RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BODY IMAGE AND SELF-ESTEEM AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

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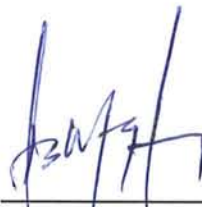
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(Ms. Aneela Maqsood)
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Dedicated to

My Parents

&

My Loved Ones

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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed to explore the relationship between body image and self-esteem among college students. The study also focused on assessment of gender differences in self-esteem and body image. The sample comprised of 100 students including 50 male and 50 female students approached from different colleges of Rawalpindi and Islamabad. The instrument used to measure the self-esteem refers to Self-Esteem Scale developed by Rafai (1999). The scale measures self esteem on the basis of four subscales namely Self Acceptance, Self Competence, Social and Physical Self Acceptance, and Academic Self Concept. To measure body image, Multidimensional Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) developed by Cash (2000) was used. This measure of body image comprised of five subscales namely Appearance Evaluation, Appearance Orientation, Body Area Satisfaction, Overweight Preoccupation, and Self-Classified Weight. Estimating the psychometric properties of the scale indicated that alpha reliability coefficient of Self-Esteem Scale (r = .86) and MBSRQ-AS (r = .51) appears to be satisfactory to administer on the present sample. Correlational analysis on total scores indicated that positive relationship (r = .48) exists between body image and self-esteem. Similar pattern of results have obtained for each of subscales. However, subscales of MBSRQ-AS including Appearance Evaluation and Self-Classified Weight showed weak correlation coefficients with total score of Self-Esteem Scale. Findings highlighted that non-significant differences exists among male and female students on self-esteem and body image. Findings of the study were interpreted from the perspective of cultural context as well.

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INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Beauty is highly valued in human society although the standard of the beauty varies culture to culture but the appraisal to the beauty is a common phenomenon. People's physical appearances are very important, we judge people on the basis of their physical characteristics rather than their inner qualities. We perceive beautiful people as more social, intelligent, warm and moral may be this type of perception are modified by the stereotypes such as "what is a beautiful is a good".

People spend billion of dollars annually on the beauty products and cosmetic surgery. The interpersonal consequences of physical attractiveness have led thousand of people to spend million of dollars on beauty products and even cosmetic surgery to improve their looks (Cowely, 1996).

This phenomenon is not only common in the industrial societies of west but its prevalence in developing countries is also significant. Because of the novel and multiple standard of beauty which is a somehow product of the globalization, the phenomena of beauty consciousness is more prevalent that makes people more prone to body image dissatisfaction. Continuous massages from the culture, media and other environmental sources try to realize people that deviations from the beauty standards are not acceptable.

Person's perception of being beautiful is shaped by both the society and by the person his / her owns self. It is important for person wellbeing to hold positive body image about his / her body shape and appearance. According to the research, formation of attitude about body image begins early in life.

The person's body image is significantly related to his or her self worth or self-esteem.

"There is no value judgment more important to man, no factor more decisive in his psychological development and motivation than the estimate he passes on himself" (Nathanile & Branden, 1969).

Self-esteem is a central component of personality and identity. It is also very personal experience of individual as it is a self-evaluation or an evaluation of one's self-worth or self-acceptance (Wade, Thompson, Tashakkori & Valente, 1990).

Negative perception of one, s body has been found strongly related to low self-esteem (Abell & Richards, 1996; Stower & Drum, 1996).

Evidence has been found that suggest relationship between an individual's body image and self-esteem. Negative body image tends to correlate with negative behavior towards one's self ("Body Attitude", 2001).

Body Image

Body image is person's inner perception of his or her physical appearance. This perception may or may not correlate with objective reality. Each person holds an image of perfect person in mind and evaluates his or her appearance against this ideal.

Body image can be conceptualized as a multidimensional construct that represents how individuals' think feel, and behave with regard to their own physical attributes" (Muth & Cash, 1997).

Researchers have identified two conceptually distinct components of body image. The first body image evaluates thoughts and beliefs about their physical appearance.. The second, body-image investment, refers to the behavior individual perform to manage or enhance the way they look (Cash & Szymanski, 1995).

Body image is a complicated aspects of self-concept that concern an individual's perception and feeling about his/her body and physical appearance (Cash & Pruzinsky, 2002)

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The physiological construct of body image includes cognation and emotion as well as sensory input e.g., we modify our ideas of own body according to our emotional state as well as the reaction of others in the environment.

Schilder in 1950, described body image as "the picture of our own body which we form in our mind ... [it is] the way in which the body appears to ourselves". More recently, the term body image has been used to reflect one's ability to regard parts of one's body as belonging to the self or to define the boundaries of one's own body (Thompson, 1990) and one's subjective, mental representation of his or her physical appearance. Body image is constructed from self-observation, the reactions of others, and a complicated interaction of attitudes, emotions, memories, fantasies, and experience, both conscious and unconscious. Grogan (1999) described body image as "a person's perceptions, thoughts and feelings about his or her body" and as "subjective and open to change through social influence.

A person who is pleased with his/her appearance and body shape is said to have positive body image while on the other hand a person who is dissatisfied with his or her body or appearance hold negative body image. Negative body image can involve a distorted perception of size or shape, as well as more global feelings of shame, awkwardness, and anxiety about the body. People with negative body image tend to feel that their size or shape is a sign of personal failure, and that it is a very important indicator of worth. Poor body image has been linked to diminished mental performance, low self-esteem, anxiety, depression, sexual dysfunction, dieting and eating disorders.

While there are various conceptualizations of body image, few would deny its importance and its link to well being. Research data indicate that body image dissatisfaction, often called body image disturbance ,has become more prevalent since the 1980s and has been associated with incidences of depression (Denniston, Roth, & Gilroy, 1992), heightened anxiety, and lowered self-esteem (Altabe &Thompson, 1993), as well as the development of maladaptive eating behaviors and dieting (Cooley & Toray, 2001).

Female have been found to experience dissatisfaction with physical appearance at much higher rate than male (Striegel-Morre & Franko, 2002). It appears that body image dissatisfaction is more closely linked to appear related than physical reality. People with dysfunctional beliefs and cognition about physical appearance regardless of their body mass are at high risk of developing body image disturbances (Butter & Cash, 1987).

Theoretical Conceptualization of Body Image

Socio-Cultural Theory.

Socio-cultural theory (Stormer & Thompson, 1996) contends that female's dissatisfaction with their physical appearance stems from:

1. The thin body ideal that is promulgated in society

2. The tendency for women to adopt "*body as object*" rather than "*body as a process*" orientation.

3. The thin is good assumption which emphasizes the rewards that are accrued by being attractive. (i.e., thin) and, concomitantly, the costs that are associated with being unattractive (i.e., fat).

