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I Spy a Sponsor: the Effects of Sponsorship Level, Prominence, Relatedness and Cueing on Recall Accuracy

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This study examines differential effects of sponsorship levels (anchor, mid-tier, low-tier) and individual exposure levels on sponsorship recall accuracy in a field study, providing validity for lab studies indicating that individuals rely on prominence and relatedness heuristics when identifying sponsors of an event. Further, we examine differences in sponsorship recall accuracy dependent upon whether the response is subject to free recall vs. cued recall. The results indicate that free (or direct) recall is generally more accurate than cued recall that rely upon reconstructive processes, but that this effect differs based on the type of sponsor in terms of the sponsor's prominence and relatedness.

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I Spy a Sponsor: The Effects of Sponsorship Level, Prominence, Relatedness and Cueing on Recall Accuracy

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

There is no doubt that sponsorships provide value to sponsoring firms; however, that value is often contingent upon the firm's relative commitment to reaching its objectives. Title or anchor level sponsorships tend to come with high price tags commensurate with superior visibility and high levels of integration with the event. Thus, depending on the specific objectives of the sponsorship program, various levels of corporate commitment are required. Intuitively, we expect that higher levels of sponsorship provide greater firm benefits, yet there is no empirical evidence that such a relationship exists.

In this study we provide a field test of sponsorship recall across three sponsorship levels that represent typical sponsorship packages. In a similar venue-based communication context we examine the effects of processing heuristics (prominence and relatedness) that individuals employ. Further, we compare the efficacy of using these heuristics for those who are cued to consider the level of sponsorship versus those who are not so cued.

Sponsorship Recall

Current research on sponsorship identifies four key factors that influence sponsorship recall:

- 1) Sponsor Relatedness (Crimmins and Horn 1996; Johar and Pham 1999; Rifon, Choi, Trimble and Li 2004; Speed and Thompson 2001).

Accuracy of sponsor identification increases when there is a strong association between the event and the sponsor (Johar and Pham 1999). The underlying notion is that consumers invoke a relatedness heuristic. Participants at an event who see the relatedness of the sponsor to the event/organization are more likely to accurately identify the sponsor.

- 2) Sponsor prominence (Johar and Pham 1999; Pham and Johar 2001). Market prominence may bias sponsorship recall (Johar and Pham 1999).

Consumers apparently use a prominence heuristic when attempting to recall sponsors, inferring that prominent brands in the marketplace are more likely to be sponsors. Consumers may rationalize that these easily-recognized brands, because of their prominent position, have more funds available for sponsorship programs.

- 3) Corporate exposure of the brand to individuals at events (Bennett 1999; McDaniel and Kinney 1998; Sandler and Shani 1998; Shannon and Turley 2000).

Mere exposure can positively influence a consumer's ability to recall a given stimuli and strengthen positive affective responses to a stimuli (Zajonc 1968). In fact, exposure below the conscious level has been shown to positively influence awareness and liking (Bornstein, Leone and Galley 1987; Janiszewski 1993; Kunst-Wilson and Zajonc 1980; Seamon, McKenna and Binder 1998). This incidental exposure is especially important in a sponsorship context because focused attention is often given to the game, concert or event while incidental attention is given to the advertising/sponsorship messages.

- 4) Individual exposure to sponsors due to individual involvement or identification with the sport and team (Dalakis and Kropp 2002; Gwinner and Swanson 2003; Madrigal 2000; Speed and Thompson 2001).

In contrast to corporate exposure, individual levels of exposure are a function of the number of events that the individual chooses to attend or the level of involvement with a given organization. As attendance and individual involvement with the group increases, ones' ability to accurately recall sponsors also increases (Bennett 1999; Dalakis and Kropp 2002; Gwinner and Swanson 2003; Madrigal 2000).

This work has been primarily constrained to the laboratory and thus we present four hypotheses we test in a field setting:

- H1: The greater the sponsor's relatedness to the event, the higher the sponsor recall.
H2: The greater the sponsor's prominence, the higher the sponsor recall.
H3: The greater the sponsorship exposure level, the higher the sponsor recall.
H4: The greater the individual exposure, the higher the sponsor recall.

