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The 'New' Male Consumer: Appearance Management Product Advertising and the Male Physical Ideal in Men's Interest Magazines from 1965-2005

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The ‘New’ Male Consumer: Appearance Management Product Advertising and the Male Physical Ideal in Men’s Interest Magazines from 1965-2005

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Male consumerism, especially in regards to appearance management products, has received little attention in comparison to female consumer issues. Research on the product categories, advertising appeals, and use of male body image in advertising is rare and often is simply an offshoot of a study on female consumers and is used solely for comparison, not analysis. Using men’s lifestyle magazines (Esquire and Gentlemen’s Quarterly) over a 40 year span (1965 to 2005) as a source of information the product categories, advertising purchasers, male model body preferences, and sexuality of imagery featuring male models were examined. Based on the information recorded from five year time periods, trends were analyzed over the last four decades to look for changes over time in the advertising campaigns within these magazines. The relevance of advertising as a symbol of American culture is explored in relation to societal changes that occur along with the changing nature of the imagery in the promotional campaigns.

This dissertation explores the changing nature of the male consumer market as defined by the mass media. The “peacock revolution” of the 1970s, the “new” man of the 1980s, and the “metrosexual” man of the late 1990s are just a few examples of the mainstream press proclaiming a new ideology and image for American men. In addition to the new exterior image of men, there has been recent discussion of a move toward a heightened level of muscularity as a measure of male beauty. Although there are numerous examples of these suppositions in the press, this research does not support such claims.

The advertising of appearance management products, and the individual product categories themselves, have remained consistent over the 40 year span, showing a steady interest in clothing and appearance products. Preferred body type for male models in these men’s interest magazines has also essentially remained consistent. The mesomorphic body type is also the most popular, showing a preference for a specific waist to shoulder ratio for the male body. Aspects of the male body that have shown variation over time is body fat levels and muscularity. There has been a decrease in the amount of general body fat over time, although the lowest measured levels were recorded in the 1990s. Muscularity preference has been shown to be in the “somewhat” muscular rating as opposed to the “very” muscular rating, going against the notion that men are idealized to be larger and stronger than ever before.

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Male beauty is typified through the male models that advertisers choose to use in their print campaigns. Often in advertising sex, or sexuality, is used to sell products. The sexual nature of the male models used in national advertising campaigns within the selected men’s magazines was measured using several methods. Beginning in 1970 there are little significant changes in the sexual nature of advertising featuring male models. There are distinct patterns of increases and decreases detected by five year time period consistent between measurement methods. This consistency of sexual content including male body exposure goes against many published accounts promoting the idea of an increase in sexuality in advertising in recent decades.

Overall, this research presents an argument for the consistency of male appearance management product interest, ideal male body type, and sexual nature of advertising in men’s interest magazines. Additional research using the magazines *Details* and *Maxim* (2000 and 2005) lends additional support to this data set and expands the overall male target market being identified. Data collected in this research study adds to the body of knowledge on male consumerism, male body aesthetics, sexuality of men in advertisements, and the processes used to collect this information in content analysis based research of advertising in men’s magazines.
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

“Traditional media and advertising depiction of the ideal masculine physique would lead one to believe that the American female wanted a male with massive upper body areas (arms, shoulders, and chest) tapering down to thinner waist, hips, and legs, i.e. the typical muscleman physique” (Lavrakas, 1975, p. 325).

The academic study of appearance and issues relating to appearance normally focuses on women. This research collects and analyzes empirical data that has been published by experts in multiple disciplines relating directly to male appearance. Little research has been published solely on male appearance practices or their opinions on their own appearance. Much that has been published examines men in relation to women or using studies designed with women in mind. Masculinity and gender norms are key components that must be addressed when studying male appearance issues. In addition to collecting and presenting previous studies, this research project will expand the body of knowledge and expand the research methodologies of male appearance studies through a content analysis of men’s magazines.

Masculinity and gender are engrained social constructs in American society. Socialization begins at an early age when it comes to the establishment of male gender roles and norms (Connell, 1987; Kacen, 2000; Kellner, 1995; Messner, 2000). Traditional male roles are constructed based on family life, schooling, and participation in organized group activities that are usually gender specific (Eccles, Jacobs, & Harold, 1990). In addition, a young man develops his own idea of masculinity based on observations of the roles, appearance, and behaviors of men to which he is exposed on a daily basis (Pleck, Sonenstein, & Ku, 1993). These aspects of being a man are reinforced by cultural standards established through daily life and exposure to the mass media (Fowles, 1996; Schoenberg, 1993). Masculine gender roles traditionally stress power, strength, and performance as the standard of male achievement rather than appearance (Barthel, 1994; Cash, Winstead, & Janda, 1986; Griffin, 1995; Herek, 1987; Franzoi, 1995; LaFrance, 2000; Posner, 1984/1990).

Males and females are reared to consider grooming and appearance management in very different ways (Alreck, 1994; Davis, Shapiro, Elliott, & Dionne, 1993; Lakoff & Scherr, 1984;
Nichter & Nichter, 1991; Thompson & Haykto, 1997). Kaiser (1990) defined appearance management as, “the decorative nature of clothes and other forms of appearance modification for purposes of display, attraction, or aesthetic expression” (p. 16). Modern men traditionally have received minimal instruction on grooming and self-presentation while women have been trained in the art of beauty at an early age (Craik, 1994; Kidwell & Steele, 1989). Despite this lack of emphasis in their early years, American males have increasingly spent more time and money on their appearances in recent decades by consuming products and services in the retail sector (Dutton, 1995; Farnham, 1996; Featherstone, 1998; Gillett & White, 1992; Luciano, 2001; Scelfo, 2004; Williams, 2001). Men have been shown to spend 51 minutes a day on their appearance and spend $12 billion dollars annually on their appearance (Mason, 2002). Young men in particular helped the male grooming industry show growth of 43% between 1998 and 2003 (Matthews, 2005). Male self-presentation is becoming an increasingly important aspect of modern masculinity in the US.

Males today are judged on their appearance as well as their financial status. In the past men were secure in their masculinity as a natural order, but due to changes in society now are evaluated on more than just their success in being a provider (Gottschall, 1999; Lakoff & Scherr, 1984; Luciano, 2001; Mishkind, Rodin, Silberstein, & Streigel-Moore, 1986; Segal, 1990; Settle & Alreck, 1987). The influence of homosexual male culture (Bronski, 1998; Cole, 2000; Entwistle, 2004; Gill, Henwood, & McLean, 2003; Gottschall, 1999; Harris, 1997; Moore, 1989; Triggs, 1993), trends in advertising (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004; Kintish, 1997; Pendergast, 2000; Petrie et al., 1996; Sergios & Cody, 1985; Tenerelli, 2001; Thompson & Hirschman, 1995). Also, a general sense of personal freedom in the US has created a movement towards expanded appearance management choices for males (Alreck, 1994; Canape, 1985; Mishkind et al., 1986). Along with this freedom comes the pressure to conform to a modern ideal of beauty for men (Berscheid, Walster, & Bohrnstedt, 1973; Cash et al., 1986; Davis, Shapiro, et al., 1993; Dutton, 1995; Gottschall, 1999; Grogan, Williams, & Conner, 1996; Kimmel & Messner, 2000; Lakoff & Scherr, 1984; Thompson, 2000; Weinke, 1998).

The sophisticated advertising appeals of the last few decades have attempted to turn men into consumers, often with emphasis on improving their appearance (Gillett & White, 1992; Kacen, 2000; McCracken, 1986; Pendergast, 2000). These advertisements can be directly related to increases in sales of products targeted towards men (Bordo, 1999). Imagery of the modern
man, constructed through advertising, often includes being fit and attractive. Specific features in the advertisement including an idealized male image can imbue the product with perceived benefits that come with attractiveness or enhance the attractiveness of the individual (Vacker & Key, 1993). Consumer product usage is then inherently linked to improved social status and desirability. The symbolic nature of the advertisements can be analyzed to determine the hedonic and utilitarian attributes which are being bestowed upon a product based on the advertising imagery utilized (Domzal & Kernan, 1993; Edell & Staelin, 1983; Featherstone, 1991; Williamson, 1978). Consumption of these masculine products allows men to express who they are and construct their cultural identity in regards to the masculine ideal (Barthel 1988, Domzal & Kernan, 1992; Kimmel, 1996).

The cultural ideal male appears to be young (Davis, Shapiro, et al., 1993; Gill et al., 2003; Lakoff & Scherr, 1984), muscular (Dutton, 1995; Hatoum & Belle, 2004; Law & Labre, 2002; Leit, Pope, & Gray, 2001; Lorenzen, Grieve, & Thomas, 2004; Pope et al., 1999; Quart, 2003; Weinke, 1998), lean (Cafri & Thompson, 2004; Davis, Brewer, & Weinstein, 1993; Law & Labre, 2002; Spitzer, Henderson, & Zivian, 1999) and polished in appearance (Entwistle, 2004; Hatoum & Belle, 2004; Nixon, 1996) even though that image does not reflect societal norms (Jones, Vigfusdottir, & Lee, 1998; Kimmel & Messner, 2001) or average male body size (Cohn & Adler, 1992; Spitzer et al., 1999). This cultural ideal is presented consistently to men in advertising as well as other forms of mass media, much as the female ideal that has been established for decades. Idealized images come from television, movies, magazine covers, advertisements, promotional displays, and other media traditionally utilizing attractive individuals. Based on the vast amount of idealized images encountered per day it would seem only natural that a man would begin to evaluate one’s self worth against that ideal.

Social comparison studies of men show that comparison of the self to these idealized images can result in lowered satisfaction in one’s appearance (Davis, Brewer, et al., 1993; Vartanian, Giant, & Passino, 2001). Male bodily satisfaction may be affected by directly comparing the physical self with an idealized image. This research is consistent with published accounts of female self-evaluation with socially constructed ideals. Most of the research previously conducted on advertising, including it’s effect on bodily satisfaction, has focused on females (Cameron & Ferraro, 2004; Dodd et al., 1989; Ford, LaTour, & Lundstrum, 1991; Hall & Crum, 1994; Malkin, Wornian, & Christler, 1999; Sullivan & O’Connor, 1988; Tiggeman &
McGill, 2004; Venkatesan & Losco, 1975), and those including men were most often for comparison effect only (Fejes, 1989; Zank, Youts, & Stutts, 2005).

This increased pressure on men to conform to an ideal body and appearance can be seen in various consumer trends. The number of cosmetic surgeries performed on men, diet products/growth products advertised to men, appearance management products geared towards male beauty, and male health/lifestyle magazines have all increased over time (Farnham, 1996; Featherstone, 1998; Naude, 2000; Radice, 1997). Increased consumption by men of products and services in the appearance management area can be directly related to these changes in male vanity (Craik, 1994; Luciano, 2001). While all of these products had existed in the past there seems to be a stronger emphasis in men to actively manage their appearance. This increase in attention to the physical self has created a movement towards researching the male body in the academic literature (Cohane & Pope, 2001).

Researchers for several decades now have called for more research on the male image in contemporary society (Courtney & Whipple, 1983; Kervin, 1990; Klassen, Jasper, & Schwartz, 1993; Kolbe & Albanese, 1997; Morgan, 1993; Petrie et al., 1996; White & Gillett, 1994; Yale & Gully, 1988). Even today there are gaps in the published research on the area of the male body, masculine attractiveness, and advertising featuring male figures (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004; Botta, 2003; Cafri & Thompson, 2004; Still, 2003; Gottschall, 1999; Law & Labre, 2002; Rohlinger, 2002; Thompson, 2000; Vartanian et al., 2001; Zank et al., 2005). There is an obvious lack of new and creative empirical research on the male body and male imagery in America. Numerous books have been published discussing the topic of the male body, but they do not provide new evidence in this field (Bordo, 1999; Boyreau, 2004; Dutton, 1995; LaFrance, 2000). This research will fill in some of those gaps existing in the literature and expand upon the research of others in various fields of academics related to advertising and appearance.

This study will utilize only advertisements focused specifically at a male target market located within men’s lifestyle magazines, namely Esquire and Gentlemen’s Quarterly (GQ). These magazines have a defined male target market; therefore the advertisements are aimed at a predominantly male market. Images of male gender roles in advertisements aimed at men are more traditional than advertisements produced for women or a general audience (MacKinnon, 2003; Skelly & Lundstrom, 1981). Keeping this male target market focus allows this research to examine the interests of men since the readers who consume these magazines share common
interests and cultural sensibilities (Osgerby, 2003). Advertisers utilize cultural meanings to reach men in order to promote appearance management products since gender is a significant factor in advertising design (Holbrook & Stern, 1997; Kolbe & Albanese, 1997; Meyers-Levy & Sternthal, 1991; Palan, Areni, & Keiker, 1999; Vigoritto & Curry, 1990).

The key factors currently being studied include the number of appearance management advertisements, the level of dress and body shape of the models, and the use of sexualized imagery of men to appeal to male consumers in American society from 1965 – 2005. *Esquire* and *GQ* were chosen as the content source since they have a high circulation rate and an extended publication life. *Details* and *Maxim* have a younger target audience so they will be compared with the main study results to test the possible scope of the results collected (Zank et al., 2005). The popularity of these magazines provides evidence of the overall acceptance of the images presented in these magazines (Gottschall, 1999).

The first purpose is to examine the position that men have been paying more attention to their personal grooming habits over time. With the creation of the term ‘Metrosexual’ by Simpson (1994) there has been heightened awareness of male attention to appearance. Television shows like “Queer Eye for the Straight Guy”, the notoriety of the modern male models, athletes known for their appearance as much as their athletic prowess such as Dennis Rodman and David Beckham, and the expansion of male grooming aids past simple shaving products (i.e. male hair dyes, wrinkle reducing moisturizers, makeup) show how the male attitude towards appearance has changed in recent years. Despite the seemingly obvious contemporary shift towards a more image conscious male there is limited empirical investigation about the topic.

This new image conscious male needs to consume the products presented through advertising in order to create his ideal self (Rohlinger, 2002). Increases in the amount of personal appearance management products advertised to the general population show support for the claim that there is an increased desire by American men to purchase these products (Fowles, 1996). Retailers and manufacturers must be aware of the consumer demand for image related products also they should understand how to reach this consumer in order to increase sales and expand their product assortments. Increased product selection without increased consumer interest will lead to increased competition for the current market segment.
The second aspect of the study is to evaluate the body shape of the male body used to symbolize the ideal male physique in American society. Many authors directly state that the muscular mesomorphic (and even hyper-mesomorphic) male body has recently become the male ideal utilized in print advertising (Hatoum & Belle, 2004; Law & Labre, 2002; Leit, Pope, & Gray, 2001; Lorenzen et al., 2004; Pope, Phillips, & Olivardia, 2000; Quart, 2003; Weinke, 1998), as well as society in general (Davis, Brewer, et al., 1993; Tucker, 1983). This statement often comes without empirical evidence and is stated as an a priori fact, even though research dating back to the 1960s has shown this to be the favored body type for males (Dibiase & Hjelle, 1968; Lavrakas, 1975; Staffieri, 1967). There have been a few studies supporting the evolution of muscular male body types in advertising over time (Law & Labre, 2002; Petrie et al., 1996), and this study seeks to expand on this body of knowledge.

The third purpose of this study is to evaluate the level of dress/exposure of male models utilized in print advertising. Few researchers demonstrate that the level of male bodily exposure has increased over time. Soley and Kurzbard (1986), as well as Soley and Reid (1988), found that the level of “sexy dressed” males and “sexually clad” males in magazine advertisements increased between 1964-1984. Both studies used a four level category system to evaluate level of dress. The Soley and Kurzbard (1986) system places images into categories based on a set of rules rather than reflecting the actual level of dress. This research will continue to use that scale, but also produce a new scale that more adequately reflects the level of exposure rather than the number of instances per category.

The final aspect of this study is to analyze the role of the male figure in advertising over time. Advertising using male models in magazines has a long history. The use of these male models seems to have changed over the last few decades. The use of male sexuality (or eroticism) is one the newest mechanisms for reaching consumers in modern advertising (Dudley, 1999; Entwistle, 2004; Gill et al., 2003; Hatoum & Belle, 2004; Jobling, 2003; Kervin, 1990; Nichter & Nichter, 1991; Nixon, 1997; Posner, 1984/1990; Rohlinger, 2002; Simpson, Horton, & Brown, 1996; Sullivan, 1988). While researchers have focused specifically on particular sexual images of men in advertising, empirical studies of generalized imagery using male models are rare (Kervin, 1990; Reichert, Lambiase, Morgan, Carstarphen, & Zavoina, 1999; Rohlinger, 2002; Thompson, 2000).
Skelly and Lundstrom (1981) found “sexist” ads featuring men increased between 1959-1979 in men’s magazines while Kolbe and Albanese (1997) found that men were used for their aesthetic features, but were rarely shown as decorative in their study of men’s magazines from 1993. Both studies used the term, decorative, in its analysis of the sexual nature of ads. This basic system used to classify sexual depictions is an area of concern (Klassen et al., 1993).

The ambiguous term ‘decorative’ is used to classify the role of a model that has no direct relation to the product being shown. According to Kolbe and Albanese (1997) “Males can be shown in ads for decorative purposes, to give a testimonial, wear the advertiser’s product, demonstrate the product’s use, or consume the product” (p. 816). Defining the term ‘decorative’ is very important to the findings since someone shown wearing a product is not deemed decorative since they are performing a function, but the wearing of the apparel can be, in fact, quite sexual while standing next to a product (therefore decorative) does not necessarily imply the image is sexual.

The overarching goal of exploring gender-targeted advertising utilizing idealized male imagery is to support the idea that the influence of the media, especially advertising, has brought noticeable changes to male interest in grooming practices and appearance management by affecting societal opinions on masculinity and gender roles. These changes have presented manufacturers and retailers with new opportunities to increase sales and profits within the male market. Many researchers have presented evidence linking popular culture with social change especially as it applies to gender, self-concept, and consumption (Barthel, 1988; Busby & Leichty, 1993; Englis, Solomon, & Ashmore, 1994; Fejes, 1989; Gottschall, 1999; Kellner, 1995; Kimmel & Messner, 2001; Klassen et al., 1993; Plous & Neptune, 1997; Silverstein, Perdue, Peterson, & Kelly, 1986; Thompson, 2000; Thompson & Hirschman, 1995; Vartanian et al., 2001). Advertising is an important aspect of mass media and popular culture. Print advertising in particular contains a wealth of information about a particular time period (Belk & Pollay, 1985).

The advertisements that are utilized during a particular time period show what types of products were available to the consumer at any given time. This study will analyze the amount and types of advertisements that were used to entice men to purchase appearance management products. One of the main goals of advertising is to increase product awareness in order to increase sales in the marketplace. In order to establish this link between magazine advertising
and male appearance management (and therefore potential appearance management product sales), the following hypotheses will be tested.

H1 (a): There will be an increase in the number of appearance management product advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

H1 (b-c): There will be changes in the appearance management product categories of advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

H2 (a-b): There will be an increase in the level of exposure for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

H3 (a-d): There will be a change in “idealized” body type for men, moving to a more lean and muscular V-shape for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

H4 (a-d): There will be an increase in the use of the sexualized male body in the advertisements (measured based on judging criteria) found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

H5: The results of the content analysis of Esquire and GQ in 2000 and 2005 will be comparable to the results of the analysis of Details and Maxim.

Significance: This study will add to the body of literature on male appearance management practices, male consumption of appearance management products, and the use the idealized male body in advertising. The changing status of male acceptance of appearance management products will be discussed in relation to the manufacturing and retailing of men’s products. Also, results will be compared to previously published studies on the use of male models in advertisements, as well as providing several new methods of data collection in this area.

Scope: This study was limited to the magazines collected over a particular time period. The results will apply mainly to the target market of the selected magazines not necessarily society in general.

