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**The Relationship between Body Image Expectations and Exercise, Eating, and Social
Behavior**

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirement for honors in Psychology

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Hartford, Connecticut

Fall 2020 – Spring 2021

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Abstract

Body image ideals and their relationship to body dissatisfaction and eating disorders have been widely studied in psychology. Having an ideal body is a relevant topic for many young men and women. Through social media, peer influence, and our own expectations, we form an idea of the ideal body. Most often, most people are not satisfied with their own bodies and continually strive to get to their ideal bodies. The purpose of this study was to investigate young adults' body image ideals to identify some of the misconceptions that are relevant today and understand the influence of peers and romantic or sexual partners on individuals' own body image. For this current study, the goal was to understand the relationship between body image ideals and eating, exercise, and social behavior. The current study investigated Trinity College students' perceptions of their own and others' body image and how those affect their eating, exercise, and social behavior. A variety of freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior students participated in this study by taking an online questionnaire (n = 56). Using the Figure Rating Scale by Stunkard, A.J., Soerensen, T., and Schulsinger, F. (1983) and the Muscle Mass Rating Scale by Ralph-Nearmann, C., and Filik, R (2020) it was expected that we would find significant differences in body figure and muscle mass ratings. Results indicate that others' opinions are highly influential for young adults' body image ideals. Furthermore, results show that male and female participants' ideals are more similar than they think to be true.

Introduction

During the 17th century, a young woman from Paris was complimented on her slim waist. Two days later, she died from the implications of wearing a corset due to the damage it can have to the human ribs and organs (Alizadeh, 2019). Body image ideals and expectations have been a prevalent topic for many young adults and still are, if not more so, prevalent today. Today in the 21st century, females' body ideals have shifted to a skinny but curvy enough, toned, and tall body. Males should have muscles, but not too many muscles. They should have a lean body and aim for a V-shaped and well-toned body. These often unrealistic ideals may lead to body dissatisfaction. Body dissatisfaction can have psychopathological consequences, including depressive symptoms, reduced food intake, increase of exercise, and low self-esteem (Neumark-Sztainer *et al.*, 2006). Further, body dissatisfaction is a critical predictor for developing an eating disorder in the future (Stice, Marti, & Durant, 2011). Research has shown that unrealistic body expectations can have negative consequences and, in severe cases, lead to eating disorders, including anorexia nervosa, bulimia nervosa, binge eating disorder, and body and muscle dysmorphia (American Psychiatric Association, 2000).

Due to eating disorders and body dissatisfactions' prevalence, the underlying causes have been widely studied. The idea of having the ideal body is so embedded in today's society that it is difficult to ignore. Researchers have investigated the genetic, psychological, and biological influences, as well as cultural and sociocultural influences. Swami (2015) investigated the influences of culture on body ideals. The study shows that participants from low socioeconomic status do not prefer thinness while participants from high socioeconomic status did prefer thinness. This indicated that thinness becomes associated with no access to resources among communities where access to resources is not guaranteed (Swami, 2015). Therefore, thinness is not only about looking better and being prettier but has also become associated with showing how many resources and possibilities one has.

Eating disorders can start developing through the negative relationship someone has with food. This relationship begins during childhood when food is used as a form of punishment and reward. Mead argues in "Why do we overeat?" by Counihan and Esterik (2013) that using food as punishment and reward can have negative consequences, and instead, food should be conceptualized as a resource of energy. Mass media has a considerable influence through the advertisement of diets, clean eating, and exercise. Instead of helping people learn about what their bodies need, advertisers try to sell specific plans and ideas that are often not fit for all (Counihan & Esterik, 2013). These influences have formed extremely unhealthy ideals for today's generations and explain part of the high number of eating disorder cases. "Nine percent of the U.S. population, or 28.8 million Americans, will have an eating disorder in their lifetime" (Deloitte Access Economics, 2020, Graphic 1).

Socialization is a major part of adolescents and young adults acquire appropriate values, skills, knowledge, standards, and behaviors for their present and future roles in their world. Through the influence of sociocultural agents, including peers, family members, and media, beauty ideals and expectations are formed and communicated (Swami, 2015). Societal ideals are mostly expressed through mass media and reinforced by peers and family. Meeting these standards leads to acceptance, success, and commendation (Bair *et al.*, 2014). All these expectations from one's surroundings can lead to certain expectations, body dissatisfaction, and eating disorders. Further, family dynamics and relationships seem to play a significant role in contributing to the development of an eating disorder. For example, researchers have shown that family dysfunction contributes to the development of anorexia nervosa (Tozzi *et al.*, 2003). Additionally, families' attitudes towards appearance extremely influences adolescents' ideals and their desirability for thinness and an ideal appearance (Garner & Garfinkel, 1997). Comments such as "are you really going to eat all of that", "we really letting ourselves go are we", or "when was the last time you worked out" can have

detrimental effects on adolescents' body image and self-confidence. Still, the negative consequences of a child suffering from an eating disorder might extremely affect family dynamics leading to a negative family environment (Hooley *et al.*, 2017).

Body Image Ideals in Females

During adolescence, boys and girls begin to develop differently. Adolescence is often when gender differences in eating behavior emerge due to physiological changes and social influences (Rolls *et al.*, 1991). These changes may cause distress, and adolescents may become more susceptible to depression (Noles *et al.*, 1985).

Women are often portrayed as sexual objects in social media, movies, and TV (Lindner *et al.*, 2019). They are expected to eat small amounts of food, to care about the way they look, and to only act in appropriate and stereotypically expected ways. If a woman does not act and behave in a certain way, she is often automatically seen as masculine or unattractive. The increase in the prevalence of eating disorders may be due to the rise of pressure to keep a low body weight as a result of the exposure to the thin ideal and perfect body through social media, such as Instagram, Facebook, Tik Tok and other influences. Other influences of eating disorders' etiology include "developmental, psychological, familial, and biological theories" (Rolls *et al.*, 1991).

Feminist theorists argue that the female body is looked at as an object, leading many women to look at their bodies from an outside perspective (Spitzack, 1990). This may lead to "Objectified Body Consciousness (OBC)," which consists of body surveillance, body shame, and control beliefs. Research has found a negative correlation between OBC and body esteem, indicating that females' body objectification may lead to unrealistic standards for women and body dissatisfaction (McKinley & Hide, 1996). Recently, as mentioned above, the body ideal of women has shifted. Today the ideal of women is more curvy, athletic, and

toned rather than just skinny. However, this also might have negative consequences due to the risk of "excessive or dangerous exercise practices, drug misuse, unbalanced and restrictive food intake, and mental health problems" (Ralph-Nearman & Filik, 2020).

Another factor influencing body dissatisfaction includes the Objectification theory by Fredrickson and Roberts (1997).

"Objectification theory argues that frequent exposure to sexually objectifying media messages socializes women to turn this sexualization inward, engaging in self-objectification. Self-objectification involves valuing one's body in terms of its appearance rather than its competence, thinking about one's appearance primarily from the perspective of others, and treating one's body as if it is capable of representing the self." (Lindner *et al.*, 2019, p.1)

Fredrickson and Roberts (1998) argue that the Objectification theory can have severe consequences, including body shame and body dissatisfaction. This theory is especially relevant during adolescence and young adulthood, where women start to become aware of their sexuality and their appearance towards others, often the opposite gender (Lindner *et al.*, 2019).

Through the constant exposure to thin ideals, including social media, TV, and magazines, women begin to develop unrealistic and unhealthy expectations for themselves. Today, a slim, curvy, and toned body has become synonymous with feminine beauty. Along with media, repetitive encouragement to diet by family and friends, also increases the development of these ideals. These social agents include the repetitive encouragement to diet, criticizing someone for their weight, and thin females' glorification by family, friends, or media (Stice & Bearman, 2001). Further, females are constantly reminded that they could attain that ideal weight and become skinnier and more toned through hard and disciplined diets and exercise routines. This constant reminder further perpetuates the feelings of not

being strong enough, not having enough discipline or perfectionism, or simply not wanting the ideal body enough. These feelings and body dissatisfaction may lead to depression (Stice & Bearman, 2001). Stice and Bearman (2001) configured a study to test the relationship between increases in depression, body-image and eating disturbances in adolescent girls. Their results indicated that among adolescent girls, depression is correlated to variables including "body mass, pressure to be thin, thin-ideal internalization, body dissatisfaction, and dieting" (p.598). Their study emphasizes the extreme implications of pressure to conform to sociocultural agents.

As previous studies have shown, sociocultural agents can have detrimental effects on body image and ideals. Athletic environments can also have a negative influence on many women's body ideals. Female athletes are often exposed to positive or negative messages about their "weight, appearance, performance and physique" (Anderson, Petrie & Neumann, 2011). These messages and expectations are primarily communicated by coaches and teammates and can cause extreme pressure contributing to body dissatisfaction.

"For example, female athletes may appreciate the functionality of their bodies, view their muscles as necessary for performances, feel empowered by their physical strength, and view food as fuel; however, when out of the sports environment, these same athletes may experience shame and distress with their physical size and strength, feel pressure to be more feminine or girly, and be conflicted about food and how much they should eat." (Voelker *et al.*, 2020, p.2)

These experiences through an athletic environment can contribute to the struggle of body dissatisfaction due to the inconsistent experience of feeling optimistic about one's athletic performance but feeling dissatisfied with one's body as a result of the more feminine expectations from society. These effects may also play out vice versa, by internalizing the

need to have a feminine body and then not performing as good athletically (Petrie & Greenleaf, 2012).