Cueing

The cues utilized to illicit response have been all but ignored in sponsorship research. It has been suggested that cued recall is less accurate than free recall (Padilla-Walker and Poole 2002). Hence, we expect that individuals prompted to consider the sponsorship level (i.e., anchor vs. lower tier sponsors) will be less accurate in correctly identifying sponsors. Further we expect this effect to be more pronounced for sponsors whose identity is less likely to be deeply embedded and easy to access from memory—that is, those sponsors who are not prominent and who are not strongly related to the event.

- H5: Cueing sponsorship levels will result in less accurate sponsor recall than with direct (free) recall of sponsors. (Cueing main effect)
H6: Recall of small, unrelated sponsors will be relatively less accurate when cued as to sponsorship level than for prominent sponsors when cued. (Cueing X Sponsorship Level interaction).

Method

Respondents were solicited prior to admission of a baseball game during the last week of the season. As the primary task, 209 respondents were shown a list of brands, some of which were actual sponsors and some which were not (i.e., foils) and asked whether each one was an actual sponsor of the team.

To test the effects of cueing, half of the respondents were given information regarding the location and size of the sponsor signage. The other half were not provided any information as to sponsorship levels or location.

Results

Prominence/Relatedness Heuristics. Respondents were significantly ($t=-3.95, p<.01$) more likely to incorrectly identify prominent and related foils as actual sponsors

Sponsorship levels. Sponsorship level did not significantly influence recall accuracy for less prominent and unrelated sponsors, as recall accuracy remains relatively low for both anchor sponsors (42%) and mid-tier sponsors (41%) and drops for the low-tier sponsors (37%).

Individual exposure. The level of individual exposure to sponsors in terms of games attended at the venue significantly influenced recall accuracy (Wilks' Lambda $F_{4, 193}=7.09, p<.01$) for all actual sponsors ($F_{1, 196}=7.43, p<.01$), but had no significant influence on recall for all less prominent and unrelated sponsors ($F_{1, 196}=1.70, n.s.$).

Cueing. Cueing respondents as to sponsorship level generated the expected main effect on recall accuracy (Wilks' Lambda $F_{4, 196}=6.05, p<.01$) for all sponsors ($F_{1, 193}=8.56, p<.01$), and particularly on the less prominent and unrelated sponsors ($F_{1, 196}=18.81, p<.01$). Cueing produces lower recall accuracy for all sponsors, but does not significantly influence recall accuracy for prominent and unrelated sponsors ($F_{1, 196}=1.11, n.s.$) nor prominent and related sponsors ($F_{1, 196}=1.92, ns$).

Concluding Remarks

The higher recall accuracy for all sponsors via free recall (61.6%) versus cued recall (52.4%) indicates that individuals' direct retrieval of sponsorship information is more accurate than when aided with additional sponsorship information. In this study, this additional information apparently requires reconstructive processes employing heuristics that may discount information stored in memory. This may imply that such information is stored as imagery in the right hemisphere of the brain (see Mittal 1987; Putrevu and Lord 1994) and that cueing summons the left brain to (dis)confirm the stored memory, at times producing false negatives. Putrevu's (2001) recognition of differences in the development in brain lateralization among males and females may also account for the observed (albeit weak) pattern that younger males exhibited lower recall accuracy (than females or older males) for less prominent and unrelated sponsors in this study. This conjecture, of course, calls for more clinical or laboratory research.

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The Weight of the World: Consuming Traditional Masculine Ideologies

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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the relationship between the body, masculinity and the consumption of body-focussed activities. It examines the meaning and importance of strength training for men. Strength training is of interest because its increase in popularity is occurring at a particular point in time when a growing number of men are experiencing insecurities over their masculine identities as a result of recent socio-economic changes. This paper proposes that men today are facing a dilemma in terms of masculine identity. This dilemma hinges on the growing objectification of the male body in the media and its cultural messages regarding masculinity.

INTRODUCTION

Until recently, strength training was regarded as the exclusive province of professional bodybuilders and other athletes (SGMA, 2002). During the last decade, however, the number of males taking to the gym to exercise with weights has increased dramatically (SGMA, 2004; Mintel, 2003; Pope et al. 2000; Wiegers, 1998). The number of males engaging in strength training has risen by more than thirty percent since the start of the decade (Potter, 1997). But why has this become so? Put another way, why, at this historical juncture, are males, of all ages, and in unprecedented numbers, consuming strength training to a greater extent than ever before? The purpose of this paper is to offer some insights.