Limitations: There are a limited number of magazines selected per time period. Also, the reliability and accuracy of the coders will be tested through statistical analysis, but errors in judgment as well as record keeping could affect the final results.
Assumptions: It is assumed that the selected magazines, *Esquire* and *GQ*, represent one specific strata in society. It must also be assumed that products which are advertised in these magazines reflect the products that are desired, and used, by men during those particular time periods being studied.

Definitions:

Appearance management - “The decorative nature of clothes and other forms of appearance modification for purposes of display, attraction, or aesthetic expression” (Kaiser, 1990, p. 16).

Body image - “The perceptions a consumer has of his/her body, and these perceptions are conditioned by a field of social relationships, cultural ideals, normative prescriptions, and moralistic meanings regarding self-control and discipline.” (Thompson & Hirschman, 1995, p. 150)

Erotic male - “Erotic images of men. The erotic male represents a physical and sexual ideal, whereby an attractive, muscular man is placed on display” (Rohlinger, 2002, p. 15).

Idealized image - “The cultural ideal of physical attractiveness considering the importance of being physically fit, slim, and physically attractive” (Thornton & Maurice, 1997, p. 435).

Masculinity – “What a culture expects of its men” (Craig, 1992, p. 3).

Men’s lifestyle magazine - “Magazines are directed at a general population, but many of the ads, stories, and products are focused towards a mainly male audience” (Gottschall, 1999, p. 18).

Personal appearance - “The entire range of visual elements that may lead to perceptions of beauty – that is, such aspects of physical attractiveness and adornment as facial form and
expression, body shape and posture, makeup, hairstyle, jewelry, and clothing.” (Schindler & Holbrook, 1993, p. 550)

Sexualized advertisement - “Mediated messages containing sexual information with the persuasive purpose of selling branded goods” (Reichert et al., 1999, p.9).

“Judging from our advertisements, products, and best sellers that deluge us daily, we are a nation of slaves. We are obsessed with being thin, beautiful, young, and sexy, and we will go to extraordinary lengths to approach those ideals” (Berscheid, Walster, & Bohrnstedt, 1973, p. 119).

The purpose of this study is to use printed advertisements to gauge the acceptance of appearance management products for men in America from 1965-2005. The prevalence of the advertising of such products, along with the imagery used to sell these items, will be analyzed to measure if there has been a heightened awareness of appearance management products for men over time. A measurable increase in appearance management advertising over time would lead the researcher to believe that the merchandising and sale of men’s beauty products would have to increase due to this consumer demand.

Three major theories will be employed in this research project. The base will be collective selection to account for the overall changes that have occurred in dress and grooming practices for men. The theory of symbolic interaction will be used to substantiate the influence of culture on appearance management choices. Social comparison theory will be used to establish the influence that the images used in advertising have on men.

The imagery utilized in an advertisement, especially for appearance management products, is intended to create a connection between the product and implied associations to attractiveness, power, and masculinity. Often the use of an attractive male model is used to create this association. The idealized nature of the male model is meant to imbue the advertised product with the ability to increase current masculine ideals. Issues arise over the use of attractive male bodies placed on display for other men because of the implied homoerotic nature of the imagery, but the practice continues to be utilized by advertisers, especially of appearance management products.

Male appearance management products are a perfect example of the power of retailers and manufacturers to turn men into consumers through advertising. Females used to be the major target for household products and appearance management products, but over time men
have become more of a focus in the marketplace. Increases in beauty product sales have come from the expansion into new consumer markets, especially the male market. Societal changes, often promoted through the media, have made this market expansion possible by creating a desire in men to improve their appearance.

Theoretical Bases

Collective Selection

Collective selection as described by Blumer (1969) is a fashion leadership theory that suggests individuals make a collective decision based on the stimuli that is presented to the group as a whole. According to the theory, certain individuals known as “cultural gatekeepers” (ex. designers, buyers, celebrities, advertisers) facilitate the introduction of a limited number of choices for public consumption. These individuals are influenced by the same stimuli as the entire culture, but have a position that allows them to be the first filter for all the available options that exist.

Fashion, in this case male appearance management, is a form of collective group behavior. “Fashion is a dynamic phenomenon that inextricably links aesthetics, culture, economics, and everyday social life” (Kaiser, Nagasawa, & Hutton, 1995, p. 172). Different styles or concepts compete for social acceptance at any individual time period (Roach-Higgins & Eicher, 1992; Simmel, 1904/ 1981). Social conformity occurs across several social levels at the same time. Different age groups and socio-economic levels may respond differently to stimuli, but essentially have access to the same types of products. Based on the zeitgeist of the time certain particular ideas gain popular acceptance (Kaiser et al., 1995; Sproles, 1981).

Collective selection requires individuals to choose from these pre-selected competing choices guided by personal taste and individuality (Nicholson, 1997; Thompson & Haytko, 1997). However, this personal taste is often influenced by the collective cultural taste created from social interaction in a complex world of various types of stimuli (Woodward & Emmison, 2001). General societal opinion accompanied by media images shape the collective public opinion (Englis et al., 1994; Frith, 1997; Jhally, 1995; Kellner, 1995; Nichter & Nichter, 1991; Plous & Neptune, 1997; Vartanian et al., 2001), which in turn directly affects personal taste.
Advertising is a representation of culture that can directly affect the ways in which people view themselves as well as others especially when it comes to style and attractiveness (Nichter & Nichter, 1991). These advertising images create cultural constructions of attractiveness (Englis et al., 1994), as well as cultural constructions of gender roles (Kacen, 2000; Kervin, 1990; Morris & Cundiff, 1971; Pascoe, 2003; Vigorito & Curry, 1998) based on the imagery produced. This meaning is fluid and changes with societal opinions continuously influenced by “cultural gatekeepers” (Englis et al., 1994; Featherstone, 1991; Thompson & Haykto, 1997), but must reflect consumer demand as well (McCracken, 1986; Pannabecker, 1997).

Symbolic Interaction

“The impact of clothing on social perception processes as a factor in how people perceive others is generally accepted” according to Lennon and Burns (1993). Several researchers have provided evidence supporting the symbolic nature of clothing and appearance in social interactions as well as the semiotic nature of appearance itself (Barnard, 1996; Bell, 1991; Berscheid et al., 1973, Hunt & Miller, 1997; Lennon, Rudd, Sloan, & Kim, 1999; Kaiser, 1990; Salusso-Dionier, Markee, & Pederson, 1991; Rudd, 1996; Staffieri, 1967; Stone, 1962/1965; Tucker, 1983; Woodruffe-Burton, 1998). Leaders in the usage of the symbolic interaction paradigm, as it applied to dress studies, debated the basic principles of the theory in an attempt to formalize its usage in cultural studies of appearance (Nagasawa, Hutton, & Kaiser, 1991; Kaiser, 1990; Kaiser et al., 1995; Hamilton, 1997; Kaiser, Nagasawa, & Hutton, 1997; Kean, 1997; Pannabecker, 1997).

Davis (1985) dealt with this concept of symbolic interaction when stating, “We know that through clothing people communicate some things about their persons and at the collective level this results typically in locating them symbolically in some structured universe of status claims and life-style attachments” (p. 16). The choice of clothing, accessories, and overall self-presentation is formulated based upon the desire to present one’s self in a particular manner (Wattanasuwan, 2005). These choices are purposively manipulated based upon each unique situation. “Communication makes an individual into a member of a community, communication as ‘social interaction through messages’ constitutes an individual as a member of a group” (Barnard, 1996, p. 29).
This concept of assigning characteristics to an individual based on appearance codes is dependent on context and location and therefore unstable (Barnard, 1996; Davis, 1982). Care must be taken when researching this type of coding and attribution based on the time dependent nature of cultural sensibilities. “Meanings that a person attributes to various outward characteristics of dress are based on his/her socialization within a particular cultural context as well as in the improvisations the person exercises when applying learned meanings of dress within specific social situations” (Roach-Higgins & Eicher, 1992, p.33).

Advertising imagery often reinforces this connection of appearance to cultural values and group formation. The individual components of the ad create continuity between the image provided and common cultural reference points. Signs cannot exist without the cultural codes needed for the receiver to process the information, therefore, the imagery must be context dependent (Wren-Lewis, 1983). Advertising and its symbolic elements (Domzan & Kernan, 1993; Scott, 1994) are an important part of the symbolic nature of personal appearance and interaction in American society by giving people common reference points for the evaluation of self and others.

**Social Comparison**

According to Festinger (1954) self-evaluation is often done with respect to our evaluations of others. In order to create an accurate evaluation of the self one should compare themselves to similar individuals. Martin and Kennedy (1993) broke down Festinger’s original theory into three key components. The first is that people have a drive to evaluate their own opinions and abilities. Second, in the absence of objective bases for comparison, this need can be satisfied by social comparison with other people. Lastly, social comparisons will, when possible, be made with similar others is the final aspect.

This original theory applied to abilities and social opinions in particular, but has been expanded to include personal traits and lifestyle systems (Richins, 1991; Wood, 1989). Modern researchers have expanded the scope of this original theory to include the possibility that individuals may compare themselves with others who are not in fact similar, but at a status or attractiveness level above themselves such as idealized images in advertisements (Belk & Pollay,
Studies involving male reactions to idealized imagery (which are much rarer than female studies) are often conducted by rating self-esteem before exposure to attractive individuals and comparing those ratings to data collected after the viewing (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004). These studies often show a decrease in self-esteem and/or body satisfaction after the exposure (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004; Grogan et al., 1996; Leit, Gray, & Pope, 2002; Lorenzen et al., 2004). Grogan, Williams, and Connor (1996) evaluated the reactions of both male and female college students to idealized images and found that both groups showed a decrease in self-esteem after viewing the images. Lorenzen, Grieve, and Thomas (2002) conducted a similar study on college males only and produced the same results of lowered body satisfaction after viewing the idealized male bodies.

Studies on male reactions to idealized imagery focus on muscularity rather than bodily self esteem since they are inherently different. One can be satisfied with their overall body composition while still having the sense that they are not muscular enough. Leit, Gray, and Pope (2002) focused exclusively on college male’s own perceived muscularity in relation to the level which they would ideally like to have. The college students who viewed images of muscular males showed a significantly greater discrepancy between these two factors than did the control group showing the effect of self-comparison to an ideal image. Agliata and Tantleff-Dunn (2002) performed a similar type of experiment and also found higher levels of muscle dissatisfaction in college males after viewing idealized muscular male bodies.

Results of various types of studies suggest a direct relation between the images in advertising / magazine content and how men view themselves by analyzing the content of magazines (Anderson & DiDomenico, 1992; Gottschall, 1999; Kervin, 1990; White & Gillett, 1994) or by studying men’s reactions to the content of magazines (Hatoum & Belle, 2004; Jones, Stanaland, & Gelb, 1998). This connection can be expanded to show a relation between viewing of advertisements and how one chooses to present his self in social situations. Personal appearance management decisions may be based upon this self-comparison to images in men’s magazines and the advertisements within them.
Analysis of Advertising Towards Male Consumers

Interpreting the individual elements of an advertisement provides insight into the symbolic messages being presented to the target audience (Barthel, 1988; Belk & Pollay, 1985; Courtney & Whipple, 1983; DePelsmacker & Van Den Bergh, 1996; Domzal & Kernan, 1993; Fowles, 1996; Jhally, 1995; McQuarrie & Mick, 1999; Pope, Voges, & Brown, 2004; Scott, 1994; Vezina & Paul, 1997; Williamson, 1978). Lifestyle, social status, and desirability can be demonstrated through the use of visual imagery in an advertisement (Settle & Alreck, 1987). Showing idealized models living in idealized social situations often performs this connection (Belk & Pollay, 1985). Symbolically, people can represent human traits and qualities based on the imagery utilized in the advertisement (Kolbe & Albanese, 1997). In this case the target audience being explored is male consumers and the stimulus is the use of a male model.

Men and women have been shown to respond differently to various advertising stimuli (Palan et al., 1999). Males tend to exhibit little processing of visual elements in an advertisement (Meyers-Levy & Sternthal, 1991). One aspect of an advertisement that is easily noticed is the gender of the individual/individuals utilized in the advertising imagery. Most analysis of male consumers is their reaction to female models (Chestnut, LaChance, & Lubitz, 1977; Jones, Stanaland, et al., 1998; Peterson & Kerin, 1977; Reid & Soley, 1983; Reidenbach & McCleary, 1983; Severn, Belch & Belch, 1990; Simpson et al., 1996).

The results from a study by Reid and Soley (1983) found that the value of any individual advertisement for gaining a male viewer’s attention moves from a female model alone, to a female model and male model together, to a male model alone. Reidenbach and McCleary (1983) and Simpson, Horton, and Brown (1996) found that females reported a higher level of liking (and a more positive reaction) for an advertisement featuring a male model than did males. Men prefer the use of decorative female models more than decorative male models (Jones, Stanaland, et al., 1998; Simpson et al., 1996). The usage of attractive models (of either gender) in advertising is usually shown to increase the effectiveness of an advertisement regardless of the gender of the viewer (Baker & Churchill, 1977), but some research has found otherwise (Cabellero, Lumpkin, & Madden, 1989).
Advertising is changing by becoming more complex and provocative in order to get people’s attention (Nicholson, 1997). Advertisers searching for a way to stand out have been using more overt sexual appeals (Peterson & Kerin, 1977; Reichert et al., 1999; Severn et al., 1990; Zank et al., 2005) and increased the use of provocative imagery (DePelsmacker & Van Der Bergh, 1996; Pope et al., 2004; Venzina & Paul, 1997). One method of gaining the viewer’s attention is the use of a sexy male model. This attention is necessary to effectively increase the product’s sales in the market since it is the key reason for the advertising campaign.

The male model used in advertisements (especially when aimed at women) is shown as young, unmarried, fit, and available (Sullivan, 1988). These sexualized images are meant to appeal to women as well as the “new male” consumer (Rohlinger, 2002). The use of a sexualized male model is currently on the rise, even in advertisements geared towards men (Gill et al., 2003; Hatoum & Belle, 2004; MacKinnon, 2003; Posner, 1984/1990; Rohlinger, 2002; Zank et al., 2005). Consumers often accept male nudity when it is logically connected to the product being shown (Simpson et al., 1996). Too little nudity or too much nudity involving a male model can reduce the effectiveness of an advertisement, so the seductive level of nudity is considered to be the most acceptable (Reidenbach & McCleary, 1983).

Some consumers may find the use of nudity offensive because of its exploitative nature even though there has been a loosening of cultural standards in the last few decades (Dudley, 1999). A study by Jones, Stanaland, and Gelb (1998) found that men did not show direct disapproval of provocatively displayed male bodies. Often this approval is accomplished through a normalization of the image where a naturalistic or purposeful representation is presented (Griffin, 1995). There is a sense that men are not accustomed to being exploited and have used traditional values of masculine power and identity to offset the sexual nature of the imagery. For this reason men are not affected by the use of “beefcake”, and therefore, not offended by advertisements with idealized male bodies. Simpson, Horton, and Brown (1996) warn that advertisers should avoid male nudity in ads targeting men, although published research indicates otherwise.

In regards to female opinion on male nudity a study of college females by Kenin (1993) found that there were no significant negative attitudes towards advertisements featuring partially clad male models over fully clad male models. Simpson, Horton, and Brown (1996) and Jones,
Stanaland, and Gelb (1998) found women were not offended by advertising featuring a scantily clad male model.

**Male Imagery in Advertising**

There is an inherent masculinity issue in the use of the male body in visual imagery (Dyer, 1982; Mulvey, 1975). Males are traditionally considered the active viewer with females being the passively viewed (Mulvey, 1975). When the male is made to be a sexual spectacle it upsets the terms of active/passive viewing in American society. In addition, when male sexuality is created for a heterosexual male audience there are further complications. The following will discuss masculinity issues as they relate to male sexuality in print media.

Vanska (2005) studied the lesbian viewing of lesbian themed advertisements aimed at the heterosexual market. She claimed that the traditional analysis method would be decoded through narcissism with the idea that the heterosexual feminine woman was looking at the feminine model in order to confirm her own identity or to copy the feminine model’s look. This narcissistic model can be applied to how heterosexual men view images of heterosexual men in advertisements (although Vanska feels all looking is sexual in nature). Nixon (1996) coded this as a masculine – masculine look based on the narcissistic register of the look so the “male reader was literally invited to buy into the “look” of the model” (p.178).

The viewing is therefore not sexual in nature, but in fact an evaluation of the image in relation to the self. The rejection of the enjoyment of the male body by heterosexual men is usually allowed due to the explicit references to male dominance, power, and of course heterosexuality in the image which can in fact celebrate and reinforce hegemonic masculinity (Bordo, 1999; Gottschall, 1999; Jobling, 2003; Kervin, 1990; MacKinnon, 2003; Neale, 1983; Nixon, 1996; Still, 2003; Vigoritto & Curry, 1998; White & Gillett, 1994). The male models are often requested to perform heterosexual masculinity through poses, gestures, and appearance in order to create “hyper-masculine” images (Entwistle, 2004) perhaps to distance these images from the fact that this particular form of imagery grew from the gay subculture into the mainstream (Gill et al., 2003; Harris, 1997; Moore, 1989; Posner, 1984/1990).

The positioning of the male body in art has consistently linked the male body with power and masculinity (Bronski, 1998; Campbell & Griffith, 1994; Griffin, 1995). Photographed
images of men typically follow the same pattern. According to Dyer (1982) “The male image still promises activity by the way the body is posed. Even in an apparently relaxed supine pose, the model tightens and taughtens his body so that the muscles are emphasized, hence drawing attention to the body’s potential for action” (p. 67.) Muscularity and its symbolic association with power, allows the male body to deflect passivity and therefore objectification. In addition, the male in traditional imagery tends to avoid eye contact with the viewer (a disavowal of being looked at) or looks directly at the viewer (in order to keep a commanding presence) almost as if looking through the boundaries of the photograph to re-establish masculine power. Other researchers have supported these claims as applied to males in advertisements (Kervin, 1990; Moore, 1989; Posner, 1984/1990; Triggs, 1993).

This new method of employing sexual masculinity in advertising is indeed a contrast to the traditional masculinity of the individualistic male such as the Marlboro cowboy (Hirschman, 2003; Kacen, 2000). Men less frequently appear in stereotypically “manly” activities and are more often decorative in nature (Skelly & Lundstrom, 1981). Sexualized imagery of men is on the increase (Courtney & Whipple, 1983; Gill et al., 2003; Hatoum & Belle, 2004; MacKinnon, 2003; Reidenbach & McCleary, 1983; Posner, 1984/1990; Rohlinger, 2002; Simpson et al., 1996; Soley & Reid, 1988; Zank et al., 2005). Some have gone so far as to describe this new sexualized male as feminine/effeminate in nature or even as sexually ambiguous (Rohlinger, 2002; Sullivan, 1988; Zank et al., 2005).

Authors that have written on the use of the male body in advertising often recognize the Calvin Klein advertisements of the early 1980s as changing the nature of the industry (Bordo, 1999; Bronski, 1998; Craik, 1994; Jobling, 2003; Kervin, 1990; Lakoff & Scherr, 1984; Lippert, 1999; Meers, 2003; Quart, 2003; Sullivan, 1988). Not only did these campaigns promote the use of the male body to sell products they helped define the ideal male physique. The male ideal body type in advertising is mesomorphic, which is often referred to simply as a muscular body type (Entwistle, 2004; Gillet & White, 1992; Hatoum & Belle, 2004; Lakoff & Scherr, 1984; Law & Labre, 2002; Leit, Pope, et al., 2002; Lorenzen et al., 2004; Quart, 2003). That body type traditionally has wide shoulders tapering down to a narrow waist. This ideal also is lean (Cafri & Thompson, 2004; Davis, Shapiro, et al., 1993; Law & Labre, 2002; Spitzer et al., 1999) which emphasizes youth and virility (Glynn, 1982) as well as allowing for more defined musculature to be presented (Weinke, 1998).
Although there seems to be myriad evidence that sexualized male imagery utilizing the muscular male body is on the rise very little of these assertions are based on empirical evidence (Kolbe & Albanese, 1997; Law & Labre, 2002; Rohlinger, 2002; Thompson, 2000; Zank et al., 2005). Most of the published research on idealized male bodies comes from content analysis of print media over time. A large majority of those studies use all available male images in the sample pool rather than just look at advertisements. Only the Gottschall (1999) study focused completely on advertisements.

