Chapter 1: Introduction

The family, particularly the mother is perceived as the primary socialisation agent who transmits messages to adolescents regarding their appearance and eating practices (Cafri, Yamamiya, Brannick & Thompson, 2005). Most research conducted on family influences have evaluated the role of the mother in predicting various types of weight-loss strategies among their daughters (Levine & Harrison, 2004; Mangweth, Pope, Hudson, Olivardia, Kinzl & Biebl, 1997). Few studies have investigated parental influences on the eating behaviours and body esteem perceptions of adolescent boys, or explored paternal influences (Pope, Phillips & Olivandia, 2000). But even fewer studies have been conducted on males around the age of 18 years and above. This study focused on maternal and paternal parental styles as possible variables related to body esteem perceptions of male students.

Harter (1993) asserted that the primary influence on a child's self-esteem or a male child's sense of self-worth is his relationship with his parents. The connection between parent and child forms the basis for future relationships. The foundations of self-esteem are laid early in life when infants develop attachments with the adults who are responsible for them. Keery, van den Berg and Thompson (2004) also pointed out that the parents' influence on the child's self-esteem is most prominent in the early development of the child. For instance, teenagers are said to be more influenced by their peers, while the young adults are more affected by the media. This study investigated body esteem and self-esteem of male students and their perception of their parents' parental style from their perspective.

According to Usmiani and Daniluk (1996), the discrepancy between actual and ideal body esteem is a function of the culturally defined images of desirable bodily appearances. In essence, an individual's self-concept regarding body esteem is influenced

by the degree to which cultural standards are met. Although the association between ethnicity and changes in early adolescent self-esteem is not yet fully understood, some consistent patterns have been uncovered (Palladino, 1989). For example, there is some evidence that African American adolescents have higher levels of self-esteem and are less vulnerable to declines in self-esteem than their White or Hispanic peers (Harter, 1999; McRae, 1991). Research has been consistent in finding that body esteem, self-esteem and race are correlated to some extent. Research in the area of body esteem and race has provided insight into the links between ethnicity, body image and self-concept. All three elements combined directly affect Caucasian females more than Caucasian males, Black males, and Black females (Henriques & Calhoun, 1999).

1.1 Primary research aims

This study sought to explore male students' (above the age of 18, from the University of the Witwatersrand) perceptions of their parents' parenting styles and how these may have affected their body esteem. The study further aimed to explore differences and similarities in maternal and paternal parenting styles and how they relate to the male students' body esteem perception.

1.2 Secondary research aim

This study also sought to investigate whether parental styles were related to the self-esteem of the male students. The study further utilised the demographic information of race to investigate if there were differences in body esteem perception and self-esteem of the male students in terms of this variable.

To enhance the coherence of this study, as well as for ease of reading, this research has been organised into five sections. Brief outlines of the contents of these sections are as follow:

Introduction: this is the first section which includes Chapter 1. This first chapter provides a broad introduction to the study and the research aims and outlines this research report's structure.

Literature and Theoretical review: this section includes five chapters that discuss previous research developments and theoretical perspective in the field of parental involvement in the male child's body esteem and self-esteem development and perception. Chapter 2 examines men and body esteem; this chapter focuses on the concept of perception, surrounding influences and body esteem distortion. Chapter 3 focuses on the secondary research aim of awareness and internalisation; hence this chapter examines the concept of self-esteem. Chapter 4 introduces the parenting styles and explores the relationship between the parent and male offspring. Chapter 5 focuses on the theoretical background, exploring the socio-cultural perspective of Vygotsky. The literature and theoretical section is concluded by the research questions.

Methods: this section is covered in Chapter 6. It examines the research rationale, sampling process, research procedure, instruments, method of analysis and ethical considerations.

Results: Chapter 7 deals with the results. This chapter looks at the research variables in detail and attempts to answer the research questions.

Discussion: Chapter 8 is the discussion chapter. This section interprets the results by looking at the actual results, the literature and the theory in interpreting the findings. This section also provides the limitations of the study, the recommendations for future research and a final conclusion.

Chapter 2: Men and body esteem perception

2.1. Introduction

Body image is a multidimensional construct that has received growing scientific study over the past decades (Cash, 2004). Research (Pope, Gruber, Mangweth, Bureau, deCol, Jouvent & Hudson, 2000; Pope et al., 2000) has examined the determinants of body image development and functioning. On the other hand, Cash (2002) pointed out that socio-cultural factors are seen as powerful determinants of body esteem development. The study focuses on body esteem; however the term body image is introduced in order to better understand the term body esteem. The term body esteem is ofttern not used therefore the difference between these terms need to be clarified. Thompson, van den Berg, Roehrig, Guarda and Heinberg (2004) proposed a tripartite influence model as the determinants of body esteem development. This model describes three primary sources of influential factors in the development of body esteem. They are: peers, parents and media.

Levine and Harrison (2004) point out that some influences within the tripartite model proposed by Thompson et al. (2004) are substantially more researched than others. Levine and Harrison (2004) hold that various studies have highlighted the influential role of the media but have not particularly focused on peer and familial influences. This study intended to focus on the areas that are least studied hence an investigation of body esteem perception on men was conducted by this study. In particular, it honed in on the relationship between parenting styles and body esteem.