It should be noted that thin body ideal and the thin is good assumption represent distinct constructs. The former denotes the ideal physical representation for women in world specifically a thin body. The latter denotes the benefits associated with adhering to ideal representation specifically, the advantages women are believed to accrue as a function of thinness. Researches contend that the strongest conveyors of each of these socio-cultural assumptions (the thin ideal body as object, and thin is good) may be mass media (Stice, Shaw, & Stein, 1994).

According to Endis et al. (1994), *"right or wrong, mass media consistently reinforces assumed linkages between women's appearance and their feelings of self-worth"* (e.g., Bloch & Richins 1992; Downs, & Harrison, 1985; Ruble, 1983; Tan, 1979). Many women desire to be thin and feel more dissatisfied with their bodies than do men (Turner, 1997; Altabe & Thompson, 1993; Brenner & Cunningham, 1992; Davis & Cowes, 1991.

Few researchers (Petrie, et. al., 1996) have explored the ways in which socio-cultral. Theory may be used to examine body-image evaluation and investment among males.

1.   Mass media promulgate a muscular body ideal for males.

2.   Dissemination of this ideal encourages males to adopt a "body as object" rather than "Body as process" orientation.

3.   Males who deviate from this ideal by being either too thin or too fat may experience Negative body-image evaluation and/or engage in high levels of body-image   investment.

Social Comparison Theory

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

Since it is original formulation, social comparison theory has undergone number of revision. First, it is now acknowledged that unsought comparison may occur, and that the referent point used in the comparison process may be an individual dissimilar to oneself (Martine & Kennedy, 1993). Second, social comparison also may occur on dimensions such as physical appearance and eating habits (Wheeler & Miyake, 1992). The affective consequences of the comparison process appear to be influenced by the direction of the comparison (e.g., whether it is upward or downward)and by the characteristic of the target (i.e., it is universalistic or particularistic).down word comparison (i.e., comparing oneself to someone worse off on the dimension of the interest)is believed to enhance subjective wellbeing whereas up word comparison (i.e., comparing oneself to someone who is better off the dimension of the interest)is believe to decreased well being (Wheeler & Miyake, 1992).

Research suggests that social comparisons on the dimension of physical appearance tend to be upward, rather than downward (Wheeler & Miyake, 1992) and that such comparison usually produce decrements in self-perceptions of attractiveness (Tornton & Moore, 1993).

The process of socio-cultural comparison leads to a negative impact on women's images of themselves and a negative body satisfaction (Heinberg et al., 1995; Heinberg & Thompson, 1992).

Concern over weight and appearance related issues often surfaces early in females' development, and continues throughout the lifespan. Body dissatisfaction and disordered eating patterns have been found to be an especially prevalent issue in adolescent and college females. (Schwitzer, Bergholz, Dore, & Salimi, 1998; Stice & Whitenton, 2002). Body image becomes a major issue as females go through puberty; girls in mid adolescence frequently report being dissatisfied with weight, fearing further weight gain, and being preoccupied with weight loss (Striegel et al., 2002). Frost and Mckelive (2004) found that female students of all ages had low self esteem relating to body image in comparison to their class-mates found that over 40% of 14-year-olds reported wanting to lose weight. In addition, studies have also found that most girls who express a desire to be thinner are within the normal weight range for females of their age (Striege-Moore & Franko, 2002).

In recent years, women's body sizes have grown larger (Spitzer, Henderson, & Zivian, 1999), while societal standards of body shape have become much thinner. This Discrepancy has made it increasingly difficult for most women to achieve the current Socio-cultural "ideal" Such a standard of perfection is unrealistic and even dangerous.

Self-Schema Theory

The basis of self-schema theory (Sands & Wardle, 2003) is that women use to construct their perceptions about their own physical appearance. The Socially represented ideal body, the objective body, and the internalized ideal body. The portrayals of women by important individuals in a person's life influence the socially represented ideal body. This reference point comes from what an individual believes is expected by society with respect to physical appearance and beauty.

In contrast, the objective body involves a person's own evaluation of their body. A person's satisfaction and dissatisfaction with aspects of their physical appearance are contained within this dimension; individuals usually have some opinion about their physical demeanor. The internalized ideal body involves the level at which an individual endorses the ideal image and aspires to achieve it. Some women can be exposed to images of thin women and not internalize such standards of appearance because they know they are unrealistic. In contrast, some women's internalized ideal is very similar to the socially represented ideal, which makes them particularly vulnerable to the powerful effects of the media (Sands & Wardle, 2003).

If there is a large discrepancy between a person's internalized ideal body and their objective body, a person's confidence in and satisfaction with their appearance is often negatively affected (Sands & Wardle, 2003). This increases the gap between what a person feels their physical appearance is, and what it should be. Not surprisingly, researchers have found that women who have an internalized ideal body that closely resembles the socially represented ideal body are at a particularly high risk to develop body image disturbance and disordered eating patterns (Sands & Wardle, 2003).

Thus, adolescents look towards different sources to define their place in society and help them develop interpersonal skills. These sources include parents, schools, peers and media. More than anything, adolescents want to feel like they belong to, and that they are accepted by, a community. Society defines the different standards of acceptability for adolescent males and females. As a result, adolescent males strive to construct their own sense of individuality, and develop their position in the hierarchy of the world around them; adolescent females search for relationships and attempt to build strong networks (Granello, 1997).

Factors of Body Dissatisfaction

Several factors have been explored to explain the prevalence of body image dissatisfaction among women. These include the socio-cultural standard for thinness, the discrepancy between one's real and ideal body, and appearance-related teasing. The most prominent factor is the socio-cultural standard of thinness for women in Western societies, a standard that is portrayed as not only desirable but attainable by

all women. Historically, women have attempted to modify their bodies to fit the prevailing conception of beauty and to increase social acceptability (Ehrenreich & English, 1978; Mazur, 1986). This is still true in spite of the fact that for the past 20 to 30 years the prevailing role model for women has been getting thinner (Silverstein, Peterson, & Perdue, 1986; Wiseman, Gray, Mosimann, & Ahren, 1992). As the boundary between reality and fiction is blurred, women may blame themselves for not meeting the thin ideal rather than unrealistic socio-cultural mores-mores that prevent women of all sizes from experiencing body pride.

The attractiveness stereotype "beauty is good" (Dion, Berscheid, & Walster, 1972) operates strongly for women, and not surprisingly, body image has a greater influence on women's self-worth and self-esteem (Lerner & Sorely, 1981).

Another factor influencing body image dissatisfaction is the discrepancy between perceptions of an ideal figure and one's actual figure (Thompson, 1990). According to self-ideal discrepancy theory, individuals tend to compare their own appearance with an ideal, either in the form of one's own ideal or an ideal other. Greater discrepancy between the real and ideal leads to body image discontent. Receiving increased attention is the effect of childhood appearance-related teasing. Over 70% of college women have reported experiencing teasing that affected their current body image (Cash & Szymanski, 1995). A history of teasing about weight from family and peers has been related to body image disturbance and the desire to be thinner for adolescent girls (Fabian & Thompson, 1989; Levine, Smolak, & Hayden, 1994), for college women (Heinberg & Thompson, 1992), and for adult overweight women (Grilo, Wilfley, Brownell, & Rodin, 1994). Less is known about proximal weight-related criticism from significant others on women's body images.

