CHAPTER - I
INTRODUCTION

We all have a body image. We all have feelings about the way we look and we have ideas and feelings about how others think about our looks. Our overall body image can range from very positive to very negative.

It is a very well established fact that participation in regular physical activity is core of psychological as well as physical well-being. It has also been documented in the past that physical activity is beneficial for positive body image and enhanced psychological characteristics. But the results in this regard is contradictory and especially for gainfully employed/working women and housewives. In the modern world, the number of working women is increasing day-by-day and it is true that working women interact with many people during their work as compared to housewives. It is also noted that body image and personality of women may be different on the basis of their working status because working women get more exposure in outside world as compared to non-working women.

Despite the importance of above mentioned facts, impact of participation in physical activity upon body image and personality of working and non-working women has not been explored scientifically so far.

If a person has a distorted body image it could be postulated that the information processed, or processing mechanism, could be at fault. The study of body image, how one perceives oneself, is an important
aspect of the body's psycho-physical orientation. Hence, the researcher decided to work on this topic.

The researcher feels that acquaintance of theories and principles governing the variables chosen for a study is essential so as to do justice to the research work. Hence theories and principles related with major variables chosen for the present study are presented in the following pages.

1.1 BODY IMAGE

Developing a positive body image and a healthy mental attitude is crucial to a woman's happiness and wellness.

Body image refers to a person's feelings of the aesthetics and sexual attractiveness of their own body. The phrase body image was first coined by the Austrian neurologist and psychoanalyst Paul Schilder in his book The Image and Appearance of the Human Body (1935). Human society has at all times placed great value on beauty of the human body, but a person's perception of their own body may not correspond to society's standards.

The concept of body image is used in numerous disciplines, including psychology, medicine, psychiatry, psychoanalysis, philosophy and cultural and feminist studies. The term is also often used in the media. Across these disciplines and media there is no consensus definition.

One of the definitions of body image says that it is the mental representation we create of what we think we look like; it may or may not bear a close relation to how others actually see us. That is, it is subject to
all kinds of distortion from internal elements like our emotions, moods, early experiences, attitudes of our parents, and much more. Nevertheless, it strongly influences behaviour.

According to Schilder (1935) body image is the picture an individual’s body which he/she forms in mind. As the study of body image has progressed there are suggestions that the "normal" individual’s feeling or attitude towards her body may be an important reflection of her identity which is developed within a framework, both cultural and environmental.

The structure of the ego system which is concerned with the three components of body ego - body (ego), body boundary, and body image - form allied concepts. Rose (1966) defined the body ego as the psychic representation of the bodily self in the ego system. The bodily self includes and extends beyond the body boundary and body image to include one's clothing, objects and product's. Freud felt that the body ego was the first stage of ego development. While it is often said to constitute the central core of the ego as a whole, the body ego is an intermediate level between the raw data arising from body experience and personality. This relationship enables the body ego experiences arising from various levels of bodily experience to be integrated and organised with the ego.

From a psychoanalytic view the main function of the body ego in development allows the process of differentiation of the self from fusion with the mother's body and the environment to a complete separation between what is "me" and what is "not me". It was also observed that the same developmental sequence from fusion to differentiation is achieved
by action, e.g. physical activity performed by the infant upon physical objects and by exploring the environments by bodily movements which leads to more interactions and the acquisition of environmental reaction.

The concept of the body boundary is subsumed under the concept of the body ego. The phenomenological sensation and the function of the body boundary has been described by many authors. It states that the body boundary concept is closely tied experimentally to sensory input from the body. Immediate sensory feedback is available to distinguish between "where I end and where the rest of the world begins".

The body image is composed of a number of discrete and interrelated component parts, which refer to the body as a psychological experience. These psychological experiences "start up" a series of cognitive constructions (schema) which develop from past and current sensations. These experiences are the result of sensory social information which arises from the body when it is thought of as an object.

According to Cash and Pruzinsky (2003), “Body image is a complex construct constituting the following configuration: emotional experience related to body and its functions, as well as mental concept (perception and thoughts) regarding physical appearance.”

Body image represents a multifaceted, complex construct that is influenced by the processes of time, experience, and maturation. The development of body image is not confined to childhood where a child is constantly exploring and assessing her environment, but continues throughout life.
Body image also been defined as the cognitions and affect regarding body, body importance, dieting behavior, and perceptual body image (Bainfield & McCabe, 2002). This definition indicates that body image is a combination of how an individual pictures or perceives their physical self and how they feel about their body.

It has been demonstrated that human beings use their bodies as a framework for their awareness and psycho-physical orientation of themselves. Awareness of body image relates man to his environment by allowing him to experience the stimuli outside but, at the same time, separates man from space. It has also been suggested that one's body image is not static; instead it is dynamic, with a variety of images affected by changes in body weight, fitness and the ability to learn and perform new physical skills.

Throughout history it has been extremely difficult for people to live up to the standards of society and what they believe the ideal body is. There are many factors that lead to a person’s body image, some of these include: family dynamics, biological predispositions (e.g., depression and anxiety), and cultural expectations (e.g., media and politics).

Body image is the perception that a person has of their physical self, but more importantly the thoughts and feelings the person experiences as a result of that perception. It is important to understand that these feelings can be positive, negative or a combination of both and are influenced by individual and environmental factors.

Perceptions of body image are influenced by sensory input, cognitions, affect, and other variables and may lead to body
dissatisfaction, including overestimation of body size (Farrell, Lee, & Shafran, 2005)

The four aspects of body image:

1. **Perceptual**: The way we see our body is not always a correct representation of what we actually look like. For example, a person may perceive himself to be fat when in reality he is underweight. How a person sees themselves is their perceptual body image.