Drawing on recent scholarship on the body and masculinity (Kimmel, 2004; Holt and Thompson, 2004; Thompson and Holt, 2004; Pope et al. 2000; Mishkind et al. 1987), we propose that, in part, strength training's appeal may, of course, coincide with general concerns about health and fitness, but more than that, we postulate that it also seems to be about gender (Kimmel, 2004). This paper attempts to question traditional 'definitions of masculinity and femininity and provides some evidence for a shifting paradigm in which these spheres are less polarized' (Gunderson, 2004: vi). It attempts to illuminate how the consumption of strength training 'contributes to, and is affected by, the relational process of defining masculinity and femininity' (Fischer and Gainer, 1994). By examining the symbolic meanings of strength training, we hope to gain a broader understanding of the relationship between men, masculinity, and the body. Ultimately, we hope to emphasize some significant issues confronting contemporary males 'in relation to body image concerns, while providing links with the social construction of masculinity' (Drummond, 2002: 79).

INCREASED ABSENCE OF TRADITIONAL GENDER ROLES

Traditional definitions of masculinity were constructed through the image of the 'provider' who draws upon self-reliance, diligence, and hard work to earn a 'wage in the public sphere and thereby breadwinning for a dependent nuclear family located in the domestic sphere' (Willott and Griffin, 2004: 53). However, that world, according to Holt and Thompson (2004), among others, is now gone. The changing patterns of the working world no longer define masculinity quite so clearly (Thompson and Holt, 2004). Increased unemployment for growing numbers of males in high-paid sectors, the changing dynamics of the workplace (increased factory mechanization, increased bureaucratization of office work), and the extensive movement of women in the workforce and in other

traditional male terrain has meant that women have increasingly approached equality with men in virtually all aspects of life (Kimmel and Kaufman, 1994). As Mishkind et al. (1987: 46) remark, 'what were once considered exclusively male abilities and domains are decreasingly so. Whereas once a man could be assured of his masculinity by virtue of his occupation, interests, or certain personality characteristics, many women now opt for the same roles'. An indirect consequence of these changes appears to be a growing questioning of what it is to be a man (Thompson and Holt, 2004; Kimmel, 2004). To paraphrase, Potter (1997: 1), women nowadays run companies, compete in sport, and fly fighter planes-leaving males downright anxious about the meaning of masculinity.

Compensatory Consumption

Seemingly, males who have suffered feelings of emasculation in this new environment have attempted to reaffirm their status as real men through compensatory consumption (Thompson and Holt, 2004), namely that of body focused activities (Kimmel, 2004; Edwards, 1997; Firat, 1993), where they have greater ability to conceal themselves in the 'symbolic cloaks of autonomy' (Holt and Thompson, 2004: 426). As opportunities to prove one's manhood have decreased (Willott and Griffin, 2004), males have increasingly begun to adopt the idea that one of the only remaining avenues left to cultivate their distinctiveness from women, and thus, construct their masculinities, is through their bodies (Kimmel, 2004; Pope et al. 2000).

Bodywork, such as strength training enables males to attain a muscular physique, thus, providing them with a unique opportunity to actively divide the genders (Pope et al. 2000). That is to say, whatever else it may be, strength training is a means for enhancing the size of one's muscles (Gunderson, 2004; Mishkind et al. 1987), which a wealth of evidence demonstrates are customary signs of masculinity (Mosse, 1996; Dutton, 1995; Harlow, 1951). Strength training may provide males- 'who have been described as emasculated by recent socioeconomic changes' (Holt and Thompson, 2004: 425)- with a site, their bodies, 'with which to redress personal anxieties through the pursuit of a muscular image that embodies normative masculinity' (Wiegers, 1998: 148). As Pope et al. (2000: 50) remark, 'muscles are one of the areas in which men can still clearly distinguish themselves from women or feel more powerful...One of the few attributes left, one of the few grounds on which women can never match men, is muscularity'. The body hormonal makeup of females, according to human performance and nutrition expert, Dr. John Berardi, is one that does not allow women to develop the same degree of muscularity as men (Culotte, 1995).