Body Image Concern and Gender Differences

For women, being beautiful is important for social success. This may be especially true on college campuses where people are rapidly assessed for physical attractiveness (Phipher, 1994). Although the idealized standard for feminine beauty demands that women be thin (Cash & Grenn, 1986 & Garner, Garfinkle, Schwartz, & Thompson, 1980), men typically have been exempt from this standard (Adame & Frank, 1990). However, cultural pressure for men to conform a thin and a muscular

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ideal has intensified since the 1970s (Lien, Pope, & Gray, 2001), and men are increasingly dissatisfied with their bodies (Cash, Winstead, & Janda, 1986) and want to lose weight or increase muscle tone (Mcabe & Ricciardelli, 2004).

Historically there have been sex differences in body image. In two large national surveys, women have reported greater body dissatisfaction than have men (Cash & Henry, 1997; Garner, 1997). Across all ages, women have reported being more concerned with body weight and appearance (Pliner, Chaiken, & Flett, 1990). Moreover women report experiencing more negative feelings when they are attentive to their bodies than do men (Franzoi, Kessenich, & Sugrue, 1989), they have a greater discrepancy between their ideal and actual body figures (Fallon & Rozin, 1985), and they tend to perceive them selves as large as or as heavier than they actually are (Cash & Grenn,1986). Adame and Frank (1990) found that among normal weight women (women who are neither medically under weight nor over weight), 61% perceived them selves to be over weight. In contrast men, men regardless of their actual weight, usually report more positive body image than do women (Demarest & Langer, 1996). Women tend to feel over weight much more than men (Tiggemann, 1992), and men appear to be less obsessed with weight and becoming fat; therefore, pathogenic values related to eating and body size is lower among men (Akan, 1993).

Frost and Mckelive (2004) found that female students of all ages had low self esteem relating to body image in comparison to their class-mates. They do also found that female students on average desired to lose weight and they tend to have more concerns regarding being over-weight than males.

Self-Esteem

Self–esteem is a central component of personality and identity. It is also a very personal experience of individual as it is a self evaluative or an evaluation of one's self worth or self acceptance (Wade, Thompson, Tashakkori & Valente, 1990).

Self–esteem refers to how positively or negatively we feel about ourselves. It is every important aspect of personal–well being, happiness, and adjustment (Bower, 1998, Dinner, 2000). Self-esteem is related to many positive outcomes. People with high self esteem are less susceptible to social pressure, have fever interpersonal

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problems and happier with their lives. Bednar, Wells, and Peterson (1989, p.4) defined self-esteem as "a subjected and realistic self-approval".

According to Rosenberg, (1995), domain-specific self-esteem, or elements of self-esteem related to different self-perceptions, explains behavior. Franzoi and Shields (1984). Suggested that physical self-worth is a component of self-esteem that relates to constructs such as perceived sport competence, physical condition, attractiveness, and weight concern. As an aspect of physical self-worth, body image dissatisfaction is related to global self-esteem. Indeed, the association between body image dissatisfaction and self-esteem has been well established (Harris, 1995; Stower & Durm, 1996).

Self-esteem is how worthy one feels. It includes confidence, respect and satisfaction with oneself (Davis, 1999). Moreover, Albert and Battle (1981) defined our interrelated dimensions that make up self-esteem in young people.

General self-esteem: one's overall perception of self-worth.

Social self –esteem: one's perception of interpersonal peer relationship.

Parent –related self-esteem: one's perception of his or her status at home, including how his/her parent view her/him.

Academic self esteem: one's perception of her/his ability to succeed academically.

Taken further, academic self-esteem may be divided into perceived math and language abilities. A fifth dimension not discussed by Albert & Battle (1981), but described by Health Canada (1994), is physical self-esteem – one's perception of physical ability and physical appearance.

An individual with high self-esteem show more resilience in the time of despair and failure mainly because these people are able to meet envirment demands, and generally feel more secure about them selves (Coopersmith, 1967; Ziller & Bankes, 1992).

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Characteristics of High and Low Self-Esteem

The person whose self-esteem is high feels worthy and important and views himself or herself as a competent person who can live happily and appropriately in ones life.

He or she feels capable, adequate and effective to deal with the demands of life and thinks him or herself a likeable person who can enjoy healthy relationships with other people. An individual of high self-esteem shows more resilience in times or despair or failure. On the contrary, the person whose self-esteem is low, feels less regard for self, lacks confidence and decisiveness.

The person with low self-esteem is vulnerable to feel shattered and may become easily frustrated in difficult life situations. He or she tends to loose courage while facing the adversities of life. And such type of individual may indulge himself in antisocial, illegal, immoral or criminal activities as a reaction to his sense of inadequacy (Kaplan, 1984).

In case of high self-esteem person seeks personal growth, development and improvement by pushing themselves to the limits to exercise their capabilities. Not having feelings of superiority, in the sense of arrogance, conceit, contempt for others, overwhelming pride. Rather it is having self-respect, considering oneself a person of worth, and appreciating one's own merits, yet recognizing personal faults. The person with high self-esteem doesn't consider his self better than others, but neither does he consider himself inferior to others (Campell, 1981).

A person, who is praised as a good one by others, has a high self-esteem, feels worthy and important and views himself as a competent person. On the other hand, a person with low self-esteem shows lack of confidence, in decisiveness and feels himself worthless and may easily become frustrated in different life situations. Person's self-esteem is a product of how that person believes others see her/him (Hughes & Dodder, 1980).

The assumption of social comparisons is based on social comparison theory that argues we evaluate ourselves, in part by comparing ourselves with others. This

suggests that persons belonging to low-status groups will internalize "the negative evaluations of them by society and as a consequence have low self-esteem (Mead, 1934). It has been noted that in early childhood the fulfillment of basic needs such as love, protection, and self-respect given by the parents provide the basic feelings of security.

On the other hand, negative or low self-esteem may lead to isolation, alienation from society, and showing disregard to others needs, desires, and comforts. Studies indicated that people with high self-esteem seek self-enhancement; they are bold people, willing to take risks to achieve gains for their self-esteem (Wylie, 1979).

On the other hand, adolescent with low self-esteem will avoid trying new things, feel unloved and unwanted, blame others for his own shortcomings, feel, or pretend to feel, emotionally indifferent, be unable to tolerate a normal level of frustration, put down his own talents and abilities, be easily influenced, etc. (Branden, 1969).

As said earlier a person, who is praised as a good one by others, has a high self-esteem, feels worthy and important and views himself as a competent person. On the other hand, a person with low self-esteem shows lack of confidence, indecisiveness and feels himself worthless and may easily frustrate in different life situations. Social psychologists believe that people have high self-esteem would be more adjusted in social structure. They will have better relationships with people and have healthy personalities.