Body Image Ideals in Males

Researchers have focused on females for a long time when investigating eating disorders, body dissatisfaction, and body ideals. However, recently it has been shown that not only females have eating disorders or experience body dissatisfaction. The lack of research of males with eating disorders is primarily due to the differences in etiology and pathology of eating disorders in females and males. Further, the DSM-V diagnostic criteria for eating disorders emphasizes symptoms that are more often associated with female experiences of eating disorders. Men are more likely to show concerns about their muscularity. Instead of dieting, men with eating disorders overexercise and are controlling their food intake (Hooley *et al.*, 2017).

Even though eating disorders are far more common among females, through research it has been shown that males cannot be ignored when investigating these topics. Olivardia *et al.* (2004) conducted a study that examined the importance of muscularity and body image in college men. These findings indicate that men are increasingly trying to meet unrealistic body ideals, including extreme muscularity and leanness.

Men desire to build more muscle, be larger, and often gain weight. Additionally, men often strive to be tall, lean, and well-toned. Further, college men argue that having more muscle mass is more attractive to women, and therefore want to attain those ideals (Lynch *et al.*, 1999). Instead of extreme dieting or bingeing, males often use anabolic steroids, excessive exercise, and severe food restriction to gain their ideal body weight and muscle mass (Ridgeway & Tylka, 2005). A study by Ricciardelli and McCabe (2004) found that body dissatisfaction is expressed differently in boys "some boys wanting a larger and more

muscular body, whereas some boys express a desire to lose body fat and develop a leaner and more muscular body" (p.183). Research has found that body dissatisfaction in men is often associated with "low self-esteem, depression, exercise dependence, eating pathology, and the abuse of anabolic-androgenic steroids" (Chittester & Hausenblas, 2009; Pritchard, 2014). The need for gaining muscles may also be associated with the male self-concept, meaning men are expected to be strong, protective, and independent (Ricciardelli & McCabe, 2004).

Puberty is a significant time of development for boys, and unlike girls, moves them closer to the societal ideal body for a man. Boys start becoming wider, taller, gain more muscle, and often begin growing a beard. All these developmental changes are usually perceived as positive changes for boys (Stice & Bearman, 2001). A study review by Ricciardelli and McCabe (2004) evaluated the correlations and risk factors associated with disordered eating and the pursuit of masculinity among adolescent boys. Late maturing boys were more likely to experience higher levels of body dissatisfaction, were less popular with their peers, experienced more conflict with their parents, and displayed more depressive symptoms. These findings indicate that already at a young age, boys experience pressure to have the ideal male body.

Muscle dysmorphia is a newly added diagnosis added to the DSM-V and is defined by the excessive preoccupation with muscularity and the belief to be too small or insufficiently muscular (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Muscle dysmorphia has been added under the category of body dysmorphic disorder. Even though difficult to detect, it allows psychologists and people experiencing those symptoms to understand its negative consequences. Because eating disorders are more difficult to be diagnosed in men due to the differences in symptomatology, the addition of muscle dysmorphia will make it easier to understand male experiences with eating disorders (Cordes *et al.*, 2016; Ricciardelli & McCabe, 2004).

Body Ideal Expectations

The expectations and pressures for the ideal body, for women and men, often comes from the opposite sex or from peers' expectations. Women often experience immense pressure towards thinness, for which male preferences are usually accounted for. This may be particularly challenging for women in heterosexual relationships due to the expected and experienced pressure from men. However, some studies suggest that men do not value women's thinness as estimated by many women. Additionally, pressure for women to have a thinner body may develop through comparisons with other females, including peers or role models (Cohn & Adler, 1992). These unfavorable comparisons may lead to the development of body dissatisfaction and eating disorders. This indicates a need for clarification for understanding female and male expectations to reduce body dissatisfaction for men and women.

Bair *et al.* (2014) investigated the influence of peers on women's body ideals and the differences of influence due to gender based on the idea that body ideals are communicated through media and reinforced by peers and family, and when those expectations are met, one will be accepted and seen as successful. They conducted a study to understand those effects. Previous research has suggested that when manipulating body norms, creating thin versus heavy average population groups, the need for women to be thinner arises through the knowledge of other women wanting to be thinner (Mills *et al.*, 2012). "Women's personal body ideals converged with their perception of the female body men would prefer, suggesting that women may also adjust their body ideals to conform to the perceived preference of the opposite-sex" (Bair *et al.*, 2014, p. 276). Bair *et al.* (2014) results indicate that "women exposed to thinner peer preferences had a thinner ideal than did those exposed to heavier peer preferences" and that "women can be influenced by the preferences of their peers to prefer a

heavier, but not a thinner, body ideal for themselves, likely due to the extremely thin current body ideal" (Bair *et al.*, 2014, p. 278 - 279).

Swami and Voracek (2013) investigated the association between men's sexist attitudes and their muscularity drive. Their study showed a greater drive for muscularity was associated with more sexist attitudes and a greater tendency to objectify women. Further, their results indicate that men who more strongly objectify women are more likely to attain a muscular physique. These results may be because men who objectify themselves are more likely to objectify women.

Body dissatisfactions' Influences and Attitudes

Dissatisfaction with one's body image can have many negative consequences. Certain behaviors often change due to the effort of changing one's weight and body. However, specific actions, including eating, exercise, and social behavior, can also be precursors toward body dissatisfaction and a negative body ideal (Furnham *et al.*, 2002).

Furnham *et al.* (2002) conducted a study to investigate adolescents' eating attitudes, self-esteem, reasons for exercise, and ideal versus current body size and shape. They hypothesized that those who are dissatisfied with their bodies have lower self-esteem and that negative reasons for exercise (weight control, attractiveness, tone) are associated with disordered eating and low self-esteem. Further, they hypothesized that other reasons for exercise (mood, health, enjoyment, fitness) are not related to disordered eating and are related to high self-esteem. Results showed that dissatisfaction with body image and weight was not significantly correlated with boys' self-esteem but was significant for girls.

Women and men frequently use exercise as a weight-loss strategy. Some even develop exercise dependence, which is the process that compels an individual to exercise

despite obstacles and results in physical and psychological symptoms of depression and guilt when exercise is withdrawn (Baekeland, 1970; Ricciardelli *et al.*, 2004).

Another frequently used strategy to achieve an ideal body is dieting or changing one's eating behavior. Harrison *et al.* (2006) observed women's and men's eating behavior after the exposure to "same-gender ideal-body imagery" (p. 508). They developed this observational research based on the self-discrepancy theory. The self-discrepancy theory, developed by Harrison *et al.* (2006) argues that "individuals hold beliefs about who they are (the actual self), who they would like to be (the ideal self), and who they ought to be (the ought self)" (p. 510). According to Higgins (1987),

"...self-discrepancy activation produces an emotional-motivational state characterized by affective discomfort and the desire to take action to reduce the discrepancy. If the discrepancy is specifically related to the size of the body, however, avoiding food as a means of emotional relief and discrepancy reduction becomes problematic, particularly when one's ought body is larger than one's actual body." (Higgins, 1987, as cited in Harrison *et al.*, 2006, p. 521)

To test this theory and the effects of experiencing self-discrepancy on eating, Harrison *et al.* (2006) exposed women and men to ideal body images. They analyzed the changes to their eating behaviors. The study's results indicate that the exposure to perfect body images leads women who experience a high discrepancy between their actual and ideal self to eat less. This result suggests that "if a woman is a regular user of ideal-body media such as fitness and fashion magazines, [...], she may be moved to abstain from eating several times a day even when she is hungry, resulting in significant weight loss over time" (Harrison *et al.*, 2006, p. 525). For males, results indicate the opposite. Males who experience a high discrepancy between their actual and ideal self, showed increased eating after the exposure to the perfect body images indicating that "a man who is vulnerable to ideal-male images due to the

presence of a self-discrepancy may be moved to eat even when he is not hungry, just to reassure himself and other men that he is sufficiently masculine" (Harrison *et al.*, 2006, p. 525). The authors also found these effects regardless of body mass. One of the beginning signs of unhealthy eating is shown by eating in response to external signals instead of only eating when experiencing hunger (Harrison *et al.*, 2006). These results show the detrimental effects media can have on eating behavior and indicate the significance of further understanding the media's role and other outside influences in developing eating disorders.

Research Objectives and Hypotheses

As eating disorders and body dissatisfaction are shared across the globe, body ideals, expectations, and the impact on exercise, eating, and social behavior are incredibly relevant today. Body ideals and expectations are often an essential aspect of the development of body dissatisfaction and eating disorders. Even though researchers have investigated these ideas thoroughly, there is still more to be discovered. Based on the ideas and research mentioned above, it becomes clear how significant it is to understand and develop these ideas.

Therefore, the current study aimed to investigate young adults' (Trinity students) perceptions of their own and others' body image and how those affect their eating, exercise, and social behavior. Based on the previous research outlined above, the following hypotheses were tested:

1. It is hypothesized that the smaller male and female participants' assessment of what figure others find attractive is, the smaller their own selected ideal body image will be for body figure rating and muscle mass.
2. It is hypothesized that according to their sexual interest male and female participants' assessment of others' ideal body image correlates positively with participants own ideal body image for body figure rating and muscle mass.