2. **Affective**: The way we feel about the way we look. There are things a person may like or dislike about the way they look. Our feelings about body, especially the amount of satisfaction or dissatisfaction we experience in relation to our appearance, weight, shape and body parts is our affective body image.

3. **Cognitive**: The thoughts and beliefs we feel about our body. Some people believe that they will feel better about themselves if they are thinner. Others believe they will look better if they develop more muscle. The way we think about our body is our cognitive body image.

4. **Behavioural**: The things we do in relation to the way we look. When a person is dissatisfied with the way they look, they may employ destructive behaviours such as excessive exercising or disordered eating as a means to change appearance. Some people may isolate themselves because they feel bad about the way they look. Behaviours in which we engage as a result of our body image encompasses our behavioural body image.
In general, research shows that body image in regards to appearance becomes less of a stress for women as they age. Studies show a decline in dissatisfaction of body image in college aged women as they progress from the first semester of college to subsequent semesters. Their appearance rating of themselves tends to increase, while males’ do not significantly change and often become worse. This suggests that the early years of college serve as a period for body image development, which can later affect the mental and physical well being of an individual (Gillen, 2012).

As men and women reach older age, body image takes on a different meaning. Research studies show that the importance attached to physical appearance decreases with age. Physical appearance remains important later in life, but the functional aspects of the body take precedence over contentment with appearance. Women are reported to benefit from the ageing process, becoming more satisfied with their images, while men begin to develop more insecurities and issues. Women reach a certain stage where they are no longer subject to the social pressures that heavily emphasize the importance of appearance. Men from the same studies are reported as becoming increasingly dissatisfied with their physical appearance as they age. Men are also less likely to implement appearance-enhancing activities into their daily lives.

Body image is said to consist of two parts: body percept and body concept (Kolb, 1959). The former develops through multiple percepts related to the body while the latter depends on internalized psychological processes and on sensations within the body. These percepts are very much influenced by the cultural attitudes (Kolb, 1959; Schonfeld, 1966).
Cultures decides which parts at which age are to be valued than the others. Similarly the mother's method of handling the child is also culture specific, which in a great measure lays the foundations of adult body image. This indicates that organ priorities will be specific in a given culture.

1.2 FEMALE BODY IMAGE

Females of all ages seem to be particularly vulnerable to distorted body image. Researchers have called female's concerns with their physical appearance "normative discontent;" implying that body dissatisfaction affects almost all women at some level (Striegel-Moore & Franko, 2002; Tiggemann & Slater, 2004).

Females have been found to experience dissatisfaction with physical appearance at a much higher rate than males (Striegel-Moore & Franko, 2002), and women of all ages and sizes display body image disturbance.

It appears that body dissatisfaction is more closely linked to appearance-related cognitions than physical reality.

People are at higher risk to display disturbed body image if they hold dysfunctional beliefs and cognitions about their physical appearance, regardless of body mass (Butters & Cash, 1987).

Concern over weight and appearance related issues often surfaces early in females' development, and continues throughout the lifespan. The importance of physical appearance is emphasized and reinforced early in most girls' development. Body dissatisfaction and disordered eating patterns have been found to be an especially prevalent issue in
adolescent and college females (Schwitzer, Berholz, Dore, & Salimi, 1998; Stice & Whitenton, 2002). Body image becomes a major issue as females go through puberty; girls in midadolescence frequently report being dissatisfied with weight, fearing further weight gain, and being preoccupied with weight loss.

Numerous studies have verified that one's subjective evaluation of their own appearance can have a powerful impact on a person's development and psychosocial experiences. Researchers have found that body dissatisfaction is correlated with other forms of psychological impairment. Not surprisingly, disturbed body image is one of the main precursors for disordered eating and dieting in adolescent and young adult girls (Attie & Brooks-Gunn, 1989).

The prominence of dieting and maladaptive eating patterns has become an increasingly prevalent concern in adolescent and young adult populations; research has shown that around two-thirds of adolescent females report dieting at some point. Further, studies have shown that body dissatisfaction surpasses actual body mass as the most powerful risk factor for the development of dieting and disordered eating.

1.3 IMAGES OF WOMEN IN THE MEDIA

Images in the media today project an unrealistic and even dangerous standard of feminine beauty that can have a powerful influence on the way women view themselves. From the perspective of the mass media, thinness is idealized and expected for women to be considered "attractive." Images in advertisements, television, and music usually portray the "ideal woman" as tall, white, and thin, with a
"tubular" body, and blonde hair (Dittmar & Howard, 2004). The media is littered with images of females who fulfill these unrealistic standards, making it seem as if it is normal for women to live up to this ideal.

1.4 THEORIES OF BODY IMAGE:

(a) Social Comparison Theory

This theory examines how individuals evaluate themselves in relation to peers, groups, and/or social categories (Milkie, 1999). The main argument is that people compare themselves on many different dimensions with other individuals who are similar to them. Depending on the target of comparison, a person will usually judge themselves as being either or better or worse on some dimension. An upward comparison occurs when an individual compares himself or herself to someone who fares better than they do on a particular construct. In contrast, downward comparisons involve a person comparing himself or herself to someone who is not as well off as they are in a certain dimension. In general, upward comparisons have been found to correlate with depression of mood, whereas downward comparisons are more likely to elicit elevation of mood (Lin & Kulik, 2002).