According to Brockner (1983), people with high self-esteem have high conformity, persuasion, low cognitive dissonance, and healthy social comparison. Researches show that people with low self-esteem experience negative emotions like stress, depression, anxiety and maladjustment more commonly than people with high self-esteem (Ryckman, 1985).

It has been established that high self-esteem provides a core against anxiety, depression and promotes physical and psychological health. So high self-esteem provides positive affect by buffering the person against stress, depression, anxiety, and other negative emotions by enhancing personal adjustment self-esteem is

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associated with confidence, high expectations of success, optimism and lowered anxiety and depression (Tennen, 1987).

Individuals with high level of self-esteem are said to feel confident in their capabilities and those with low self-esteem are said to feel inadequate, helpless and inferior and as a result these feelings create negative cognitions. Low self-esteem is associated with a host of problems including drug, alcohol abuse, eating disorder, depression and suicide. Therefore, a positive self-esteem is indispensable for normal and healthy development because it provides resistance, strength, and a capacity for regeneration (Cameron, 1963).

Self-esteem is a very personal experience of an individual. In which, one evaluate different aspects of his self. The nature of self-evaluation has profound effects on a man's thinking processes, emotions, desires, values and goals and it is the single most significant key to his behaviour. Nature and the degree of self-esteem and standards by with he judges himself, help in understanding a man psychologically (Branden, 1969).

Strategies to Improve Self-Esteem

Abundant research exists about strategies to improve self-esteem in person Ikeda and Naworksi (1992) build upon Bean's (1992) four conditions necessary to maintain a high level of self-esteem and relate them to body image. These are: (1) a sense of connective ness (2) a sense of uniqueness, (3) a sense of power, and (4) a sense of models.

Person with a strong sense of connective ness gain satisfaction from the people, places and things to which they are connected and allow them to feel secure and supported and to respect themselves and others. Connectiveness is weakened through discrimination and feelings of being different. If students are unhappy or uncomfortable with their body image, their sense of connectiveness may suffer. Therefore, encouraging respect and support for each other in the classroom might help students to feel a sense of connectiveness and hence satisfaction with themselves and their bodies.

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Students with a high sense of uniqueness acknowledge and respect at the qualities and characteristics that make them special and different. Teachers and other adults reinforce this through confirmation that these qualities and characteristics are important and good. This sense of uniqueness is weakened when person feel their body image doesn't fit the societal norm and may view their uniqueness in a negative way. It is imperative that students are engaged in discussion about different qualities and characteristics in order to identify these in themselves.

Sense of power relates to beliefs about ones competence and ability to influence one's circumstances. Students with a strong sense of power are able to take charge of important things in their lives and make choices and desired changes. They feel they have some control over their lives. Teacher and adults can empower students by allowing them to make decisions, take responsibility for their action and make choices regarding their circumstances. However, their must guidance through the decision making process sot that they are able to understand the consequences and outcomes of their action.

Models and Self-Esteem

Models provide students with standards and values they need to help them make sense of the world. They act as reference points to guide behaviour and help students set their own values, goals, personal standards and ideals. Ikeda and Naworski (1992) describe three different models: "*human models are real or fictional people whose characteristics and actions we admire and seek to emulate. Philosophical models are the ideas, beliefs and values promoted by society, religion, families, etc., that guide our action and choices. Finally operational models are the automatic, almost subconscious responses and behaviours that develop as a result of constant, repetitive experience (i.e., saying please and thank you, standing up when one is introduced, etc)*".

In western society overweight, disabled and female students as well as those from varied ethnic and cultural backgrounds may have a difficult time finding appropriate models. Ikeda and Naworski (1992) reinforce this by stating, "*Parents, teachers and other caregivers are person's most important human models. When we*

model respect for and acceptance of ourselves and others, regardless of body size or other physical attributes, we send a powerful message to our children that helps build their self-esteem". (p.9)

Teaching with Equity

Teaching with equity allows all students to have a voice, be challenged, and engage in learning. However, equity is different than equality. Equity is defined by Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (1981) as: "Freedom from bias or favoritism", whereas equality is "the quality or state of being equal". (p.382)

Therefore, teaching with equity does not mean to treat everyone the same, but instead means to teach in the way that encompasses and acknowledge the individual needs and abilities of all students. It involves fair and unbiased treatment of all students. Inequitable treatment between boys and girls can lead to dramatic effects on self-esteem.

Research suggests that girls lose academic confidence and self-esteem during adolescence particularly in the areas of math and science (Phipher, 1994). Awareness of these factors, and focus on improving academic self-esteem and confidence in students, is likely to have spin-offs to many other areas of self-esteem including improved body image.

Body Image, Self-Esteem and College Students

Evidence has been found that suggest strong relationship between individuals body image self-esteem, self concept, many factors are related to individual's self concept but self worth (esteem) has been found to have great significance in this area.

Negative body image tends to correlate with negative behavior towards one self ("Body Attitude", 2001). Von Bergen and Spoer (1996) reported that individual with high self-esteem tend to have high self concept and positive body image.

Female are affected more by body image and self-esteem than males (Heriques & Calhoun, 1999).

The importance of body image is evident in its relationship to risk status of eating disorder, depression and lower self–esteem (Attie & Brooks-Gunn, 1989, Harter, 1989; Leon, Fulkerson, Perry, & Cudeck, 1993).

Negative perception of one's body has been found to be strongly related to low self-esteem (Abell & Richards, 1996; Stower & Drum, (1996). Kostanski and Gullone (1998) found that best predictors of body image dissatisfaction were having low self-esteem and being female (Kostanski & Gullone, 1998). Perhaps the high prevalence of body image dissatisfaction among college women can be partially accounted for by their self- esteem (Kromrey & Street, 1994).

High self-esteem has been found to be positively related to multiple dimensions, including personal , family ,academic , and social ,of a woman's life that affect adjustment to college (Mooney, Sherman, & Lo-Presto, 1991).

When entering college, people experience many different feelings and emotions. Some may feel excited about finally being able to start studying towards the career of their choice and feel hopeful about their future. They may be looking forward to their freedom and a chance to experience independence. They may be excited about having a chance to meet people and develop new friendships.

Others may not experience those same feelings and may not be ready to enter into such an environment. The thought of being on their own and having to be independent can be very frightening. They may feel uncertain about their future and fear becoming an adult and taking on the extra responsibilities. Having to meet people and develop new friendships can also be frightening. They may fear they will not be accepted or fit in. Some may not even want to be in college. They may have been pressured into going there by their parents. All though college can be a wonderful experience for people, for some, it can be one of the worst. It takes time for people to adjust to college life. Several developmental and environmental factors also place college students especially at-risk for increased body image dissatisfaction and decreased self-esteem.