Petrie et al. (1996) content analyzed all types of male models in *Esquire* and *GQ* magazines between 1960 and 1992. Images were selected only if the man was shirtless or wearing a tight fitting t-shirt. They found waist-to-shoulder/ chest-to-waist ratios of male models (not necessarily just advertisements) have not changed substantially from 1960 to 1992 showing a continuity of body type (what would be considered mesomorphic) although the masculinity of models was not measured. The study by Gottschall (1999) found that a majority of male models analyzed in *Esquire* and *GQ* magazine advertisements had the mesomorphic body type with an increase between 1987 and 1997 in both publications although masculinity was also not specifically measured.

An analysis of *Playgirl* centerfold models from 1973 to 1997 by Leit, Pope, and Gray (2001) found that the ideal male body has become more muscular over the years, especially during the 1990s. Law and Labre (2002) found increases in the presentation of lean muscular male images especially the categories of ‘somewhat muscular’ and ‘very muscular’ images (peaking in the 1980s), a decrease in body fat levels of the men, and support for the increased prevalence of the V-shaped physique as the most common body type from 1967-1997. These results came from a content analysis of *Sports Illustrated, Rolling Stone*, and *GQ* magazines that included all male images presented in the magazine, and not specifically in regards to advertising.

Studies of advertising content in magazines using male models traditionally analyzed sexualized content through the analysis of the level of exposure/ type of dress of the models. Soley and Reid (1988) content analyzed the type of dress being worn by male and female advertisement models in 1964 and 1984. The levels of dress were [1] demurely dressed (everyday dress), [2] suggestively dressed (more exposed skin, see-through clothing), [3] partially clad (bathing suits, underwear, bare shoulders “in close ups”), and [4] nude (unclothed,
silhouettes, models in towels). Between 1964 and 1984 in men’s magazines, in this case *Esquire* and *Playboy*, the number of ads featuring “sexy” dressed male models (those above level 1) increased, but were not utilized nearly as much in advertisements featuring another male of female model.

Soley and Kurzbard (1986) conducted a study of sexual advertisements featuring men and women in contemporary magazines (*Time, Newsweek, Cosmopolitan, Redbook, Esquire, and Playboy*). Utilizing a coding of dress level, interaction of models, and text the researchers measured the levels of sexual advertising between 1964 and 1984. The findings show that while the amount of sexual ads did not increase the explicitness of the content did increase. In addition the 1984 ads were more likely to depict sexually clad males than 1964, but much less frequently than female models.

Reichert et al. (1999) followed the same model as Soley and Kurzbard (1986) in assigning level of dress to male models and utilized the same magazines from 1983 and 1993. This research also found an increase in the level of explicit dress for men in these magazine advertisements. Reichert and Carpenter (2004) continued the research to include 2003 issues of the selected magazines and found that the level of explicit dress for men had leveled off between 1993 and 2003. Zank, Youts, and Stutts (2005) also followed the same model as Soley and Kurzbard (1988), and including results gathered from Reichert et al. (1999), found that the amount of partially clad male models increased from 1964 to 1993 and remained constant in 2003, while the use of suggestively clad male models increased continually from 1964 to 2003.

Looking specifically at the role of male models in advertisements shows a variety of methods utilized. Skelly and Lundstrom (1981) used a feminist based five level system for rating sexism. Looking at male roles in nine magazines (*Esquire, Field and Stream, and Sports Illustrated* as the men’s magazines) decorative male models were classified as level 1 sexist. This level 1 category increased between 1959 and 1979 in all magazines, but was the lowest in the men’s magazines.

Kolbe and Albanese (1997) analyzed men’s magazines to see how sole-male images in advertisements were being presented to men in *Business Week, Esquire, GQ, Playboy, Rolling Stone, and Sports Illustrated* during the year 1997. Again, the decorative role (ornamental or not directly related to the product) was being analyzed amongst others. The authors found that the decorative role was not common, but did exist within men’s interest magazines.
Thompson (2000) utilized the concept of ‘sexual appeal’ when analyzing GQ magazine advertisements from 1964 - 1994. Sexual appeal was defined as “revealing, nude, disclosing, divulging, displaying, exhibiting or bearing” (p. 179). There were no explicit images of men found in GQ before 1984 when 37 examples were located. This number increased in 1994.

Rohlinger (2002) studied the use of the ‘erotic male’ in advertisements in men’s interest magazines (Sports Illustrated, Men’s Health, Popular Mechanics, GQ, and Business Week) from 1987 – 1997. The erotic male was one of nine categories created by the author and was described as “a physical and sexual ideal, whereby an attractive, muscular man is placed on display” (p. 62). The study results showed that use of sexualized male imagery has proliferated in men’s magazines with the “erotic male” being the largest category of advertising images of men in 1987 and 1997.

This small body of research points to trends in a muscular body type for men in the visual media and the use of men in decorative roles in advertisements. The various methods employed in the collection of this research does not allow for direct comparisons amongst the studies. Utilizing various components of these studies in the collection of data will allow for expanding upon this research and a comparison of these results to the modern magazines of 2005.

Male Appearance Management

Consumerism

In consumer society males are now occupying the same position that was once exclusively female (Featherstone, 1982; Luciano, 2001; MacKinnon, 2003). “Advertisers soon began to suggest to men that they too might consume for the same reason women did: because goods made them feel more successful at what they did, because goods made them look better and feel better” (Pendergast, 2000, p. 59). Advertising products to men can be complicated due to the differences between male and female consumers based on their unique needs and desires. Ads directed at men should stress values of the product such as performance and effectiveness in order to appeal to their sensibilities (Lakoff & Scherr, 1984). Males tend to prefer products that provide individuality, distinction, and autonomy rather than those that promote social affiliation benefits (Thompson & Haykto, 1997).
American society is a consumption-based culture (Frith, 1997; LaFrance, 2000) where consumers build their identity through the products they consume (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Domzal & Kernan, 1992; Featherstone, 1991; Kacen, 2000; Lennon et al., 1999; Rudd, 1996; Solomon, Ash, & Longo, 1992; Wattanasuwan, 2005; Woodruffe-Burton, 1998). Individuals are judged by how they look, what they drive, where they live, and other commodity based criteria. Western consumer society requires consumers to consistently purchase new products to replace old ones as aesthetic standards evolve over time even though the existing products still have functional value (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Featherstone, 1991; Kaiser et al., 1995; McCracken, 2005; Roach-Higgins & Eicher, 1992). This consumption culture works since there are a massive amount of substitute goods available for consumers to select amongst at all price levels (Kean, 1997; Sproles, 1981). Men’s increased interest in fashion and appearance has made this consumption aspect of society more influential on their lives.

Consumer society is oriented towards commodities and the social and psychological link created with those products through advertising (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Domzal & Kernan, 1993; Frith, 1997; Jhally, 1995; Kellner, 1995; Kervin, 1990; McCracken, 1988; McCracken, 2005; Nichter & Nichter, 1991; Settle & Alreck, 1987), which can lead consumers to believe that things which may seem unattainable (e.g. beauty) are actually within reach (Englis et al., 1994; Vacker & Key, 1993; Williamson, 1978). This link can often determine which products are appropriate for use by women and/or for men (Morris & Cundiff, 1971; Kacen, 2000; Kellner, 1995; Klassen et al., 1993), especially in relation to health/beauty products, apparel, and diet aides/supplements (Agiata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004; Barthel, 1988; Kintish, 1997; Mishkind et al., 1986; Tenerelli, 2001; Thompson, 2000; Vartanian et al., 2001). These cultural concepts of achievement often incorporate traditional ideas of masculine and feminine success such as fashionability, social status, wealth, physical perfection, and modernity. The idealized advertising images utilized in regards to men are often a challenge to reach the elevated level of success being displayed by the idealized male figure (Gottschall, 1999; Kervin, 1990; Thompson & Hirschman, 1995).

The ‘new man’ of the 1980s was up to the challenge of reaching an ideal lifestyle anchored by consumer products (Barthel, 1988; Craik, 1994; Crewe, 2003; La France, 2000; MacKinnon, 2003; Nixon, 1996; Osgerby, 2003). Many of these consumer products were directly related to appearance management. The taboo that men should not be interested in
fashion and looking good has been continually eroding (Barthel, 1988; Entwistle, 2004; Lakoff & Scherr, 1984). This ‘new man’ has continued to evolve over time and become increasingly engaged in the consumption process (Woodruffe-Burton, 1998). Modern male shoppers often link consumption with the masculine ideal of success (Otnes & McGrath, 2001), but may need reassurance of his maleness through masculine promotion and retail settings that allow him to hold onto traditional male values. Research has shown that sales of men’s skin care products at cosmetic counters lag behind those of pharmacies and discount stores, due mainly to the intimidation men feel in that area (Daniels, 2005). Care must be taken in promoting new products and shopping opportunities to men (Gould & Stern, 1989).

The personal care and cosmetic industry has grown for men over the last few decades as more men have shown an interest in their appearance (Kruger, 2000). Male interest in these products is growing as advertising and promotion increases. These advertisements often use the promise of increased attractiveness to women to convince men to try their products (Grimm, 2003). Men’s magazines, as well as websites, are educating men on the existence and use of these products (Mason, 2002). The men’s facial cleanser and moisturizer category continues to grow and is expected to exceed $100 million by 2014, while all facial hair products (including shaving) will be $438 million by 2008 in food, drug, and mass merchandise stores (Bittar, 2004). Sales of men’s prestige skin care products (skin care, makeup, and fragrance) rose 13% in 2004 to $59 million, showing more growth than the women’s market (Chakraborty, 2005).

Packaging, names, descriptions, and function all combine to form a positive image for men. Men look for simple, multipurpose, effective products in masculine looking packaging (Cooney-Curran, 2000; Donoghue, 2005). Both younger and older men are increasing their options when it comes to purchasing products for improving their appearance (Anonymous, 2002). In addition, men are getting plastic surgery to improve their appearance. Male plastic surgeries increased 28% in 2003 with many men claiming they elected to have the surgery to improve their professional appearance (Chang, 2004). Botox injections are also on the increase with almost 14% of the 1.5 million treatments in 2001 being performed on men (Weisul, 2002).

Clothing choice is another major aspect of male appearance. Men are now more comfortable choosing their own clothing, 69 percent of men’s sportswear is purchased by men according to one report, and have an increased interest in being in fashion (Cashill & Matteson, 2000; Fetto, 2002). Currently men’s clothing is a $49 billion industry which is on an upswing in
recent years (Lipton, 2005) with increases in tailored clothing, fleece, and sleepwear (O’Loughlin, 2005), after a few years of overall losses (Agins, 2004). Male interest has increased towards fashion items such as trendy jeans (with sales rising over $5 billion) and stylish underwear in more cuts, styles, fabrics, and colors than ever before (Anonymous, 2005). The metrosexual movement and the influence of shows such as “Queer Eye for the Straight Guy” have become apparent through the increased interest of men in such products as clothing and accessories (Agins, 2004).

Gay men often are considered a test market for new products available for men. They are considered less conservative and more adventurous in their consumption habits (Harris, 1997), more fashion forward (Rudd, 1996), and more directly involved in their looks and appearance (Sergios & Cody, 1985; Silberstein et al., 1989). The gay culture in America has had a direct influence on the consumer habits of heterosexual men in America (Cole, 2000; Luciano, 2001). Gay liberation in America and its effect on society is often examined in masculinity studies.

**Masculinity Studies**

Limited empirical studies on men have been published (Cheng, 1999; Cliff, 1999). Most discourse on males is published in books rather than in academic journals. One of the most commonly referenced books is *Manhood in America* by Michael Kimmel (1996). The book begins with the quote, “American men have no history” (p.1.) Kimmel asserts that history may be a collective documentation of the exploits of men, but seldom is the experience of manhood examined.

The concept at the center of most discourse is the term masculinity itself. Connell had created definitions of masculinity in his 1987 book *Gender and Power*. The term “hegemonic masculinity” refers to the dominant form of masculinity in a culture and is always subject to change. The hegemonic masculinity is not defined in terms of itself but rather what it is not, i.e., femininity and subordinated masculinity. Thus, traditional masculinity can only exist in relation to the concept of male dominance over others (Barthel, 1994; Cheng, 1999).

Traditional hegemonic concepts of masculinity involve a white, able-bodied, heterosexual, successful male (Cheng, 1999; Gottschall, 1999). Masculine tendencies include domination, aggressiveness, athletic prowess, stoicism, and control (Cheng, 1999; Cliff, 1999).
Modern masculinity scholarship focuses on the concept of the existence of multiple masculinities dependent on time and social situation such as hegemonic, complicit (not hegemonic but benefit from existing structures), and resistant (rejecting hegemonic masculinity) masculinities (Pascoe, 2003).

The definition of hegemonic masculinity is heavily affected by the time period for which it is being studied. On a global level the ideals of masculinity have changed. One of the causes of change was the increased power and influence of women and marginalized male subcultures (Alreck, 1994; Kervin, 1990; Mosse, 1996). Marginalized groups have peripheral, disadvantaged, or unequal membership in society (Cheng, 1999). Women, male members of minority groups, and gay men have higher incomes, greater personal freedom, and better social standing than they have held previously (Mishkind et al., 1986) which directly affects traditional masculinity in the US.

This societal improvement for other groups then influences the core concept of masculinity by altering the balance of power between men and their marginalized groups. This is especially true for the marginalized male groups. Changes within these groups coupled with general societal opinion either alters the scope of what is acceptable or creates firmer restrictions in the scope of what is deemed masculine. This can also lead to the need to worry about measuring up to traditional hegemonic masculinity (Brooks, 1995), since men are consistently scrutinizing other men in patriarchal societies (Kimmel, 2005).

Originally hegemonic masculinity was threatened by a visible gay culture because perceived effeminacy was reduced as gay men began to adopt a more masculine demeanor (Cole, 2000). There was a distancing of straight men from interest in fashion and style to avoid being considered feminine or homosexual (Craik, 1994; Freitas et al., 1997). Some heterosexual men eventually came to copy contemporary homosexual masculine styles thus making those styles commonplace and more acceptable in society (Cole, 2000). This emulation of the seemingly high maintenance grooming practices of homosexual men led to the evolution of the term, “Metrosexual”, in 1994 by Mark Simpson. It seems as though over time gay and straight men are becoming more alike with movement towards a common center (Connell, 1992; Lakoff & Scherr, 1984).

Acceptance of male options in grooming and appearance in society has led to a more flexible male identity and body image (Gottschall, 1999), especially those with non-stereotypical
personality characteristics for their gender (Alreck, 1994; Fejes, 1989; Franzoi & Herzog, 1995). Gender, unlike sex, is constructed in society through sex-role stereotypes (Kacen, 2000; Pascoe, 2003). Advertising can have a direct effect on the construction of gender norms (Kacen, 2000; Plous & Neptune, 1997; Vigorito & Curry, 1998) and thus on masculinity. With the increase in decorative idealized male bodies on display in American advertising there is an increased focus on male musculature.

Muscularity is a key component of a masculine body in America today (Weinke, 1998), to be judged by both males and females (Dyer, 1982). A muscular body is a physical representation of the power one can exert over others (Bersheid et al., 1973). Young males sometimes seek the assistance of dietary supplements or steroids in addition to exercise to achieve this bodily ideal and not appear small and weak in comparison to other men (Vartanian et al., 2001). Some researchers find bodybuilding as a mechanism of reaffirming masculine power in relation to feelings of powerlessness or inadequacy in modern society (White & Gillet, 1994). Whatever the reason for the increased muscular ideal for American men, it leads to the issue of the male body as desirable (Kimmel, 2005).

Masculine narcissism and the male ego are critical to male power and influence and keep men from being subordinated by others, even when being viewed sexually or when viewing sexualized images of other men (Gottschall, 1999; Mulvey, 1975). Males traditionally were meant to be the subjects rather than the objects of desire (Still, 2003), but this increased male narcissism allows for spectoral pleasure in recognition of the power the man can gain from being desired by women and admired by men, thus reaffirming masculinity (Bronski, 1998; Lakoff & Scherr, 1984; Neale, 1983; White & Gillet, 1994).

Body Image and Attractiveness Studies

“Decades of research have confirmed that physical attractiveness is positively related to social power, self esteem, and the receipt of positive responses from others” (Bloch & Richins, 1992, p. 3). Being attractive is socially advantageous since these people are liked more and perceived in more favorable terms than less-attractive people (Bloch & Richins, 1992; Domzal & Kernan, 1993). A majority of body image research is focused on females, but attention to male body image is increasing (Agliata & Dunn, 2004; Cafri & Thompson, 2004; Petrie et al., 1996).
American society expects women to be thin, and males are expected to be muscular (Agliata & Dunn, 2004; Hatoum & Belle, 2004; Leit et al., 2002; Lorenzen et al., 2004; Pope et al., 1999; Spitzer et al., 1999). Studies have shown the mesomorhic body type to be the most preferred of all the male body types (Staffeiri, 1967; Dibiase & Hjelle, 1968; Kirkpatrick & Sanders, 1978; Hovarth, 1981, Tucker, 1982, Butler & Ryckman, 1993; Davis, Brewer, et al., 1993; Salusso-Deonier et al., 1993; Dixson, Halliwell, East, Wignarajah, & Anderson, 2003).

There has been an assumption that body image problems are neither prevalent nor consequential for males (Drewnowski & Yee, 1987; Nemeroff, Stein, Diehl, & Smilack, 1994). Men, in fact, do experience body dissatisfaction and evaluate themselves based on how they look (Cash et al., 1986; Grogan et al., 1996; Leit, Gray, et al., 2002; Mishkind et al., 1986; Nichter & Nichter, 1991; Settle & Alreck, 1987; Silberstein et al., 1989; Thompson & Hirschman, 1995) although men have generally higher body esteem than women (Berscheid et al., 1973; Cash et al., 1986; Grogan et al., 1996). Research has shown both sides of the issue. Some researchers have found that men are generally satisfied with their bodies (Cash et al., 1986; Drewnowski & Yee, 1987; Leit, Gray, et al., 2002; Lynch & Zellner, 1999; Spitzer et al., 1999), while other researchers have found that men are generally dissatisfied with their bodies (Davis, Brewer, et al., 1993; Fallon & Rozin, 1985; Lorenzen et al., 2004; Lynch & Zellner, 1999; Rozin & Fallon, 1988). This dissatisfaction with the body was shown to have increased for men between 1972 and 1985 (Cash et al., 1986).

Both facial and bodily factors affect attractiveness ratings (Brown, Cash, & Noles, 1986). For men, the face had the strongest impact on self-esteem with chest size ranking second (Bersheid et al., 1973). The upper body is an important part of determining attractiveness of male bodies according to both men and women (Franzoi & Herzog, 1987). Men desire to have a larger chest region (Thompson & Tantleff, 1992), and men express greatest dissatisfaction towards their chest, weight, waist (Berscheid et al., 1973; Davis, Brewer, et al., 1993; Mishkind et al., 1986) and mid-torso (Cash et al., 1986). Men considered being in good physical shape to be muscular without looking like a body builder (Lakoff & Scherr, 1984). Studies of women’s preferences for the male body show a desire for a moderately muscular mesomorphic body type for men (Dixson et al., 2003; Franzoi & Herzog, 1987; Lavrakas, 1975; Lynch & Zellner, 1999).

Young men have been found to experience the most concern about their appearance (Cash et al., 1986). Young men’s perception of the ideal male body is much larger and more
muscular than the average male body or their own body (Cohn & Adler, 1992; Drewnowski & Yee, 1987; Lynch & Zellner, 1999; Mintz & Betz, 1986; Thompson & Tantleff, 1992), and they tend to underestimate their own size (Gray, 1977). When measuring musculature and fitness, males perceived a large discrepancy between their desired and current body size, only 2% of college men thought they were too muscular while 85% wanted to be more muscular (Vartanian et al., 2001).