2.2. Definition of perception

The rationale of this study was to identify the perceived relationship of parenting styles with body esteem of male students. The focus was on how children perceive their parents' parenting styles, therefore parents were not involved in the study. Understanding the concept of perception is crucial in this study, as it forms the foundation of understanding what the study sought to examine.

Perception can be defined as the active process of selecting, organising, and interpreting information brought to the brain by the senses (Carterette & Friedman, 1978). Perception, according to Krishnananda (1992), is a process of becoming conscious of an object. It is one of the means of obtaining valid knowledge in the world. The objects that are seen in the world are considered by the common man to exist outside his body and the senses, and he feels that the objects are reflected, as it were, in his mind in perception. In essence, perception is the process by which people interpret information around them. The information may not necessarily mean a true reflection of the situation, but could be how an individual received it in their own understanding to produce a meaningful experience of the world (Krishnananda, 1992).

The fact that perception relies so much on individual interpretation of the world implies that it cannot be studied and understood in isolation; scientists must link perception with other cognitive processes, such as learning, memory, judgment, and problem solving (Carterette, & Friedman, 1978). This study linked perception and body esteem. Perception relates to body esteem in a sense that body esteem is about how one evaluates one's appearance and weight, the way of thinking, feeling and believing to appear to others.The interest of this study lies in how perception can play a crucial role in one's life. The individual's perception of the world may be influenced by the environment he/she lives in; the environment can have an influence through inputs and guidance.

2.3. Body image and body esteem

2.3.1. Definitions of body image and body esteem

Body image involves our perception, imagination, emotions, and physical sensations of and about our bodies (Garner, 1997). Body image perception as described by Garner (1997) is not static, but ever changing; sensitive to changes in mood, environment, and physical experience. According to Usmiani and Daniluk (1996, p.46) there is agreement in the literature that "body image is multidimensional and complex, involving both internal-biological and psychological factors as well as external social factors". Body image is psychological in nature and not based on facts; it is not inborn, but it is learned (Bruch, 1973). This learning occurs in the family and among peers, but these only reinforce what is learned and expected culturally. Hence, the concept of body image is a complex construct that has no single description.

Body image is the picture of our own body, which we form in our mind (Pajares, 1996). In other words, the way in which the body appears to us (Bruch, 1973). Body image is a representation of how we mentally see ourselves and how others see us. The mental image of the self affects the thinking process, feelings and the status of self-esteem, argues Garner (1997). The definitions of body image revolve around the psyche as the foundation on which body image perception develops (Ingodlby, Schvaneveldy, Supple & Bush, 2003). This process involves perception, thinking processes; interpreting and eventually the mental image is formed.

Body esteem, on the other hand, relates to how one feels about one's body and how one cares for it. McCabe and Ricciardelli (2003) point out that within the realm of human self-esteem lurks a powerful element called body esteem. It is a way of thinking and feeling about one's body that influences a person's self-esteem and body satisfaction. This definition is important because it incorporates three components that have been identified

in the literature to be linked to body image; self-esteem (Cohane & Pope, 2001), body esteem (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2003), and body satisfaction (Pope et al., 2000). Body esteem is related to self-esteem. Cohane and Pope (2001) stated that, if one is unsatisfied with one's body, then one's body esteem becomes negative, and indeed affects one's self-esteem. Body image is the mental image one has of one's own body, while body esteem is how one believes oneself to appear to others. It could be said that body image seems to be based on cognitive processes whilst body esteem seems to be more related to emotions and feelings.

2.3.2. Males and body esteem

Previous research has shown that gender has a relationship to body esteem and eating disorders, with females suffering from body esteem disturbance more than males (Cafri & Thompson, 2004). Research has pointed out that males have lower rates of eating disorders; however, males are not as immune to body esteem issues as was once thought (Lorenzen, Grieven & Thomas, 2004). More and more males are reported to be struggling with body dissatisfaction, weight concerns and feelings of inadequacy when comparing themselves to the societal ideal (Pope, Grube, 2000; Pope et al., 2000). Although these issues may manifest differently in males than they do in females, body esteem is becoming a point of concern for an increasing number of males, both young and old (Pajares, 1996). This study therefore aims to investigate what factors influence body esteem in males.

Body esteem is how one feels and believes oneself to appear to others (Pope et al., 2000). Commonly investigated in female samples, research on male body esteem and accompanying behaviours has increased in recent years (Cafri & Thompson, 2004). Similar to the desired achievement of the thin ideal in females, attainment of a particular ideal has also been noted for males, specifically, the mesomorphic or muscular body type (Olivardia, Pope, Borowiecki & Cohane, 2004). Again in line with the female literature

on this topic, accompanying male body dissatisfaction as a function of desiring the mesomorphic ideal has been identified, as well as adverse psychosocial consequences, including depression and low self-esteem (Olivardia et al., 2004). Concerns around self-esteem will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

Male body esteem concerns usually result from external pressures to conform to a specific "body-builder" physique: broad shoulders, V-shaped back, and a muscular body (Ricciardelli, McCabe, Lillis & Thomas, 2006). Men receive these pressures from the media's definition of masculinity and/or from teasing and expectations from family and friends. Comparing their own bodies with the media ideal may cause many males to become dissatisfied with their bodies. Men are bombarded with media images of superheroes, action figures, and bodybuilders, all of which suggest that they should work towards having dense and muscular bodies. Family members and friends can also be the source of destructive information (Cafri & Thompson, 2004). Teasing and unrealistic expectations often cause males to seek to modify their bodies.