Developmentally, college students are faced with the challenge of "building and maintaining an initial mode of adult living" (Levinson, 1986), or as Erikson (1968) has described, establishing a self-identity and finding intimacy. Female college students in particular, are greatly affected by the thin ideal formulated by the media and popular culture (Graff Low et al., 2003; Monro & Huon, 2005).

For college women, identity may be formed in the context of relationships, making intimacy a primary developmental objective (Miller, 1976). Identity and intimacy become salient during the first year in college as students establish new social bonds and explore modalities of individual achievement. Given that the thin ideal for women has been correlated with perceived intelligence or professional success (Silberstein, Striegal-Moore, French & Rodin, 1988).

In addition, the competitive college environment could increase a college student tendency toward social comparison, in both appearance and achievement domains. As Silberstein, Striegel-Moore, French and Rodin (1988) have noted, "as stressful and semi closed environments, campuses may serve to intensify the pressures to be thin ... and the competitive college environment may foster not only academic competition but also competition regarding the achievement of a beautiful (i.e., thin).

In addition, given the stereotype that attractive individuals are more sociable, the desire to increase her popularity among both men and women may become intertwined with the pursuit of thinness and dissatisfaction with weight. These factors, in addition to the weight gain that is common among female college student (Hovell, Mewboremn, Randle, & Fowler-Johnson, 1985; Striegel-Moore, Silberstein, Frensch, & Rodin, 1989), all contribute to a high-risk setting for increased body dissatisfaction.

Factors Influencing Body Image and Self-Esteem

An article by Health Canada (1996), entitled Body Image, Health and Well-Being. The Social Dynamics, states that self-esteem and body image are influenced by two coexisting means of appraisal. *Reflected appraisal* is seeing oneself as others do or think they do. *Social comparison* involves comparing and rating oneself against significant others (Health Canada, 1996). Therefore, relationships with others

deeply affect a person's self-esteem and body image. They are discussed here among other factors that affect body image and self-esteem.

Parents and Families

Parents are generally satisfied with their children's appearance, though parental satisfaction decline, as their children get older. Yet many parents do comments on their children's weight and appearance. There is now considerable research indicating that parental comments and teasing directed at child influence that child's body image. Research examining the concurrent relationship between parental comments and child body image has documented such relationship in elementary school as well as in adolescent and late adolescents.

Friends, teachers and parents tend to equally influence an individuals self-concept (Health Canada, 1996). Ikeda and Naworski (1992) argue that comments made by parents and family members can have a huge impact on a students body image, negative comments about weight, especially for overweight, may lead to unhealthy dieting at an early age and self-consciousness about one's body. (Ikeda & Naworski, 1992).

Studies examining the effect of parental modeling are more equivocal. Several studies have not found relationship between parental dieting or attitudes about their own bodies and children is found significant correlations. In studies looking at both directs comments to the child user of grooming products and comments seems to be more strongly related to children body image and weight reduce techniques.

The few longitudinal studies that have considered parental transmission of the cultural massage about body shape have also documented significant relationship for example girls or boys whose father comments on the children weight are more likely to become constant dieter. Families with unreasonably high expectations can also cause negative body image. When these expectations aren't met, person can feel inadequate, depressed or guilty. Thus, person may take out their frustrations on their bodies through dieting and excessive exercise as a means to gain control over their lives (Davis, 1999).

In fact, parents make appearance related comments to both sons and daughters equally, though it is possible those mothers are marginally more likely to comment on their daughters. There is some debate concerning the impact of these comments some researches finds that parental influence is roughly equal for boys and girls, while other report that girls are more effected by parental comments. There is probably some other factors that mediate the effect of parental comments on persons body satisfaction for example the student at college campus's age and number of appearance related comments they hear form peers, teachers or coaches.

There is clear evidence that many parents are conveying a cultural massage about the importance of body shape to their children. The greater effects on girls may be attributable to the consistency, across socialization agents, of the message that girls receive.

Friends and Peers

As it true of parents, peer may either model body dissatisfaction or make comments directly many of these comments will take the form of weight and shape related teasing, given that appearance related teasing is more common than any other form of teasing.

In addition peer relationships, unlike parent-child relationships involve *"earned status"*. Thus college students are motivated to do things, including achieve a particular look, in order to become more popular. Researches suggest that peer do indeed influence college student body esteem and level of weight concern in all of these ways.

Girls who are teased particularly those who take the teasing seriously have higher body dissatisfaction, peer modeling of body dissatisfaction may actually be institutionalized in *"fat talk"* a phenomena in which girls disparage their weight and shape despite being relatively satisfied with their average bodies.

Teasing may interface with the cultural objectification of the female body in the form of sexual harassment, and girl's reaction to it. Few studies have examined peer comments about weight and shape among boys, peer do influence college students body esteem and weight concerns. Both the extend and the effect of these peer influences appear to be greater for the girls.

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Friends play an integral part in establishing body image, especially on college campus. Friedman (1997) describes peer influence the book, *When Girls Feel Fat: Helping Girls through Adolescence*: The peer group gives [girls] an opportunity to test their opinions, feelings and attitudes against those of other girls and to decide which of their parental values they will accept or reject. Their peer group also provides girls with emotional security they see their friends sharing the same problems and having the same way of looking at the world.

However, peers can place a lot of pressure on girls to conform to society's standards. If one behaves differently than her peers or holds opposing views, she may become ostracized, talked about, or teased.

One study suggests "girl's relationship s with other girls directly affects self-esteem to the point that they can make or break self-esteem, academic results, and even physical health" (Emmerson, 1994, p.34).

In terms of body image, girls often compare and rate themselves against their peers. According to Davis (1999), girls often engage in *"fat talk"*, in which they complain and find fault with their bodies. When girl friends constantly talk about how fat and ugly they are, she may begin to feel the same. This can lead to an unhealthy and difficult cycle to break.

Further, friends may encourage each other to engage in unhealthy behaviour such as dieting and eating disorders and even compete to be the thinnest or smallest (Davis, 1999). Unfortunately, this pressure to conform is perpetuated by media and culture.

Mass Media and Culture

Alongside parents and peers, mass media and the prevailing cultures views are an ever-pervasive influence on body image and self-esteem. Historically, the westernized image of the perfect body has changed dramatically, especially with regard to females. Over the past century different body images have been projected by western culture and promoted as standards for fashion and sophistication.

Table 1

A Shifting Vision of Beauty

The era	The Look
1890s	Plump, Voluptuous
Early 20th Century	Corseted, Hour-Glass
1920s	Flat-Cheated, Slim-Hipped, Androgynous
1930s and 1940s	Full-Bodied, with Emphasis on Legs
1950s	Voluptuous and Curvaceous
1960s to date	Thin, Un-Curvaceous (Waif Look)

Source: Health Canada (1996).

However, little has changed in the last forty years. Since the 1960s, idealized models of beauty such as waif-like women, and muscle-bound, sporting men have been ubiquitous in movies, magazines, television and the cosmetic and fashion industries.