Studies on body satisfaction tend to focus on either weight or musculature. Female body image studies had utilized weight as a major criterion of body satisfaction. When studies incorporated men they continued to focus on weight, although male body satisfaction rarely is based exclusively on weight. Focusing on weight rather than musculature when measuring male body satisfaction can cause problems with the results. For men, weight can mean increased musculature, loss of body fat to increase muscle definition, or general weight loss. While males may want to be larger, they also want a lean body (Huddy, Neiman, & Johnson, 1993; MacKinnon et al., 2003), since leanness enhances the appearance of musculature (Cafri & Thompson, 2004). Many young men desire to gain weight in studies, and it must be assumed to be musculature, since there is no consideration of musculature built into the questioning (Cohn & Adler, 1992; Lynch & Zellner, 1999; Mintz & Betz, 1986).

**Summary**

Traditional notions of masculinity in America did not allow for men to show concern for their appearance. With the increased consumption options for men the need for advertisers to create idealized male images for which men may aspire grew in importance. The men in advertisements were shown as fit and attractive by displaying the traits seen as most desirable during that time period. As these idealized male images became more extreme in their attractiveness, male self-esteem and the standards of masculine beauty began to change. The ‘new man’ of the 1980s was expected to reach a level of fitness and attractiveness that had previously been established solely for women. Consumption of products was the catalyst for this change in American culture.
CHAPTER 3
METHODOLGY

“The distinguishing characteristics of content analysis are that it must be *objective*, *systematic*, and *quantitative*” (Kassarjian, 1977, p. 9).

Content analysis is a common practice in the social sciences (Fejes, 1989; Kolbe & Burnett, 1991; Neuendorf, 2002; Roberts, 1997; Yale & Gilley, 1988). Based upon the tradition of semiology this approach encourages interpretation of text, including imagery, at multiple levels of meaning (Holbrook & Stern, 1987; Kolbe & Burnett, 1991). In relation to advertisements this means looking at the visual components as important sources of symbolic information in addition to the promotion of the product being advertised (McQuarrie & Mick, 1999). Advertising is considered an important historical record for analysis of society as it denotes standards and ideals within a society at a given time (Belk & Pollay, 1985; Gottschall, 1999; White & Gillett, 1994). Analysis of these media images is a useful manner for observing social changes in a society (Busby & Leichty, 1993).

The process of content analysis can be broken down into four major steps [1] determining the sample to be evaluated, [2] determine the unit of measurement (coding schemes), [3] training of judges and collection of data, and [4] statistical analysis of results (Kassarjian, 1977). The unit of measurement selected depends on the type of content being analyzed. There are three main forms of meaning to be drawn from the study of advertisements. Those include [1] manifest content – the discreet elements of the visual content, [2] latent content – inference of meaning based on the pattern of elements in the visual content, and [3] projective latent content – the way in which people construct personal judgments based on content cues (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999).

Coding schemes should be guided by theory (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). The quality of the coding schemes, including the operational definitions, affects the value of the final results collected (Perrault & Leigh, 1989). While content analysis is a powerful method of collecting information and tracking changes over time, the results can be open to multiple interpretations (Plous & Neptune, 1997). The coding and interpretation of image content is time and culture dependent (Scott, 1994), and care must be taken to avoid researcher bias since it can
easily affect the data collection and interpretation (Kolbe & Burnett, 1991). Based on the subjective nature of the data collection, the researcher must make a strong case for the objectivity and reliability of the final data (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999).

**Coding of Data**

Kolbe and Burnett (1991) present five criteria for objectivity in a content analysis. Those criteria are [1] rules and procedures were reported, [2] judge training was reported, [3] pre-testing of measures was reported, [4] judges were independent of the author, and [5] judges worked independently of each other. In this project the researcher was one of the judges collecting the data. This goes against one of the criteria of objectivity, but is common in the field of published content analysis studies. Participation in the data collection process will expand the experience of the researcher in this methodology.

Two judges were used in the collection of data for each hypothesis. There were two male judges for content, level of exposure/dress analysis, and erotic male content; two male judges with an emphasis in exercise physiology coded body type; and four male judges rated the sexual nature of the advertisements. The researcher trained the judges based on their area of data collection. Scales and charts were provided in advance to each judge.

A pretest using magazines that were not used in the final data collection was conducted. The judges and the researcher rated and coded the data together until it is determined that the judges were familiar with the coding process and had no further questions. When all questions had been answered, judges worked independently of each other. When the test sample was completed, results were compared and problems discussed. Once a high level of estimated intercoder reliability was reached the actual data collection began with all judges at that point working independently of each other.

Intercoder reliability, used to establish a level of reliability, is a figure that demonstrates the congruence of decisions made by the independent coders based on the content criteria (Neuendorf, 2002). The most commonly utilized measure of interjudge reliability is the simple percentage of agreement among judges (Perrault & Leigh, 1989). The higher level statistical analysis Scott’s Pi, an interclass correlation coefficient, was used in this study to determine intercoder reliability values using 15% of the total sample. Coefficients of reliability above .85
are considered satisfactory (Kassarjian, 1977), while coefficients above .60 can be considered conditionally acceptable (Soley & Kurzbard, 1986). In the case of Scott’s pi, a result above .70 can be considered acceptable (Shoemaker, 2003).

**Sample**

The magazines selected for analysis were *Esquire* and *Gentlemen’s Quarterly (GQ)*. These men’s magazines were selected because they have long publication histories (*Esquire* founded 1933 and *GQ* founded in 1957) with consistently high circulation rates. Other researchers have suggested that these particular magazines offer representations of cultural depictions of the ideal male body (Petrie et al., 1996; Kolbe & Albanese, 1996; Gottschall, 1999). In addition, they have a general cultural focus and articles covering a variety of topics rather than a focus on sports, mechanics, or sexually-suggestive material putting them into a general interest category of men’s magazines.

*Esquire* and *GQ* have been used in a variety of content analyses. The combinations include: *Esquire* but not *GQ* (Kervin, 1990; Reichert et al., 1999; Reicher & Carpenter, 2004; Skelly & Lundstrom, 1981; Soley & Kurzbard, 1986; Soley & Reid, 1988; Venkatesan & Losco, 1975; Zank et al., 2005), *GQ* but not *Esquire* (Anderson & Didomencio, 1992; Law & Labre, 2002; Thompson, 2000), and both *Esquire* and *GQ* together (Englis et al., 1994; Gottschall, 1999; Kolbe & Albanese, 1997; Nixon, 1996; Odekerken-Schroeder, DeWulf, & Hofstee, 2002; Petrie et al., 1996; Plous & Neptune, 1997).

Starting in 1965 two issues from each magazine were selected for analysis. One month from the first six months of the year and one month from the last six months were randomly selected for analysis. The months being analyzed were randomly selected for each five-year period up until 2005 utilizing the same method. After a month had been selected it was removed from the pool of choices until all the months had been utilized. This method was employed to reduce the risk of bias occurring from thematic magazine issues such as *Esquire*’s “Fall Fashion” and “Women We Love” issues as well as the increases in nudity levels possibly associated with spring and summer fashions in *GQ*. 
All advertisements, fitting the requirements of a particular test, were analyzed. Advertisements of more than one page were coded once for category, but all individual images within the series were used in other analyses. Any ads on the inside of the cover page and on the back cover were analyzed. Duplicate ads not located within the same issue of a particular magazine were included in the final results (Kolbe & Albanese, 1997; Odekerken-Schroeder et al., 2002; Taylor & Lee, 1994).

Hypotheses and Analysis of Data

H1 (a): There will be an increase in the number of appearance management product advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Full page or larger advertisements (although multi-page ads will only be counted once) were counted and coded as to whether or not it is an advertisement for an appearance management product. The definition being applied to appearance management products was based on the definitions of Schindler & Holbrook (1993) and Kaiser, Nagasawa, and Hutton (1995). Appearance management products include apparel, accessories, jewelry, makeup, skin care products, implements to remove hair, hair care products and devices, colognes/perfumes, oral cleansing products, exercise equipment, and other items or services used to manipulate, dress or improve the appearance of the body.

Results are presented as a total number of appearance management product advertisements per issue and as a percentage of the total advertisements per issue. This includes all pages, excluding the front cover, but including the inside front cover, inside back cover, and back cover. A chi square statistical analysis was run on the data to determine if significant increases have occurred over time.

H1 (b-c): There will be changes in the appearance management product categories of advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

All full page or larger advertisements were coded by category. The categories included apparel/accessories, personal care, fragrance, exercise/diet, appearance management services,
and all other products. Products that were coded as appearance management products (non-service) were then coded as to the category of the purchasing company of the advertisement. Those categories included manufacturer advertising, retailer advertising (including private label companies), co-operative advertising (independent retailer and product manufacturer), manufacturer/retailer advertising (national and private label brand products produced by a manufacturer), and service providers.

H2 (a, b): There will be an increase in the level of exposure/undress for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

All full-page or larger advertisements (to match up with previously utilized research methods) were used in the analysis if that advertisement contained at least one male figure. Each male figure within an advertisement was coded for level of exposure/dress based on the amount of body utilized in the image. When only parts of a man’s body were visible they were rated according to what could be seen in the image. [a] The system utilized by Soley and Kurzbard (1986) was used. That system included four levels of dress for men.

- Demure dress – Typical dress including shorts
- Seductive dress – Open shirts exposing the chest, “short shorts”, tight clothing that accentuates middle inseam of trousers, and “muscle shirts”
- Partially clad – Bathing suits, undergarments, “close-ups of bare shoulders”, and photographs of legs which include the thigh but display no clothing
- Nude – unclothed bodies including silhouettes, translucent undergarments, “medium shots” where the models display no clothing except perhaps a towel across the shoulders, and full shots where the model is unclad except for a towel

[b] In addition to continuing this method a new method has been developed. The upper body and the lower body were rated separately. The upper body and lower body were rated upon level of exposure.

Notes: Coverage of chest constitutes a crewneck or v-neck, open placket, or the first two buttons of a traditional button down shirt. Hands, arms, and feet are not accounted for in this study since these areas are commonly exposed in public. Exercise equipment, bandages, jewelry, and unusual forms of non-
clothing/accessories are not counted as coverage of the body. Body parts obscured with items such as towels/bedding or where models are behind a solid object but body parts are still partially exposed are considered coverage.

Upper body:

[1] Coverage of chest, torso, and arms past shoulders
   ex. t-shirt
[2] Full coverage of chest and torso with shoulders exposed
   ex. sleeveless t-shirt
[3] Partial chest (back) exposure with arms covered past shoulders
   ex. a partially unbuttoned dress shirt
[4] Partial chest (back) exposure with shoulders exposed
   ex. tank top
[5] Torso exposure/ Lower back exposure
   ex. half-shirt / pulling up of shirt to expose the abdomen/back
[6] Full chest and torso exposure
   ex. no shirt

Lower body:

[1] Full coverage
   ex. pants
[2] Exposure up to the knee
   ex. shorts
   ex. boxers
[4] Exposure of full thigh
   ex. briefs
[5] Exposure of upper buttocks/ lower pelvis (below natural waistline)/ coverage of genital area only
   ex. low slung jeans without underwear/ object blocks genitals
[6] Full lower body exposure
   ex. exposed buttocks or the turned body where no clothing is seen
A chi square statistical analysis was run on the data to determine if significant increases have occurred over time. Results using the system created by Soley & Kurzbard (1986) were compared to the previous research on the use of sexualized male models in advertisements. Comparisons were also made between the results of the two systems being utilized.

H3 (a, b, c, d): There will be a change in “idealized” body type for men, moving to a more lean and muscular V-shape for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

All full-page or larger advertisements (to match up with previously utilized research methods) were used in the analysis if the advertisement contained at least one male figure. Each male figure within an advertisement was coded for body type based on the requirements of each test. Images were then coded on multiple levels: [a] the image was categorized as ectomorphic, mesomorphic, or endomorphic [b] the image was measured in order to determine the waist to shoulder ratio (this is done to determine the extent of the “V-shape” of the body) [c] the image was rated using the musculature/body fat scale used by Law and Labre (2002) (fig. 1) by two graduate students trained in exercise science [d] these same coders performed a visual body fat assessment of the body.

Analysis [a] was performed on all advertisements where enough of the male body was visible to establish body type (with each body type being counted once per ad regardless of the number of individuals in the advertisement). Analyses [b and c] utilized the rules from the study by Law and Labre (2002) to determine the images considered suitable for coding. The image had to feature a male torso that is either shirtless or wearing form-fitting clothing that allowed the coders to determine muscular definition and level of body fat. Images that did not actually show the entire torso could be used if the degree of muscular definition could be determined. Analysis [b] required the model to be facing directly towards or away from the camera with squared shoulders for accuracy of measurement. Analysis [d] required an image with full chest exposure. Studies have shown that visual analysis of body fat on living models can be as reliable as a caliper based test (Eckerson, Housh, & Johnson, 1992; Plunk, 2001) and this type of method was utilized by Leit, Pope, and Gray (2001) in their study of *Playgirl* centerfolds. Chi square
statistical analysis was run on the data to determine if significant changes have occurred over time.

H4 (a, b, c, d): There will be an increase in the use of the sexualized male body in the advertisements (measured based on judging criteria) found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

[a] Based on the work of Soley and Kurzbard (1986) the use of suggestively clad, partially clad, and nude models suggests a sexual ad. This method was continued using the results from hypothesis 2a. Taking into account the number of instances that fell into the suggestively clad, partially clad, and nude categories per time period a chi square statistical analysis was run on the data to determine if significant changes have occurred over time.

[b] This test utilized all full-page or larger advertisements featuring at least one male model. The second analysis used the definitions utilized by Rohlinger (2002) in exploring the “erotic male”. Her definitions include “a physical and sexual ideal, whereby an attractive muscular man is placed on display” (p. 62) and “the erotic male has sexual overtones because the model is positioned in a sexual manner or his crotch area or penis, which is illustrated symbolically rather than actually shown, becomes the focal point of the image” (p.67). Male coders determined if an advertisement includes an image of the “erotic male”. Chi square statistical analysis was run on the data to determine if significant changes have occurred over time.

[c] This test utilized all full-page or larger advertisements featuring at least one male model. Male coders rated the ads on a five-point scale to determine the level of the sexual nature of an image. A guide listing criteria for the five levels, created by the researcher, along with examples of advertisements that fit into the five levels, determined by a panel of merchandising experts, was provided for the coders. Chi square statistical analysis was run on the data to determine if significant changes have occurred over time.

[d] This test utilized all full-page or larger advertisements featuring at least one male model. The fourth analysis was completed using projective content analysis. The coders determined if the image of the man in the advertisement is sexualized. According to Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999), in this type of analysis there is a belief that elements of the content
require the viewer to access their personal beliefs and experiences in order to judge the meaning of an image, therefore there is minimal guidance from the researcher. This method required the coders to come from the original intended audience in order to assure ecological validity.

Using a 5-point Likert scale (1 being least sexual and 5 being most sexual) male coders evaluated all qualifying advertisements. In this case coders received examples of advertisements that fit into the five levels, determined by a panel of merchandising experts, but there was no coding criteria as with H4c. Two heterosexual males were used to code this fourth analysis. Chi square statistical analysis was run on this data for continuity with previous results. ANOVA was also run (since this is interval data) on this data set. Two homosexual males also coded this content in order to compare the results to see if sexual orientation had an effect on the perceived sexual content of the images. A two-sample T-test was run of the results to determine if significant differences occurred between the two groups.

H5: The results of the content analysis of *Esquire* and *GQ* in 2000 and 2005 will be comparable to the results of the analysis of *Details* and *Maxim*.

The same monthly issues of *Details* and *Maxim* for 2000 and 2005 were compared to the results of the study utilizing *Esquire* and *GQ*. Results that are not statistically different will allow the researcher to expand the results to a younger demographic and increase validity.
CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

H1 (a): There will be an increase in the number of appearance management product advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 1a was not supported. The results of Table 1 show that although there is a demonstrated difference in the number of advertisements published per year there is little statistically significant change over the 40 year time period in the percentage of ads for appearance management products. This study has shown that 56% (mean of data collected) of advertisements in men’s magazines were for appearance management products over the last 40 years. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 95.9% with a Scott’s pi of 0.90. This is a very high level of reliability.

Table 1
Frequency of appearance management advertisements within Esquire and GQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of publication</th>
<th>Number of appearance management advertisements</th>
<th>Total number of advertisements located within sampled issues</th>
<th>Percentage of appearance management advertisements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>128&lt;sub&gt;cd&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>64%&lt;sub&gt;fg&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>91&lt;sub&gt;ab&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>55%&lt;sub&gt;fg&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>83&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>48%&lt;sub&gt;fg&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>117&lt;sub&gt;bc&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>62%&lt;sub&gt;fg&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>161&lt;sub&gt;d&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>46%&lt;sub&gt;f&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>244&lt;sub&gt;e&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>67%&lt;sub&gt;g&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>82&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>51%&lt;sub&gt;fg&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>261&lt;sub&gt;e&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>66%&lt;sub&gt;fg&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>113&lt;sub&gt;bc&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>46%&lt;sub&gt;f&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>142.2</td>
<td>249.1</td>
<td>56.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements from outside clients were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. (46% and 67% are just outside the requirements for p < .05 by the chi-square test.)
H1 (b): There will be changes in the appearance management product categories of advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 1b was not supported. The results of Table 2 (H1b) show that although there is a demonstrated difference in the number of advertisements published in each category by year there is no statistically significant change over the 40 year time period in the percentage of advertisements for appearance management product categories. The category of “apparel and accessories” has consistently been the most common type of appearance management product advertisement with 78% (mean of data collected) of the total appearance management advertisements. The categories of “personal care” and “fragrances” in a majority of cases are not significantly different from each other and more frequent than both “exercise and diet products” and “services”. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 94.2% with a Scott’s pi of 0.90. This is a very high level of reliability.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Apparel and Accessories</th>
<th>Personal Care Items</th>
<th>Fragrances</th>
<th>Exercise and Diet Product</th>
<th>Appearance Management Services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>103.3 / 80.3 i</td>
<td>8 Aefgh / 6 j</td>
<td>17 A / 14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>81 abc / 89 i</td>
<td>4 e / 4 j</td>
<td>2 / 2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>64 Dab / 77 i</td>
<td>7 Cefg / 8 j</td>
<td>6 C / 7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>89 c / 76 i</td>
<td>14 gh / 12 j</td>
<td>4 / 4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>104 Ge / 65 i</td>
<td>17 Eh / 11 j</td>
<td>34 f / 21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>208 Id / 85 i</td>
<td>13 Hfgh / 5 j</td>
<td>21 H / 9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>59 Ka / 75 i</td>
<td>5 Jefl / 6 j</td>
<td>13 j / 17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>219 Md / 84 i</td>
<td>15 Lgh / 6 j</td>
<td>23 L / 9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>85 Obc / 75 i</td>
<td>14 Ngh / 12 j</td>
<td>12 N / 11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>112.4 / 78.4</td>
<td>10.8 / 7.8</td>
<td>14.7 / 10.4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements coded as appearance management products were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts (small letters = vertical comparisons; capital letters = horizontal comparisons) differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.
H1 (c): There will be changes in the categories of appearance management advertisement purchasers found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 1c was supported by the data, but cannot be substantiated due to low intercoder reliability. The results of Table 3 (H1c) below show that the percentage of advertisements purchased by product manufacturers have generally decreased over time. Increases have occurred in the percentage of cooperative and retailer/manufacturer advertisements purchased compared to the amount purchased by manufacturers. Advertisements from “retailers” and “service industry” are the least common in this study. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 71.8% with a Scott’s pi of 0.37. This is not an acceptable level of reliability. A more defined set of definitions for these categories and the use of a coder more familiar with retailing would increase the agreement within this research topic.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Manufacturer</th>
<th>Retailer</th>
<th>Cooperative</th>
<th>Retailer and Manufacturer</th>
<th>Service Industry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>118_d / 92_g</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3 / 2</td>
<td>1 / 1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>80_e / 88_g</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2 / 2</td>
<td>3 / 3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>57_b / 69 fg</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2 / 3</td>
<td>15 / 19</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>57_b / 49_Aef</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13 / 11_B</td>
<td>43 / 37_A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>95_cd / 59_Ae</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32 / 20_B</td>
<td>23 / 15_B</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>119_d / 49_Aef</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44 / 18_B</td>
<td>69 / 28_B</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>37_a / 45_Ae</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>27 / 33_AB</td>
<td>15 / 19_B</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>114_d / 44_Ae</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>47 / 18_B</td>
<td>89 / 34_A</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>51_ab / 45_Ae</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26 / 23_B</td>
<td>36 / 32_AB</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>80.9 / 60</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>21.8 / 14.4</td>
<td>32.7 / 20.9</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements coded as appearance management products were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts (small letters = vertical comparisons; capital letters = horizontal comparisons) differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.
H2 (a): There will be an increase in the level of exposure/undress for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 2a was not supported. The results of Table 4 (H2a) below show that there was a decline in the percentage of demurely dressed men in magazine advertisements from 1965 to 1980. There was a return to conservative dress in 1985 and 1990 then a significant increase in non-demure male imagery in 1995. In 2000 there was a return to conservative dress with an increase in non-demure dress found in 2005. With all of these changes in direction there were statistically significant differences found only in 1965 with a high degree of demure dress and 1995 where there was a high degree of non-demure dress. Overall there was little significant change in the level of dress for men in advertisements featured in men’s interest magazines after 1965. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 91.6 % with a Scott’s pi of 0.73. This is an acceptable level of reliability.