3. It is hypothesized that male and female participants' ideal body images on average are smaller than participants' self-assessed actual bodies.
 - a. Looking at muscularity, it is hypothesized that male and female participants' ideal body images on average are bigger than participants' self-assessed actual bodies.
4. It is hypothesized that male and female participants' assessment of what figure others' find attractive on average is smaller than participants' assessment according to their sexual interest of the other genders' ideal body images for body figure rating and muscle mass.
5. It is hypothesized that male and female participants' select a bigger figure to look most like themselves than for what they believe others/ the opposite gender find/s most attractive for body figure rating and muscle mass.
 - a. Looking at muscularity, it is hypothesized that male participants select a smaller figure to look most like themselves than what they believe others/ the opposite gender find/s most attractive.
6. It is hypothesized that the selected typical male/ female body chosen by participants according to their sexual interest correlates positively with the figure mostly selected by participants when choosing their self-assessed actual body for body figure and muscle mass.
7. It is hypothesized that the figure that male and female participants believe looks most like themselves on average is close to/ similar to the figure chosen by the other participants according to their sexual interest to be most attractive.
8. It is hypothesized that male and female participants' importance of exercise and eating positively correlates with the importance of having an ideal body.

9. It is hypothesized that male and female participants' engagement in social behavior (Greek life) correlates positively with the participants' importance of an ideal body.
10. It is hypothesized that for male and female participants being a member of an athletic team correlates positively with the importance of an ideal body.
11. It is hypothesized that male and female participants' assessment of importance of having an ideal body correlates positively with changes in eating and exercise habits on days participants do not feel as confident in their body.
12. It is hypothesized that male and female participants who find having an ideal body significantly important also find it important that their romantic or sexual partner has an ideal body.

Method

Participants

Participants were randomly recruited among students at Trinity College in Hartford, Connecticut. To obtain participants for taking the Qualtrics questionnaire, Trinity College professors were contacted to ask students in various classes to participate in the current study. Due to the limit in contact with specific classes and professors due to Covid-19 there were some restrictions on the pool of participants. Students were informed about the topic of this study and were asked if they would like to participate. Students were provided with the anonymous link to the questionnaire and were then asked to complete an approximately 7-minute survey. This allowed for a random selection of students with varying majors and demographic backgrounds. Overall, there were 62 participants who took the questionnaire. Included in data analysis, there were 42 female participants, 16 male participants, 1 transgender participant and 1 non-conforming participant. Due to later exclusion of non-binary identifying participants and exclusion of participants who did not complete the survey

we ended up with 56 participants. Therefore, there were 41 female and 15 male participants considered for data analysis. The age ranged from 18 - 22 years (Table 1). The mean age was 20.5 years old. 53 participants were heterosexual, 1 was homosexual, and two were bisexual. There were 3 Asian or Asian American participants, 2 Black or African American participants, 44 Caucasian participants, 4 Hispanic or Latino participants, and 3 participants who identified as other. For more detailed sociodemographic characteristics information refer to Table 1. All participants were fluent in English; however, not all participants were native speakers. Data was collected over the course of a month. Participants were naïve to the study and gave informed consent. This research did not place participants at a greater than minimal risk and we did not gather any identifiable information from participants. Participants took part in this study due to interest in the topic or free will. There were no incentives offered. All data were collected using the Qualtrics XM-Platform that allows the creation of surveys and data collection.

Design

The essential task of this study was to fill out a questionnaire about body image expectations and exercise, eating, and social behavior. This experiment was a between-subjects design, meaning that depending on what gender and sexual interest participants identified with, their questionnaire looked different. The questions only included multiple choice questions. This questionnaire consisted of questions regarding participants' ideal body image, their body image expectations for others, and how body image ideals influence their exercise, eating, and social behavior. Overall, the questionnaire consisted of 29 questions. The order of the questions was the same for each participant.

Stimuli and Materials

This Qualtrics questionnaire was designed to measure participants' own body image ideals, how they perceive themselves, and their body expectations for others in relation to body and muscle mass. Further, we designed this questionnaire to assess participants' opinion on the importance of having an ideal body, of someone else's ideal body, a healthy diet, regular exercise, and how being a member of either an athletic team or Greek organization correlates with the idea of having an ideal body. On average the questionnaire took participants 7 minutes.

In the first section of the questionnaire, we asked participants for their consent to participate in our study, see Appendix A. All participants had to confirm that they are Trinity College students and understand the expectations of the survey. The next section included questions about participants' demographics. This included questions about their gender, sexuality, ethnic group, age, class year, participation in an athletic team and/or Greek organization. The third section included questions about participants' own body figure, their perception of the ideal figure, and what others or the opposite gender finds most attractive. These questions were repeated for the figures to look at muscle mass. The next section asked specifically about the body expectations for participants' sexual interest, also including body mass and muscle mass figures. The last part of the questionnaire included questions about eating and exercise behavior and how prevalent the topic of having an ideal body is for participants and specifically in the environments of athletic teams and Greek organizations. See Appendix B for a complete list of questionnaire items.

The types of stimuli that were presented in the questionnaire included the figure rating scale by Stunkard, A.J., Soerensen, T., and Schulsinger, F. (1983) and the Muscle Mass Rating Scale by Ralph-Nearmann, C., and Filik, R. (2020).

Figure 1. *Figure Rating Scale by Stunkard et al. (1983)*

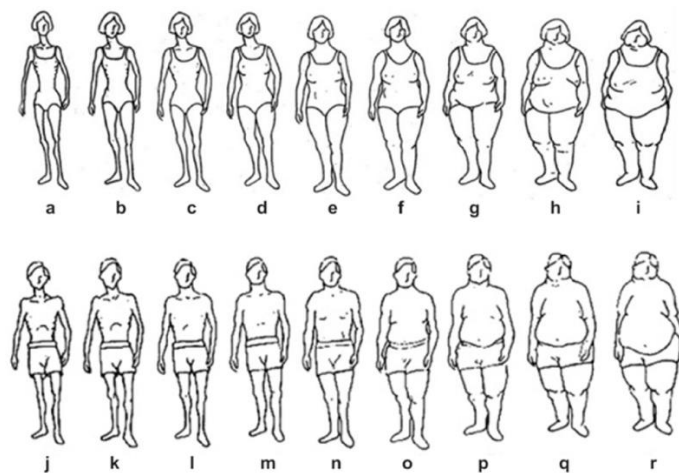
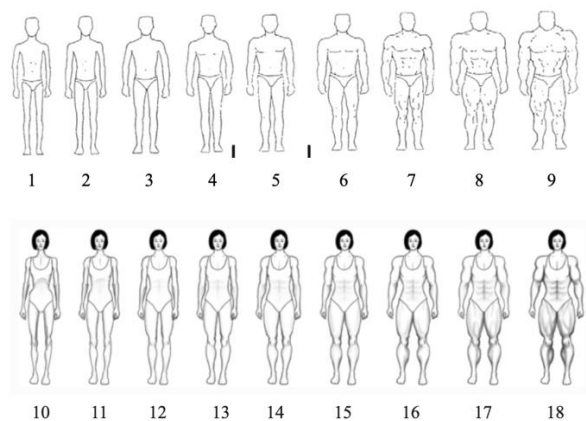


Figure 2. *Male Muscle Mass Rating Scale and Female Muscle Mass Rating Scale by Ralph Nearmann and Filik (2020)*



These stimuli show male and female body figures ranging in body fat and muscle mass. Overall, the figure rating scale shows nine figures for male and female. The Muscle Mass Rating Scale also includes nine figures for each male and female figures. Stimuli varied for participants depending on their gender and sexual interest. For example, when a male participant identifies as heterosexual, he was presented with female figures for the second part of the questionnaire. When a male participant identifies as homosexual, he was presented with male figures for the second part of the questionnaire. During the questionnaire

participants had to select one of the figures as responses to the questions. To select one figure, participants had to select a letter between “a” to “r” and a number between “1” to “18”.

Procedure

Participants conducted the questionnaire on a computer, phone, or other device running an Internet browser, using Qualtrics. The participants were first shown the instructions and a consent form. All instructions and questions were written in Helvetica Neue. Participants then had to respond to questions about their demographics and about their body ideals and expectations. Depending on gender and sexual orientation, participants were shown different body figure rating scales and muscle mass rating scales. The survey ended with questions about the importance of an ideal body and the influence of athletic teams and Greek organizations on body ideals. See Appendix B for more detail.

Data Analysis

Data was collected using the Qualtrics XM-platform online survey software. After finishing data collection, we downloaded all the results from Qualtrics to SPSS. Using SPSS, we started with quality control of the data and several verification tests to make sure we are not missing data and that all participants completed most of the questionnaire. Another factor we had to control was that all participants gave their consent. Overall, we excluded 4 participants because they only gave consent and did not answer the rest of the questions. As mentioned above we decided to exclude two non-binary participants. This decision was made due to the small sample size of non-binary students which would not have allowed us to make significant comparisons to the other groups. Further, including them might have skewed the

results due to the later request of choosing between the male and female figures. Looking at descriptive statistics and frequency distributions we started analyzing the collected data. To test our hypotheses, we created a subdivide analysis by gender to carry out within-sex analyses for most hypotheses. This split in our data allowed us to look at male and female results separately. Depending on each hypothesis we found the bivariate Pearson correlation, independent sample t-test, or paired sample t-test. Additionally, using descriptive statistics we found the means and standard deviations for several variables.