As Phipher (1994) points out, "while beautiful women are slimmer, average women are heavier than they were in the 1950s. Thus the discrepancy between the real and ideal is greater. This discrepancy creature our plague of eating disorders"

Girls are trying to achieve impossible beauty standards that are produced through much media trickery photo cropping, airbrushing, composite bodies, and body doubles.

Messages from the media tell girls and women that to be successful one must be attractive and thin. Beautiful, thin female bodies that are used as comm. Oddities to sell products from alcohol to shoes send the message that appearance is more important than character, personality or social contribution.

One study highlighted by health Canada stated that: "whereas men view their bodies as tools that need to be in shape and ready for use, women primarily see their bodies as commodities, their physical appearance serving as an interpersonal currency" (Health Canada, 1996, p. 26).

According to Health Canada (1997), "in the western culture, slim is promoted not only as beautiful, healthy and sexy but self-disciplined and good. Attractive people are perceived to be kind, interesting, outgoing and to have a variety of socially desirable character trait".

Therefore, a cultural value system becomes equated with thinners, and in turn attractiveness, so that anyone who deviates from this ideal may view oneself as incompetent, bad, and ugly. Such a value system has been called *lookism,* a term first used by Phipher (1994). "Lookism" is defined by Nichols (1996) as: "That ranking of persons that attributes worth based on random variations in supposed attributes of personal attractiveness" (p. 118).

This can be especially true for overweight children who, "*according to one study, are treated more harshly by their peers than children with facial injuries*" (Health Canada, 1997, p. 28). At this negative perception carries over into adulthood the obese-particularly female are stigmatized and punished psychologically, economically and socially.

In our society, "*fat can be construed as a symbol of power in men but always symbolizes weakness and inferiority in women*" (Health Canada, 1997, p. 28). To this effect, the diet and beauty industries thrive off women's fear of fat and unattractiveness.

To further complicate matters of body image, at the same time that girls are comparing themselves to a barrage of media images, their bodies' change in ways that contrast with this thin ideal. Phipher (1994) documents that negative body image and decrease in self-esteem and confidence in adolescent girls generally occurs with the onset of puberty.

Once happy, confident and active girls become moody, withdrawn, depressed and at-risk during adolescence. Girls who once liked their bodies come to see them as ugly. As Phipher (1994) points out: Generally girls have strong bodies when they enter puberty, but these bodies soften and spread out in ways that our culture calls fat. Just at the point that their bodies are becoming rounder, girls are told that thin is beautiful even imperative.

The Praise in Classrooms

Most significantly: "boys are more likely to be praised for academic and intellectual work, while girls are more likely to be praised for their clothing, behaving properly and obeying rules" (AAUW, as cited in Phipher, 1994).

Such discrepancies teach girls to be quiet and complacent, and boys to be vocal and aggressive. Likewise, it teaches girls to seek praise based on appearance of themselves or their work and boys to seek praise about their accomplishments.

Physical Education

Physical activity and participation in sports has been reported to improve body image and increase self-esteem, especially in girls, as documented by the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports (1997). However, according to the Calgary Regional Health Authority (2000), sports in which athletes are weighed: "Perpetuates the notion that weight loss is the most effective way to desirable form, both aesthetic and athletic. Individuals may respond to pressure to lose weight with disordered eating behaviours".

The focus of sport then switches from one of health and fitness to an obsession with weight and fat. Ikeda and Naworski (1992) argue that "*poor physical education activity for the rest of their lives*". Preconceived notions by physical education teachers that large students are less skilled in athletics and embarrassed to be seen in gym clothing can negatively impact the self esteem of such students. Also, such teachers are likely to overlook or ignore larger students in classes, limiting their opportunities for involvement and success in physical activity (Ikeda & Naworski, 1992).

While our society places high value on attractiveness, rankings based on sex, race, can also affect body image and self-esteem. The message that children have come to accept is that how you look is more important than who you are. It speaks to why, as Phipher (1994) explained: "most girls choose to be socially accepted and split into two selves, one that is authentic and one that is culturally scripted".

Strategies for improving body image and self-esteem must aim to eliminate lookism, sexism, racism, and ableism, and help student to discover and celebrate their true selves.

Ikeda and Naworski (1992) argue that, "body image and self-esteem are woven together to form the fabric of how we feel about ourselves, making it difficult to separate the two". Therefore, improving self-esteem is likely to improve body image and vice versa.

Rational of the Study

The present study is a correlational study measuring the relationship between body image and self-esteem among college students. The study also focused on gender differences among college students on the Self-Esteem and MBSRQ-AS scale. Beauty values a lot in today's world, globalization decreases the distance and media merge the different culture together. Beauty and beauty standers made people more conscious about the appearance and towards their own body image. We consciously or unconsciously do comparison with the standards of the beauty valued in the society. This may be especially true on college campuses where people are rapidly assessed for physical attractiveness (Phipher, Thompos, & Cash, 1994).

College students have been focus of attention of psychologists and considerable number of studies has been conducted in the West but in Pakistan unfortunately there is not significant importance . In spite the reality that being a developing country students are facing different issues including body image issues. Literature shows that body image is a major concern during adolescence and late adolescence poor body image effect the self esteem of the students. In the European culture lot of researches have conducted on this issue of body image and self-esteem exploring different areas in this context such as ethnic and gender differences, effect of media on the body image (Tiggmann & Pickering, 1996).

Certain studies have investigated the ethnic differences in relationship of body size, body image and self-esteem, Margaret, Snooks, Sharon & Hall 2001; Thompson & Lisa, 2001). Another research related to body image dissatisfaction did comparison of Australian and Pakistani young females (Mahmud, & Crittenden, 2007). The study explored the difference between Urdu medium and English medium young females. Finding of the research shows that in Pakistan there is less focus on body image. However there are high body image concerns in English medium young females than Urdu medium young females.

Historically there have been sex differences in body image. In two large national surveys, women have reported greater body dissatisfaction than have men (Cash & Henry, 1995; Garner, 1997). Across all ages, women have reported being

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more concerned with body weight and appearance (Pliner, Chaiken, & Flett, 1990). Frost and Mckelive (2004) found that female students of all ages had low self esteem relating to body image in comparison to their class-mates.

Bohen (1996) found that while 74 percent of American university students having body image concerns, only 29 percent were preoccupied by them and only 4 percent met the DSM-IV criteria of body dysmorphic disorder. Not surprisingly, perhaps rates are higher among people seeking plastic surgery. Sadly for these people surgery rarely improve feeling about them.

METHOD

METHOD

Objectives

The main objectives of the study are:

(1)   To investigate the relationship between body image and self-esteem among college students.

(2)   To find out gender differences on self-esteem and body image.

Hypotheses

In order to achieve the above-mentioned following hypotheses are formulated.

(1)   There will be positive relationship between body image and self-esteem.

(2)   Gender differences exist on both, body image and self–esteem, female students have more body image and self-esteem issues as compare to male students.