Research has shown that even moderate exposure to these types of messages can have a negative impact on male body esteem (Lorenzen et al., 2004). Most men who are dissatisfied with their bodies do not wish to become thinner, but desire to develop muscle mass. For males, the pressure to gain muscle is a greater predictor of body dissatisfaction and weight-changing behaviours than the pressure to lose weight (Ricciardelli et al., 2006).

2.3.3. Muscular body

Some societies place unusual stress on the achievement of a masculine image for males (Terre Blanche, Bhavnani & Hook, 1997). The constant exposure to ideal body types, which are often quite unrealistic for most individuals to attain, can make individuals more sensitive and conscious about their own bodies, and can evoke comparisons between

themselves and unrealistic media images of thinness and/or muscularity (Lorenzen et al., 2004). Males therefore feel the need to prove themselves and it is acceptable for them to alter their appearance through weight lifting and the utilisation of steroids. In essence, males are being subjected to greater pressure to attain the perfect body, leading to an increase in anabolic steroid use in order to "buff up".

Terre Blanche et al., (1997) further point out that people are constantly immersed in the intimate and fleshy details of the body. Personal experiences and media products have a daily effect on torsos, biceps, six packs and every variety of images of the body at rest. Lorenzen et al. (2004) argues that the media only reflects what is prevalent in society.

Body image, according to Pruzinsky and Cash (2002), is a multidimensional construct that can influence one's thoughts, emotions and behaviour. Those multidimensional constructs expose themselves through attitudinal and perceptual components. Cafri and Thompson (2004) points out that similar to the desired achievement of the thin ideal in females, attainment of a particular ideal has also been noted for males, specifically the muscular body type, as discussed above. It is reported that the attainment of the ideal build may result in the engagement of unhealthy behaviour associated with achieving muscle, such as excessive weight lifting, consumption of supplements and the use of anabolic steroids (Lorenzen et al., 2004).

Men usually report higher levels of body satisfaction than women. However, research shows that boys and men are increasingly presented with images of a more muscular and unattainable masculine ideal body than 10 or 20 years ago (Terre Blanche et al., 1997). For example, analysis of toy action figures showed dramatic increases in muscularity with the body proportions of the most recent action figures being unattainable (Pope et al., 1999). Some suggest that the increasingly unattainable body proportions presented to men account for the fact that adult males' body ideals have also grown increasingly muscular in recent years (Pruzinsky & Cash, 2002). Pollock (1998) pointed out that

contemporary men are facing a dilemma regarding masculinity. This dilemma is said to hinge on Western society's increasing objectification of the male body and its predominant cultural messages regarding masculine physique.

2.3.4. Surrounding influence on body esteem

Researchers (Giant & Vartanian, 2001) have found that while low body esteem seems to affect women much more so than men, men are becoming increasingly body-conscious. Strelan and Hargreaves (2005) add that women have traditionally been viewed as more preoccupied with their appearance. However, evidence (Jackson, 2002; Herzog, Norman, Gordon & Pepose, 1984) is emerging to show that men, too, are becoming increasingly concerned about their bodies. Garner (1997) points out an example of a survey which indicated that the percentage of US men who expressed dissatisfaction with their bodies had risen from 15% in 1972 to 43% in 1996. Mundray and Ogden (1996) further pointed out that it is crucial to note that men are not immune to the results of being constantly bombarded by images of “perfect” bodies in mass media, nor are they capable of ignoring pressures and teasing from family and peers. The external factors such as social factors should not be left unrecognised. The question is to what extent do the social factors, particularly parental relationships and involvement, link to body esteem perception.

Other major influences on body esteem, according to Strelan and Hargreaves (2005), are socio-cultural factors such as pressure from friends, family, and general societal messages to look a certain way, such as thin for women and muscular for men. Jackson (2002) points out that socio-cultural pressures place pressure to match the unrealistic ideal body weight; the pressures often lead to dieting and eating dysfunction in order to reach the ideal body weight. Social pressure is therefore a significant predictor of eating dysfunction (Garner 1997). However, internalisation of the socio-cultural expectations to be thin or muscled accounts for a greater level of variance than does mere awareness.

Thus, the key to understanding where body esteem is most affected lies in uncovering where awareness turns to internalisation.

2.3.5 Tripartite model

The tripartite influence model according to Reed, Thompson, Brannick, and Sacco (1991) is a model of body esteem and eating disturbances. Thompson, Coovert, and Stormer (1999) suggest a tripartite influence model of body esteem and eating disturbances as one theoretical framework for incorporating many of the factors found in various studies into a single model. It is a theoretical approach that includes a test of direct effect (peer, parental and media factors) and mediational links or indirect effects (internalisation of societal appearance standards and appearance comparison processes) as factors potentially leading to body dissatisfaction and eating disturbances. Keery, van den Berg and Thompson (2004) point out that the model proposes that three primary core sources of influence; parents, peers and media contribute to the development of low body esteem and eating disturbances.