(b) Cultivation Theory

Cultivation theory argues that images that portray women who match the sociocultural ideal of beauty are extremely prevalent in popular media, and that repetitive exposure to such images influences women's abilities to understand that such standards are unrealistic. As females constantly view images of tall, thin women that are shown in different forms of mass media, there is a cumulative effect over time in
that many women adopt this unrealistic standard of beauty as "reality." Many women come to view ultra-thin females to be "normal," and thus determine that any woman who does not live up to this ideal is "abnormal" (Schooler et al., 2004; Tiggemann, 2003).

(c) Self-Schema Theory

The basis of self-schema theory is that women use three points of reference to construct their perceptions about their own physical appearance: the socially represented ideal body, the objective body, and the internalized ideal body. The portrayals of women by important individuals in a person's life influence the socially represented ideal body. This reference point comes from what an individual believes is expected by society with respect to physical appearance and beauty. In contrast, the objective body involves a person's own evaluation of their body. A person's satisfaction and dissatisfaction with aspects of their physical appearance are contained within this dimension; individuals almost always have some opinion about their physical demeanor. The internalized ideal body involves the level at which an individual endorses the ideal image and aspires to achieve it. Some women can be exposed to images of thin women and not internalize such standards of appearance because they know they are unrealistic. In contrast, some women's internalized ideal is very similar to the socially represented ideal, which makes them particularly vulnerable to the powerful effects of the media (Sands & Wardle, 2003).

If there is a large discrepancy between a person's internalized ideal body and their objective body, a person's confidence in and satisfaction
with their appearance is often negatively affected. Media images of women make it difficult for individuals to hold an internalized ideal body that is realistic and attainable. With exposure to repeated images of ultra thin women, an individual’s internalized ideal body often becomes much thinner. This increases the gap between what a person feels their physical appearance is, and what it should be. Not surprisingly, researchers have found that women who have an internalized ideal body that closely resembles the socially represented ideal body are at a particularly high risk to develop body image disturbance and disordered eating patterns (Sands & Wardle, 2003).

1.5 IMPORTANCE OF POSITIVE BODY IMAGE:

People with positive body image will generally have a higher level of physical and psychological health, and better personal development. A positive body image will effect:

- **Self esteem levels**: Self esteem dictates how a person feels about themselves and this can infiltrate every aspect of that person’s life. The higher our self esteem, the easier we will find it to stay on top of daily life, the more sociable we will be, leading to higher levels of happiness and wellbeing.

- **Self-acceptance**: The more positive a person’s body image, the more likely that person is to feel comfortable and happy with the way they look. A person with positive body image is less likely to feel impacted by unrealistic images in the media and societal pressures to look a certain way.
• **Healthy outlook and behaviours**: When we are in tune with, and respond to the needs of our body, our physical and psychological wellbeing improves. A positive body image will lead to a balanced lifestyle with healthier attitudes and practices with food and exercise.

1.6 **NEGATIVE BODY IMAGE**:

When a person has negative thoughts and feelings about his or her own body, body dissatisfaction can develop.

Environmental influences play a large role in how people perceive and feel about their body. A person’s family, friends, acquaintances, teachers and the media all have an impact on how that person sees and feels about themselves and their appearance.

In particular, when an individual is in an appearance oriented environment or receives negative feedback about their appearance, for example, by being teased, they are at an increased risk of body dissatisfaction.

**Negative body image may result in:**

- Poor self esteem;
- The desire to be “fixed;”
- Less participation in physical activities;
- Withdrawal from other life activities;
- Barriers to learning;
- Limiting food choices;
- Extreme weight change;
- Disordered eating, e.g. binge-eating or dieting;
• Dangerous cosmetic surgery; and/or
• Anxiety, depression, and in some cases, suicide.

1.7 FACTORS INFLUENCING BODY IMAGE:

Body image, whether negative or positive, is shaped by a variety of factors. They are:

• Comments from family, friends and others about our, their, and other people’s bodies, both positive and negative
• Ideals that we develop about physical appearance
• The frequency with which we compare ourselves to others
• Exposure to images of idealized versus normal bodies
• The experience of physical activity
• The experience of abuse, including sexual, physical, and emotional abuse
• The experience of prejudice and discrimination based on race, ethnicity, religion, ability, sexual orientation or gender identity
• Sensory experiences, including pleasure, pain and illness

1.8 PERSONALITY:

The term “personality” is derived from the Latin word persona, which was the name given to the masks that actors wore and the characters they portrayed. The meaning of the word personality has changed little classical times and comments like what does he see in her” she has such a poor personality”, or “look at that young man, what a fine personality he has” are quite common. Remarks like this make us believe that personality is a thing or quality that is possessed by all us and we can paste labels such as fine, good or poor on it on the basis of the physical
make-up, manner of walking, talking, dressing and a host of other similar characteristics of individuals. However, this is a very limited view and the psychological or concept of personality goes further and deeper than mere appearance or outward behaviour. The question of how best to interpret or define personality has long exercised the minds of psychologists.

According to Watson (1930), “Personality is the sum of activities that can be discovered by actual observations over a long enough period of time to give reliable information.”

In this way Watson tried to make the word personality synonymous with the consistent behaviour patterns of an individual. This, however, reflected a very narrow meaning of the term personality.

Morton Prince (1929) gave personality a broader base by accepting the role of both environmental and hereditary factors in constituting what is termed as personality. According to Prince, “Personality is the sum total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, appetites and instincts of the individual and the dispositions and tendencies acquired by experience.” This definition of Morton prince was criticised on the ground that it does not present an integrated and organizational view of personality. Personality cannot be described through merely summing up the various elements involved in it and if this definition is accepted, it would be like describing a house as a collection of bricks.