REVERSAL OF THIS PHENOMENON

Elaborating on this view, it may be reasonable to assume that the current emphasis on thinness for women (Wolf, 1991) represents the reversal of this phenomenon (Kimmel, 2004). That is, while women are concerned with breast size and weight, men are concerned with muscularity: 'both are preoccupied with those aspects of the male and female body that suggest and exaggerate innate biological differences between the sexes' (Kimmel, 2004: 233). As noted by Mishkind et al. (1987: 47), 'the thin female body connotes such stereotypically feminine traits as smallness, weakness, and fragility, which are the mirror opposites of the strength

and power represented by the muscular male body...the male and female body ideals, which are physically and symbolically opposite extremes, may be a reaction against sexual equality, an expression of a wish to preserve some semblance of traditional male-female differences'. To further develop this notion, a wealth of evidence has demonstrated trends that clearly illustrate that the more equality exhibited between men and women in virtually all aspects of life, the greater the disparity that exists between the shape and size of ideal male and female beauty standards, as purveyed in the media; just as media standards of female thinness have increased in recent years (Wolf, 1991), so too have standards of male muscularity (Wienke, 1998).

INCREASED STANDARDS OF MUSCULARITY

Present day males who look at the major mass media are exposed to a standard of bodily attractiveness that has less body fat and more muscularity than that presented to males at any time throughout history (Olivardia et al. 2004). One just has to recall, for example, the physiques of Hollywood's most masculine men of previous generations- think of John Wayne in the '40s, Burt Lancaster in the '50s, Steve McQueen in the '60s, Burt Reynolds in the '70s- these guys, according to Potter (1997), probably couldn't even point out their deltoid or pectoral muscles, never mind sculpt them. Past ideals of male perfection look like wimps in comparison to contemporary cinema's muscular action heroes (Pope et al. 2000). Similarly, recent empirical evidence shows that just as the centrefolds of women in Playboy magazine have depicted ever-slender women over recent years, the centrefolds of men in Playgirl magazine have also depicted men with lower percentages of body fat and greater muscularity (Pope et al. 2000). Another line of related evidence comes from a study conducted to measure trends over a period of thirty years in the muscularity of male action figure toys, such as G.I. Joe and Batman. The researchers discovered that male action figurines have grown far more muscular over the last thirty years in comparison to their original counterparts, with many modern figures displaying the physiques of elite bodybuilders and many display levels of muscularity far greater than the outer limits of actual human attainment (Pope et al. 1999). Of significance, this finding suggests that many young men have absorbed unrealistic standards of muscularity 'long before they were old enough to stop and question whether these images were realistic or reasonable goals for a man's body' (Pope et al. 2000: 46).

In short, males are coming under increasing pressure to conform to an idealized standard of physical beauty, notably, a body that is both muscular and devoid of fat; images of men with chiselled pectorals, bulging biceps and a washboard flat stomach circulate consumer culture at an even greater rate. As a result, it appears that an ever-greater number of males have begun to accept hegemonic masculinity- the notion that muscularity is the defining characteristic of masculinity (Wienke, 1998). Unfortunately, the pursuit of this muscular idealization is damaging to the physical and emotional health of a growing number of males. The muscular 'model' of male perfection is unattainable by most men (Pope et al. 2000), and the over eager pursuit of it has been directly implicated in the virtual increase of exercise dependencies, eating disorders, and the use of muscle-growth enhancing drugs (Botta, 2003; Olivardia, 2000).

EXCESSIVE EXERCISING

Several studies have indicated that many males are making stringent exercise regimes the organizing discipline of their lives (Potter, 1997). Males are no longer engaging in strict exercise regimes to increase health, fitness and/or general well-being, but

rather, in pursuit of the lean, muscular ideal (Hartley, 1998). For instance, in a recent study conducted to determine the primary reason for engaging in exercise among male fitness centre members in the Palm Beach area of Florida, researchers revealed that muscle toning was cited as the number one reason they exercise by eighty-five percent of male fitness centre members (Hartley, 1998). Incidentally, research has indicated that male solutions or remedies for their perceived inadequacy in terms of physical appearance go beyond excessive exercising.