Table 4

*Frequencies of level of dress for males photographed for advertisements within Esquire and GQ as defined by Soley & Kurzbard (1986)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Demure</th>
<th>Seductive</th>
<th>Partially Clad</th>
<th>Nude</th>
<th>S/PC/N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>83&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt; / 93&lt;sub&gt;n&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>0 / 0</td>
<td>6&lt;sub&gt;f&lt;/sub&gt; / 7&lt;sub&gt;o&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6&lt;sub&gt;1&lt;/sub&gt; / 7&lt;sub&gt;o&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>68&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt; / 86&lt;sub&gt;mn&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>4 / 5</td>
<td>6&lt;sub&gt;f&lt;/sub&gt; / 8&lt;sub&gt;o&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11&lt;sub&gt;1&lt;/sub&gt; / 14&lt;sub&gt;opq&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>76&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt; / 70&lt;sub&gt;lmnm&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>20 / 19</td>
<td>12&lt;sub&gt;fg&lt;/sub&gt; / 11&lt;sub&gt;op&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32&lt;sub&gt;jk&lt;/sub&gt; / 30&lt;sub&gt;rst&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>68&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt; / 65&lt;sub&gt;lm&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>9 / 9</td>
<td>25&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt; / 24&lt;sub&gt;q&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>36&lt;sub&gt;jk&lt;/sub&gt; / 35&lt;sub&gt;st&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>119&lt;sub&gt;c&lt;/sub&gt; / 80&lt;sub&gt;lmnm&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>16 / 11</td>
<td>9&lt;sub&gt;fg&lt;/sub&gt; / 6&lt;sub&gt;o&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30&lt;sub&gt;j&lt;/sub&gt; / 20&lt;sub&gt;pqr&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>197&lt;sub&gt;d&lt;/sub&gt; / 89&lt;sub&gt;mm&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6 / 3</td>
<td>16&lt;sub&gt;gh&lt;/sub&gt; / 7&lt;sub&gt;o&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24&lt;sub&gt;j&lt;/sub&gt; / 11&lt;sub&gt;op&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>44&lt;sub&gt;d&lt;/sub&gt; / 60&lt;sub&gt;1&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>13 / 18</td>
<td>15&lt;sub&gt;gh&lt;/sub&gt; / 21&lt;sub&gt;pq&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>29&lt;sub&gt;j&lt;/sub&gt; / 40&lt;sub&gt;1&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>251&lt;sub&gt;c&lt;/sub&gt; / 84&lt;sub&gt;mn&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>17 / 6</td>
<td>26&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt; / 9&lt;sub&gt;o&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>48&lt;sub&gt;k&lt;/sub&gt; / 16&lt;sub&gt;opq&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>82&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt; / 76&lt;sub&gt;lm&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>16 / 15</td>
<td>10&lt;sub&gt;fg&lt;/sub&gt; / 9&lt;sub&gt;o&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26&lt;sub&gt;j&lt;/sub&gt; / 24&lt;sub&gt;qrst&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>109.8 / 78.1</td>
<td>11.2 / 9.6</td>
<td>13.9 / 11.3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>26.9 / 21.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements featuring a male model were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.
H2 (b): There will be an increase in the level of exposure/undress for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 2b was not supported. As seen in Table 5 (H2b) below, results are similar to those demonstrated in Hypothesis H2a. The percentages for “Demure” dress match up with Level 1 and 2 of the six-point scale of male dress (see p. 35). Thus the increases, decreases, and statistically significant differences over time found in this data set correspond with those discussed previously. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 94.7% with a Scott’s pi of 0.81. This is a higher level of reliability and provides much more detailed information about the level of body exposure contained within a particular image.

Table 5

<p>| Level of exposure for males photographed for advertisements within Esquire and GQ – Upper |
|---------------------------------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Level 1 &amp; 2</th>
<th>Level 3 &amp; 4</th>
<th>Level 5 &amp; 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>85 \text{b} / 93 \text{n}</td>
<td>6 \text{c} / 7 \text{opq}</td>
<td>0 \text{b} / 0 \text{s}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>68 \text{b} / 84 \text{Amn}</td>
<td>8 \text{ef} / 10 \text{Bpqr}</td>
<td>5 \text{i} / 6 \text{Bt}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>76 \text{b} / 71 \text{Amn}</td>
<td>20 \text{g} / 19 \text{Br}</td>
<td>11 \text{ii} / 10 \text{Bt}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>65 \text{ab} / 64 \text{Am}</td>
<td>10 \text{efg} / 10 \text{Bpqr}</td>
<td>26 \text{kl} / 26 \text{Cv}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>119 \text{c} / 79 \text{Amn}</td>
<td>14 \text{efg} / 10 \text{Bpqr}</td>
<td>17 \text{jk} / 11 \text{Btu}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>200 \text{d} / 90 \text{n}</td>
<td>5 \text{e} / 2 \text{o}</td>
<td>15 \text{jk} / 8 \text{t}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>45 \text{a} / 62 \text{Am}</td>
<td>12 \text{efg} / 16 \text{Bqr}</td>
<td>16 \text{jk} / 22 \text{Buv}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>250 \text{d} / 83 \text{mn}</td>
<td>16 \text{fg} / 5 \text{op}</td>
<td>35 \text{t} / 12 \text{tu}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>82 \text{b} / 76 \text{Amn}</td>
<td>17 \text{fg} / 16 \text{Bqr}</td>
<td>9 \text{ii} / 8 \text{Bt}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>110 / 78</td>
<td>12 / 10.6</td>
<td>13.7 / 11.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements featuring a male model’s upper body were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts (small letters = vertical comparisons; capital letters = horizontal comparisons) differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.

The results of Table 6 (H2b) below show that there has been no statistically significant change in frequency of level 1 and level 2 exposure of the lower body over time (see p. 35). This data set shows greater variability in the higher levels of exposure with few examples reaching levels 5 and 6. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 84.0% with a Scott’s pi of 0.66.
These results fall into the conditional level of reliability. The most common cause of intercoder disagreement was whether or not to code a particular image based on the amount of the lower body seen in an advertisement. More defined rules as to which images should be coded should increase the reliability of this type of data collection.

Table 6

*Level of exposure for males photographed for advertisements within Esquire and GQ – Lower*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Level 1 &amp; 2</th>
<th>Level 3 &amp; 4</th>
<th>Level 5 &amp; 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>68_b / 93_h</td>
<td>5_f / 7_ij</td>
<td>0 / 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>58_b / 84_h</td>
<td>11_fg / 16_kl</td>
<td>0 / 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>77_bc / 90_h</td>
<td>6_f / 7_ij</td>
<td>3 / 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>68_b / 78_h</td>
<td>15_g / 17_kl</td>
<td>4 / 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>95_c / 79_h</td>
<td>13_fg / 11_ijk</td>
<td>12 / 10</td>
</tr>
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<td>1990</td>
<td>177_d / 91_h</td>
<td>10_fg / 5_i</td>
<td>7 / 4</td>
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<td>1995</td>
<td>34_a / 69_h</td>
<td>12_fg / 25_l</td>
<td>3 / 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>232_c / 93_h</td>
<td>13_fg / 5_i</td>
<td>5 / 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>74_bc / 90_h</td>
<td>8_fg / 10_ijk</td>
<td>0 / 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>98.1 / 85.2</td>
<td>10.3 / 11.5</td>
<td>3.8 / 3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements featuring a male model’s lower body were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.

H3 (a): There will be a change in “idealized” body type for men, moving to a more lean and muscular V-shape for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 3a was not supported. The results of Table 7 (H3a) below show a consistent dominance of the mesomorphic body type for men in advertisements located within men’s interest magazines. Beginning in 1970 there is no statistically significant change in the percentage of mesomorphic male bodies utilized in ads, although their usage peaked in 1980-1990. Endomorphic body types have consistently been shown less frequently over time while ectomorphic bodies shown in ads have varied over time before becoming consistent since 1995. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 78.4 % with a Scott’s pi of 0.29. This is an
unacceptable level of reliability. Disagreement arose over which images contained enough of the male body to judge body type and the effect of clothing on perceived body type. In addition, the coders did not have an exact definition and/or examples of what would specifically separate the ectomorphic body from the mesomorphic.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Ectomorphic</th>
<th>Mesomorphic</th>
<th>Endomorphic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>13 ab / 16 jk</td>
<td>52 d / 63 l</td>
<td>17 / 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>8 a / 10 hij</td>
<td>64 de / 81 im</td>
<td>7 / 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>20 bc / 22 k</td>
<td>68 de / 73 im</td>
<td>5 / 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>6 a / 6 hi</td>
<td>85 ef / 89 m</td>
<td>5 / 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>12 ab / 10 hij</td>
<td>110 f / 87 im</td>
<td>5 / 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>10 ab / 5 h</td>
<td>179 g / 91 m</td>
<td>7 / 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>9 a / 14 jik</td>
<td>52 d / 83 im</td>
<td>2 / 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>33 c / 14 ijk</td>
<td>198 g / 84 im</td>
<td>5 / 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>14 ab / 14 ijk</td>
<td>83 ef / 85 im</td>
<td>1 / 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>13.9 / 12.3</td>
<td>99 / 81.8</td>
<td>6 / 5.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements featuring a male model were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts differ by $p < .05$ by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.

H3 (b): There will be a change in “idealized” body type for men, moving to a more lean and muscular V-shape for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 3b was not supported. Table 8 (H3b) shows the waist to shoulder ratios of the male models meeting the requirements set up by Law & Labre (2002). Lower results indicate a more V-shaped individual (having wide shoulders and a narrow waist). Due to the low sample size no statistical analysis was run on the data. Looking at the mean shoulder to waist ratios there is a suggestion that there has been little change over time, but this cannot be substantiated.
Table 8

Waist to shoulder ratios for male models in advertisements within Esquire and GQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Below</th>
<th>.60</th>
<th>.61</th>
<th>.62</th>
<th>.63</th>
<th>.65</th>
<th>.66</th>
<th>.67</th>
<th>.68</th>
<th>.69</th>
<th>.70</th>
<th>.72</th>
<th>.73</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Waist to shoulder ratios for male models in advertisements within Details and Maxim

|       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     | 0.66 a|
|-------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-------|

Note: All full-page advertisements meeting the Law & Labre (2002) requirements, and facing directly toward the camera with squared shoulders, were included in this analysis unless they were not of an idealized male body type (often used as a before photo or for comedic effect). Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.

H3 (c): There will be a change in “idealized” body type for men, moving to a more lean and muscular V-shape for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 3c was partially supported. The results of Table 9 (H3c) show a definite preference for the low body fat male model starting in 1980. The medium body fat male model use has declined beginning in 1990. Within both of these categories the “somewhat” muscular body type has remained the most prevalent, especially the medium body fat models. The low body fat models are typically “somewhat” muscular with a trend from “not muscular” to “very muscular” as the second most popular type since 1985. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 70.0 % with a Scott’s pi of 0.38. This is an unacceptable level of reliability. Disagreement arose over both which images contained enough of the male body to judge body
type and the level of muscularity. The coders (trained in exercise physiology) had trouble utilizing the scale created by Law & Labre (2002).

Table 9

*Frequency of Law/Labre (2002) body composition types of male models within Esquire and GQ*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Low/not</th>
<th>Low/some</th>
<th>Low/very</th>
<th>Med/not</th>
<th>Med/some</th>
<th>Med/very</th>
<th>High/not</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements meeting the Law & Labre (2002) requirements were included in this analysis unless they were not of an idealized male body type (often used as a before photo or for comedic effect). Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.

H3 (d): There will be a change in “idealized” body type for men, moving to a more lean and muscular V-shape for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 3d was not supported. The results of Table 10 (H3d) below show that there has been a decrease in body fat from 1970 through 1990. A steady increase in estimated body fat occurs each year since that peak in 1990 and 1995. Throughout the time period studied a male of 8% body fat has been the most common. This hypothesis cannot be substantiated because of the low sample size limits statistical analysis. Due to the low amount of cases available in the study all images that coders agreed met the Law & Labre requirements were rated separately. The two coders had 100% agreement at +/- 2% body fat.
Table 10

Estimated body fat percentages for male models in advertisements within Esquire and GQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>4%</th>
<th>5%</th>
<th>6%</th>
<th>7%</th>
<th>8%</th>
<th>9%</th>
<th>10%</th>
<th>11%</th>
<th>12%</th>
<th>13%</th>
<th>Mean %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.9a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9.3a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7.8a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.5a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.9a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7.5a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.2a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements meeting the Law & Labre (2002) requirements were included in this analysis unless they were not of an idealized male body type (often used as a before photo or for comedic effect). Frequencies with different subscripts differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.

H4 (a): There will be an increase in the use of the sexualized male body in the advertisements (measured based on judging criteria) found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 4a was not supported. The results of Table 11 (H4a) below show that there was an increase in the percentage of sexual advertisements featuring men from 1965 to 1980. There was a return to non-sexual ads in 1985 and 1990 then a significant increase in sexualized imagery in 1995. In 2000 there was a return to conservative non-sexual ads with another increase in sexualized ads found in 2005. With all of these changes in direction there were statistically significant differences found only in 1965 with a high degree of non-sexual advertisements and 1995 where there was a high degree of sexualized male imagery. Overall there was little significant change in the level of sexualized male imagery used in advertisements featured in men’s interest magazines after 1965. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 91.6 % with a Scott’s pi of 0.73. This is an acceptable level of reliability.
Table 11

Frequency of sexualized images as defined by Soley & Kurzbard (1986)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Demure (Non-sexual)</th>
<th>Seductive / Partially Clad / Nude (Sexual)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>83 b / 93 n</td>
<td>61 / 7 o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>68 b / 86 mn</td>
<td>111 / 14 opq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>76 b / 70 lmn</td>
<td>32 jk / 30 rst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>68 b / 65 lm</td>
<td>36 jk / 35 st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>119 c / 80 lmn</td>
<td>30 j / 20 pqr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>197 d / 89 mn</td>
<td>24 j / 11 op</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>44 a / 60 l</td>
<td>29 j / 40 t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>251 e / 84 mn</td>
<td>48 k / 16 opq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>82 b / 76 lmn</td>
<td>26 j / 24 qrst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>109.8 / 78.1</td>
<td>26.9 / 21.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements featuring a male model were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.

H4 (b): There will be an increase in the use of the sexualized male body in the advertisements (measured based on judging criteria) found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

The results of Table 12 (H4b) below show a similar result as Table 11 (H4a). There is an increase in sexualized male imagery from 1965 to 1980. A decrease then occurs during 1985 and 1990. A marked increase was shown in 1995 with a large drop in sexual imagery during 2000. This was followed by an increase in 2005 similar to results from the 1980s. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 88.4 % with a Scott’s pi of 0.47. This is an acceptable level of reliability for agreement, but not for Scott’s pi. Coders found the Rohlinger (2002) definitions vague and had trouble deciding on many occasions if an image was erotic. The original Rohlinger (2002) study published an intercoder reliability level of 99%. That figure appears unusually high considering that in that original study “erotic male” was one of nine categories.
Table 12

*Use of the “Erotic Male” (Rohlinger, 2002) in advertisements located within Esquire and GQ*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Erotic Male</th>
<th>Non-Erotic Male Image</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>$2_a / 2_j$</td>
<td>$86_f / 98_n$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>$9_b / 11_k$</td>
<td>$70_{cf} / 89_n$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>$14_{bkl}$</td>
<td>$93_{f} / 87_n$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>$28_{cd} / 27_m$</td>
<td>$77_f / 73_n$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>$34_{cd} / 23_{lm}$</td>
<td>$116_{e} / 77_n$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>$34_{cd} / 15_{klm}$</td>
<td>$187_{b} / 85_n$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>$23_{bc} / 32_m$</td>
<td>$50_{e} / 68_o$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>$39_{d} / 13_{kl}$</td>
<td>$260_{i} / 87_n$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>$28_{c} / 27_m$</td>
<td>$77_f / 73_n$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>$23.4 / 18.1$</td>
<td>$112.9 / 81.9$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements featuring a male model were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts differ by $p < .05$ by the chi-square test.

H4 (c): There will be an increase in the use of the sexualized male body in the advertisements (measured based on judging criteria) found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 4c was not supported. The results of Table 13 (H4c) below show results similar to both (H4a) and (H4b) based on level 1 being non-sexual. Results show a trend towards more sexual advertisements from 1965 to 1980. A return to non-sexual ads occurs in 1985 and 1990 followed by an increase in sexual ads in 1995. In 2000 there is a return to conservative non-sexual ads with an increase in sexualized ads found in 2005. This particular set of data shows no significant difference over time for level 1 ratings. The intercoder agreement for this data set was 85.2% with a Scott’s pi of 0.72. This is an acceptable level of reliability.

Level 2 ratings show no significant difference from 1965 through 1990. A peak occurs in 1995 (a year with high levels of sexual advertising) and then decreases significantly in 2000. Levels 3-5 (combined due to low frequency) show no significant difference after 1965. There is also no statistically significant difference between the occurrences of Level 2 and Level 3-5 advertisements until 2000 where Level 3-5 becomes much more prevalent.
Table 13

*Frequencies using a defined system for rating sexuality of advertisements featuring male models*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Levels 3-5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>75 bcd / 83 Ao</td>
<td>9 h / 10 Bpq</td>
<td>4 j / 7 Bs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>56 ab / 71 Ao</td>
<td>14 hi / 18 Bqr</td>
<td>9 jk / 11 Bst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>80 cd / 73 Ao</td>
<td>15 hi / 14 Bpq</td>
<td>15 kl / 13 Bst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>63 abc / 61 Ao</td>
<td>18 hi / 17 Bqr</td>
<td>23 lm / 22 Bt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>107 e / 71 Ao</td>
<td>21 j / 14 Bpq</td>
<td>23 lm / 15 Bst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>170 f / 77 Ao</td>
<td>22 i / 10 Bpq</td>
<td>29 mn / 13 Bst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>45 a / 62 Ao</td>
<td>15 hi / 21 Br</td>
<td>13 kl / 17 Bt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>237 g / 80 Ao</td>
<td>21 i / 7 Br</td>
<td>40 n / 13 Cst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>89 de / 74 Ao</td>
<td>8 h / 7 Br</td>
<td>23 lm / 19 Ct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>102.4 / 72.4</td>
<td>15.9 / 13.1</td>
<td>19.9 / 14.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements featuring a male model were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts (small letters = vertical comparisons; capital letters = horizontal comparisons) differ by \( p < .05 \) by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.