The inability of various existing definitions to describe personality in acceptable terms led Allport (1948) to engage in trying to discover
some useful definition. After evaluating 49 definitions, he concluded -
Personality is a dynamic organization within the individual of those
psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his
environment.

Although Allport tried to give a comprehensive definition of the
term personality by recognizing its dynamic nature and organizational
aspects and by emphasizing the role it can play in an individual’s
adjustment to his environment, his definition suffered from some serious
defects. In emphasizing the dynamic organization within the individual
he seems to view personality as somewhat different from the individual,
residing within him, rather than as an integrated unity of mind and body.
Personality to him is something put into the individual like water is put
into a jug and it takes the shape of the jug. Contemporary psychologists
like Cattell (1970), Eysenck (1971) are of the opinion that the true nature
of personality cannot be understood by considering only the behavioural
or dynamic aspects.

Cattell (1970) : Personality is that which permits a prediction of
what a person will do in a given situation.

Eysenck (1971): Personality is the more or less stable and enduring
organization of a person’s character, temperament, intellect and
physique, which determine his unique adjustment to the environment.

In Eysenck’s definition character signified conative behaviour or
will; physique meant bodily configuration and neuroendocrine
endowments, temperament stood for affective behaviour based on
emotions, and intellect implied the cognitive behaviour or intelligence.
The definition given by Eysenck has very strong points in its favour. First, it tries to provide personality with a physiological base and gives a balanced consideration to the of heredity and environment in building the personality. Secondly, it gives a complete picture of human behaviour by involving all of its aspects-conative, cognitive and affective. Thirdly, it stresses the need of integration and organization of the behavioural characteristics. Finally, it aims at making personality somewhat measurable and assessable, thus giving it a scientific base. However, on the other hand, it does have some weakness also in that human personality cannot be supposed to necessarily possess a physiological base and it cannot be considered to be as static and fixed as advocated by this definition. It is true that personality should be evaluated on the basis of generality of the behaviour but at the same time, changes cannot be denied. The person who is an extrovert may turn into an introvert depending upon so many intervening factors.

Eysenck following definition given by S.R. Maddi (1976), an American psychologist in his work, personality theories - A comparative Analysis, views personality as an organized and integrated whole of definite characteristics and tendencies within the individual which make him correspond to the persons of his group, society, culture and nation and at the same time maintain the individuality and uniqueness of his personality: Personality is the stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the psychological behaviour (thoughts, feelings and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may or may not be easily understood in terms of the social and biological pressures of the immediate situation alone.
These characteristics and tendencies (inherited as well as acquired) although stable to a large extent are subject to change and modification according to the needs of the time and the environment. The causes of such modification and changes are not necessarily linked with present physical, biological and social situations, and may be connected with the earlier childhood experiences, genetic code and many other unknown factors. Thus, what a person presents in his totality is his personality.

Although this seems to be quite a comprehensive definition, the evolution of an ideal definition capable of explaining the meaning and nature of the term personality in all its aspects calls for further extensive research. In fact, concepts like personality are difficult to explain as they have the identity like sound and electricity etc., the impact of which can be felt but their real nature is always something of a mystery. Something can be known about them by their utility or the description of some of their characteristics and distinguishing features. Let us seek the meaning of the term personality along similar lines.

**Distinguishing Features and Characteristics of Personality :-**

The results of various experimental studies and observations have led to the identification of the following characteristics of personality.

1. Personality is something unique and specific. Every one of us is a unique person in oneself, Every one of us has specific characteristics for making adjustments. However, the uniqueness of an individual’s personality does not mean that he has nothing to share with others in terms of traits and characteristics of personality. He may have certain characteristics, which he may
share with others and at the same time many others, which are unique to him.

2. Personality exhibits self-consciousness as one of its main characteristics. Man is described as a person or as having a personality when the idea of “self” enters into his consciousness. In this connection Bhatia (1968) writes: We do not attribute personality to a dog and even a child cannot be described as a personality because it has only a vague sense of personal identity.

3. “Personality”, as stated by Allport (1948): It is not only the assumed, the external and the non-essential but also the vital, the internal and the essential.

   It includes everything about a person. It is all what a person has about him. Therefore, it includes all the behaviour patterns, i.e. conative, cognitive and affective and covers not only the conscious activities but goes deeper to the semiconscious and unconscious also.

4. Personality is not just a collection of so many traits of characteristics. For instance, by only counting the bricks, how can we describe the wall of a house? Actually, personality is more than this: it is an organization of psychophysical systems or some behaviour characteristics and functions as a unified whole. Just as an elephant cannot be described as a pillar only by examining its legs, an individual’s personality cannot be judged by only looking at his physical appearance or his sociability. The personality of an individual can be assessed only by going into all the aspects that comprise his totality.
5. Although the personality of an individual remains stable to a large extent, it cannot be said to be static, it is dynamic and continuously in the process of change and modification. Personality is the “everything” that a person has about him. It give him all that is needed for his unique adjustment to his environment. The process of making adjustment is continuous. One has to struggle with the environmental as well as the inner forces throughout one’s life. As a result, one has to modify and change one’s personality patterns and this makes the natures of personality dynamic.

6. Personality is sometimes subjected to disorganization and disintegration, leading to server personality disorders on account of factors and conditions like severe anxiety, stress, traumatic experiences, prolonged illness, infections, and damage to the brain and nervous system.

7. Every personality is the product of heredity and environment. Both these contribute significantly towards the development of the child’s personality. A child is not born with his environment. Therefore, not only heredity but also factors like constitutional make-up, social and cultural influences as well as experience and training etc. all affect one’s personality.