Shroff and Thompson (2006) conducted a study to evaluate the tripartite model utilising a sample of 391 adolescent females. A structural equation model that evaluated the tripartite model replicated previous findings reported by Keery et al. (2004). There was little difference in the overall fit indices of the model. However, it is clear that the peer and media influences were significant, whereas the parent variable had no significant association with the mediators (internalisation, comparison) or the outcome variables. Gender differences were found in the relation between mediational mechanisms (social comparison and thin-ideal internalisation) and body dissatisfaction. Social comparison and internalisation acted as weak but significant mediators between socio-cultural influence and body esteem concerns for females, and not males (Chen, Gao & Jackson, 2007).

The tripartite perspective examines and attempts to explain the development process of a child from all angles (Reed et al., 1991). This theory seems appealing due to the concept of focusing on all aspects of peoples' surroundings, instead of trying to explain things in a one dimensional perspective. This theory, however, neglects to focus on child development in all aspects. The early development influences could be crucial to examine as it could lead to an understanding of when and how changes with regards to body esteem occur, whether positive or negative. Instead of tracing development from the very early stages of child development up to adulthood, the theory dwells on the youthful age where people are aware of their surroundings and of the choices they have. However, the ability of the theory to focus on the youthful stage is important for this study since the sample is based on students that are eighteen years and above, who are aware of their surroundings and choices.

2.3.6 Body esteem distortion

Rosen, Gross and Vara (1987) point out that the term body esteem refers to the feeling and belief that a person has of his or her own body size and proportion, while body esteem distortion occurs when a person's view of his/her body is significantly different from reality. In addition to the tripartite model described above, Eldredge, Wilson and Whaley (1990) hold that many factors impact the perception of one's body, including mass media, peer groups, ethnic groups and family values. Cultural and societal standards shift periodically; therefore disparity in height and weight may lead to problems with self-esteem when one finds him or herself not meeting the cultural ideal of body size and shape (Rubenstein & Cabellero, 2000).

Two aspects of body esteem dysfunction are usually distinguished: perceptual distortion and body dissatisfaction (Cash & Brown, 1987; Cash & Janda, 1984; Schlundt & Bell, 1993; Thompson, 1990). Perceptual distortion is the inability to accurately perceive one's body size, while body dissatisfaction represents the degree to which people are not

content with the size and shape of their bodies. Perceptual distortion is usually measured with visual tasks, while body dissatisfaction tends to be measured by rating scales and questionnaires (Cash, 1991; 1994; Cooper, Taylor, Cooper, Taylor, Cooper & Fairburn, 1987). The difference between real and ideal body size (the size that the subject would like to be) reflects the degree of body dissatisfaction.

Rosen, Gross and Vara (1987) further point out that there are normal and predictable periods in life when body esteem distortion occurs. One of those is puberty, when rapid changes in body size, body shape, and secondary sex characteristics take place. Rubenstein and Cabellero (2000) also indicate that adolescent males tend to gain height and muscle mass during puberty, and they may view their bodies as smaller than they actually are when compared to bodybuilders or professional athletes.

According to Cattarin and Thompson, (1994) and Stice and Hoffman, (2004), body esteem dissatisfaction is a causal risk factor for the onset of eating disturbances. Stice and Shaw (2002, p.985) concluded that body dissatisfaction was a ‘‘risk factor for eating pathology’’. Most experts agree that the development of eating disorders is multi-factoral and includes socio-cultural, psychological, hereditary, and brain chemistry effects (Rosen, Gross &Vara, 1987).

2.3.7 Men and eating disorders

The link between body esteem dissatisfaction and eating disorders is not clearly apparent in men. However, there is tentative evidence to suggest that the incidence of eating disorders in men may be increasing and that current prevalence rates for men may be underestimated (Lorenzen et al., 2004). Research and popular writings focusing on women and eating disorders may discourage men from admitting to what they classify as a female disorder (Keel, Heatherton, Hamden & Horning, 1997; Rupp & Jurkovic, 1996).

This form of denial may thus influence the level at which men admit to having an eating disorder as well as the general knowledge on the prevelance of the disorder in males.

Thompson, et al (1999) denoted that gender differences in the labelling of behaviour by males and females may be different, such as the perception of ingesting a large quantity of food; for men this behavioural tendency may not be perceived as bingeing. Men's beauty has to do with body mass, muscle bulge and definition, not weight loss. The socially defined perception of males as powerful and masculine, results in men not seeking help because of their reluctance to admit to having problems (Ricciardelli et al., 2006).