H4 (d): There will be an increase in the use of the sexualized male body in the advertisements (measured based on judging criteria) found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

Hypothesis 4d was not supported. The results of Table 14 and Table 15 (H4d) below show results similar to those seen in the previous Tables (H4a, H4b, and H4c). The frequencies of level 1 rating show no statistically significant changes in the heterosexual male coder’s data set (Table 14) while the homosexual male coder’s data set (Table 15) shows only a significant difference for 1965. The pattern that emerges follows a trend towards more sexual advertisements from 1965 to 1980 (in the heterosexual coder’s data 1975 does not fit into the pattern). A return to non-sexual ads occurs in 1985 and 1990 followed by an increase in sexual ads in 1995. In 2000 there is a return to conservative non-sexual ads with an increase in sexualized ads found in 2005 (in the heterosexual coder’s data 2005 does not fit that pattern).

Level 2 ratings for 1965 through 1990 show greater variability in both Table 14 and Table 15 (H4d) then the results of Table 13 (H4c). Similar to the results from (H4c), a peak occurs in 1995 (a year with high levels of sexual advertising) and then decreases significantly in
2000. Levels 3-5 (combined due to low frequency) are much less common in these data sets than
with (H4c). The heterosexual male coders rarely rated an advertisement above level 2 while the
homosexual male coders rated advertisements above level 2 more often, but not as often as with
the defined rating scale (H4c).

The results of the one-way ANOVA for both heterosexual and homosexual ratings had F
values well above the critical point at p < .001 allowing the researcher to assume there is a
significant difference between rating levels. A two-sample T-test revealed a T-value of 5.75
well above the critical point at p < .001 allowing the researcher to determine there is a significant
difference between the coding score of heterosexual and homosexual males with the heterosexual
males giving lower ratings to the advertisements analyzed.

The intercoder agreement for this data set was well below an acceptable level of
reliability. There were disagreements in rating scores as well as determining which of the
advertisements should be rated. Independent coders were brought in for this portion and were
trained solely for this task and delivered inaccurate data sheets resulting in unreliable findings.

Table 14

*Frequencies using projective content analysis for rating sexuality of advertisements featuring
male models by heterosexual male coders*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3-5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>68 bc / 87 j</td>
<td>8 g / 10 kl</td>
<td>2 / 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>57 ab / 74 j</td>
<td>19 h / 25 m</td>
<td>1 / 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>85 cd / 87 j</td>
<td>12 ghi / 12 kl</td>
<td>1 / 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>65 abc / 70 j</td>
<td>15 ghi / 16 klm</td>
<td>13 / 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>104 d / 78 j</td>
<td>22 i / 17 lm</td>
<td>7 / 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>160 e / 90 j</td>
<td>15 ghi / 9 kl</td>
<td>1 / 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>45 a / 67 j</td>
<td>16 ghi / 24 m</td>
<td>6 / 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>217 f / 90 j</td>
<td>16 ghi / 7 k</td>
<td>9 / 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>97 d / 89 j</td>
<td>10 gh / 9 kl</td>
<td>2 / 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>898</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>99.8 / 81.3</td>
<td>14.8 / 14.3</td>
<td>4.7 / 4.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements featuring a male model were included for analysis.
Frequencies with different subscripts differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. Comparisons were
not done where cells contain too few incidents.
Table 15

Frequencies using projective content analysis for rating sexuality of advertisements featuring male models by homosexual male coders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3-5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>76 bc / 90 k</td>
<td>5 g / 6 l</td>
<td>3 / 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>59 ab / 75 jk</td>
<td>18 hi / 23 n</td>
<td>2 / 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>78 bc / 72 jk</td>
<td>24 i / 22 n</td>
<td>7 / 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>62 ab / 60 j</td>
<td>20 i / 19 mn</td>
<td>22 / 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>107 d / 71 jk</td>
<td>23 i / 15 lmn</td>
<td>20 / 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>140 e / 78 jk</td>
<td>17 hi / 9 lm</td>
<td>22 / 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>46 a / 61 j</td>
<td>17 hi / 23 n</td>
<td>12 / 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>217 f / 82 jk</td>
<td>18 hi / 71 l</td>
<td>31 / 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>87 cd / 76 jk</td>
<td>9 gh / 8 l</td>
<td>19 / 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>872</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>96.9 / 75</td>
<td>16.8 / 13</td>
<td>15.1 / 12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements featuring a male model were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.

H5: The results of the content analysis of Esquire and GQ in 2000 and 2005 will be comparable to the results of the analysis of Details and Maxim.

Hypothesis 5 was fully supported. In all cases there were no statistically significant differences found between the results gathered from GQ and Esquire and the results gathered from Details and Maxim by year.

Table 16a

Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H1a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Publication</th>
<th>Number of appearance management advertisements</th>
<th>Total number of advertisements located within sampled issues</th>
<th>Percentage of appearance management advertisements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>261 d</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>66% f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>165 c</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>57% ef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td>113 b</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>46% ef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td>70 a</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>40% e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 16b

Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H1b

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Apparel and Accessories</th>
<th>Personal Care Items</th>
<th>Fragrances</th>
<th>Exercise and Diet Product</th>
<th>Appearance Management Services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>219 d / 84 h</td>
<td>15 e / 6 i</td>
<td>23 g / 9 k</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>126 c / 77 h</td>
<td>11 e / 7 i</td>
<td>25 g / 15 k</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td>85 b / 75 h</td>
<td>14 e / 12 ij</td>
<td>12 f / 11 k</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td>44 a / 64 h</td>
<td>12 e / 17 j</td>
<td>11 f / 16 k</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16c

Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H1c

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Manufacturer</th>
<th>Retailer</th>
<th>Cooperative</th>
<th>Retailer and Manufacturer</th>
<th>Service Industry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>114 c / 44 d</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>57 b / 35 d</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td>51 b / 45 d</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td>25 a / 36 d</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16d

Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H2a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Demure</th>
<th>Seductive</th>
<th>Partially Clad</th>
<th>Nude</th>
<th>S/PC/N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>251 d / 84 j</td>
<td>17 e</td>
<td>26 g</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>48 i / 16 k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>124 c / 74 j</td>
<td>15 e</td>
<td>27 g</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>44 i / 26 k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td>82 ab / 76 j</td>
<td>16 e</td>
<td>10 f</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26 h / 24 k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td>60 a / 75 j</td>
<td>9 e</td>
<td>10 f</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20 h / 25 k</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16e

Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H2b - Upper

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Level 1 &amp; 2</th>
<th>Level 3 &amp; 4</th>
<th>Level 5 &amp; 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>250 d / 83 h</td>
<td>16 e / 5 i</td>
<td>35 g / 12 kl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>123 c / 75 h</td>
<td>9 e / 5 i</td>
<td>33 g / 20 l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td>82 ab / 76 h</td>
<td>17 e / 16 j</td>
<td>9 f / 8 k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td>60 a / 77 h</td>
<td>8 e / 10 j</td>
<td>10 f / 13 kl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 16f

**Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H2b – Lower**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>232 d / 93 g</td>
<td>13 f / 5</td>
<td>5 / 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>111 c / 84 g</td>
<td>11 f / 8</td>
<td>11 / 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td>74 b / 90 g</td>
<td>8 ef / 10</td>
<td>0 / 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td>49 a / 91 g</td>
<td>2 e / 4</td>
<td>3 / 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16g

**Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H3a**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Ectomorphic</th>
<th>Mesomorphic</th>
<th>Endomorphic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>33 b / 14 f</td>
<td>199 e / 84 g</td>
<td>5 / 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>27 b / 19 f</td>
<td>110 d / 76 g</td>
<td>8 / 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td>14 a / 14 f</td>
<td>83 cd / 85 g</td>
<td>1 / 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td>11 a / 14 f</td>
<td>66 c / 83 g</td>
<td>3 / 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16h

**Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H3b**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>.60</th>
<th>.61</th>
<th>.62</th>
<th>.63</th>
<th>.64</th>
<th>.65</th>
<th>.66</th>
<th>.67</th>
<th>.68</th>
<th>.69</th>
<th>.70</th>
<th>.71</th>
<th>.72</th>
<th>.73</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.65 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.66 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.66 a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16i

**Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H3d**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>4%</th>
<th>5%</th>
<th>6%</th>
<th>7%</th>
<th>8%</th>
<th>9%</th>
<th>10%</th>
<th>11%</th>
<th>12%</th>
<th>13%</th>
<th>Mean %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7.5 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.6 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.2 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.0 a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 16j

*Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H4b*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Erotic Male</th>
<th>Non-Erotic Male Image</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>39 a / 13 f</td>
<td>260 e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>29 a / 18 fg</td>
<td>129 d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td>28 a / 27 gh</td>
<td>77 c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td>26 a / 32 h</td>
<td>54 b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16k

*Comparison between GQ/Esquire results and Details/Maxim results for H4c*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
<th>Levels 3-5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number / %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (E/G)</td>
<td>237 c / 80 h</td>
<td>21 e / 7 i</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>40 g / 13 j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 (D/M)</td>
<td>101 b / 60 h</td>
<td>25 e / 15 i</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>42 g / 25 j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (E/G)</td>
<td>89 b / 74 h</td>
<td>8 d / 7 i</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23 f / 19 j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 (D/M)</td>
<td>58 a / 64 h</td>
<td>13 de / 14 i</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19 f / 22 j</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All full-page advertisements passing the particular coding criteria were included for analysis. Frequencies with different subscripts differ by p < .05 by the chi-square test. Comparisons were not done where cells contain too few incidents.

**Summary**

No significant change was found in the amount of appearance management products advertised over the 40 year span. The same result occurred across product categories as well. Apparel and accessories was shown to be the major form of appearance management product advertising. When analyzing the purchasers of appearance management advertisements it became apparent that manufacturers purchased the most pages. A decrease in the number of manufacturer advertisements was shown in the data, but due to low intercoder reliability could not be substantiated.

Intercoder reliability was sufficient in the level of dress of male models except for the six point scale when used on the lower body. The Soley and Kurzbard (1986) and the newly developed six point scale passed reliability and validity testing to show that there was no significant changes in level of male body exposure after 1965. The results of the new method matched well with the established method of exposure measurement.
Established methods were utilized in analysis of the male models' bodies. Using visual analysis, the mesomorphic body type was by far the most common, but this result could not be substantiated due to low intercoder agreement. The other methods of measuring body type yielded results that could not substantiate the hypotheses. In these cases, it was low sample size that was the major concern. Too few examples fit the strict requirements needed for these visual evaluations of the male body.

Sample size was not the major concern of the analysis of sexualized images featuring male models. Again, intercoder agreement prevented formal analysis of the data. The Soley and Kurzbard (1986) based method yielded valid results. All other measurement systems yielded invalid results. The data sets show minimal changes in the levels of sexual content over the 40-year time period, but hypotheses were not substantiated. The projective analysis between homosexual and heterosexual male coders showed that there is a significant difference in the manner a homosexual man and heterosexual man view the sexual nature of an advertisement featuring a male model. Again, due to low intercoder agreement only minimal conclusions can be drawn from the data collected.
CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

“The institutional structure of the consumer society orients the culture (and its attitudes, values, and rituals) more and more toward the world of commodities. The marketplace (and its major ideological tool, advertising) is the major structuring institution of contemporary consumer society” (Jhally, 1995, p. 78).

The imagery utilized in advertisements both reflects and directs the cultural state of a society. By analyzing the products being advertised to men and how the male models are utilized in those advertisements the research demonstrates patterns over time. Five-year time intervals show either linear trends or wave patterns in the data sets. The results of the study will be presented in relation to product advertising featuring male models and their effect on the idealized male and the consumption of male appearance management products.

Appearance Management Product Advertising

Percentage of Appearance Management Advertisements

The ideal male is expected to put effort into his appearance through the use of appearance management products. These products are often advertised in men’s interest magazines in order to reach their target market. While many writers talked about the “new man” of the 1980s and the “metrosexual male” of the late 1990s becoming more interested in grooming and appearance management there is no empirical evidence to support these anecdotal assumptions presented by the mass media.

There has been only a minimal statistically significant change in the percentage of appearance management advertisements in men’s interest magazines as compared to the non-appearance products. In fact, while 1980 had one of the highest percentage of appearance management product advertisements, 1985 was tied for the lowest. Similarly, 2000 had one of the highest percentages while 2005 was tied for the lowest. These show inconsistency for both the “new man” and the “metrosexual male” in regards to product advertising. These catchy
labels could be trends created by the mainstream media that cause a surge in advertising or these labels could be a reaction to an increase in advertising that creates changes in the mainstream media. This cannot be determined with the information collected in this study. Further investigation into the introduction of these terms, average spending in the major appearance management product areas, and popular cultural phenomena of the time would need to be collected and analyzed to produce an informed response to this area of inquiry.

Over the 40-year span of this study the mean average of appearance management product advertising is above 50 percent. More than half of the advertisements in men’s magazines are for appearance management products showing how important this industry has been for men’s magazines. Since 1970 there has been a consistent high/low pattern for appearance management products. Peaks occur in 1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000 while lows occur in 1975, 1985, 1995, and 2005. The results of this study cannot explain this pattern. A detailed analysis of the particular brands and products advertised by time period could produce an informed explanation of this phenomenon. The information collected could establish whether the lows are a reaction to the increased spending of the time period before, a natural variation in consumer desire, or the result of particular brands becoming dominant as weaker ones leave the market resulting in lowered levels of advertising until new competitors emerge encouraging increased advertising spending.

**Frequency of Appearance Management Product Categories**

There were no statistically significant changes in the categories of “apparel and accessories” or “personal care items” over the 40-year time period studied. The category of “fragrances” shows variability but due to low response rates a full analysis could not be run. Low response rates also prevented analysis of the categories of “exercise and diet products” and “appearance management services”. Despite the lack of a full analysis of all the variables it can be seen that “apparel and accessories” is the most common followed by “fragrances” and “personal care items”.

The category “apparel and accessories” far outweighs the other categories. Advertisements for clothing, shoes, jewelry, and other accessories accounted for a low of 65 percent and a high of 89 percent per time period with a mean of 78.5 percent of the appearance management advertisements since 1965. Advertisers within this product area will have the
greatest influence on the appearance choices of men. The male models selected to wear/show these items will help define the body type, facial features, grooming practices, and clothing choices for men of that time period. The Calvin Klein campaigns, discussed earlier, are a great example of the power of apparel advertisements to define the “ideal” male body.

The results for “apparel and accessories” from 1980 through 2005 match with the peak/valley pattern of the percentage of appearance management products, discussed previously, providing a possible relation between “apparel and accessory” advertising levels and those of appearance management products in general. This would limit the research necessary to test hypotheses as to the nature of the variability of appearance management product advertising by five year time periods.

The categories of “personal care items” and “fragrances” were found to be statistically different on only one occasion. All other cases (where there are enough examples for analysis) show no significant difference between the total advertisements recorded in these two categories. “Personal care items” do not show a significant difference over time but exhibit peaks in the 1980s (the “new man”) and also in 2005 (the “metrosexual”) while “fragrances” exhibits greater variability over time. Together “personal care products” and “fragrances” make up the next most common types of appearance management product advertisements.

“Exercise and diet products” are rare in the selected men’s interest magazines with a noticeable peak in the 1980s during the emphasis on physical fitness of the time period. “Appearance management services” are also rarely located within the selected men’s interest magazines. Due to the lack of examples no analyses were performed on these categories. All of the categories except “fragrances” have limited variability over time showing a general consistency over time by product category.

**Appearance Management Product Advertisement Purchasers**

The number of advertisements purchased by manufacturers has steadily decreased (except for the results of 1985) over time but remains the most important advertising purchaser in this category. Increases in the number of advertisements purchased by retailer / manufacturers as well as cooperative advertisements have been the major cause of that decline. The increase in private label brands and large specialty store chains in the retail sector since 1975 can be seen in
the number of advertisements in the “retailer and manufacturer” category while “cooperative”
advertisements begin to become prevalent in the results from 1980. Both remain a major portion
of the total appearance management advertisements coded after that time.

The intercoder reliability for this data set was low. The secondary coder was not as
familiar with the retail sector and never utilized the “retailer and manufacturer” category. Also,
some of the older magazines had brands and retailers that coders were not familiar with because
of the young ages of the coders.

Level of Dress for Male Models in Advertisements

Soley and Kurzbard (1986) Method

The results of this study show that there were few significant changes over time in
regards to the “demure” category of dress. The highest recorded level of demure dress for men
in advertisements was in 1965. That percentage declined until 1985 where there was an increase
in this category of dress. That increase grew in 1990 with a large majority of advertisements
featuring male models in demure dress. In 1995 the lowest level of demure dress was recorded
with a quick rebound occurring in 2000. The level of demure dress has decreased in 2005. This
pattern shows an increase in exposure for men from 1965 to 1980 with a large increase in fully
dressed men in 1985 and 1990. This move towards conservative male dress was met with a short
reaction of male exposure in 1995, before a return to conservatism in 2000.

The second most common category is “partially clad” followed by “seductive” and
“nude”. The partially clad level of dress shows little significant change except peaks in 1980 and
1995 when the category “demure” is at its lowest. Due to low sample size the “seductive”
category cannot be fully analyzed, but shows greater variability than the other categories. A
peak in 1975 most likely coincides with the fashion of exposing the male chest in fashion of the
“disco” era. Another peak occurs in 1995 where male exposure was at its highest point. The
category of “nude” was the least common overall being found mainly in advertisements for
fragrances for men.

This data set corroborates with the results from the study by Soley and Kurzbard (1986)
and Soley and Reid (1988). Both of these studies found an increase in “sexy” dressed male
models within the magazines they studied from the years 1964 and 1984. What these researchers would not have found is that their results from 1984 were probably part of an upward movement towards conservative dress. If they had chosen to include a data set from the mid-1970s they would have seen an even higher incidence of “sexy” male dress than they found in 1984.

This data set also supports the work of Reichert et al. (1999) who found an increase in explicit dress for men in advertisements between the years of 1983 and 1993 using the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) method. The year 1983 was part of an upward trend towards conservative male imagery in advertising while 1993 was part of a very steep upward trend of male body exposure. Reichert and Carpenter (2004) found a leveling off of explicit dress for men between 1993 and 2003. These results could match up with this data set since 1993 was during a very steep upward trend of male body exposure while 2003 was during a trend towards greater body exposure. Assuming these years are midpoints between five-year data sets the average percentage of “demure” dress for men would be 74.5% in 1993 and 80% in 2003. These percentages would produce results showing a “leveling off” for the time periods studied.

Zank, Youts, and Stutts (2005) utilized the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) rating system and results of that research along with the results of Reichert et al. (1999) to analyze levels of male dress in advertising resulting in data from 1964, 1984, 1993, and 2003. The first result that “partially clad” men increase from 1964 to 1984 to 1993 and remain constant in 2003 is partially supported. In this study there were six “partially clad” male models found in 1965, nine cases in 1985, an average of 15.5 cases between 1990 and 1995, and an average of 18 cases between 2000 and 2005. The second result that the use of “suggestively”, changed by the author from the original “seductive”, clad male models increased continually from 1964 to 2003 is not supported. In this study there were 0 “seductive” male models in 1965, 16 cases in 1985, an average of 9.5 cases between 1900 and 1995, and an average of 16.5 cases between 2000 and 2005. The result in 1985 does not match with the pattern described by those authors.

The category of “seductive” was the most common cause of intercoder disagreements. Terms such as “open shirts” and “tight clothing” were considered vague by coders. Also, the line between “partially clad” and “nude” was also unclear causing coders most often to apply the “partially clad” label when body parts were exposed. The terminology allows for interpretation by coders as to which category certain clothing elements would fall into along with concepts
such as “medium shots” and the way in which a towel can determine if a person is to be considered “nude” even though there is ample body coverage.