Operational Definition of Variable

Body Image.   Cash (2000) describes body image as a complicated aspect of self-concept that concern an individual's perception and feeling about his/ her body and physical appearance.

Body image was measured through scores on Multidimensional Body-Self-Relations Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MASRQ-AS) developed by Cash (2000), which was accessed in term of scores on the sub-scales: appearance evaluation, appearance orientation, body areas satisfaction scale, over weight preoccupation, and self-classified weight.

Self-Esteem. Rosenberg (1965) described self-esteem as a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the self. Steinberg (1996) further elaborated that self-esteem is how the individual feels about himself or herself. Self-esteem is a personality construct which referred to the individual's feelings about the self, and indicative of the value placed over ones self (Rafai, 1999).

Sample

Non probability sampling technique is used to collect data from 100 students' 50 male students and 50 female students will be selected from different colleges of Rawalpindi and Islamabad. The student who participated in the study was from different socio-economic classes and institute however the education level of the students are almost same. The entire students in the participated in study are Bachelor's students.

Instruments

Multidimensional Body-Self Relation Questionnaire Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS). Multidimensional Body-self Relation Questionnaire Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) developed by Thomas. F. Cash, (2000), was used to assess self attitudinal aspects of the body image construct. The scale consists of 34 statements, which are sub-divided in 5 sub-scales. The scales yields separate scores on the 5 sub-scales. It contains an unequal number of statements from each of the following areas pertaining to body image: Appearance evaluation (3, 5, 9, 12, 15, 18, 19), Appearance Orientation (1, 2, 6, 7, 10, 11, 13, 14, 16, 17, 20, 21) Body area satisfaction scale (26, 31, 33, 34), over weight preoccupation (4,8,22,23),Self classified weight (24, 25).

The MBSRQ-AS is a 5-point Likert type scale. From item 1-22, statements are scored on a rating scale ranging from ''definitely disagree'' to ''definitely agree''. A score of 1 is given to ''definitely disagree'' and a score of 5 is given to "definitely agree". For item 23, the statement is scored on rating from ''never' to ''very often''. From item 24 to 25, statements are scored on rating scale ranging from "very underweight" to "very overweight".

A score of 1 is given to very underweight and a score of 5 is given to overweight. For items 26 and 34, statements are scored on rating scale ranging from "very dissatisfied" to "very satisfied"

It consists of 28 positive and 6 negative items. The scoring is reversed for the negative items. A high score on Appearance evaluation scale indicates feeling of physical attractiveness and satisfaction with one's look. Where as a low scores reflects feeling of unattractiveness and a general unhappiness with their appearance.

High scorers on appearance orientation scale place more important on how they look, and engage in widespread grooming behavior. Low scorers are apathetic about their appearance; their look is not particularly important and they do not spend much effort to "look good".

High scorers on BASS are generally satisfied with discrete aspects of their appearance. Low scorers are unhappy with the size or appearance of several areas of their body. High score on Overweight preoccupation scale reflect high fat anxiety, weight vigilance, dieting and eating restrains. High scorers on Self-classified weight indicate that one's perceive one's weight as an underweight. The alpha reliability of the scale in the pervious research is ($r = .87$) (Munaire, 2006). Negative items include (item.#. 11,14,16,18,19,20)

The Self-Esteem Scale. A self-esteem scale developed by Rafai (1999), was used to assess the level of self esteem of the respondents The scale has four dimensions on which the participants were assessed upon, i.e., self acceptance, (items 1, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 19, 21 & 25) self-competence, (items 2, 6, 9, 14, 22 & 27) social and physical self-acceptance (Items 3, 7, 12, 18, 23, 26 & 29) and academic self-competence (Items 4, 15, 20, 24 & 28) There were 29 statements, with five response categories.

These five categories were extremely true, somewhat true, neither true nor false, somewhat false and extremely false. Scoring of these categories were 4, 3, 2, 1 & 0 respectively. For the Positive statements denoting high score indicates high level of self esteem. Scoring was reversed for the negative statements that were 1, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 19, 21, 25 & 28. The alpha reliability of the scale in the previous research is ($r = .85$) (Ashraf, 2004).

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Procedure

After the permission of the top management of the institutes, the participants of the study were contacted individually. First they were asked to complete the questionnaires along with demographical details. To reduce the faking aspects the purpose of the study was told at the end. The complete questionnaires with other relevant information were collected and subjected to SPSS for different statistical analysis.

RESULTS

RESULTS

The data (N = 100) was subjected to statistical analysis to investigate the study objectives.

Reliability Analysis

Reliability is one of the major psychometric properties of the scale. Alpha reliability coefficient method was used to estimate the reliability.

Table 1

Alpha Reliability Coefficients of Self-Esteem Scale (N = 100)

Scales	No. of Items	Alpha Reliability Coefficient
Self Acceptance	11	.77
Self Competence	6	.45
Social and Physical Acceptance	7	.71
Self-Esteem Scale (total)	29	.86

Table 1 shows the alpha reliability coefficients obtained on total scores of Self-Esteem Scale and on its subscales. For total score on Self-Esteem Scale, the reliability coefficient (r = .86) is satisfactory indicating that scale is internally consistent. For subscales alpha reliability ranges between .45 to.71.

The alpha reliability coefficient given in the table indicates high reliability of the scale and its subscales. The findings also demonstrate that self-esteem is internally consistent.

Table 2

Alpha Reliability Coefficients of Multidimensional Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) (N =100)

Scales	No. of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Appearance evaluation	7	.50
Appearance Orientation	12	.63
Body Area Satisfaction Scale	9	.82
Overweight Preoccupation	4	.74
MBSRQ-AS (total)	34.	51

The results presented in Table 2 indicate that MBSRQ-AS ($r = .51$) is quite reliable measure for present sample.

Validity Analysis

To estimate the construct validity of the measure, the inter-scale correlations were computed.

Table 3

Inter-Correlation among Sub-Scales and Self Esteem total score (N = 100)

Sub-Scales	Self-Esteem Scale (total)
Self acceptance	.82**
Self competence	.55**
Social and physical self	.71**
Academic Self competence	.65**

**$p < .01$

The results in table 3 indicate that each of sub-scale of Self-Esteem Scale is highly correlated with total score of Self-Esteem Scale indicating satisfactory construct validity of the measure.

Table 4

Inter-correlation of subscale Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) of with total score (N =100)

Sub scales of MBSRQ-AS	MBSRQ-AS (total)
Appearance evaluation	.17
Appearance Orientation	.45**
Body Area Satisfaction Scale	.57**
Overweight Preoccupation	.23*
Self –classified Weight	.20*

$**p < .01$

The results indicate that indicate each subscale is significantly correlated with total score. However, for subscale of Appearance Evaluation, the resultant magnitude of correlation is weak. One of the possible reasons might be inferred from the content of relevant items indicating the possibility of defensive responses of the sample to the items of this sub-scale.

