it would be of great insight to compare results from the Body Shape Questionnaire (BSQ) in adolescent boys with adult men, noting for any similarities or differences as factors influencing development occur.

- Although, many countries have compared the views of males to females pertaining to body image, research in South Africa is scarce. For this reason there is a need to compare males to females on different campuses to view how men and women define body image.
- Finally, research has shown that when people, especially men are in meaningful activities they tend to exhibit higher self-esteem which could lead to good body image perception, therefore it is needed to expand research looking at sport participation factors contributing to male body image. This paper did not view the impact the media has on males' perception of body image; therefore it is recommended that the media be studied to establish whether it plays a role on body image concerns, and also to what extent do the media affect body image perception, especially in South Africa.



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Addendum A

Letter of Participation



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Letter of Participation

Dear Student

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study.

My name is Crystal Samuels and I am a Masters Psychology student doing research on how students view themselves, their bodies and how these views influence one's eating behaviour. It is hoped that the results of this study will assist psychology researchers to better understand the processes involved in how individuals view themselves.

All information submitted in this questionnaire will remain confidential. There are four sections to the overall questionnaire. Your name is not required and your anonymity will be retained throughout the research process and in the reporting of results. You are also strongly urged to answer all questions as accurately and as truthful as possible as there are no right or wrong answers. Please also be informed that you reserve the right to withdraw from the research process at any time, as well as the right to access any information regarding the research and the results obtained from this study.

Consent

I fully understand the research, my rights and my role as participant in this study, as well as the issues related to confidentiality, as explained by the researcher and as outlined above.

Students Signature

Date

Addendum B

Research Questionnaire



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Section A

Biographical Details

This section of the questionnaire refers to the biographical information. The researcher is aware of the sensitivity of the questions; however, the information will allow a comparison to be done across groups. This section consists of seven questions. Please fill in and tick the appropriate answers to the following questions in the space provided.

1. **Your age:** _____
2. **Faculty:** _____
3. **Home Language:** _____
4. **Ethnicity:**
 1. Black
 2. White
 3. Coloured
 4. Indian or Asian

Section B

RSQ

Instructions: Below is a list of questions describing your feelings about your appearance over the past four weeks. Please read each question carefully. Please answer all the questions. Remember there are no right or wrong answers. Circle the appropriate answer for you.

OVER THE PAST **FOUR WEEKS:**

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Usually		Always
1. Have you been so worried about your shape that you've been feeling you ought to diet?.....	1		2		3		4		5		6
2. Have you been afraid that you might become fat (fatter)?	1		2		3		4		5		6
3. Has feeling full (for example after a large meal) made you feel fat?	1		2		3		4		5		6
4. Have you noticed the shape of other men and felt your own shape compared unfavorably?	1		2		3		4		5		6

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Usually		Always
5. Has thinking about your shape interfered with your ability to concentrate (e.g. while watching television, reading, listening to conversations)?	1		2		3		4		5		6
6. Has being naked, such as when taking a bath, made you feel fat?	1		2		3		4		5		6
7. Have you imagined cutting off flabby parts of your body?	1		2		3		4		5		6
8. Have you not gone out to social occasions (e.g. parties) because you felt bad about your shape?	1		2		3		4		5		6
9. Have you felt excessively large and rounded?	1		2		3		4		5		6
10. Have you thought that you are in the shape you are because you lack self-control?	1		2		3		4		5		6
11. Have you worried about other people seeing rolls of fat around your stomach?	1		2		3		4		5		6
12. When in company have you worried about taking up too much room (e.g. sitting on a sofa or a bus seat)?	1		2		3		4		5		6
13. Has seeing your reflection (e.g. in a mirror or shop window) made you feel bad about your shape?	1		2		3		4		5		6
14. Have you avoided situations where people could see your body (e.g. communal changing rooms or swimming baths?	1		2		3		4		5		6
15. Have you pinched areas of your body to see how much fat there is?.....	1		2		3		4		5		6
16. Have you been particularly self-conscious about your shape when in company of other people?	1		2		3		4		5		6

Section C

Instructions: Below is a list of statements about how you describe and think about yourself. Read each sentence carefully. There is no right or wrong answers. This section consists of 10 statements. Please circle the appropriate answer for you.

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

Section D

Instructions: The statements in this section relates directly to food or eating. Please circle the appropriate answer for you. Don't forget there are no right or wrong answers.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Usually	Always
1. I am terrified about being overweight.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I avoid eating when I am hungry.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I find myself preoccupied with food.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I have gone on eating binges where I feel I may not be able to stop.....	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Usually	Always
5. I cut my food into small pieces.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I am aware of the calorie content of foods that I eat.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I particularly avoid foods with a high carbohydrate content (I.e. bread, rice, potatoes, etc.).....	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I feel that others would prefer if I ate more.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I vomit after I have eaten.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I feel extremely guilty after eating.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I am preoccupied with the thought of having fat on my body.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I think about burning up calories when I exercise.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Other people think that I am too thin.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I am preoccupied with the thought of having fat on my body.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I take longer than others to eat my meals.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I avoid foods with sugar in them.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I eat diet foods.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I feel that food controls my life.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I display self-control around food.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I feel that others pressure me to eat.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I give too much time and thought to food.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I feel uncomfortable after eating sweets.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I engage in dieting behavior.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I like my stomach to be empty.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I enjoy trying new rich foods.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. I have the impulse to vomit after meals.....	1	2	3	4	5	6

**Thank you for participating in this research study.
Your cooperation is greatly appreciated!!**



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