As with any avocation that requires exacting standards for meeting an ideal physique such as in the case of ballet dancers, gymnasts, wrestlers, horse jockeys, etc., there is always the possibility that some individuals who engage in bodybuilding may engage in excessive behaviours or develop problematic traits (Thompson et al., 1999). Restrictive intake of calories, especially before competition, may be a symptom that needs monitoring (Ricciardelli et al., 2006). Purging of food, via self-induced vomiting or laxative abuse, is often part of the bulimic cycle, and is a serious issue necessitating immediate counselling or intervention (Lorenzen et al., 2004). An individual who is preoccupied with muscularity often believes that he or she is small, weak, or inadequate. This belief is commonly incorrect in comparison to an objective rating of how others view him/her. The individual may engage in compulsive bodybuilding, weightlifting, and consumption of bulking-up foods and other substances, yet maintain the elevated level of muscularity insecurity pointed out by Pruzinsky and Cash (2002).

Body esteem is a term that has come to represent the ‘internal’ image, or representation that people have of their physical appearance argued Thompson, Heinberg, Altabe and Tantleff-Dunn (1999). This inner view contrasts with the ‘outer’ image or an objective view of attractiveness. One’s inner view is only minimally correlated with actual ratings

of attractiveness. It appears that body image, rather than objective appearance, is more closely related to psychological factors and clinical conditions such as eating disorders, depression, and low self-esteem (Ricciardelli et al., 2006). Therefore self awareness and how one internalises that awareness play a massive role in body image and self-esteem, which is the topic of discussion of the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Awareness and internalisation

3.1. Self-concept

Lewis and Broos-Gunn (1979) suggest that development of a concept of self has two aspects; the existential and categorical self. The existential self refers to the sense of being separate and distinct from others and the awareness of constancy of the self. The categorical self is based on mental model of the self, it is a developmental milestone that seems to be achieved at the age when a child has realised that he or she exists as a separate experiencing being; the child next becomes aware that he or she is also an object in the world. Bee (1992) points out that in early childhood the categories children apply to themselves are very concrete, for example, 'favourite things'. Later, self-description also begins to include references to internal psychological traits, comparative evaluations and how others see them.

The term self-concept is a general term used to refer to how someone thinks about or perceives themselves (Pope et al., 1999). The 'self' is a fundamental part of every human, a symbolic construct which reflects the consciousness of our own identity (Harter, 1993). It is the sense of being separate and distinct from others and the awareness of the constancy of the self (Bee, 1992). Self-concept is influenced by our sense of identity. The opinions and judgments other people make and social comparisons are powerful effects of self-concept (Huitt, 2004). A person's self-concept is theorised to consist of cognitive, behavioural and evaluative components (Harter, 1993).

3.1.1 Cognitive self-concept

Cognition can be defined as 'the act or process of knowing in the broadest sense; specifically, an intellectual process by which knowledge is gained from perception or

ideas' (Brigham, 1986, p.443). People develop and maintain their self-concepts through the process of taking action and then reflecting on what they have done and what others tell them about what they have done (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Individuals reflect on what they have done and can do in comparison to their expectations and the expectations of others and to the characteristics and accomplishments of others (Brigham, 1986; James, 1890). That is, self-concept is not innate, but is developed or constructed by the individual through interaction with the environment and reflecting on that interaction. Self-esteem is cognitive or a state of mind, a feeling, an internal belief system which, according to Palladino (1989), includes the judgments people make, and usually maintain, about themselves that express an attitude of approval or disapproval of the self. This is basically the discrepancy between the real self and the ideal self. Self-esteem is people's beliefs about their inherent worthiness and competence and the extent to which they believe they are competent in areas that have value and meaning to themselves and others (Mruk, 1995). This will be elaborated on further in the self-esteem section.

3.1.2. Behavioural self-concept

Franken (1994, p.443) states that "there is a great deal of research which shows that the self-concept is, perhaps, the basis for all motivated behaviour. It is the self-concept that gives rise to possible selves, and it is possible selves that create the motivation for behaviour". In essence, behavioural decisions are the result of a reasoned process in which behaviour is influenced indirectly by attitudes, norms, and perceptions of control over the behaviour (Magnusson, 1988). The relationship between self-concept and personal psychological adjustment is complex and strongly influential in determining behaviour.

The interaction of these and other factors with the environment also leads to the reassessment of self-concept, as pointed out by Magnusson (1988). Where these continual reassessments result in low self-esteem, one is more likely to engage in delinquent

behaviour such as unhealthy ‘bulking-up’ in males (Hansen & Maynard, 1973). It may be concluded that this continual reassessment of self-concept is a central feature of the adolescent developmental process, which trains the self to adapt to the environment by emotional adjustment and consequential adherence to behavioural standards (Bandura, 1982; Magnusson, 1988).

3.1.3. Evaluative self-concept

The self-concept is composed of relatively permanent self-assessments, such as personality attributes, knowledge of one's skills and abilities, one's occupation and hobbies, and awareness of one's physical attributes (Fleming & Courtney, 1984). For example, the statement, "I am lazy" is a self-assessment that contributes to the self-concept. In contrast, the statement "I am tired" would not normally be considered part of someone's self-concept, since being tired is a temporary state. Nevertheless, a person's self-concept may change with time, possibly going through turbulent periods of identity crisis and reassessment, according to Markus and Nurius (1986).