Results

i. Body Figure and Muscle Mass Ratings

To assess participants' own ideal body image and its different influences, we first examined the questions related to body figure and muscle mass. It was hypothesized that the smaller a participant's assessment of what figure others find attractive is, the smaller their own selected ideal body image will be.

Participants' assessment of other's and own ideal. A Pearson bivariate correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between participants' assessment of what body figure others find attractive and participants' own ideal body image. There was a significant positive correlation between the Male Figure Rating Item 1 and Male Figure Rating Item 3, $r = .562$, $N = 15$, $p = .029$, with $R^2 = .32$. Males' assessment of what body figure others find attractive was related to males own selected ideal body. Males' assessment of what body figure others find attractive accounted for 32% of the variance in males own selected ideal body. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 1 that males' assessment of what figure others find attractive is correlated with their own selected ideal body image.

There was a significant positive correlation between the Male Muscle Mass Item 1 and Male Muscle Mass Item 3, $r = .769$, $N = 15$, $p = .001$, with $R^2 = .59$. Males' assessment of

what muscle mass figure others find attractive was related to males' own selected ideal muscle mass figure. Males' assessment of what muscle mass figure others find attractive accounted for 59% of the variance in males' own selected ideal muscle mass figure. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 1 that male's assessment of what muscle mass figure others find attractive is correlated with their own selected ideal muscle mass figure.

There was a significant positive correlation between the Female Figure Rating Item 1 and Female Figure Rating Item 3, $r = .460$, $N = 41$, $p = .002$, with $R^2 = .21$. Females' assessment of what body figure others find attractive was related to females' own selected ideal body. Females' assessment of what body figure others find attractive accounted for 21% of the variance in females own selected ideal body. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 1 that females' assessment of what figure others find attractive is correlated with their own selected ideal body image.

There was a significant positive correlation between Female Muscle Mass Item 1 and Female Muscle Mass Item 3, $r = .339$, $N = 41$, $p = .030$, with $R^2 = .12$. Females' assessment of what muscle mass figure others find attractive was related to females' own selected ideal muscle mass figure. Females' assessment of what muscle mass figure others find attractive accounted for 12% of the variance in females own selected ideal muscle mass figure. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 1 that females' assessment of what muscle mass figure others find attractive is correlated with their own selected ideal muscle mass figure.

Participants' ideal body image and their self-assessed body. It was hypothesized that participants' ideal body images on average are smaller than participants' self-assessed actual bodies. A paired-samples t test was conducted to compare the figure that male and female participants would most like to have and the figure that participants believe looks most like themselves. This was done to test whether participants' ideal body images on average are smaller than participants' self-assessed actual bodies. For pair 1, comparing Male Figure

Rating Item 3 and Male Figure Rating Item 2, there was no significant difference in figure size from Male Figure Rating Item 3 ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .990$) to Male Figure Rating Item 2 ($M = 3.60$, $SD = .910$), $t(14) = -.435$, $p = .670$, 95% CI $[-.395, .262]$. This does not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 3.

Looking at muscularity, it was hypothesized that participants ideal body images on average are bigger than participants' self-assessed actual bodies. For pair 2, comparing Male Muscle Mass Item 3 and Male Muscle Mass Item 2, there was a significant decrease in muscle mass from Male Muscle Mass Item 3 ($M = 6.13$, $SD = 1.125$) to Male Muscle Mass Item 2 ($M = 4.80$, $SD = 1.265$), $t(14) = 4.934$, $p < .001$, 95% CI $[.754, 1.913]$. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 3a that male participants select a bigger figure for the figure participants would most like to have than for the figure to look most like themselves.

For pair 1, comparing Female Figure Rating Item 3 and Female Figure Rating Item 2, there was a highly significant increase in figure size from Female Figure Rating Item 3 ($M = 2.49$, $SD = .840$) to Female Figure Rating Item 2 ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 1.117$), $t(40) = -6.189$, $p < .001$, 95% CI $[-1.229, -.624]$. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 3.

For pair 2, comparing Female Muscle Mass Item 3 and Female Muscle Mass Item 2, there was no significant difference in muscle mass from Female Muscle Mass Item 3 ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 1.010$) to Female Muscle Mass Item 2 ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.195$), $t(40) = -1.198$, $p = .238$, 95% CI $[.004, .151]$. These results do not confirm the predictions of hypothesis 3.

Participants' self-assessed body and estimate of what others believe to find most attractive. It was hypothesized that participants select a bigger figure to look most like themselves than for what they believe others/the opposite gender find/s most attractive. A paired-samples t test was conducted to compare the figure that male and female participants believe looks most like themselves and what figure participants believe the other gender finds

most attractive. This was done to test whether participants select a bigger figure to look most like themselves than the figure they select others/the opposite gender find/s most attractive.

For pair 1, comparing Male Figure Rating Item 2 and Male Figure Rating Item 1, there was no significant difference in figure size from Male Figure Rating Item 2 ($M = 3.60$, $SD = .910$) to Male Figure Rating Item 1 ($M = 3.67$, $SD = 1.113$), $t(14) = -.211$, $p = .836$, 95% CI [-.744, .610]. This does not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 5.

Looking at muscularity, it was hypothesized that participants select a smaller figure to look most like themselves than what they believe others/the opposite gender find most attractive. For pair 2, there was a highly significant increase in muscle mass from Male Muscle Mass Item 2 ($M = 4.80$, $SD = 1.265$) to Male Muscle Mass Item 1 ($M = 5.80$, $SD = .941$), $t(14) = -.532$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-1.468, -.532]. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 5a because participants selected a smaller muscle mass figure to look most like themselves than for what they believe others/the opposite gender find/s most attractive.

For pair 3, comparing Female Figure Rating Item 2 and Female Figure Rating Item 1, there was a highly significant decrease in figure size from Female Figure Rating Item 2 ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 1.117$) to Female Figure Rating Item 1 ($M = 2.76$, $SD = .767$), $t(40) = 3.302$, $p = .002$, 95% CI [.255, 1.062]. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 5 that participants select a bigger figure to look most like themselves than for what they believe others/the opposite gender find/s most attractive.

For pair 4, comparing Female Muscle Mass Item 2 and Female Muscle Mass Item 1, there was a significant decrease in muscle mass from Female Muscle Mass Item 2 ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.195$) to Female Muscle Mass Item 1 2 ($M = 2.71$, $SD = 1.031$), $t(40) = 2.012$, $p = .051$, 95% CI [-.002, .880]. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 5 that participants select a bigger figure to look most like themselves than for what they believe others/the opposite gender find/s most attractive.

ii. Participants' body ideals and Others' Influence

Participants' assessment of others' ideal according to their sexual interest and participants' own ideal body image. It was hypothesized that according to their sexual interest participants' assessment of others' ideal body image correlates positively with participants' own ideal body image. An independent groups *t* test was calculated to compare the means of participants' assessment according to their sexual interest of others' ideal body image with the means of participants' own ideal body image. According to our calculations comparing Male Figure Rating Item 3 and Sexual Interest Male Figure Rating Item 2 there was no significant difference in figure size from Male Figure Rating Item 3 ($M = 3.53, SD = .990$) to Sexual Interest Male Figure Rating Item 2 ($M = 3.79, SD = .894$), $t = -.9322, p > .10$. These results do not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 2.

Comparing Male Muscle Mass Item 3 and Sexual Interest Male Muscle Mass Rating Item 2 there was a significant difference in muscle mass from Male Muscle Mass Item 3 ($M = 6.13, SD = 1.125$) to Sexual Interest Male Muscle Mass Rating Item 2 ($M = 5.20, SD = .813$), $t = 5.865, p < .001$. These results confirm the prediction of hypothesis 2 that according to their sexual interest participants' (male/female) assessment of others' ideal muscle mass figure correlates positively with male participants' own ideal muscle mass figure.

Comparing Female Figure Rating Item 3 and Sexual Interest Female Figure Rating Item 2 there was a statistically significant difference in figure size from Female Figure Rating Item 3 ($M = 2.49, SD = .840$) to Sexual Interest Female Figure Rating Item 2 ($M = 3.14, SD = .663$), $t = -2.64, p < .02$. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 2 that according to their sexual interest participants' (male/female) assessment of others' ideal body figure correlates with female participants' own ideal body figure.

Comparing Female Muscle Mass Item 3 and Sexual Interest Female Muscle Mass Item 2 there was no significant difference in muscle mass from Female Muscle Mass Item 3

($M = 2.93$, $SD = 1.010$) to Sexual Interest Female Muscle Mass Item 2 ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 1.082$), $t = -1.0625$, $p > .20$. These results do not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 2.

Participants' assessment of what figure others find attractive and assessment of others' ideal body according to their sexual interest. It was hypothesized that participants' assessment of what figure others find attractive on average is smaller than participants' assessment according to their sexual interest of the other genders' ideal body image. An independent groups t test was calculated to compare the means of participants' assessment of what figure others find attractive and what participants find most attractive according to their sexual interest of the other genders' ideal body images.