Overall there is a high level of consistency between previous studies utilizing this method of rating male body exposure although the years do not necessarily correspond. Since the other authors used a variety of magazine types and not just men’s magazines this should expand the validity of this study. The results from this study also show the need for shorter time intervals in this type of research. Having five-year time intervals revealed patterns that would be missed by choosing years that were too far apart from each other.

Six-point Scale of Male Exposure

Soley and Kurzbard (1986) created a system for categorizing male imagery based on the clothing worn by the model. Several research teams that have conducted similar research have utilized this system. The inherent problem with this system is the interpretive nature of the definitions for each category. Items of clothing, stylistic elements, and portions of the body shown in the image are all included together in the coding system. This can lead to confusion as to which category a particular image belongs.

A numerical system for rating the level of exposure of male models was created by the researcher. The lowest level is reserved for minimal body exposure while the highest level is full body exposure. The levels in between are of increasing levels of exposure as they relate to the sexual nature of male body parts. Due to the obvious difference in the upper and lower body there are two separate scales for the male body.

The scale has the starting point of typical Western male dress including a shirt, pants, and shoes. Full coverage of chest constitutes a crewneck or v-neck, open placket, or the first two buttons of a traditional button down shirt since these are generally considered appropriate for daily social interaction in modern American society. Hands, arms, and feet are not accounted for in this study since these areas are commonly exposed in public. Exercise equipment, bandages, and other forms of non-clothing/accessories are not counted as coverage of the body.

The upper body is broken down into six levels. Level one is full coverage of the chest, torso, and arms past the shoulders. Level two is full coverage of the chest and torso with the shoulders exposed. This category is rare since men in advertisements do not often wear
sleeveless shirts often termed “muscle shirts”, but this is a higher level of exposure than level one. The partial exposure of the chest or back with arms covered past the shoulders is level three. This type of body exposure comes into fashion in cycles. Opening the buttons of a dress shirt to expose the male chest was popular in the 1970s and tight fitting shirts with zippers that could be unzipped to expose the male chest were popular in the 1990s.

Partial exposure of the chest/back with the shoulders also exposed would place an image into level four. This is a combination of levels two and three. The tank top, currently referred to as the “wife beater” in youth culture, exposes the upper chest, upper back, and the shoulders. Level five occurs whenever the torso or lower back is exposed. The abdominal region has become one of the prime determinants of male body perfection. The exposure of well-defined abdominal muscles requires the full opening of a shirt or the model must pull up the shirt to expose this region if the model is wearing a top in the image. Also included in this level is lower back exposure although it is not nearly as common as abdominal exposure. Level six is full upper body exposure.

The lower body is also broken down into six levels. Level one again is full coverage from the waist to the ankles. Level two is exposure up to the knee. Bermuda style shorts and Capri pants (currently popular in Europe) would fall into this category. Men in their underwear or athletic clothing typically fall into categories above level two. Mid-thigh exposure defines level three. Boxer shorts and boxer briefs are popular in men’s underwear imagery. The shorter style of men’s shorts popular in the 1970s would also fall into level three. Level four requires exposure of the full thigh. Men’s briefs and Speedo® style swimsuits typify this particular level of exposure.

Exposure of the upper buttocks/ lower pelvis constitutes level five. The natural waistline of the male body is the cutoff for the upper body/ lower body scales. Advertisements for items such as fragrances will show apparently nude couples in an embrace, but the image is cut off before the photo could be considered indecent. This would place that image into level five, as would an image of the currently popular low cut jeans worn without a shirt. Level six is full lower body exposure. Nude male models turn to the side to avoid frontal exposure in several fragrance advertisements over the years placing them into level six.

The results of the upper body rating were combined due to a lack of frequency in some of the categories. “Level 1 & 2” corresponded by +/- 2 percent with the “demure” category of
Soley and Kurzbard (1986) in each time period studied. Beginning in 1975, “Level 3 and 4” corresponded by +/- 2 percent with the “seductive” category of Soley and Kurzbard (1986) and “Level 5 & 6” corresponded by +/- 2 percent with the “partially clad” and “nude” categories. This shows continuity between the two systems in terms of results achieved. Therefore, all of the results of this data set corresponded with those discussed previously. One major difference in the results is that using the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) method requires “seductive”, “partially clad”, and “nude” to be combined into one category creating only two categories to analyze. The new level system can be combined into three separate categories that can be fully analyzed.

The category of “Level 3 & 4” has remained statistically consistent over time except for low percentages in 1965, 1990, and 2000 when the amount of “Level 1 & 2” were at their highest peaks. The category of “Level 5 & 6” has also remained statistically consistent over time except for no coded examples in 1965 and very high percentages in 1980 and 1995 when the amount of “Level 1 & 2” was at their lowest points. Comparing “Level 3 & 4” and “Level 5 & 6” found only one statistically significant difference in 1980 when “Level 5 & 6” peaked.

The upper body rating system developed by the researcher had a higher level of intercoder agreement as well as Scott’s pi result than that used by Soley and Kurzbard (1986) and the associated use of the scale in this research. The data was more specific in nature, did not have titles with previous held connotations, and allowed for more statistical analysis. Reliability scores for the lower body were not as reliable as the upper body scale or as high as the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) method.

Coders were not sure which images were to be analyzed based on the amount of exposure. Guidelines need to be defined in cases such as male images cut off below the waist or featuring only the ankle region. This was not clearly written into the coding criteria. Based on the direct comparison of the results of the upper body rating system and the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) method the lower body rating system may not be as relevant to future research as the upper body rating system.

Future research could explore the applicability of measuring only the upper body as an indicator of body exposure and sexuality of image. The lower body ratings are often more difficult since the upper body is often the focus of an image.
Male Body Type Utilized in Advertisements

Although there were problems with the intercoder reliability of this data set a few trends can be inferred. The most common male body shape (somatotype) used in advertisements in men’s interest magazines over time is the mesomorphic body type. These results correspond with those of Gottschall (1999). This body type is considered the V-shape with wide shoulders tapering to a smaller waist. The second most common type, which has leveled out in recent years, is the ectomorphic body type. This is a rectangular upper body that is considered thin compared to the mesomorph. Traditional high-fashion models have this body type. The least common body type is the ectomorph, characterized as stocky or overweight. The number of models of this body type is consistently dwindling over time.

Intercoder reliability could be improved by clearly defining how much of a male image is needed for the body type to be coded as well as conditions where body type cannot be established. In addition, clear representations and definitions of the three body types may also improve the reliability of the results. Unfortunately, the clothing worn and the variability of male bodies seen in advertisements will continue to make reliability a problem when determining body type.

Waist to Shoulder Ratios

The idealized male body often is referred to as V-shaped. This implies having shoulders that are significantly wider than the waist. The waist to shoulder ratio was used to rate the attractiveness of the male body by Dixson et al. (2003) by showing different body type illustrations to women. The overwhelming preference for women was a man with a waist to shoulder ratio of 0.6 followed by 0.7 in the mesomorphic somatotype.

The results of the current study show a statistically significant consistent mean waist to shoulder ratio over the last 35 years. That mean score falls between 0.64 and 0.68 for the years 1970 to 2005. Men with a waist to shoulder ratio of 0.67 and 0.68 were the most common and consistent over time. This is comparable with the preferred waist to shoulder ratio determined by
Dixson et al. (2003), and the results from Petrie et al. (1996) that the mean waist to shoulder ratio has not changed over time since the 1960s in magazines.

The most extreme V-shapes were mainly recoded in 1975 through 1985 going against the claim that modern models have moved towards a greater V-shape than in the past (Hatoum & Belle, 2004; Law & Labre, 2002; Leit, Pope, & Gray, 2001; Lorenzen et al., 2004; Pope, Phillips, & Olivardia, 2000; Quart, 2003; Weinke, 1998). Intercoder reliability was not recorded for this data set since there were so few incidences coded and the data requires a direct measurement. Ads that met the requirements were measured separately by the two coders as in the study by Petrie et al. (1996).

Body Compositions Ratings of Male Models Using the Law and Labre (2002) Scale

The Law and Labre (2002) scale utilizes eight categories of male body compositions. Using only advertisements featuring male models with exposed chests resulted in a data set too small for statistical analysis. A visual analysis of the data shows a preference for the “low body fat / somewhat muscular” body composition followed by the “medium body fat / somewhat muscular” body composition with the “low body fat / somewhat muscular” body becoming clearly the most popular after 1990.

It can also be seen that the low body fat body composition is a large majority of the images coded after 1985. A movement from not muscular to very muscular also occurs at the same time period. While the general somatotype and waist to shoulder measurements may not have changed it is the body composition that appears to have changed over time. A movement to a leaner and more muscular male ideal coincides with the fitness movement of the 1980s and continues to be increasingly muscular for models today.

These results are compatible with those of Law and Labre (2002) except those researchers found many more cases of the low body fat / very muscular body composition than this research found. This difference is most likely because Law and Labret (2002) used Sports Illustrated in their sample and included athletes as well as models.

The intercoder reliability of this data set was very low. Coders, who were graduate students in exercise physiology, found the body composition chart difficult to use. They felt the body types shown did not accurately reflect the categories and the levels of definition were not
consistent through body types. The level of muscularity was most often in disagreement rather than the body fat level category.

**Estimated Body Fat of Male Models**

There has been no statistically significant change in mean body fat percentages of male models since 1970. There is a noticeable trend towards lower levels of body fat from 1970 through 1990. After 1990 there is a trend towards a higher percentage of body fat closer to the levels of the 1980s. The 1990s showed several cases of extremely low body fat (4% - 6%) with mean scores below 6%. This trend coincides with the Calvin Klein Underwear campaigns and the rise of the Bruce Weber photographed Abercrombie and Fitch campaigns featuring extremely lean young models.

Lowered levels of body fat can increase the appearance of muscularity and exaggerate the appearance of the V-shape for male models. Beginning in 1980 a large majority of the models were at or below 8% body fat. This particular 8% estimate is the most commonly occurring body fat level starting in 1975. Although intercoder reliability statistics were not run on this data set the coders had 100% agreement at +/- 2% body fat. This is an extremely high level of agreement. The major area of concern was which images qualified to be rated. This was a major cause of concern and affected the amount of usable examples for this research. Only examples coded by both judges are included in the data set.

The results of the data collected on male model body types shows that there is little statistically significant change over time beginning in 1970 (since there were no examples located in 1965 in several areas). The mesomorphic body type with a waist to shoulder ratio around 0.66 has consistently been the preferred body type. Looking specifically at body fat and muscularity you can see some trends towards male models with lower levels of body fat and higher levels of muscularity, but no significant changes could be reported. Over time the ideal male is mesomorphic with a waist to shoulder ratio of 0.67. He has eight percent body fat and appears somewhat muscular.
Use of the Sexualized Male Body in Advertisements

**Sexualized Imagery of Men as Defined by Soley and Kurzbard (1986) and Rohlinger (2002)**

The data set collected using the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) method there have been little statistically significant changes in the amount of non-sexual advertisements over time. There is a high point in 1965 of non-sexual ads and a low point of non-sexual ads in 1995 that were significant. A pattern that emerges from the data collected is an increase in sexual advertising featuring men from 1965 to 1980 with decrease following until 1995 where there is the highest recorded level of sexual advertisements. A decrease in sexual ads follows that peak. This pattern is created based on the number of “demure” advertisements recorded compared to the three other categories.

According to the data set collected using the Rohlinger (2002) method revealed only one statistically significant change (1995) in the amount of non-sexual advertisements over time. The general pattern that emerges matches closely with that of the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) method showing an increase in sexual advertising featuring men from 1965 to 1980 with decrease following until 1995 where there is the highest recorded level of sexual advertisements. A decrease in sexual ads follows that peak, but in this case an increase in sexual ads featuring men occurs in 2005. The difference may come from the interpretive nature of the coding system and the fact that the Rohlinger (2002) method does not make a direct connection between bodily exposure and sexualized imagery.

Rohlinger (2002) published results showing 38.5% of male models were “erotic males” in 1987 and 37.8% in 1997. Both of these figures are above the highest recorded level in this study being 32% in 1995. The next highest recorded level was 27% in both 1980 and 2005. The mean percentage of 1985 and 1990 is 19% and the mean percentage of 1995 and 2000 is 22.5%. There is a great deal of discrepancy between the findings of this study and Rohlinger (2002).

**Sexualized Imagery of Men Using a Defined Rating System**

Coders were given a written set of guidelines for coding advertisements into five distinct levels. There were conditions pertaining to solo males and males interacting with other models.
(gender left unspecified). Level one was considered non-sexual use of a male model or non-sexual model interaction. This is the base for comparison with non-sexual advertisement levels recorded using the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) method and the Rohlinger (2002) concept of “erotic males”.

Level two involved the use of the idealized male body through partial body exposure or revealing clothing. This level also included flirtatious imagery between models. This is a move towards sexualized imagery using a male model specifically for his bodily attractiveness or creating a scene of possible sexual interaction. Level three is slightly more sexualized because there is a specific focus on a part of the male model instead of the model as a whole person. Feminist authors consider this type of imagery exploitative (Hall & Crum, 1994). This level also includes flirtatious imagery between models including touch. This aspect of touch increases the sense of impending sexual contact.

Positioning and/or “gaze” of a solo male model are the main aspects of level four advertisements. Placing the male model in a sexual position such as lying with the legs open and the hands near the crotch area or laying in a bed with only a sheet for coverage would be examples of sexual positioning. The “gaze” or sexualized eye contact between model and perceived image viewer also places an advertisement into level four. The use of sexualized imagery between models is also a condition of level four. More than flirtatious images these images show actual sexual contact between models.

When these images of sexual contact include high levels of bodily exposure they qualify for a level five status. Level five advertisements of a solo male model require a fully nude male or the exposure of the lower pelvis or upper buttocks in a sexual manner. These regions of the male body are highly sexualized being that they are rarely exhibited in public.

The intercoder agreement was 85% with a Scott’s pi of 0.72 showing an acceptable level of intercoder agreement. These levels could be increased by more clearly defining what constitutes an acceptable image for coding and working on understanding the term “gaze” to represent the look a model gives to the viewer. These were common areas of disagreement amongst coders.

The result from this data set follows the same trends as the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) method and the Rohlinger (2002) method. What is noticeably different with these results is that there is no statistically significant change in the level of non-sexual ads over the entire 40 year
time period. Basing the level of sexuality of an advertisement on a defined set of criteria rather than level of dress or the specific use of the word “erotic” should lead to more realistic results.

Since many advertisements contain contextual scenes, rating based on clothing level seems an ineffective method of rating sexuality. Many examples of sexual situations involving fully clothed models exist as well as non-sexual ads featuring men that are not fully clothed (whether for humor or simply to present a product such as underwear in a non-sexual manner) in the image. The word “erotic” is also too strong a concept and requires an obviously sexual situation to be coded as sexual. This leaves out subtle imagery and exploitative types of advertisements that may not in fact be “erotic”.

Having five distinct levels is also valuable for statistical analysis. The Soley and Kurzbard (1986) method allows for only sexual and non-sexual categories. The manner in which the Rohlinger (2002) method is being utilized for this research provides the same two category results. When coding advertisements before 1980 there will likely not be enough cases that fall into levels 3 through 5 for analysis. The categories were combined in this research in order to analyze the results across time. If a larger sample size by year is used or the focus is on modern advertisements then this system will allow for more complex statistical analysis than the other options available.

**Sexualized Imagery of Men Using Projective Content Analysis**

The results of this analysis show that there were no statistically significant changes in the percentage of non-sexual advertisements over the last 40 years. The pattern of change essentially follows that of the defined rating system except that frequency of level one ads (non-sexual) are much higher with this type of analysis than any of the others utilized in this research. The mean percentage of level one ads is 83% as compared to 72% with the defined rating system. The male coders occasionally felt an advertisement featuring a male model was mildly sexual (level 2) and rarely felt an advertisement deserved a rating above level 2.

The results of this form of rating by homosexual coders show that there were no statistically significant changes in the percentage of non-sexual advertisements after 1965. The pattern of change follows that of the defined rating system much closer than the heterosexual coders. The mean percentage of level one ads is 75% as compared to 72% with the defined
rating system while the mean percentage of level two ads was 13% for both methods of rating the sexuality of advertisements featuring males. Results can be seen in the chart below.

![Percentage of Non-Sexual Advertisements Featuring Male Models](chart)

**Figure 1: Percentages of Non-sexual Advertisements Featuring Male Models (Projective)**

**Comparison of Heterosexual Male Coders and Homosexual Male Coders**

A T-test showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the ratings of heterosexual and homosexual male coders. This result is not surprising based on prior research. Heterosexual males are more likely to disregard sexual content featuring male models in order to sustain hegemonic masculinity (Jones, Stanaland, & Gelb, 1998) while homosexual males notice the latent sexual innuendo that can be found in imagery featuring male models (Campbell & Griffith, 1994). Therefore, sexual orientation will play a role in the results of male imagery analysis that does not include specific instructions for coding.

The magazines being coded are targeted towards a heterosexual male reader (based on content and imagery) and one must assume the advertisements contained within are also targeted towards a heterosexual male reader. Therefore, even though the homosexual male projective content ratings are closer to the defined rating system, it may be of more substantial importance.
to find out how heterosexual men themselves view these advertisements. The merchandising of retail products and retail interiors often matches the imagery of major advertising campaigns. Knowing whether men regard such imagery featuring male models as too overtly sexual may help prevent the loss of heterosexual male customers who find such campaigns too feminine or too homoerotic for their personal taste.

Analysis of Trends in Non-sexual Advertisements Featuring Male Models

Figure 2: Percentages of Non-Sexual Advertisements Featuring Male Models (Multiple)

The chart above shows the consistent patterns that resulted from the various forms of measuring the sexual nature of advertisements featuring male models in men’s magazines. There
are trends in the percentages of non-sexual advertisements (either increasing or decreasing) that can be seen regardless of the method utilized during any particular time period except the heterosexual projective content from 1970 to 1975 and the defined rating method from 1970 to 1975.

Increased levels of sexual content in advertising occur from 1965 to 1980, 1990 to 1995, and 2000 to 2005. The consistent increase from 1965 to 1980 could be explained by the sexual revolution of the 1970s. Fashion trends involved the showing of more skin in mainstream clothing choices such as mini skirts, short shorts, opened shirts for men, and bikini bathing suits. This coupled with the “free love” spirit of the times allowed for more sexualized imagery in mainstream magazines.

The 1980s were a more conservative time period in general than the 1970s. The influence of the Reagan administration, the AIDS crisis, and a general reaction to the provocative nature of the previous decade could account for this move toward non-sexual advertisements. There is a very steep increase in advertisements featuring fully dressed males. This could be due to the conservative mood of the nation, fashion trends, a reaction to the women’s liberation movement, or the fear of homosexuality brought by the discovery of the AIDS virus.

The highest percent of sexual advertisements recorded since 1980 were in 1995. This followed a consistent increase in non-sexual advertising. This high point of sexualized advertisements coincides with the Clinton administration, an increase in exposure and acceptance of the homosexual community, and increased fashion interest by men. The Calvin Klein Underwear ads featuring Marky Mark in 1992 ushered in a rush of “beefcake” advertising using muscular male models to sell clothing and related products to men. The Bruce Weber photographed (and admittedly homoerotic) Abercrombie and Fitch ads began shortly thereafter.

The year 2000 saw a sharp increase in non-sexual advertising. During this year the Bush administration came into political office promoting the campaign issue of “family values” following the Clinton White House sex scandal. This feeling of a return to “old fashioned” values may have been reflected in the advertising that followed the election. This return to conservative advertising was short lived. Results from 2005 are in the direction of more sexual advertising content.

While theories are presented to explain why there are peaks and valleys at particular times in the study it must be suggested that there is in fact a fashion to advertising. The fashion
cycle states that any particular object will go towards an extreme until there is a point (or perhaps event) that causes it to change in the opposite direction. A typical example is that women’s skirts may get progressively shorter over time, but there is a point where it becomes indecent and a reaction towards longer skirts results.