Relationship between Body Image and Self-Esteem

Table 5

Correlation between Self-Esteem Scale (total & sub-scales) and total score of Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) (N =100)

Self-Esteem Scales	MBSRQ-A (total)
Self-Esteem Scale (total)	.48**
Self Acceptance	.40**
Self Competence	.30**
Social and Physical Acceptance	.32**
Academic Self Competence	.28**

$**p < .01$

Table 5 shows the correlation *between Self-Esteem Scale and Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS)*. Results show that there is

highly significant correlation ($r = .48$) between total scores of body image and self-esteem measures. For subscales, this correlation ranges from .28 to .48.

All these correlations are highly significant. The results support the hypothesis that there is positive correlation between body image and different dimension of self-esteem.

Table 6

Correlation between Multidimensional Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (sub-scales) and total score on Self-Esteem Scale ($N = 100$)

Body image scales	Self –Esteem Scale (total)
Appearance Evaluation	.16
Appearance Orientation	.28**
Body Area Satisfaction Scale	.27**
Overweight Preoccupation	.68**
Self –classified Weight	.16

$**p < .01$

Table 6 shows the correlation between total score of Self-Esteem and sub scales of Multidimensional Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale appears to be significant and positive for subscales of Appearance Orientation ($r = .28$), Body Area Satisfaction ($r = .27$), and Overweight Preoccupation ($r = .68$). However, subscales *of* Appearance Evaluation and Self-Classified Weight showed Correlation between body image and the gender Self–esteem total.

Gender Differences on Self-Esteem and Body Image

To investigate the gender differences on variables of the study, *t*-analysis was computed.

Table 7

Mean SD and t-values of sample on self –esteem and body image scales of male and female

	Male (n = 50)		Female (n = 50)		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*
Self-Esteem Scale Total	76.16	14.70	74.60	16.32	.50
Self-Acceptance	26.36	8.95	26.90	8.55	-.343
Social competence	17.10	3.73	15.84	3.79	1.67
Social & Physical Acceptance	20.46	4.82	19.70	4.96	.77
Academic Self Competence	12.24	4.46	12.10	4.13	.163

df = 98 , p = n.s.

The Table shows non significant mean differences on self-esteem and body image scales among male and female college students.

Table 8

Mean SD and t-values of body image sub-scales of male and female.

Body Image Scale	Male (n = 50)		Female (n = 50)		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*
Appearance Evaluation	2.30	2.58	21.20	3.08	.141
Appearance Orientation	40.08	4.83	40.70	5.92	-.573
Body Area Satisfaction Scale	8.14	1.73	8.08	1.84	.167
Overweight Preoccupation	9.26	2.91	9.08	3.71	.269
Self-classified Weight	6.02	1.57	5.72	1.03	.129

df = 98 , p = n.s.

The Table indicates non significant difference on body image subscales among college male and female students.

DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

The focus of the study was to see the relationship between self-esteem and body image among college students, further the comparison of gender had also done to explore the gender difference on both variables. To measure body image and self-esteem and Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) developed by Cash (2000) and Self-Esteem scale developed by Rafai (1999) were used.

The Table1 shows the alpha reliability of self-esteem scale. Here the coefficient alpha for the total scale is .86 which indicates that scale is highly reliable for the present sample. For the subscales the reliability ranges between. 45 to .71.

Table 2 shows the alpha reliability of the measure of body image scale. Here the coefficient alpha for the total scale is .51 and for the subscale reliability ranges between .50 to .84 which indicates that scale is reliable measure for different factor of body image.

Table 3 shows the Inter- scale correlation of subscales of self-esteem with total scale of self-esteem to measure the construct validity of the scale. The results indicates the total scale validity is .82** which is highly significant, while the subscale validity ranges between .55** to.71**. It is also indication that scale is reliable for the present sample.

Inter- scale correlation of Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) with its sub-scale (Table 4) was computed to measure the construct validity of the scale. Result indicates that scale is a valid for the present sample.

Table 5 shows the inter-scale correlation between Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) and Self- Esteem scale (total & subscale). The result shows that there is high significant and a positive correlation exists (.48**) between the Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) and Self- Esteem sub-scale. For the sub-scales the correlation ranges between .28** to .40**.

Table 6 shows correlation between Self-Esteem scale and various sub-scales of Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS). The result indicates that there is significant positive correlation .48** exist for the sub-scale the correlation ranges between .16 to .68. Which shows the positive relationship of the Self-Esteem with Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) sub-scales.

Over all results on Table 5 and Table 6 indicate there is highly significant positive correlation between body image and self-esteem that indicate the students with high body image show high self-esteem. Researches indicate that there is positive relationship between body image and self-esteem. For example if the body image is the person is high the self-esteem of the individual will be high, if the body images of the person is low the self-esteem will be low. According to some studies (Attie, Brooks-Gumn, 1989, Harter, 1999 & Leon & Pelly Cudeck et al., 1993) negative perception of ones body has been found to be strongly related to low self-esteem. The negative correlation among college students are may be due to the competitive college environment could increase a college student tendency towards social comparison. As Striegel et al. (2000) noted as stressful and semi closed environment may serve to intensify the pressure to be their and the competitive college environment may foster not only academic competition but also competition regarding the achievement of beautiful.

The Table 7 and 8 shows the mean, SD and t-value of male and female students on Self-Esteem scale as given in the Table, show that there is no significant difference on self-esteem and female college students. The mean of the female is low on Self-Esteem scale in comparison to male but there is no significant difference on both gender the reason for the insignificant difference may be due to the small sample size, the increasing sample size may reflect some significant results. Mahmud & Crittenden, 2007) found that Australia female showed considerably low body esteem and body image dissatisfaction as compare to the Pakistani female on all measure of body image.

Another reason may be according to Mahumd et al. (2007) attributed to social cultural and religious difference as in the collectivistic cultures people may be value other attributes of personality more than physical beauty.

Another factor may be the SES of students that was not controlled in the study. A research by Mahmud et al. (2007) indicates the traditional standards of beauty among young Pakistani female of upper socio-economic groups are being replaced what is attractive in the west. In the study Pakistani English medium. Female students express notably greater body shape concern that did the Urdu Medium. The reason may be that English as medium students mostly follow western tradition in teaching and rules.

Limitations and Suggestion

The study was conducted on small sample (*N*=100), 50 male students and 50 female students, so the finding can not be generalized to the whole population of college students. (1) There was limited time to complete the research. (2) Short sample was preferred due to limited resources. Because of these limitations the inferences drawn from the sample can not be generalized on a very broad level.

Perhaps the most important limitation of the study was the way the questionnaires were administered. The lack of control in the administration led participants to have non serious attitude towards filling it and they did not give their natural responses.

There is need to do more work in this field, studies should also be conducted on large sample to generalize the findings on the large population. The Body-Self Relation Questionnaire-Appearance Scale (MBSRQ-AS) is not culturally adapted the adaptation of the scale according to Pakistani culture will be helpful for the further research in this area.

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