There was no significant difference in the mean figure rating chosen by males of what figure they believe others find attractive and the figure chosen by participants according to their sexual interest of the other genders' (male) ideal body image, $t = -.427$, $p > .20$. Male participants for Male Figure Rating Item 1 had a mean of 3.67 ($SD = 1.113$) and other participants for Sexual Interest Male Figure Rating 2 had a mean of 3.79 ($SD = .894$). These results do not confirm the predictions of hypothesis 4.

There was a significant difference in the mean muscle mass figure chosen by males of what figure they believe others' find attractive and the figure chosen by participants according to their sexual interest of the other genders' (male) ideal muscle mass figure, $t = -2.343$, $p < .05$. Male participants for Male Muscle Mass Item 1 had a mean of 5.80 ($SD = .941$) and other participants for Sexual Interest Male Muscle Mass Rating Item 2 had a mean of 5.20 ($SD = .813$). Even though there was a significant difference, these results do not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 4 because males' assessment of what figure others find attractive on average was smaller than participants' assessment according to their sexual interest of the other genders' ideal body image.

There was a significant difference in the mean figure rating chosen by females of what figure they believe others find attractive and the figure chosen by participants according to their sexual interest of the other genders' (female) ideal body image, $t = -1.65, p < .20$. Female participants for Female Figure Rating Item 1 had a mean of 2.76 ($SD = .767$) and other participants for Sexual Interest Female Figure Rating Item 2 had a mean of 3.14 ($SD = .663$). This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 4 that females' assessment of what figure others find attractive on average is smaller than participants' assessment according to their sexual interest of the other genders' (female) ideal body image.

There was a significant difference in the mean figure rating chosen by females of what muscle mass figure they believe others find attractive and the figure chosen by participants according to their sexual interest of the other genders' (female) ideal muscle mass figure, $t = -2.014, p < .10$. Female participants for Female Muscle Mass Item 1 had a mean of 2.71 ($SD = 1.031$) and other participants for Sexual Interest Female Muscle Mass Item 2 had a mean of 3.36 ($SD = 1.082$). This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 4 that females' assessment of what muscle mass figure others find attractive on average is smaller than participants' assessment according to their sexual interest of the other genders' (female) ideal muscle mass figure.

Selected typical male/female body according to their sexual interest and participants' actual body. It was hypothesized that participants selected typical male/female body according to their sexual interest correlates positively with the figure mostly selected by participants when choosing their self-assessed actual body. An independent groups t test was calculated to compare the means of the typical male/female body selected by participants according to their sexual interest and the figure mostly selected by participants when choosing their self-assessed actual body.

There was a significant difference in the mean body figure of the typical male body selected by participants according to their sexual interest and the figure selected by male participants when choosing their self-assessed actual body, $t = 2.229, p < .05$. Participants selecting the figure that represents the typical male body (according to their sexual interest) (Sexual Interest Male Figure Rating Item 1) had a mean figure rating of 4.27 ($SD = 1.025$) and participants selecting the figure that they believe looks most like themselves (Male Figure Rating Item 2) had a mean figure rating of 3.60 ($SD = .910$). This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 6.

There was a significant difference in the mean muscle mass figure of the typical male body selected by participants according to their sexual interest and the figure selected by male participants when choosing their self-assessed actual body, $t = -1.936, p < .10$. Participants selecting the muscle mass figure that represents the typical male body (according to their sexual interest) (Sexual Interest Male Muscle Mass Item 1) had a mean figure rating of 4.20 ($SD = .928$) and participants selecting the muscle mass figure that they believe looks most like themselves (Male Muscle Mass Item 2) had a mean figure rating of 4.80 ($SD = 1.265$). This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 6.

There was no significant difference in mean body figure of the typical female body selected by participants according to their sexual interest and the figure selected by female participants when choosing their self-assessed actual body, $t = 0.743, p > .20$. Participants selecting the figure that represents the typical female body (according to their sexual interest) (Sexual Interest Female Figure Rating Item 1) had a mean figure rating of 3.93 ($SD = .997$) and participants selecting the figure that they believe looks most like themselves (Female Figure Rating Item 2) had a mean figure rating of 3.41 ($SD = 1.117$). This does not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 6.

There was no significant difference in mean muscle mass of the typical female body selected by participants according to their sexual interest and the figure selected by female participants when choosing their self-assessed actual body, $t = 1.117, p > .20$. Participants selecting the muscle mass figure that represents the typical female body (according to their sexual interest) (Sexual Interest Female Muscle Mass Item 1) had a mean muscle mass figure rating of 3.57 ($SD = 1.284$) and participants selecting the muscle mass figure that they believe looks most like themselves (Female Muscle Mass Item 2) had a mean muscle mass figure rating of 3.15 ($SD = 1.195$). This does not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 6.

Participants' actual body and most attractive body chosen by others according to their sexual interest. It was hypothesized that the figure that participants believe looks most like themselves on average is close to/similar to the figure chosen by the opposite gender according to their sexual interest to be most attractive. Therefore, it was predicted to show no significant difference.

There was no significant difference in the mean figure selected by male participants to look most like themselves and the figure selected by participants they find most attractive according to their sexual interest, $t = -.0634, p > .20$. Male participants selecting the figure that they believe looks most like themselves (Male Figure Rating Item 2) had a mean figure rating of 3.60 ($SD = .910$) and participants selecting the figure they find most attractive according to their sexual interest (Sexual Interest Male Figure Rating Item 2) had a mean figure rating of 3.79 ($SD = .894$). This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 7 that the figure that participants believe looks most like themselves on average is similar to the figure chosen by the opposite gender according to their sexual interest to be most attractive.

There was a significant difference in the mean muscle mass figure selected by male participants to look most like themselves and the muscle mass figure selected by participants they find most attractive according to their sexual interest, $t = - 1.394, p < .20$. Male

participants selecting the muscle mass figure that they believe looks most like themselves (Male Muscle Mass Item 2) had a mean muscle mass figure rating of 4.80 ($SD = 1.265$) and participants selecting the figure they find most attractive according to their sexual interest (Sexual Interest Male Muscle Mass Item 2) had a mean muscle mass figure rating of 5.20 ($SD = .813$). This does not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 7 and indicates that participants find more muscular figures more attractive than what most males believe they have themselves.

There was no significant difference in the mean figure selected by female participants to look most like themselves and the figure selected by participants they find most attractive according to their sexual interest, $t = 0.851$, $p > .20$. Female participants selecting the figure that they believe looks most like themselves (Female Figure Rating Item 2) had a mean figure rating of 3.41 ($SD = 1.117$) and participants selecting the figure they find most attractive according to their sexual interest (Sexual Interest Female Figure Rating Item 2) had a mean figure rating of 3.14 ($SD = .663$). This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 7 that the figure that participants believe looks most like themselves on average is similar to the figure chosen by the opposite gender according to their sexual interest to be most attractive.

There was no significant difference in the mean muscle mass figure selected by female participants to look most like themselves and the muscle mass figure selected by participants they find most attractive according to their sexual interest, $t = -0.558$, $p > .20$. Female participants selecting the muscle mass figure that they believe looks most like themselves (Female Muscle Mass Item 2) had a mean muscle mass figure rating of 3.15 ($SD = 1.195$) and participants selecting the muscle mass figure they find most attractive according to their sexual interest (Sexual Interest Female Muscle Mass Item 2) had a mean muscle mass figure rating of 3.36 ($SD = 1.082$). This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 7 that the muscle mass figure that participants believe looks most like themselves on average is similar

to the muscle figure chosen by the opposite gender according to their sexual interest to be most attractive.

iii. Body Ideal and Social, Exercise, and Eating Behavior

Importance of having an ideal body and exercise and eating. It was hypothesized that participants' importance of an ideal body positively correlates with the importance of exercise and eating to participants. A Pearson bivariate correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between the importance of having an ideal body and the importance of a healthy diet for male and female participants. There was a no significant correlation between the two variables, $r = -.015$, $N = 54$, $p = .914$, with $R^2 = -.0225$. Further, an additional Pearson bivariate correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between the importance of having an ideal body and the importance of regular exercise for participants. There was no significant correlation between the two variables, $r = .160$, $N = 54$, $p = .246$, with $R^2 = .026$. These results do not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 8.

Importance of ideal body and social behavior. An independent samples t test was conducted to compare whether there was a difference in mean importance of having an ideal body depending on being a member of a Greek organization or not being a member. There was no significant difference in the mean importance of having an ideal body for Greek organization members and non-Greek organization members $t(52) = .534$, $p = .596$, 95% CI [-.336, .580]. Participants who identified as being Greek members had a mean of importance of having an ideal body of 3.58 ($SD = .692$) and participants who do not identify as Greek members had a mean of importance of having an ideal body of 3.46 ($SD = .852$). These results do not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 9. The independent samples t test was conducted considering male and female participants together and splitting the file allowing to

look at male and female participants separately. Both outcomes showed non-significant results.