8. Learning and acquisition of experience contribute towards growth and development of personality. Every personality is the end-product of this process of learning and acquisition.
9. The personality of an individual can be described as well as measured.

10. Personality should not be taken as synonymous with one’s character. Character is an ethical concept. It represents a moral estimate of the individual, while personality, as a psychological concept is a more comprehensive term, which includes character as one of its constituents.

11. Personality may be further distinguished from temperament, which can be termed a system of emotional disposition. This system of emotional disposition represents only the affective side of one’s personality and so personality must be taken as being much beyond one’s temperament.

12. Personality should also be viewed differently from the ego or the individual self. The word ego is generally used for that unified part of one’s personality, which in ordinary language we call “I”. However, as the psychoanalytic view of personality advocated by Freud explains, it is only a small aspect of one’s total personality. Personality, therefore, stands for more than what the ego carries.

13. Every person’s personality has one more distinguishing feature, that is, aiming to an end or towards some specific goals. Adler clearly asserts this view and is of the opinion that a man’s personality can be judged through a study and interpretation of the goals which he has set for himself and the approaches he makes to the problems he faces in his life.
In view of the foregoing discussion regarding its characteristics and scope, as a practical definition, it may be said that, personality is a complex blend of a constantly evolving and changing pattern of one’s unique behaviour, emerged as a result of one’s interaction with one’s environment and directed towards some specific ends.

**Type-cum- Trait Approach :-**

This approach tries to synthesize the type and trait approaches. Starting with the trait approach, it yields definite personality types. The Eysenck theory of personality reflects such an approach.

**1.9 EYSENCK’S THEORY OF PERSONALITY :**

While Cattell has tried to use the factor analysis technique to give some basic dimensions to personality by enumerating 16 basic traits, H.J. Eysenck, a German-born British psychologist, went a step further in the adopting factor analysis technique by extracting second order factors and grouping traits into definite personality types.

According to Eysenck, there are four levels of behaviour organization:

1. At the lowest are the specific responses. They grow out of particular responses to any single act. Blushing, for example, is a specific response.

2. Habitual responses from the second level and comprise similar responses of an individual, to similar situations.

   For instance,

   (a) the inability to easily strike friendships, or

   (b) hesitancy in talking to strangers are habitual responses.
3. At the third level is the organization of habitual acts into traits. Behaviour acts which have similarities are said to belong to one groups and are called traits. In the above example the habitual responses (a) and (b) etc., give birth to a group of traits called “shyness”.

4. The fourth level is the organization of these traits into a general type. A type is defined as groups of correlated traits. Traits which are similar in nature give birth to a definite type traits like persistence, rigidity, shyness etc., have been grouped into a type termed as Introversion.

An ultimate, distinct type is obtained at this final stage. A person, can now be classified as an introvert if he has traits as described at the third level, habits and habit systems as described at the second level and respond specifically as described at the first level.

Eysenck’s work has clearly demonstrated that human behaviour and personality can be very well organised into a hierarchy with specific responses at the bottom and the definite personality type at the top. In fact, in this work, what was described, as basic dimension in the form of personality traits by Cattell has been further regrouped yielding fewer dimensions for the description of human behaviour and personality. The three basic dimensions (defined as clusters or groups of correlated traits) derived by Eysenck through his work are:

1. Introversion-extroversion
2. Neuroticism (emotional instability-emotional stability)
3. Psychoticism.
These three basic dimensions refer to definite personality types i.e. introvert, extrovert, neurotic and psychotic. However, the term “type” as applied by Eysenck stands clearly for a dimension along a scale with a low end and a high end for putting people at various points between the two extremes. While the high end on the first dimension introversion-extroversion, includes the highly extrovert recognized as sociable, outgoing, impulsive, optimistic and jolly people, the lower and typifies the highly introvert recognized as quiet, introspective, reserved, reflective, disciplined and well-ordered people. Eysenck believed that purely extrovert or purely introvert people found and he, therefore, preferred to use a dimension, i.e. a continuum ranging from introversions to extroversion Instead of naming types as introverts and extroverts.

The second major dimension suggested by Eysenck involves emotional instability at the lower end and emotional stability at the upper end-describing people as neurotic and not neurotic. Thus, at its lower end are the persons who are moody, touchy, anxious or restless and at the upper end are persons who are stable, calm, carefree, even-tempered and dependable.

The third dimension is psychoticism. The people high on this dimension tend to be solitary, insensitive, egocentric impersonal, impulsive and opposed to accepted social norms while those scoring low are found to be more empathic and less adventurous and bold.

Eysenck has also tried to make use of Cattell’s basic dimensions for the measurement of one’s personality by developing an appropriate set of
questions in the form of two well-known inventories – the Maudsley personality inventory and the Eysenck personality inventory.

The PEN model, proposed and advocated by Eysenck as the overarching paradigm of personality psychology, has two main aspects: descriptive and causal. The descriptive aspect of the model is a hierarchical taxonomy based on factor analysis. At the top of the hierarchy are the superfactors of Psychoticism, Extraversion, and Neuroticism (PEN). These superfactors are comprised of factor analyses of lower-order factors such as sociability and positive affect (components of Extraversion). These factors are comprised of factor analyses of lower-order habits such as liking to study with a group of people (a component of sociability). These habits are comprised of factor analyses of lower-order behaviors such as studying for the personality midterm with a group of people.