THE USE OF MUSCLE-GROWTH ENHANCING DRUGS

Perhaps the most serious development or consequence of male body image dissatisfaction is the abuse of anabolic steroids, a class of muscle-growth enhancing drugs. Researchers investigating the use of anabolic steroids among males have reported marked elevations relative to a generation, with close to three million American males having used steroids at least once in their lifetime to boost muscle gain (Pope et al. 2000; Olivardia, 2000). Interestingly, similar findings were recently reported in Ireland. For instance, in May of this year, Irish health specialist, Kevin Dawson, who runs an advisory clinic specializing in performance-enhancing drugs, stated that the use of such drugs among Irish males 'had "gone ballistic" in the past four months' (cited in Keogh, 2005: 5). The use of muscle-growth enhancing drugs among males illustrates that they, similar to individuals with anorexia nervosa, engage in deadly practices to attain their goal with relatively little hesitation (Olivardia, 2001). The illicit use of anabolic steroids can cause numerous psychiatric and other adverse effects, such as liver problems, high blood pressure, heart failure, impotence, severe depression, brain damage, extreme aggression, and even death (Kimmel, 2004; Olivardia, 2000). Furthermore, research has shown that individuals who abuse steroids to boost gains in muscularity are far more likely to abuse heroin, morphine, and other opiate drugs at a later stage in their lives (Cromie, 2000).

NOT JUST A FEMALE PROBLEM

Clearly concern with one's physical appearance is no longer a gendered phenomenon (Nolan, 2004; Grogan and Richards, 2002; Phillips and Castle, 2001). Males are no more immune to the same body dissatisfaction disorders women have long faced. For instance, eating disorders, which were once thought to be a problem affecting only women, appear to be affecting an ever-greater number of males (Nolan, 2004; Carlat et al. 1997; Rodin, 1992). Twenty years ago it was suggested that for every ten-to-fifteen women suffering from anorexia or bulimia, there was one man. In 2001, it was documented that for every four females with anorexia, there is one male, and for every eight-to-eleven females with bulimia, there is one male (Nolan, 2004). Although there are no figures available for eating disorders in Ireland, it is believed that approximately fifteen percent of Irish males are affected by an eating disorder (Nolan, 2004). In fact, psychotherapist Marie Campion (cited in Nolan, 2004: 6) of the Marino Therapy Clinic in Dublin- Ireland's leading treatment clinic for body image problems- postulates that the true prevalence of males affected by body image problems may be dramatically higher than previously speculated. She suggests that doctors have traditionally been slow to diagnose the condition in male patients. Specifically, she posits that males find it extremely difficult or embarrassing to seek help for what was traditionally believed to be a "woman's disease". She states that 'many (men) are too embarrassed to seek help so their pain goes on' (2004: 6). In this context, it is reasonable to assume that modern-day males are clearly facing a dilemma in terms of masculine identity.

MEN'S BODY IMAGE DILEMMA

This dilemma hinges on western society's growing objectification of the male body and its cultural messages regarding masculine identity (Tkarrde, 2003). Depictions of the male body in magazines, through male action figure toys, on television, and in the general media, have increasingly come to emphasize physical appearance as a key criterion for measuring masculine worth (Tkarrde, 2003; Edwards, 1997). Adding to this concern is the production of what appears to be an endless supply of exercise equipment, nutritional supplements, and other products designed to improve both the physical and symbolic value of men's bodies (Wienke, 1998). This situation is no different, some may say, from the manner in which women have historically been compelled to conform to virtually unobtainable standards of beauty. But the problem gets compounded further (Pope et al. 2000). Men, unlike women, are inculcated in an environment that encourages men to be stoic (a person who suffers pain without showing his feelings). Media images of masculine perfection subtly pressure men to worry about body image, yet, because of masculine societal expectations they are prohibited from discussing the degree to which body image anxieties or insecurities impinge their lives on a daily basis (Olivardia et al. 2004; Tkarrde, 2003).

Boy Code

Within Western culture, there exist stereotypes or powerful codes of conduct that enshroud and dictate acceptable forms of masculine behaviour (Tkarrde, 2003; Pope et al. 2000; Seidler, 1994). Clinical psychologist Dr. William Pollack (1999) positions the predominant injunctions of masculinity under the umbrella term "Boy Code", which equates masculine identity with being strong, stoic, stable, capable, reliable, and in control. The Boy Code ultimately seeks to instil in young men the notion that one's masculinity is determined in direct proportion with the denial or repudiation of anything deemed to be feminine (Pollack, 1999; West, 1995). That is, within society, males are 'expected to fulfil a male script: to act as males, not to act like girls' (West, 1995: 6). Hence, males are not supposed to worry about something that "only women do". Males are made to feel 'embarrassed and ashamed of their appearance concerns, and keep them secret. They may feel it "wimpy" or "girlish" to worry about their looks' (Pope et al. 2000: 193).