Franken (1994, p. 443) states "there is a growing body of research which indicates that it is possible to change the self-concept. Self-change is not something that people can will but rather it depends on the process of self-reflection. Through self-reflection, people often come to view themselves in a new, more powerful way, and it is through this new, more powerful way of viewing the self that people can develop possible selves".

Franken (1994, p. 439) suggests that self-concept is related to self-esteem in that "people who have good self-esteem have a clearly differentiated self-concept. When people know themselves they can maximize outcomes because they know what they can and cannot do".

3.2. Self-esteem

According to Blascovich and Tomaka (1991), self-esteem is generally considered the evaluative component of the self-concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive, behavioural and affective components. The evaluative component is based on one's worth as a person and the assessment of the qualities that make up the self-concept. Self-esteem is defined as the "level of global regard one has for the self" (Harter, 1993, p. 87), or how well a person "prizes, values, approves, or likes him or herself" (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991, p. 115). Self-esteem is basically a central component of personality and identity (Palladino, 1989) that focuses self-evaluation, an evaluation of self-worth and/or self-acceptance (Sobal, 1995). In essence, self-esteem is a positive or negative orientation toward oneself.

According to Owens (2001) people are motivated to have high self-esteem as having a high self-esteem indicates positive self-regard, not egotism. Self-esteem is only one component of the self-concept, which Rosenberg (1965) defines as the totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings with reference to himself as an object. Rosenberg (1965, p.15) further describes self-esteem as "a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the self"

As stated by Blascovich and Tomaka (1991) and Palladino (1989), self-esteem is a developmental phenomenon that forms and shows itself over time. It is dynamic in that it is both stable and open to change. The basic or global sense of self-esteem that develops during childhood is fairly stable, and impacts our perceptions and behaviour. Different interacting variables contribute to the formation of global self-esteem, for example, one's individual skills, interests, and talents within the context of family, economic status, community and culture.

Interactions in the family environment were previously considered the primary source in the development of self-esteem (Robson, 1988) and hence were also the focus of this research. Warmth, companionship and acceptance of the child's perspective are parental qualities associated with positive self-esteem in adolescents, argues Sobal (1995). In setting limits, parents who train the child to be independent and have reasonable limits are thought to facilitate healthy development. Parents who are hostile, restrictive and non-supportive may inhibit healthy development (Palladino, 1989). Parents who are overly rigid or overly permissive in setting limits for the child inhibit healthy development, according to research (Owen, 2001). Each of these characteristics may impact on the child's self-esteem. The following chapter will explore the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem of the male child.

Chapter 4: The relationship of parenting styles to male body esteem and self-esteem perception

4.1. Parenting styles

Paulson and Sputa (1996) note that fathers and mothers bring different strengths to child rearing. Mothers and fathers discipline differently; contribute differently to a child's linguistic development; and have different impacts on a child's cognitive development and academic skills (Lamb, 2004). An involved father, for example, increases a child's likelihood of developing a healthy body image, self-esteem, moral strength, and social competence (Lamb, 2004).

Parenting trends have shifted and changed as different models have been popularised and advocated by experts and the media. Certain parenting tactics have been empirically shown to impact multiple areas of a child's life from childhood through later developmental periods (Buri, 1991; Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts and Fraleigh (1987); Ingoldby et al., 2003). Parenting styles of child rearing have captured the attention of many psychologists. There are many differing theories and opinions on the best ways to rear children, as well as differing levels of time and effort that parents are willing to invest (McKay, 2006). Many parents create their own style from a combination of factors, and these may evolve over time as the children develop their own personalities and move through life's stages (Clinton, 1996). Parenting style is affected by both the parents' and children's temperaments, and is largely based on the influence of one's own parents and culture. McKay (2006) pointed out that most parents learn parenting practices from their own parents some they accept, some they discard. This research therefore focused on the theory developed by Baumrind on parent-child relationship.

Baumrind (1971) developed a theory on parenting styles and categorised parenting styles into three main categories, i.e. authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles. The indulgent parenting style is discussed, although it was not part of Baumrind's theory and as a result this parenting style was not measured. The different parental styles will now be discussed briefly.

4.1.1. Different types of parenting styles

4.1.1.1. The Indulgent Parent

Indulgent parents are extremely responsive to their children, but do not demand much of them (Steinberg, 1996). Indulgent parents give their children a great deal of freedom without identifying limitations. According to Leonard (1991) an indulgent/permissible parent does not establish limits for the child because of a lack of linear authority. This parenting style is said to promote insecurities in a child, which may lead to immaturity (Steinberg, 1996). In essence, the child who receives excessive parental gratification fails to grow up emotionally and tends to remain infantile in behaviour reaction. Dornbusch et al., (1987), point out that children from indulgent/permissive homes usually lack self-reliance, have little tolerance for frustration, and are less likely to persist on learning tasks. Unless the child develops healthy coping skills to deal with the stress and discomfort life presents, the risk for the development of a negative body image or an eating disorder increases substantially (Grogan, 1999). This is discussed in detail later on.