Importance of ideal body and athletic team members. It was hypothesized that being a member of an athletic team correlates positively with the importance of having an ideal body. An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare whether there was a difference in mean importance of having an ideal body depending on being on an athletic team or not. There was no significant difference in the mean importance of having an ideal body for athletic team members and non-athletic team members, $t(52) = .183$, $p = .856$, 95% CI [-.429, .515]. Participants who identified as athletic team members had a mean of importance of having an ideal body of 3.53 ($SD = .874$) and non-athletic team members had a mean of importance of having an ideal body of 3.49 ($SD = .768$). These results do not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 10. The independent samples *t* test was conducted considering male and female participants together and splitting the file allowing to look at male and female participants separately. Both outcomes showed non-significant results.

Importance of ideal body and exercise and eating habits. It was hypothesized that participants' assessment of importance of having an ideal body correlates positively with changes in eating and exercise habits on days participants do not feel as confident in their body. A Pearson bivariate correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between participant's perception of importance of having an ideal body and the influence of feeling less confident on changes in eating and exercise habits. There was no significant correlation between the importance of having an ideal body (Import Item 1) and feeling less confident leading to changes in eating habits (Body Attitude Item 1), $r = .122$, $N = 54$, $p = .379$, with $R^2 = .015$. These results do not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 11 that participants' eating habits would change when feeling less confident and perceiving an importance of having an ideal body.

There was no significant correlation between the importance of having an ideal body (Import Item 1) and feeling less confident leading to an urge to exercise more (Body Attitude Item 2), $r = .038$, $N = 54$, $p = .787$, with $R^2 = .001$. These results do not confirm the prediction of hypothesis 11 that participants' exercise habits would change when feeling less confident and perceiving an importance of having an ideal body.

Importance of ideal body and romantic/sexual partners' ideal body. It was hypothesized that participants who find having an ideal body significantly important also find it important that their romantic or sexual partner has an ideal body. A Pearson bivariate correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between participants' perception of importance of having an ideal body and participants' importance of their romantic or sexual partners' ideal body. There was a significant correlation between the importance of having an ideal body (Import Item 1) and the importance of the participants romantic or sexual partner having an ideal body (Import Item 2), $r = .492$, $N = 54$, $p < .001$, with $R^2 = .242$. Participants' perception of importance of having an ideal body accounted for 24% of participants importance of their romantic or sexual partners' ideal body. This confirms the prediction of hypothesis 12 that participants who find having an ideal body significantly important also find it important that their romantic or sexual partner has an ideal body.

Summary of Results

i. Results of Hypothesis 1 show that the smaller participants' assessment of what figure others find attractive is the smaller their own selected ideal body image is for body figure rating and muscle mass. This shows that participants' perception of what body figure others find attractive influences participants' own ideal body image for females and males. This confirms ideas from previous research on body ideals and expectations and the influence of social media and other social agents on young adults' ideals.

Results of Hypothesis 3 show that this hypothesis was confirmed for female participants, but not male participants. Female participants selected a smaller body ideal on average than for their self-assessed actual bodies. For males there was no significant relationship, indicating that participants feel that their actual body is close to their ideal body image. Hypothesis 3a, looking at muscularity, was confirmed for male participants. Male participants select a bigger figure for the muscle mass they would most like to have than for what they look like themselves.

Results of Hypothesis 5 show that females considering body figure and muscle mass selected a bigger figure to look most like themselves than for what they believe others, or the opposite gender finds most attractive. This shows that females may be more critical or feel less confident about their own body, especially when comparing it to the male results.

ii. Results of Hypothesis 2 indicate that in males only for muscle mass participants' assessment of others' ideal muscle mass image correlates positively with participants' own ideal muscle mass image. For females, the results confirm that participants' evaluation of others' ideal body image according to their sexual interest correlates positively with females' own ideal body image. These results indicate that the expectations and ideals participants have for others according to their sexual interest relate with the ideals participants have for their own body. Further, this shows that muscularity might be more important for male participants when choosing the ideal body, and for females, the focus is more on the general body figure. The figures selected by males or females and by other participants for males and females were similar, showing that participants have similar ideals.

Results of hypothesis 4 support our hypothesis that females' assessment of what figure others find attractive on average is more petite than participants' assessment according to their sexual interest of the other genders' ideal body image for body figure rating and muscle mass. This hypothesis was not confirmed for males. These results indicate that females

believe others' have a smaller ideal for the female body than other participants actually have. It shows a misconception in the expectations and standards that many females have for themselves due to the expectations they often believe others (especially males) have.

Results of hypothesis 6 confirm that the selected typical male body chosen by participants according to their sexual interest correlates positively with the figure primarily selected by males when choosing their self-assessed actual body for body figure and muscle mass. This hypothesis was not confirmed for females. These results show that other participants' (male or female) assessment of the typical male body correlates with males' self-assessed actual body. This verifies the idea that most male participants have a typical body figure and muscle mass. For females, this hypothesis was not confirmed, and the mean outcomes show that females selected a more petite figure when choosing their self-assessed actual body than the figure selected by participants selecting the typical female body. This may indicate that the female participants have smaller figures than the typical female, or it might also have to do with confirmation bias due to females wanting to select a figure that is closer to their ideal.

Results of hypothesis 7 confirm that females and males (only for body figure) choose a similar figure that looks most like themselves to the most attractive figure selected by participants according to their sexual interest. Females selected a figure to look most like themselves was similar to what participants find to be most attractive for body figure and muscle mass. Males selected a figure to look most like themselves that was similar to what participants find to be most attractive only for body figure. These outcomes show that the ideal of participants for females and males is similar to males' and females' actual body figures and muscle mass.

iii. Results of hypothesis 8 were not confirmed, indicating that participants' importance of an ideal body does not positively correlate with the importance of exercise and

eating for participants. These results show that participants' importance of an ideal body does not affect their eating or exercise behavior on days they feel less confident in their body.

Results of hypothesis 9 were not confirmed, indicating that participants' engagement in Greek organizations does not correlate positively with participants' importance of an ideal body. Even though it is often thought of and stereotyped that Greek organization members care about the way they look, this outcome indicates that there is no relationship between being a Greek organization member and the importance of having an ideal body.

Results of hypothesis 10 were not confirmed, indicating that being a member of an athletic team does not correlate positively with the importance of having an ideal body. Like the previous hypothesis, this outcome suggests no positive relationship between being on an athletic team and the importance of having an ideal body.

Results of hypothesis 12 confirm that participants who find having an ideal body significant also find it essential that their romantic or sexual partner has an ideal body. One of this study's primary purposes was to understand how young adults feel about their own bodies and how about those of their sexual or romantic partners. This outcome supports the prediction that female and male participants who care about having the ideal body themselves also want their romantic or sexual partner to have a perfect body.

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to understand more about students' body image ideals and how others' perspectives, including participants' ideals according to their sexual interest, influence those ideals. Furthermore, this study aimed to understand how body image ideals influence day-to-day behavior such as eating, exercise, and social engagements. Eating disorders and body dissatisfaction have been and are incredibly important and relevant today. Biological, societal, interpersonal, and individual struggles establish and may impel the

development of body dissatisfaction and eating disorders. This study shows the discrepancies between male and female body image ideals and the relevance body image ideals play today. Today's adolescents and young adults are constantly exposed to expectations and ideals. One look at a social media platform, for example, Instagram, exposes one to images causing comparison and discomfort. Self-discrepancy monitoring, the idea of comparison and monitoring of the actual self and ideal self, has an incredible impact on individuals' sense of self and one's body image (Caselli *et al.*, 2014). Caselli *et al.* (2014) investigated the effect of self-discrepancy monitoring on mood and found that self-discrepancy monitoring can lead to emotional distress. Because many young individuals experience self-discrepancy monitoring daily and “eating disorders are among the deadliest mental illnesses, second only to opioid overdoses” (Deloitte Access Economics, 2020) today, it is essential to educate especially adolescents and young adults about these ideas. The findings of this study offer further understanding of body image ideals and expectations discrepancies.

Body Figure and Muscle Mass Ratings

Previous research has shown that through constant exposure to thin and often unrealistic standards through social media, there has been a rise of pressure to keep a low body weight (Rolls *et al.*, 1991). The outcomes of this study's questionnaire demonstrate how influential others' opinion on the ideal body is for young adults and adolescents. The current results show that participants' perception of what others find attractive correlates with participants' own ideal body image. These results allow us to support the idea that body image ideals are highly influenced by the perception of young adolescents' body image ideals. These ideals are often based on unrealistic and unattainable images and videos that are shown on Television, Social Media, and other Media. Furthermore, through the constant positive reinforcements by peers or family members for exercising, dieting, or restrictive eating, one's

ideal image becomes skewed and adapted to society's expectations (Bair *et al.*, 2014). Bair *et al.* (2014) investigated the influence of peers' body ideals on women's personal body ideals and the differences of influence due to gender. Their study's results indicate that women's body ideal is extremely influenced by their peer's opinions and preferences. This current study confirms this idea as results show that participants' perception of what body figure others find attractive influences participants' own ideal body image for females and males. These results also show that it is paramount to educate adolescents and young adults about these factors and influences.

Another relevant idea confirmed by this study is that females, compared to males, are more critical and feel less confident about their own bodies. As shown by the current results, women on average see a smaller body as the ideal body than their actual self-assessed body. Our society expects women to care about their looks and body. Even though these ideas have become less prevalent and feminist theorists have been advocating for better understanding and equality for women, many of these expectations and stereotypes still prevail today. Relevant factors enforcing these ideals include sexual objectification, competition and comparison, social media, and a negative sense of self. Predominantly, through society expectations and assumptions women are constantly encompassed by reinforcers that strengthen their yearning for the ideal body.