Two important principles of personality research that are incorporated into the PEN model are aggregation and the state-trait distinction. The principle of aggregation is that measures will have higher reliability if they are comprised of many items. For example, Extraversion is comprised of many different factors, habits, and behaviors, and therefore should have good reliability. The state-trait distinction is also built into the PEN model. At the top level, the superfactors of P, E, and N are traits that are very stable across time and situation. At the bottom level, the behavior of studying for the midterm with a group of people is a state that could vary widely, for example, with the availability of study partners. While states are very changeable, traits are very stable. Eysenck believes that the five-factor model is a
hodge-podge of factors and superfactors. The five-factor model and the PEN model both include Extraversion and Neuroticism at the highest level. However, the superfactor of Psychoticism is made up of the lower-level factors of (dis-) agreeableness and (non-) conscientiousness. Moreover, the big five include “intellect” (self- or peer rated) at the top level. Eysenck thinks of this as simply a bad way of measuring intelligence, which is a cognitive ability that would be better reflected in I.Q. tests than in self-reports on adjective questionnaires.

One factor that was originally subsumed under the superfactor of Extraversion in the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) is impulsivity. Later, when the dimension of Psychoticism was added, impulsivity was moved from Extraversion to Psychoticism in the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ). Some investigators, such as Gray and Revelle, believe impulsivity is uniquely important, and that its removal from the Extraversion superfactor is a bad idea.

Causal Aspects

**Extraversion:** The PEN model is biologically based. Extraversion is based on **cortical arousal.** Arousal can be measured by skin conductance, brain waves, or sweating. While theoretically introverts are chronically overaroused and jittery, theoretically extraverts are chronically underaroused and bored. The theory presupposes that there is an optimal level of arousal, and that performance deteriorates as one becomes more or less aroused than this optimal level. The finding that arousal is related to performance as an inverted U-shaped curve is called the Yerkes-Dodson Law.
Extraversion is related to social interest and positive affect. Some investigators have proposed that social interest causes positive affect, since the best of times are usually those spent with other people. However, Diener and Larsen (1993) have found that this hypothesis is incorrect. Another alternative is that positive affect causes social interest, since being very enthusiastic and fun loving may make people want to go out and be with other people. This hypothesis has not yet been studied. Yet another possibility is that a third factor causes both positive affect and social interest. Dopamine responsivity, which makes people highly sensitive to reward, may be the factor responsible for both positive affect and social interest.

**Neuroticism:** Neuroticism is based on activation thresholds in the sympathetic nervous system or visceral brain. This is the part of the brain that is responsible for the fight-or-flight response in the face of danger. Activation can be measured by heart rate, blood pressure, cold hands, sweating, and muscular tension (especially in the forehead). Neurotic people, who have a low activation threshold, experience negative affect (fight-or-flight) in the face of very minor stressors—i.e., they are easily upset. Emotionally stable people, who have a high activation threshold, experience negative affect only in the face of very major stressors—i.e., they are calm under pressure.

It is interesting to note that measures of activation are not highly correlated. That is, people differ in which responses are influenced by stress—some sweat, others get headaches. This is called individual response specificity. It is also interesting to note that stressors differ in the responses they elicit. This is called stimulus response specificity.
**Psychoticism.** Psychoticism is associated not only with the liability to have a psychotic episode (or break with reality), but also with aggression. While less research has been done on Psychoticism than on Extraversion and Neuroticism, the research that has been done has indicated that Psychoticism too has a biological basis: increased **testosterone** levels.

### 1.10 BODY IMAGE AND PERSONALITY

Fisher (1964) speculated that sensations of becoming small in bodily sense may represent a loss of self-esteem and similarly a loss of body boundaries may indicated a sense of vulnerability and loss of individuation (Fisher, 1966). These may indicate that a specific body image disturbances leads to a specific symptom.

On the other hand body image disturbances have been described in neurotics by Fisher (1964), Fisher (1966), and Lukianowicz (1967). Fisher (1966) stated that neurotic patients experience more body image disturbances than normals. He also found that neurotics show higher differentiation of body parts than schizophrenics on body focus questionnaire. This indicated that neurotics discriminate more sharply the perceptual vividness of body regions. Lukianowicz (1967) found that in neurosis 35 per cent showed disturbances of body mass while 66 per cent experienced disturbance in the body position. Similar changes in body image has also been described in adolescents by Schonfeld (1966).

Body image and the ego seem to be closely related. Schilder (1935) more or less fused the two concepts. Freud (1961) in "The Id and the Ego" stated that a major part of the ego is constituted by the body ego. But it
may be said with greater justification that the self representation is a major function of the ego. Thus in neurosis where ego functions are distorted one could easily perceive that the body image is very likely to get distorted.

According to theorists, greater possibility appear to be that the specific symptom is the resultant of multiple factors. Amongst them anxiety, specific organ inferiority and body image vulnerability appear to be the foremost. Thus the individuals who have a poorer concept of an organ or the organs which are more highly rated will tend to become the seat of symptoms in conditions of stress.

The role of anxiety is even more complicated. It may focus attention on an organ, for instance, palpitation initially may be a concomitant of anxiety but later due to its becoming important in the body scheme it may get implicated in other situations as well.

1.11 PHYSICAL ACTIVITY:

Physical activity, exercise, and physical fitness are terms that describe different concepts. However, they are often confused with one another, and the terms are sometimes used interchangeably.

Physical activity is defined as any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscles that results in energy expenditure. Physical activity in daily life can be categorized into occupational, sports, conditioning, household, or other activities. Exercise is a subset of physical activity that is planned, structured, and repetitive and has as a final or an intermediate objective for the improvement or maintenance of physical fitness. Physical fitness is a set of attributes that are either health- or skill-related.
The degree to which people have these attributes can be measured with specific tests.