4.1.1.2. The Authoritarian Parent

Authoritarian parents 'tend to favour more punitive and absolute discipline measures without give-and-take communication' (Steinberg, 1996. p.162). This parenting style is rule and obedience focused without explanation and moreover it favours punishing approaches to maintain behaviour (Lamb, 2004). Baumrind (1991) pointed out that in the

study she conducted, the results showed that fathers were more likely to be identified with the authoritarian parenting style as they emphasize obedience and more punitive measures of discipline management in the home. The authoritarian parent is often lacking in emotional warmth and supportiveness and tends to dismiss or minimise the child's emotions.

These parents can be quite controlling, judgmental and perfectionist, all of which are traits often associated with eating disorders and negative body image perceptions (Grogan, 1999). The parent's need for control often leads to the child feeling powerless and out of control. Baumrind (1971) pointed out that research has shown that children from authoritarian homes tend to exhibit more anxious and withdrawn behaviour, have a high chance of relying on authority figures to make decisions, and are less likely than those raised in authoritative homes to engage in exploratory and challenge seeking behaviour. This research indicates that children raised with this parenting style tend to be at risk for depression, eating disorders, low self-esteem and poor social skills (Steinberg, 1996).

4.1.1.3. The Authoritative Parent

Steinberg (1996) holds that authoritative parenting is most consistent in producing positive adolescent identity formation. These parents recognise that the rights of parents and children are reciprocal (Lamb, 2004). This type of parenting is especially successful because it helps an adolescent develop autonomy through enhanced communication between parent and child and encourages the need to reinforce authority (Steinberg, 1996). Baumrind (1991) points out that this parenting style is more associated with mothers. This type of parent, according to Lamb (2004), promotes the child's ability to self-regulate emotions, the individuality of the child, accountability and tolerance. Interestingly, these traits are highly associated with high self-esteem in children and

therefore are unlikely to result in a child developing an eating disorder (Rosenberg, 1965).

Ginsburg and Bronstein (1993) have related this style of parenting to an extrinsic motivation in children. Children from authoritative homes are more willing to engage in exploratory behaviour, are more self-reliant, independent, and curious. Children from these homes are more likely to have better skills at balancing societal demands such as thinness, perfectionism and peer pressure with their need for independence (Lamb, 2004). Baumrind (1991) points out that research has shown that specifically mother's authoritativeness in the home may be more influential in the development of self-esteem of girls than boys.

4.1.1.4. Permissive parenting

According to Baumrind and Brown (1967), permissive parents are non punitive, accepting, and make few attempts at shaping behaviour. The parents tend to be disorganised and ineffective in running the household. They are less controlling, self effacing and insecure about their ability to influence their children. The permissive parents do not take an active role or interest in a child's life (Steinberg, 1996). In permissive parenting, the mothers are moderately loving, while fathers are generally lax and ambivalent. Tough love and warmth is offered to the child, however they are often used manipulatively (Baumrind & Brown, 1967). Children in these families are generally dependent, immature, and lack self-reliance and self-control (Buri, 1991).

Symonds (1949) holds that an infant coming into the world needs care and protection, which a mother and a father can give. Therefore, if a parent fails in that obligation of parenthood, then the situation becomes a threat to the child’s development. Permissive parents are unresponsive and have few or no expectations of their children (Steinberg,

1996). They allow their children to regulate their own activities as much as possible. The parents are generally less controlling and tend to use a minimum of punishment.

The results of permissive kind of parenting, according to Symonds (1949), show in the child's behaviour and in his/her emotional insecurity. Children of this parenting style tend to be very positive in their moods and possess more vitality than those of authoritarian parents. However, their behaviour is less mature due to low impulse control, responsibility and self-reliance (Baumrind, 1971).

4.2. The relationship between body image and parental involvement

"The ways in which parents raise their children powerfully influence how the child will develop and who they will become" (Bettelheim, 1987, p. 15). Parents seem to play a crucial role in how children develop attitudes towards themselves. The way in which parents handle themselves in a given situation is a crucial factor as this guides children to meaningful behaviour (Owen, 2001).

Recently, a great deal of attention has been focused on familial and peer influences in the development of body image (Owen, 2001). Regarding familial influences, Cash (2004) points out two primary mechanisms that have been proposed in research, such as, parental modelling of dysfunctional eating attitudes and behaviour, and parents' influence over their children by direct transmission of weight-related attitudes and opinions, such as comments or teasing that influence children. Both mechanisms directly and indirectly involve parental contribution or involvement (Buri, 1991). Therefore, the attitudes of parents play a crucial role in the child's development process, especially towards their body image perceptions (Cash, 2004).

It appears that both maternal and paternal influences may be relevant to the development of body image concerns and related issues. The literature suggests that parents can influence attitudes to and opinions of weight through direct transmission, although the relative salience of mothers versus fathers has yet to be established (Mruk, 1995). Negative verbal commentary within the family, also known as teasing, has also received attention (Mruk, 1995). Koff and Rierdan (1991) point out that in order to fully address the issues of self-esteem and body image, parents have a major role to play in addressing these issues.