Participants' Body Ideals and Others' Influence

The current study confirms the idea that expectations and ideals participants have for others according to their sexual interest relate to the ideals participants have for their own bodies. Participants who chose the ideal body image for others according to their sexual interest chose similar body figures as participants choosing their own ideal body. This study shows that the ideals participants have for themselves and for each other are similar.

However, this study's results also suggest that there is a misconception for females in the expectations and understanding of what males or others find most attractive, which influences females' own perception of the ideal. Females believe that others (males) have a thinner body ideal for females than males actually have. This indicates that females have a misunderstanding of males' ideal female body image.

Previous research suggests that women, especially in heterosexual relationships, often experience pressure from men towards a thin body. Other studies have indicated that the pressure towards thinness comes from comparisons with other females, including peers or role models (Cohn & Adler, 1992). Therefore, it is relevant to consider the role of peers or role models in influencing especially females body ideals. A study mentioned above by Mills *et al.* (2012) found that the need to be thin for women arises from the knowledge of other women wanting to be thin. This is relevant for future research showing that same-gender expectations might be more relevant and influential than the opposite gender. Even further, the current results show that the ideal of participants for females and males is similar to males' and females' actual body figures and muscle mass. This suggests that females and males' standards are close to the body figures participants actually have and therefore support the idea that there is a misconception of the expectations and pressure towards thinness for females and muscularity for men by others.

Overall, the outcomes show that muscularity is regarded as more relevant and considered for male participants, and the general body figure is more relevant for female participants. Lynch and Zellner (1999) studied the differences in ideal muscularity figures between adult and college men. They found that muscle mass is extremely relevant for college men, in relation to the expectation's college women have for men concerning muscle mass. The current results show that males selected a bigger figure looking at muscularity when asked what figure they would most like to have than for what they look like themselves.

Body dissatisfaction and eating disorders are shown when men have a need for excessive muscularity. This need for muscularity men often try to accomplish by excessive use of anabolic-androgenic steroids, extreme diets, or other methods. A study by Parent and Moradi (2011), found that cultural expectations and implications of the objectification theory drive men to an excessive need for muscularity. Thus, more often than not use of anabolic-androgenic steroids.

Body Ideal and Social, Exercise, and Eating Behavior

Eating and exercise are behaviors that influence body dissatisfaction; furthermore, body dissatisfaction may also influence eating and exercise behavior. One characteristic commonly seen in individuals with eating disorders, especially anorexia nervosa, is perfectionism. Perfectionism is often seen in behaviors related to exercise and eating. One might abstain from specific things or has to work out for a particular amount of time every day to not feel anxious, on edge, or insecure about their body. These perfectionist habits can add to the already existing body discomfort and dissatisfaction and have very negative consequences. Therefore, it is interesting that in this study, there was no relationship found between feeling less confident and eating and exercise behavior changing for someone who considers an ideal body as necessary.

Further, the current study's results indicate that there was no relationship found between being on an athletic team or member of a Greek organization and experiencing the importance of having an ideal body. A study by Schulken *et al.* (1997) looked at sorority women and their risk for disordered eating. Their results indicate that sorority women show more significant concerns about weight and are more dissatisfied than women not part of sororities. Further, they found that sorority women were experiencing body dysmorphia. Perelman *et al.* (2018) conducted a study to understand body dissatisfaction in college

athletes and the differences between gender, sport type (lean-promoting vs. non-lean promoting), and division level. Their findings suggest that “some athletes participating in lean-promoting sports may be at risk of developing significant body dissatisfaction” (Perelman *et al.*, 2018, p. 718). The current study does not support these results; therefore, it might be interesting to ask why there was no relationship found between being a Greek organization member or athletic team member and experiencing the importance of having an ideal body? This study’s outcomes might have to do with the small sample size and the phrasing of questions. For future research, we suggest changing the phrasing of questions related to importance of body image ideals and influences of exercise and eating behavior to attain more reliable results. Clearer and more precise questions will allow for a more detailed analysis and better understanding of what exactly influences these ideas.

As mentioned, this study also looked at whether participants who find having an ideal body themselves important also find it important that their romantic or sexual partner has an ideal body. Our results confirmed this idea and show that participants who want to have an ideal body also wish that their sexual or romantic partner has an ideal body.

Implications

The current findings are essential to better understand the development of eating disorders, body dysmorphia, and body dissatisfaction. Further, the findings are significant to educate adolescents and young adults about these ideas and help prevent the development of body dissatisfaction and body discomfort. These implications are even more relevant today, during the Covid-19 pandemic than before. Covid-19 has led to increased levels of stress among many American’s affecting their mental and physical health, including weight changes (American Psychological Association, 2021). The American Psychological Association (2021) gathered information among adults ages 21 and plus and found that 61%

of adults reported undesired weight changes due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Bahl *et al.* (2013) investigated the relationship between mindfulness and unhealthy eating behaviors. Based on previous research, they argue that today young adults and students especially are faced with so many stressors on a daily basis and tend to engage in mindless eating, which is eating even though one is not experiencing hunger but because of other environmental cues.

Overall, all the current outcomes indicate that it is extremely relevant to inform and educate on body image ideals. As this study has shown, there are many misconceptions and misbeliefs on body shape and muscle mass ideals. Rolls *et al.* (1991) argue that through the constant exposure to thin and often unrealistic standards through social media, there has been a rise of pressure to keep a low body weight.

Limitations

The final sample of participants consisted mainly of females, which likely limited the results. Because the sample size of male participants was relatively small, it was challenging to get significant results. Further, the sample consisted mainly of Caucasian (white) and heterosexual participants, therefore, limiting the variance in results. However, overall, the sample demographics concerning ethnicity and sexual orientation are similar to those of Trinity College's overall population.

Another limitation might be that participants' recruitment occurred by asking students taking psychology classes to take the current survey and through contacting people in the researcher's immediate environment. Therefore, the sample might not be representative of the overall Trinity population. For future studies, it would be beneficial to recruit a greater and more diverse sample of college students. Furthermore, one might compare different colleges to understand how college climate and atmosphere may influence these variables.

As mentioned above, as a result of the phrasing of questions included in the current study's questionnaire, outcomes were not as strong as expected. Therefore, for future research it would be beneficial to integrate relevant questions about exercise, eating, and social behavior and the relation to body dissatisfaction and eating disorders.

Directions for Future Research

The current study supported the results and findings of previous research regarding body dissatisfaction and body image ideals. This study added to the research by looking more specifically at male and female body figures and muscle mass and incorporating the relationship of body image ideals and exercise, eating, and social behavior.

For future research, we suggest looking more specifically at how young adults' body image ideals influence their day-to-day behavior. This current study took an overall look at participants' perception of the importance of having an ideal body and how feeling less confident might influence their eating and exercise behavior. Looking at these variables in more detail and how being on an athletic team or being a Greek organization member is relevant for a better understanding of the development and causes for body dissatisfaction and eating disorders.

Lastly, this study shows that males and females struggle with the want of having an ideal body. For men the focus specifically lies on muscularity, which supports the idea that to better understand eating disorders in men we need to understand the differences between female and male symptomology. Therefore, for future research it is essential to further investigate the underlying thought processes and causes for the development of eating disorders and body dissatisfaction in men due to the lack of knowledge and understanding of the symptomatology and etiology of eating disorders in men.

Conclusion

It is clear from this current study how there are still many misconceptions about body image and muscle mass ideals for female and male college students. This study shows how influential others' opinions are on body image ideals; however, it is also clear that male and female participants' ideals are more similar than they think to be true. Consequently, it is essential to educate adolescents and young adults about these findings and continue further research to better our understanding of body image ideals, body dissatisfaction, and overall, the development of eating disorders. The pressure for an ideal body is especially relevant for women, shown by how vital an ideal body is to females and how critical they are with their own bodies. Nonetheless, men often struggle with their body image and tend to be more concerned about muscularity. These differences need to be considered in the DSM-5 Diagnostic criteria for eating disorders, and young adults need to be better educated about these ideas. Especially in college, young adults engage in many sexual and romantic relationships, which is why it is so important to recognize these misconceptions and understand the expectations to instigate change toward becoming more accepting.

Body ideals have changed throughout time and will continue to change; however, it is essential to generate an understanding of the implications the pressure towards a particular ideal can have and hopefully better the understanding of body dissatisfaction and eating disorders.

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Appendix A

Block 1 Informed Consent Agreement

This study aims to examine Trinity students' ideal body image and the effects it has on eating, exercise, and social behavior. This study is being conducted for a senior thesis at Trinity College, Hartford, CT, USA. To be eligible, you must be 18 years of age and a full-time undergraduate student at Trinity College. You will be asked to complete an anonymous online survey estimated to take 8 to 10 minutes.

This study's findings may help future researchers better understand young adults' ideal body image and expectations. This study will help understand how eating, exercise, and social behavior are influenced by someone's body image and expectations of their ideal body image. Some questions might bring up sensitive topics, e.g., eating habits, exercise habits, ideal body image. Depending on each individual, this might inflict some anxiety or emotional distress. However, responses cannot be identified, and in case you feel distressed or discomfort, you may stop participating at any time.