World Health Organization has defined physical activity as any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscles that requires energy expenditure.

Physical activity simply means movement of the body that uses energy. Walking, gardening, briskly pushing a baby stroller, climbing the stairs, playing recreational games are all examples of being active.

Physical activity also means an active lifestyle and routine exercise along with good dietary habits.

1.12 TYPES OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

There are four main types of physical activity. They are

1. Aerobic
2. Muscle-strengthening
3. Bone-strengthening, and

Aerobic Activity

Aerobic activity moves our large muscles, such as those in our arms and legs. Running, swimming, walking, biking, dancing, and doing jumping jacks are examples of aerobic activity. Aerobic activity also is called endurance activity.

Aerobic activity makes our heart beat faster than usual. We also breathe harder during this type of activity. Over time, regular aerobic activity makes our heart and lungs stronger and able to work better.
Other Types of Physical Activity

The other types of physical activity—muscle-strengthening, bone strengthening, and stretching—benefit our body in other ways.

Muscle-strengthening activities improve the strength, power, and endurance of our muscles. Doing pushups and situps, lifting weights, climbing stairs, and digging in the garden are examples of muscle-strengthening activities.

With bone-strengthening activities, our feet, legs, or arms support our body’s weight, and our muscles push against our bones. This helps make our bones strong. Running, walking, jumping rope, and lifting weights are examples of bone-strengthening activities.

Stretching helps improve our flexibility and our ability to fully move our joints. Touching our toes, doing side stretches, and doing yoga exercises are examples of stretching.

According to WHO (2007) guidelines, in adults aged 18–64, physical activity includes leisure time physical activity (for example: walking, dancing, gardening, hiking, swimming), transportation (e.g. walking or cycling), occupational (i.e. work), household chores, play, games, sports or planned exercise, in the context of daily, family, and community activities.

1.13 BENEFITS OF REGULAR PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

The major benefits of regular physical activity are:

1. Maintain healthy weight
2. Reduce the risk of type-2 diabetes and metabolic syndrome
3. Reduce risk of endometrial and lung cancer
4. Strengthening of bones and muscles
5. Improve mental health and mood
6. Improved functionality for day-to-day routine activities.

1.14 PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AND PERSONALITY

Studies in the past have shown that regular physical activity is beneficial for psychological enhancement. In fact the positive effect of physical activities in the form of aerobic and anaerobic exercises and alternative forms such as yoga on personality characteristics are studied by so many researchers. Winter et al. (2008) found that aerobic exercise has the greatest mood-boosting effect when it is performed continuously for a prolonged period of time. Similarly Daniel, Martin and Carter (1992) concluded that endorphins play an important role in normal mood elevating effects of physical activity.

Rudolph and McAuley (1998) in their study found that cortisol levels increased in first 29 min. of run and then decreased. They found increase in positive affective states following each 30 min. run. This study also highlight the role of decreased level of cortisol in exercise’s mood elevating effects.

Low and moderate intensity workout are also beneficial in reducing anxiety and depression (Rendi et al., 1998). In a study Schlatte (2008) found that physical exercise produce a change from external locus of control to a more internal locus of control, and increased feeling of self-efficacy.
The other forms of alternative physical activity i.e. meditation coupled with yoga have been found to have positive effect on psychological functioning (Wolsko, 2004). Meditvation and gigong (coordinated gentle movements and breathing) are also beneficial in reducing anxiety.

In summary, studies have shown that physical activity improves self-esteem, self-acceptance, self-concept and self concept as well as reduce depression, tension, anxiety and stress.

1.15 PHYSICAL EXERCISE AND BODY IMAGE

Body image has been defined as the subjective concept of physical appearance and can be either positive or negative (Forrest et al., 2007). The perception of physical appearance as being positive or negative predicts exercise motivation and behavior. Specific exercise motives include improving or maintaining a desired physical appearance (Crawford and Eklund, 1994; Ingleedew and Sullivan, 2001). The relationship of body image and exercise participation is manifested in the fact that related issues such as weight management, appearance, and body dissatisfaction have all ranked consistently high as motivators to exercise participation (Kilpatrick et al., 2005). Findings suggest that body image has the potential to influence exercise participation rates in a positive way, in that perceived body image increases exercise participation.

When changes occur in the physical fitness of an individual, not only do personality traits become more stable, but the body image can be affected (Ilg & Ames, 1940; Schilder, 1935; Lerner, 1967; Drought, 1980).
This is due to the activity and movement patterns involved in an exercise conditioning programme where participation in dynamic activity may promote a more positive body image. An exercise conditioning programme is known to affect body composition and resultant weight loss which, together with general toning up of the musculature, may be a way of positively enhancing body image.

Individuals, who are in the field-independent end of the continuum of the Witkin classification of the perceptual styles of field-independence/dependence, have been shown to have a more positive body image. Field-independence enhances the individual's body as a frame of reference and results in a more dynamic and positive intervention into space. It may be postulated, therefore, that individuals who engage in regular physical activity may, as well as enhancing physiological function, improve in terms of the development of a positive body image.

Several studies have found evidence that body image is improved by exercise. Schulz (1961) in a study reported that high school girls of high physical fitness were found to have a more positive body image than less fit girls.

The body image needs an involvement in physical activity in order to be enhanced in a positive way. Harris (1973) asserts that "the body image is developed within the framework of experiences of the body and the memory of these experiences". It is known that there is an association between the postural body image and activity, so that a poor postural body image may interfere with physical activity. The work of Kreitler
(1973) with the aged has indicated that a reduction in movement not only leads to muscle degeneration but also has many psychological effects. He suggested that people who do not engage in exercise tend to have a more distorted body image, estimating themselves to be wider than they really are.