Perhaps that is being reflected in the sexual advertisements featuring male models. The ads were getting more sexual from 1965 to 1980 (where they reached a recorded low) and then there was a change in direction. In 1990 a high percentage of non-sexual ads was recorded, but the results of 1995 show a high percentage of sexual ads exists. Again there is a reaction towards non-sexual advertising causing a high percentage to be recorded in 2000. The most current set of results in 2005 show a moderate level of non-sexual advertisements. If this fashion pattern does in fact exist the results of 2010 should show a peak of sexual advertisements (40%) causing a reaction towards non-sexual advertising in 2015.

Comparison of Results from Esquire and GQ Versus Details and Maxim

When the data collected from Esquire and GQ is compared with that from Details and Maxim there are no significant differences found in any category. This adds to the possible scope of the research. The added results support the findings recorded for the years 2000 and 2005 by increasing the sample size and the magazines utilized. Expanding the results to include magazines with a different focus and different target markets allows the researcher to expand the possible scope of the results.

The other major aspect is the target reader of the magazines selected. Esquire is focused on culture and politics with a heterosexual orientation towards pictorials and articles. GQ is a fashion magazine with ambiguous sexual orientation to its photography and articles focusing mainly on fashion and culture. The likely reader of these magazines is over 30 years old.

Details is focused on culture, politics, and fashion with a heterosexual focus to its articles and photography. This particular magazine is considered ‘metrosexual’ and therefore more ambiguous at points than other popular mainstream magazines. Maxim has a decidedly heterosexual focus with articles on movies, sports, video games, culture, fashion, and a variety of other male interests. The photography regularly features seductive females on the cover as well
as layouts within the magazine. The likely reader of *Maxim* is as young as 18 while the *Details* reader is in his 20s or older.

**Relationship Between Print Advertising and Retail Sales of Men’s Products**

The introduction of a new product, or a variation to an existing product usually requires print advertising, broadcast advertising, and in-store promotional activities. Advertising campaigns have several approaches to choose from when advertising a product. Simon (1971) identified seven of the most commonly used approaches as information, argument, emotional attraction, repeat assertion, command, symbolic association, and imitation. The use of an idealized male, and the associated benefits, allows advertisers to use several of these approaches to convince men to try their appearance management products (Bittar, 2004).

The use of persuasive and informative advertisements to promote interest amongst men must be coupled with effective in-store placement to promote actual product purchase. A majority of men’s personal care products are purchased at discount mass merchandise stores or convenience stores (Chakraborty, 2005; Kruger, 2000). Development of a men’s product aisle promotes the sale of personal care items. Products such as shaving supplies often anchor these aisles and male-targeted moisturizers, soaps, fragrances, hair removers, hair dyes, and other personal care items are available within reach.

High-end male personal care products such as designer fragrances and skin care items are often only available at department stores and personal care specialists like Sephora. Promoting the purchase of these products can be somewhat more difficult since many men feel uncomfortable in these particular settings (Daniels, 2005). Again, having specific sales areas separate from the women’s products helps to promote sales by making men more secure while purchasing these products. The print advertising (often in this case cooperative advertising) is a catalyst for the acceptance of a male focused appearance management product. A coordinated and well thought out in-store merchandising plan must then be implemented to promote the sale of these products at a particular retail location.
“Although the hyper-developed muscularity of an Arnold Schwarzenegger is regarded by most people as excessive, and perhaps bordering on the fascist, it is still the case that muscularity is a key term in appraising men’s bodies. This again probably comes from men themselves. Muscularity is the sign of power – natural, achieved, phallic” (Dyer, 1982, p. 68).

The above quotation, along with the quotation by Lavrakas that began Chapter 1, show that male muscularity has been an important factor in judging the attractiveness of men. Research conducted in the 1960s showed a preference for a mesomorphic body type for males from both men and women in the studies. This desire for muscularity in men is often built on traditional ideas of masculinity. Although they did not refer to muscularity in particular it shows a general societal preference for that specific body type. The idealized male body, and those particular aspects of appearance that define a man as attractive, has in fact changed very little over time according to this study. The body itself was just part of the ideal male image. Consumption of commodities and grooming of the self were also vital to the polished male appearance. The options that have become available to men have expanded with the cultural changes in traditional masculinity in America.

The creation of the magazine Gentlemen’s Quarterly in 1957 shows there was a viable market for appearance management products for men. The content of the magazine focused on fashion, personal care, and current events. The advertisements within the magazine were for appearance management products, cigarettes/alcohol, automobiles, travel/financial services, and other types of consumer products. The success of the magazine required circulation high enough to provide a profit to the publisher through sales and advertising revenue. The results of this study have shown that there have been no significant changes in the percentage of appearance management product advertisements or product categories in GQ and Esquire over the last 40 years. This shows a consistency in the popularity of appearance management for men over time.

Retailers and manufacturers are taking advantage of the increased acceptability of male interest in appearance management. Men’s personal care products, in particular, have a higher level of visibility in the marketplace. Discount department stores and drug stores especially have
seen an increase in products available to men as well as the range of products available. This leads to higher profitability and higher sales per square foot for personal care items. Industry trends show increases in sales within the men’s personal care product area. This could be linked to the effectiveness of the advertising campaigns. Retailers and manufacturers can use this information to tailor their campaigns to increase awareness, information, and exposure of their products to men.

The apparel and accessories category dominates the appearance management product advertisements consistently. The popularity of the personal care ads and the fragrance ads changes over time with few significant differences found between the two categories. Least common in the appearance management product advertisements are services and diet/exercise products. Diet and exercise products are more commonly found in special interest magazines and services are rarely advertised in full size print ads.

Full size print advertisements for appearance management products often feature male models. In most cases the male model is fully clothed with the product being promoted. When the model is not fully clothed there are levels of exposure that can be determined. Whether those categories are based on a set of concepts or a strict set of rules each image can be categorized. The upper body level of exposure scale created by the researcher was shown to be more reliable and allow for more complex statistical analysis than the scale created by Soley and Kurzbard (1986). In both analyses utilized in this study, limited statistical difference in the amount of fully clothed models was seen over the 40-year study. More variability was seen in the higher levels of body exposure measured during the research.

Body exposure for men in advertisements usually entails the used of an idealized male body. According to the research the idealized male body has not changed significantly over the last 40 years. Currently that body is mesomorphic, has a waist to shoulder ratio of 0.66, can be characterized as having low body fat and being somewhat muscular, and has 8% body fat. This is based on the mean results of analysis over time. This idealized body matches up with several published studies on the male body preferences of both men and women.

Idealized male bodies used in advertisements are sometimes used in sexualized imagery to sell a particular product. The sexual nature of the advertisement can be from the model himself or from an interaction with another model. Sexualized advertising was rated utilizing four distinct methods. Methods used included level of exposure, the definition of the term
“erotic male” as utilized by Rohlinger (2002), a set of distinct criteria determined by the researcher, and projective content analysis by male coders. Each of these methods produced differing results, but all showed the same pattern of increased and decreases over the 40-year time period in five-year intervals.

This research utilized five-year time intervals in the data collection process. The results showed some distinct peaks and valleys occur in between ten-year time intervals. Many of the previously published studies utilized a ten-year time span between data collection periods. This may cause researchers to misinterpret data as linear even though it may not actually be linear. Looking at results too far apart can create skewed results that miss out on possible changes that could have occurred in between. This data set shows the importance of using shorter time periods when studying cultural changes using printed media such as magazines.

This research project has added to the body of knowledge in several areas. There was no published research located that evaluated appearance management product advertising over time in printed media. These results provide a basis of information and gave the researcher ideas on how to improve the data collection for future studies. Intercoder reliability became an issue when it came to advertising purchaser data. Experts in the field of retailing and merchandising are needed to collect this data.

The data collected on male body imagery has been compared with previous studies and added to the bank of information available to researchers. Two new areas were explored including creating a Level of Male Body Exposure scale and using experts to visually measure body fat. New scales were also created in the area of sexualized imagery including a defined scale of sexualized imagery featuring male models and the use of projective content to measure advertisement sexuality. In addition data was collected that was based on previous studies in this area and the results were compared to that prior research. The issue that heterosexual males and homosexual males see images featuring male models in different ways was also explored and shown to be true, although not substantiated.

Overall, this research has expanded the current body of knowledge in several areas, created new systems for measuring particular aspects of magazine advertisements, advocated a five-year time frame when performing long term historical studies using magazines, and presents several new research questions to be studied in the future.
Limitations

All of the data collected for this study comes from the magazines *Esquire* and *GQ*. Using these magazines limits the results to general men’s interest magazines targeted to an older American male with a higher income than the national average. Including issues of *Details* and *Maxim* for comparison allows the researcher to expand the results to a broader market of magazines and magazine readers. Although the inclusion of the newer magazines increases the general sample size there were only four issues (total) analyzed for each year studied in the general results. This is not a large sample size and created totals that were strikingly different for each time period based on the issues selected. Issues such as low intercoder agreement and lack of sufficient sample size in some analyses prevented substantiation of several hypotheses.

Recommendations for Future Research

The variations that occur in the appearance management product data collected in this study cannot be explained based on the design of this study. Future research could be conducted to evaluate changes in the amount of appearance management advertisements in men’s magazines, the types of products advertised, and the advertisement purchasers. Focusing specifically on these areas when collecting data may help explain these variations. Collecting sales data, looking at major advertising campaigns, and trends in the industry over time may shed light on this area and provide valuable information to the retailers of men’s appearance management products.

The media, in relation to men’s appearance management, projects titles onto men. Catchy terms such as the ‘new man’ and the ‘metrosexual’ become commonplace for a period of time and move into the common public vernacular. An area of future research is to inspect these terms as to their inception and whether the use of the term is inspired by an increase in advertising or the increases in advertising are a reaction to the popularity of the terminology. The inception of the term, average spending in major product areas, popular cultural phenomena, and print advertisements could be analyzed to explore this concept.
Another area of research is to conduct further experiments utilizing the Level of Male Exposure (Upper body) and the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) methods to compare the data collected and evaluate the effectiveness of the two methods in both intercoder reliability and effectiveness of results compared to previous studies. Other methods of evaluating the level of sexuality of an advertisement could also be explored. The defined rating system and the projective content method of rating the sexual nature of advertisements could be expanded upon and further evaluated for effectiveness and applicability.
APPENDIX A
IRB APPROVAL AND CONSENT FORM

Office of the Vice President For Research
Human Subjects Committee
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2742
(850) 644-8673 · FAX (850) 644-4392

APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Date: 5/24/2006

To:
Matthew McGrath
501 Blairstone Rd #2503
Tallahassee, FL 32301

Dept.: TEXTILES AND CONSUMER SCIENCES

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research
Analyzing the Advertising of Men’s Appearance Management Products and the visual
imagery used to promote those products over a 40-year span.

The forms that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal
referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and two members of the Human
Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Expedited per 45 CFR § 46.110(b) 7 and has
been approved by an accelerated review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to
weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential
risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which
may be required.

If the project has not been completed by 5/23/2007 you must request renewed approval for
continuation of the project.

You are advised that any change in protocol in this project must be approved by resubmission of the
project to the Committee for approval. Also, the principal investigator must promptly report, in writing,
any unexpected problems causing risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the chairman of your department and/or your major professor is
reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human
subjects in the department, and should review protocols of such investigations as often as needed to
insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Protection from Research Risks. The
Assurance Number is IRB00000446.

Cc: Dr. Jeanne Heitmeyer
HSC No. 2006.0436
Human Subjects Committee

Letter of Consent for Adults

Dear research coder,

I am a graduate student under the direction of Professor Jeanne Heitmeyer in the College of Human Sciences at Florida State University. I am conducting a research study to analyze the advertising of men’s appearance management products and the visual imagery used to promote those products over a 40-year span.

Your participation will involve looking through magazines and coding the advertisements based on prescribed coding criteria. This portion of the research collection should take no more than five hours. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. The results of the research study may be published, but your name will not be used.

There are foreseeable discomforts to you, the subject, if you agree to participate in the study. The possible discomforts include temporary reduced self-esteem or body satisfaction based on the constant exposure to idealized male imagery.

Although there may be no direct benefit to you, the possible benefit of your participation is expanding the current body of knowledge and data collection methods within this area of study.

If you have any questions concerning this research study, please contact Matthew McGrath at (850) 574-6977 or mdm03j@fsu.edu. If you prefer, you may contact Dr. Jeanne Heitmeyer at (850) 644-8536 or jheitmey@fsu.edu.

Sincerely,

Matthew McGrath

I give my consent to participate in the above study.

__________________________________________ (signature) ____________________________ (date)

If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Committee, Institutional Review Board, through the Vice President for the Office of Research at (850) 644-8633.
APPENDIX B
CODING CRITERIA/ INSTRUCTIONS

H1 (a): There will be an increase in the number of appearance management product advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

H1 (b-c): There will be changes in the appearance management product categories of advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

1. Page number of advertisement should be recorded
2. Is this an appearance management product? (H1a)
   Definition: Appearance management products include apparel, accessories, jewelry, makeup, skin care products, implements to remove hair, hair care products and devices, colognes/perfumes, oral cleansing products, exercise equipment, and other items or services used to manipulate, dress or improve the appearance of the body.
3. Is this a full page advertisement?
4. If an appearance management product which category would it fall under? (H1b)
   Apparel/Accessories, Personal Care, Fragrance, Exercise/Diet, Appearance Management Services, or Other
5. What type of company purchased the product (non-service) advertisement? (H1c)
   Manufacturer of the product, Retailer (including private label stores), Co-operative advertising (an independent retailer features a national brand product), Manufacturer/Retailer (producers of national and private and private label products), or Service Provider (product is not a tangible object)
H2 (a, b): There will be an increase in the level of undress for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

1. Is this a full-page advertisement featuring at least one male model?
2. If it is not stop here.
3. Rate the level of dress of the male model(s) (H2a / H4a)
   
   Use the Soley and Kurzbard (1986) system
   
   - Demure dress – Typical dress including shorts
   - Seductive dress – Open shirts exposing the chest, “short shorts”, tight clothing that accentuates middle inseam of trousers, and “muscle shirts”
   - Partially clad – Bathing suits, undergarments, “close-ups of bare shoulders”, and photographs of legs which include the thigh but display no clothing
   - Nude – unclothed bodies including silhouettes, translucent undergarments, “medium shots” where the models display no clothing except perhaps a towel across the shoulders, and full shots where the model is unclad except for a towel

4. Use the 6-point rating scale for the upper and lower body of male model(s) (H2b)

   Notes: Coverage of chest constitutes a crewneck or v-neck, open placket, or the first two buttons of a traditional button down shirt. Hands, arms, and feet are not accounted for in this study since these areas are commonly exposed in public. Exercise equipment, bandages, jewelry, and unusual forms of non-clothing/accessories are not counted as coverage of the body. Body parts obscured with items such as towels/bedding or where models are behind a solid object but body parts are still partially exposed are considered coverage.
Upper body:

[1] Coverage of chest, torso, and arms past shoulders
   ex. t-shirt
[2] Full coverage of chest and torso with shoulders exposed
   ex. sleeveless t-shirt
[3] Partial chest (back) exposure with arms covered past shoulders
   ex. a partially unbuttoned dress shirt
[4] Partial chest (back) exposure with shoulders exposed
   ex. tank top
[5] Torso exposure/ Lower back exposure
   ex. half-shirt / pulling up of shirt to expose the abdomen/back
[6] Full chest and torso exposure
   ex. no shirt

Lower body:

[1] Full coverage
   ex. pants
[2] Exposure up to the knee
   ex. shorts
   ex. boxers
[4] Exposure of full thigh
   ex. briefs
[5] Exposure of upper buttocks/ lower pelvis (below natural waistline)/
   coverage of genital area only
   ex. low slung jeans without underwear/ object blocks genitals
[6] Full lower body exposure
   ex. exposed buttocks or the turned body where no clothing is seen
H3 (a, b, c, d): There will be a change in “idealized” body type for men, moving to a more lean and muscular V-shape for the males used in advertisements found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

1. Is this a full-page advertisement featuring at least one male model?
2. If it is not stop here.
3. Rate the body type(s) as Ectomorphic, Mesomorphic, or Endomorphic. (H3a)
4. Does this image pass the requirements set by Law and Labret (2002)?
   The image must feature a male torso that is either shirtless or wearing form fitting clothing that allowed the coders to determine muscular definition and level of body fat. Images that do not actually show the entire torso can be used if the degree of muscular definition could be determined.
5. If it does not stop here.
6. Measure the shoulders and waist in millimeters if a model is facing forward directly at the viewer or directly away from the viewer with squared shoulders. (H3b)
7. Use the Law and Labret (2002) scale of body fat and muscularity to rate the male body/bodies in the image. (H3c)
8. Does this male model have full chest exposure?
9. If not stop here.
10. Estimate the percentage of body fat of the model(s). (H3d)

H4 (a, b, c, d): There will be an increase in the use of the sexualized male body in the advertisements (measured based on judging criteria) found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

1. Is this a full-page advertisement featuring at least one male model?
2. If it is not stop here.
3. Is this image the use of “erotic male” as defined by Rohlinger (2002)? (H4b)
   Her definitions include “a physical and sexual ideal, whereby an attractive muscular man is placed on display” (p. 62) and “the erotic male has sexual overtones because the model is positioned in a sexual manner or his crotch area or penis, which is illustrated symbolically rather than actually shown, becomes the focal point of the image” (p.67).
   Other categories utilized included Hero, Man at Work, Consumer, Quiescent, Family Man, Outdoorsman, and Urban.
4. Use a five-point sexualized male model scale to rate the advertisement. (H4c)

   Level 1: Non-sexual use of a male model/ non-sexual model interaction
   Level 2: Use of idealized male body through partial exposure or revealing clothing. Use of flirtatious imagery between models.
   Level 3: Use of parts of the idealized male body (such as chest shots/ pictures without heads). Use of flirtatious imagery between models including touch.
   Level 4: Use of sexual positioning of the male model or the use of “alluring” gaze by the male model. Use of sexual imagery between models.
   Level 5: Use of a nude male model or one exposing the lower pelvis or upper buttocks in a sexual manner. Use of sexual imagery between models with high levels of bodily exposure.

H4 (d): There will be an increase in the use of the sexualized male body in the advertisements (measured based on judging criteria) found in US men’s lifestyle magazines from 1965 to 2005.

1. Is this a full-page advertisement featuring at least one male model?
2. If it is not stop here.
3. Using the samples provided by the researcher as guidance rate this ad on a five-point Likert scale of the sexual nature of the advertisement with 1 being least sexual and 5 being most sexual.
APPENDIX C
SAMPLE CODING SHEETS

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REFERENCES


O’Laughlin, S. (2005, June 20). Spring is in the air, and so is a rebound. *Brandweek, 46,* S22.


I was born in Pawtucket, Rhode Island in 1976. The public school system in Pawtucket provided the education and experiences necessary to be admitted into several higher-education institutions. The University of Rhode Island is where I achieved a B.S. in Textile Marketing in 1994. My first professional position was with Warnaco, Inc. doing quality control for their numerous apparel divisions. Approximately two years into my career I began to take classes part-time in pursuit of a M.S. in Historic Textiles at URI. Eventually I switched to full-time status and became a teaching assistant for the University in the Textiles department.

After completing my coursework I had the opportunity to teach classes while completing my thesis. During this time period, I decided to pursue a Ph.D. in order to become a professor. I accepted a graduate assistantship at Florida State University in the area of Merchandising. Becoming a graduate student at FSU allowed me to attain a certificate in Museum Studies while earning my Ph.D. in Merchandising. Having a wide background in the Textile and Consumer Science areas allowed me to teach a variety of classes during my three years at FSU.

Currently, I am an assistant professor at Framingham State College in Massachusetts. The department of Fashion Design and Retailing has assigned me classes in merchandising, fashion promotion, clothing history, and cultural dress. In addition to teaching at the college I am continuing to research and give presentations in the areas of male consumerism and market segmentation and developing a side career in the museum industry.