Big Boys Don't Cry

Whereas females are expected to openly admit and display their feelings about their health and personal life, society teaches men to be emotionally repressive, that to be a man is to divulge little of their personal lives, to tackle affliction and hardship in stern silence (Seidler, 1994). As a result, when confronted with the bombardment of virtually unattainable body images and the feelings of inadequacy these images create, males are often deprived the emotional space to discuss their suffering (Rodin, 1992). To paraphrase Dr. Harrison Pope (2000: 5), a professor of psychiatry at Harvard Medical School, women, over the years, have gradually learned, at least to some degree, how to confront the media's unrealistic ideals of beauty. 'Many women can now recognize and voice their appearance concerns, speaking openly about their reactions to these ideals, rather than letting them fester inside', whereas men, on the other hand, 'still labor under a societal taboo against expressing such feelings. "Real" men aren't supposed to whine about their looks; they're not even supposed to worry about such things. And so this "feeling and talking taboo" adds insult to injury: to a degree unprecedented in history, men are being made to feel more and more inadequate about how they look- while simulta-

neously being prohibited from talking about it or even admitting it to themselves'.

Paradox of Silence

However, it has been documented that the suppression of emotions leads not to less, but too more emotional dependency (Kaufman, 1994). Silence only results in more isolation and internal suffering, increasing the likelihood of anger, depression and even suicidal tendencies (Tkarrde, 2003). When an individual does not acknowledge or openly discuss their emotions it is almost inevitable for these unmet needs not to disappear, but rather, to spill into one's life at work and at home (Kaufman, 1994). The growing objectification of the muscular male body has thus produced a scenario in which those men who cannot conform to the masculine ideal of muscularity are at a greater risk for depression, low self-esteem, isolation, feelings of inadequacy, eating disorders, excessive exercising, and even drug use (Tkarrde, 2003). The silent aspect of this crisis should not be overlooked, as it is this part of the problem that most strikingly distinguishes issues concerning male body image from those that impinge women (Tkarrde, 2003).

Conveniently, the contemporary conception of masculine stoicism is thought to be beneficial to marketers and advertisers, who attempt to preserve the idea that those who do not conform to the images of physical perfection they see in the media are inherently inferior (Tkarrde, 2003). The male who suffers in silence is unaware that others may feel as he does, or are experiencing what he is, and therefore, he is 'increasingly vulnerable to the advertising messages of the supplement industry and other body image industries eager to capitalize on their anxieties' (Pope et al. 2000: 193/4). As Hesse-Biber (1996: 99) suggests, 'there is a huge financial potential in promoting body obsession and anxiety in men, and it is no wonder that within recent years the market for men's body products has grown dramatically'. Advertisers and marketers are increasingly manipulating males.

GROWING OBJECTIFICATION OF THE MALE BODY

Male beauty image industries- purveyors of food supplements, diet aids, fitness programs and countless other products- now prey increasingly on men's anxieties, just as analogous industries have preyed for decades on the appearance related insecurities of women (Pope et al. 2000). Today, for instance, it is not uncommon to see stereotypically good-looking men displayed in marketing and advertising campaigns in a manner conceivable only for women's bodies a generation ago (Kimmel, 2004; Grogan and Richards, 2002; Mishkind et al. 1987). As eloquently put by Kacen (2000: 350), men's magazines, 'tout articles on "firm abs" and flaunt ads with half-naked men displaying perfect physiques in order to sell underwear, cologne, personal care products, electronic goods and athletic gear'. Advertisers have transformed men's bodies into objects of the gaze (Edwards, 1997). Males have become 'stimulated to look at themselves- and other men- as objects of desire' (Patterson and Elliott, 2002: 235).

Exposure to highly attractive male models in advertising and the mass media makes men far more conscious and aware of their own appearances, encouraging them to 'seek out models of physical beauty, but also more vulnerable to the allure of the consumer market' (Wienke, 1998: 25). Simply put, the media reinforce the value that the road to happiness is achieved by way of physical beautification. As a result, males living in American and European culture are becoming high maintenance and are beginning to invest large sums of money in pursuit of becoming more aesthetically pleasing (Firat, 1993). Males are currently spending billions of