Harris (1973) noted that men who had been habitually active throughout their lives had generally more positive self concepts and tended to be confident of their physical abilities and movement patterns. Harris also suggested that success in physical activity participation encourages a positive body image. Snyder and Kivlin (1975) investigated measures of psychological well-being and body image between women athletes and non-athletes, gymnasts and basketball players. Their results showed that women athletes had higher scores than non-athletes on both measures of psychological well-being and body image. Whilst the gymnasts had higher scores on the psychological well-being items than the basketball players, the measures on body image between the two sports were inconclusive.

1.16 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

What women think about her body image is important because several researches have shown that negative body image is associated with eating disorder, depression, psychosomatic disorders, thinness etc. Although relationship between physical exercise and body image have been established by several researchers, no study have yet been conducted in which body image of the women is explored in the light of work status, physical activity and personality.
The presented study was conducted with the following aims and objectives:

1. To compare body image of working and non-working women.
2. To compare personality characteristics of working and non-working women.
3. To analyse the impact of participation in regular physical activity on body image of women.
4. To analyse the impact of participation in regular physical activity on personality characteristics of women.
5. To find out the joint action effect of regular physical activity and working status upon body image of women.
6. To find out the joint action effect of regular physical activity and personality upon body image of women.

1.17 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

It is not always possible for researcher to formulate his problem simply, clearly and completely. He may obtain rather general, defuse, even confused notion of the problem. This is in the nature of the complexity of scientific research. It may even take investigator years of exploration, thought, and research before he can clearly say what question he has been seeking answer to. Nevertheless adequate statement of the research problem is one of the most important parts of research. Hurlock mentioned that the problem is stated in interrogative form, the simplest way is here the best way. Also note that the problem states a relation between variables.
In order to materialize the objective of the present study stated in this chapter, as per canons of scientific enquiry, the best way is to frame relevant and research-worthy problems and that too in the form of an interrogative statements, and to seek scientific solution to those problem through empirical verification of the related and research-worthy hypothesis. Therefore, an attempt has been made to frame the pinpointed problems in a question form. The same are registered, here as under:

- Is women’s perception towards their body differ on the basis of their work status?
- Do regular physical activity has any bearing upon body image of women?
- Do personality characteristics have any significant bearing upon body image of women?
- Does regular physical activity and personality alone or in interaction with each other influence body image among women subjects?
- Does regular physical activity and working status alone or in interaction with each other influence body image among women subjects?

1.18 DELIMITATIONS:

1. The study is delimited to 400 women.

2. This study is delimited to women subjects between age range of 30-50 years.
3. This study is delimited to 200 working and 200 non-working married women.

4. This study is delimited to 200 women exercisers and 200 non-exerciser women subjects.

5. This study is delimited to assess body image and personality of selected women subjects.

6. This study is delimited to assess body image and personality of selected women subjects on the basis of their participation in regular physical activity.

1.19 LIMITATIONS:

In present study body type, socio economic status, family structure, level of fitness, health ailments and other psychological factors such as depression, anxiety, etc. were not taken into consideration and they were beyond the control of the investigator, and these factors might affect the results.

1.20 HYPOTHESES:

Differential Hypotheses

1. Working women will exhibit more magnitude of positive body image as compared to non-working women.

2. Personality characteristics of women subjects will significantly vary on the basis of their status of work.

3. Women having daily physical exercise routine will show more magnitude of positive body image as compared to women with no daily physical exercise routine.
4. Significant difference will be observed in personality of women subjects having daily physical exercise routine and women subjects with no daily physical exercise routine.

5. Body image of working and non-working women will differ significantly on the basis of their daily physical exercise routine.

6. Psychoticism in working and non-working women will differ significantly on the basis of their daily physical exercise routine.

7. Extraversion among working and non-working women will differ significantly on the basis of their daily physical exercise routine.

8. Magnitude of Neuroticism will differ significantly among working and non-working women on the basis of their daily physical exercise routine.

**Interaction-Oriented Hypotheses:**

1. Psychoticism and working status will show its joint effect on body image of women.

2. Extraversion and working status will show its joint effect on body image of women.

3. Neuroticism and working status will show its joint effect on body image of women.

4. Psychoticism and status of physical exercise will show its joint effect on body image of women.

5. Extraversion and status of physical exercise will show its joint effect on body image of women.
Neuroticism and status of physical exercise will show its joint effect on body image of women.

1.21 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Confucius once said: 'Everything has beauty, but not everyone sees it.' These simple words should echo a deeper meaning for all those who seek to find beauty in the eyes of another. Why should one believe that beauty is about looking like someone else? One should be able to accept that everyone is unique and beautiful in their own way and that being different is not such a bad thing. For true beauty is not what others see in you but what you cherish and nurture in yourself.

While every society defines beauty within its own cultural setting, the quest for beauty is universal. Nowhere is this more evident than in the contemporary concept of 'body image', which has become an integral aspect of measuring beauty. The term body image can simply be defined as the way one perceives one's body and feels about it. Although it refers much to the physique, it lays a greater emphasis on weight.

The connection between regular physical activity and body image is established firmly by the researchers but it was argued that women are never satisfied with their body, so the effect of physical activity needs to be interpreted under the umbrella of their personality.

Hence the findings of the present study will contribute to existing but contradictory theories regarding the impact of participation in regular physical activity upon personality and body image of women, that too in the light of their working and non working status.