I understand that my participation and completion of this survey is entirely voluntary and that I am free to stop or withdraw at any time by closing the browser without any penalty.

I understand that all my responses are completely anonymous, meaning that no information or response can be traced back to my name and will only be used for research purposes. If I have any questions about this study, I am free to contact: sophia.rutt@trincoll.edu, randolph.lee@trincoll.edu. Or contact the Trinity College IRB administration via email: irb@trincoll.edu.

By clicking yes below, you confirm that you agree with the terms above and are at least 18 years of age and a full-time undergraduate student at Trinity College, Hartford, CT, USA.

Do you consent to participate in this study?

I agree

I disagree

Appendix B

Block 2 Introductory and Demographics

Q1 What gender do you identify with?

- Male
- Female
- Transgender
- Non-Conforming
- Other

Q2 Which of the following best describes how you think of yourself?

- Heterosexual
- Homosexual
- Bisexual
- Other

Q3 Which of these best describes your ethnic group?

- American Indian/ Alaska Native
- Asian or Asian American
- Black or African American
- Caucasian (White)
- Hispanic or Latino
- Other

Q4 What is your age in years?

- 18
- 19
- 20
- 21
- 22
- 23
- Over 23

Q5 What is your class year at Trinity College?

- Freshman/ First year
- Sophomore/ Second year
- Junior/ Third year
- Senior/ Fourth year

Q6 Are you a member of an athletic team at Trinity?

- Yes
- No

Q7 Are you a member of any Greek organization? (Fraternity, Sorority, Society)

- Yes

Q15 Take a look at the following figures showing different degrees of muscularity and choose your most candid answer according to the following statements:

Q16

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
(Male Muscle Mass Item 1) Select the figure that you believe others/ the opposite gender find/s most attractive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(Male Muscle Mass Item 2) Select the figure that you believe looks most like you	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(Male Muscle Mass Item 3) Select the figure that you would most like to have	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

End of Block: Block 3

Start of Block: Block 4

Q17 The following questions are going to ask you to choose the most accurate figure option according to your sexual orientation. Due to limited options, we ask you to choose one gender according to your sexual interest (heterosexual, homosexual, bisexual, other).

(Sexual Preference) What is your sexual preference?

- Male
- Female

End of Block: Block 4

Start of Block: Block 5

Q22 The following statements are about different behaviors related to body image, eating and

	Not at all important	Slightly important	Moderately important	Very important	Extremely important
(Import Item 1) How important do you find having an ideal body?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(Import Item 2) How important is someone else's ideal (romantic/sexual partner) body to you?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(Import Item 3) How important is a healthy diet to you?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(Import Item 4) How important is regular exercise to you?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(Import Item 5) If you are a member of an athletic team, how relevant is the topic of having an ideal body on your athletic team?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(Import Item 6) If you are a member of a Greek organization, how relevant is the topic of having an ideal body in your Greek organization?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

exercise behavior. Please choose the most candid option for the following statements:

End of Block: Block 5

Start of Block: Block 6

Q23 Please choose the most accurate option for the following statements:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
(Body Attitude 1) On a day you do not feel as confident as usual about your body, do you notice your eating habits changing in any way?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(Body Attitude 2) On a day you do not feel confident about your body, do you feel the urge to exercise more than usual?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(Body Attitude 3) If you are a member of an athletic team at Trinity, do you feel this has negatively influenced the way you feel about your body?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(Body Attitude 4) If you are a member of a greek organization at Trinity, do you feel this has negatively influenced the way you feel about your body?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

End of Block: Block 6

Appendix C

Table C1

Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants

Baseline Characteristics	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Male	15	26.8
Female	41	73.2
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	53	94.6
Homosexual	1	1.8
Bisexual	2	3.6
Ethnicity		
Asian or Asian American	3	5.4
Black or African American	2	3.6
Caucasian (White)	44	78.6
Hispanic or Latino	4	7.1
Other	3	5.4
Age		
18	2	3.6
19	11	19.6
20	12	21.4
21	19	33.9
22	12	21.4
Class year		
Freshman	8	14.3
Sophomore	14	25.0
Junior	11	19.6
Senior	23	41.1
Athletic team member		
Yes	17	30.4
No	39	69.6
Greek organization member		
Yes	20	35.7
No	36	64.3

Table C2*Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Male Figure Rating and Male Muscle Mass**(Hypothesis 1, 3, 5)*

Variable	<i>n</i>	F1	F2	F3	M1	M2	M3
Figure Rating 1	15	1	-	-	-	-	-
Figure Rating 2	15	0.282	1	-	-	-	-
Figure Rating 3	15	0.562*	0.808**	1	-	-	-
Muscle Mass 1	15	-0.136	0.233	0.046	1	-	-
Muscle Mass 2	15	-0.152	0.122	-0.080	0.744**	1	-
Muscle Mass 3	15	0.209	0.474	0.444	0.769**	0.622**	1

Table A3*Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Female Figure Rating and Female Muscle Mass**(Hypothesis 1, 3, 5)*

Variable	<i>n</i>	F1	F2	F3	M1	M2	M3
Figure Rating 1	41	1	-	-	-	-	-
Figure Rating 2	41	0.121	1	-	-	-	-
Figure Rating 3	41	0.460*	0.551**	1	-	-	-
Muscle Mass 1	41	0.603**	0.195	0.429**	1	-	-
Muscle Mass 2	41	0.340*	0.197	0.375*	0.218	1	-
Muscle Mass 3	41	0.105	0.227	0.426**	0.339*	0.444**	1

Table C4

Results of Hypothesis 2 t test

Variable	Male				Female			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (53)	<i>p</i>
Body Figure Rating 3	3.53	.990			2.49	.840		
Sexual Interest Figure Rating 2	3.79	.894	-0.9322	p> .10	3.14	.663	-2.64	p<.02
Muscle Mass 3	6.13	1.125			2.93	1.010		
Sexual Interest Muscle Mass 2	5.20	.813	5.856	p< .001	3.36	1.082	-1.063	p>.20

Table C5

Results of Hypothesis 3 t test

Variable	Male				Female			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (14)	<i>p</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Figure Rating 3	3.53	.990			2.49	.840		
Figure Rating 2	3.60	.910	-.435	.670	3.41	1.117	-6.189	.000
Muscle Mass 3	6.13	1.125			2.93	1.010		
Muscle Mass 2	4.80	1.265	4.934	.000	3.15	1.195	-1.198	.238

Table C6

Results of Hypothesis 4 t test

Variable	Male				Female			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Figure Rating 1	3.67	1.113	-.427		2.76	.767	-1.65	p > .10
Sexual Interest Figure Rating 2	3.79	.894		p > .20	3.14	.663		
Muscle Mass 1	5.80	.941	2.343		2.71	1.031	-2.014	p < .10
Sexual Interest Muscle Mass 2	5.20	.813		p < .05	3.36	1.082		

Table C7

Results of Hypothesis 5 t test

Variable	Male				Female			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (14)	<i>p</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (40)	<i>p</i>
Figure Rating 2	3.60	.910	-.211	.836	3.41	1.117	3.302	.002
Figure Rating 1	3.67	1.113			2.76	.767		
Muscle Mass 1	4.80	1.265	-4.583	.000	3.15	1.195	2.012	.051
Muscle Mass 2	5.80	.941			2.71	1.031		

Table C8

Results of Hypothesis 6 t-test

Variable	Male				Female			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (54)	<i>p</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Sexual Interest Figure Rating 1	4.27	1.025			3.93	.997		
Figure Rating 2	3.60	.910	2.2297	p < 0.5	3.41	1.117	0.743	p > .20
Sexual Interest Muscle Mass 1	4.20	.928	-1.936	p < .10	3.57	1.284	1.117	p > .20
Muscle Mass 2	4.80	1.265			3.15	1.195		

Table C9

Results of Hypothesis 7

Variable	Male				Female			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Figure Rating 2	3.60	.910	-.634	p > .20	3.41	1.117	.851	p > .20
Sexual Interest Figure Rating 2	3.79	.894			3.14	.663		
Muscle Mass 2	4.80	1.265	-1.394	p < .20	3.15	1.195	-.588	p > .20
Sexual Interest Muscle Mass 2	5.20	.813			3.36	1.082		

Table C10

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation for Hypothesis 8

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3
Import 1	54	3.50	.795	1		
Import 3	54	4.02	.789	-.015	1	
Import 4	54	4.02	.961	.160	.696**	1

Table C11*Results of Hypothesis 9 and 10 t test*

Variable	Import 1			
	M	SD	t(52)	p
Greek member	3.58	.692	.534	.596
Non-Greek	3.46	.852		
Athletic team member	3.53	.874	.183	.856
Non-athletic team member	3.49	.768		

Table C12*Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of Hypothesis 11*

Variable	n	M	SD	1	2	3
Import 1	54	3.50	.795	1	-	-
Body Attitude 1	54	3.33	.971	.122	1	-
Body Attitude 2	54	3.50	.947	.038	.308*	1

Table C13*Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of Hypothesis 12*

Variable	n	M	SD	1	2
Import 1	54	3.50	.795	1	-
Import 2	54	2.89	.965	.429**	1