4.3. The relationship between parental styles and self-esteem

Parental authority has been linked to levels of self-esteem in the child (Buri, 1991). Sears (1970) and later Backman (1982) found that strong disciplinary practices by parents have a detrimental effect upon self-esteem in males. Coopersmith (1967), on the other hand, reported higher levels of self-esteem in males where parental discipline is firm and demanding, with clear set limits of behaviour. Baumrind (1971; 1982) reported that authoritative parenting is more likely to result in self-reliant, independent, achievement-oriented and self-controlled children than either permissive parenting or authoritarian parenting, which was deleterious to the development of personality and behavioural correlates of self-esteem.

Buri et al., (1988) conclude that parental authority may have either a negative or a positive effect upon self-esteem, depending upon the type of authority exercised. A strong positive relationship between parental authoritativeness and adolescent self-esteem, and a strong inverse relationship between parental authoritarianism and adolescent self-esteem was found (Furnham & Cheng, 2000).

Blascovich and Tomaka (1991) point out that Rosenberg's work examined how social structural positions, like racial or ethnic status and institutional contexts, like schools or

families, relate to self-esteem. Here, patterned social forces provide a characteristic set of experiences which are actively interpreted by individuals as the self-concept is shaped.

4.4. Parenting styles and race

Hall and Bracken (1996), Hill (1995) and Bradley and Caldwell (1995) point out that families from different cultures, ethnic backgrounds, and socio-economic levels have different tendencies toward exhibiting certain parenting styles. A study expanding Baumrind's conceptualisation to a population of adolescents found that Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans and African Americans scored higher on authoritarian parenting style than Caucasians (Dornbusch et al., 1987). Hall and Bracken (1996) have also found different parenting style trends between Caucasians and African Americans. Chandller (2006) conducted a study in which the results indicated that 41.1% of African American students experienced an authoritarian parenting style, versus 18.2% by Caucasian students.

Some researchers argue that this difference arises because the influence of authoritative parenting styles is not the same across cultures (Giesbrecht, 1995; Hill, 1995). From Baumrind's conceptualisation, many other studies have investigated how different parenting styles influence various aspects of children's lives, including how these styles relate to academic self-efficacy and performance. Authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were associated with reports of lower grades and an authoritative parenting style was associated with reports of higher grades, according to Giesbrecht (1995). Dornbusch et al., (1987) and Ingoldsby et al., (2003) pointed out that the effects of parenting styles have shown to be consistent across cultures; research has consistently found significant positive relationships between authoritative parenting and adolescent academic achievement.

A family environment created by a particular parenting style can significantly influence a child's general sense of self-efficacy (Weigert & Thomas, 1972). Giesbrecht (1995) investigated the relationship of parenting styles and adolescent extrinsic and intrinsic religious commitment. The adolescent intrinsic religious commitment was significantly related to the authoritative parenting style, while adolescent extrinsic social commitment was significantly related to the permissive parenting styles, especially among males.

Limited research to date has examined ethnic differences in the body image of men (Chandler, Abood, Dae & Cleveland, 1994). Altabe (1998) conducted a study on body image and realistic weight loss; the results report that there were no ethnic differences among men. Similarly, Striegel-Moore and Smolak (1996) found no race differences for men on body image or body satisfaction, and Miller, Gleaves, Hirsch, Green, Snow and Corbett (2000) found no differences between Asian and Caucasian adolescent males on desired weight. In contrast, Smith, Thompson, Raczynski and Hilner (1999) report that, compared with Caucasian adolescent males, Asian adolescent males were more dissatisfied and Black males were less dissatisfied with their weight.

In summary, in order to understand children and their development process, it is crucial to draw from their environment and their familial settings. Wertsch (1994, p. 287) concisely states that 'Vygotsky (1934; 1986) described learning as being embedded within social events and occurring as a child interacts with people, objects, and events in the environment.' Families from different racial, cultural, ethnic backgrounds and socio-economic levels have different tendencies toward exhibiting certain parenting styles (Smith et al., 1999). The following chapter explores the influential factors on a child's development by discussing the socio-cultural perspective.

Chapter 5: The socio-cultural perspective

5.1. Introduction

Current conceptualizations of socio-cultural theory draw heavily on the work of Vygotsky (1986), as well as later theoreticians such as Wertsch, (1991, 1998). Vygotsky argues that a child's development cannot be understood by a study of the individual. The external social world must be examined in which that individual life has developed. ‘Through participation in activities that require cognitive and communicative functions, children are drawn into the use of these functions in ways that nurture and 'scaffold' them’ (Vygotsky 1986, pp. 6-7). Brislin (2000, p. 112) also pointed out that the external social world are “the experiences in which children participate so that they eventually will become productive and responsible adults and respected members of a culture”. It is crucial to note that children can behave in many different ways and can engage in many different types of experiences. However, in socialisation, children are encouraged in the more limited set of behaviours considered acceptable and important within a culture (Brislin, 2000).

Socialisation takes place in a cultural context and cultures provide the settings with which children are expected to become familiar (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). The prevailing belief is that the socialisation practices of fathers and mothers are different (Parish & McCluskey, 1992). The extent to which any differences between fathers and mothers in the treatment of, and relationships with, their teenage children are perceived by the adolescents themselves is less clear. Ingoldby et al. (2003) pointed out that paternal and maternal parenting styles are different. Varela, Vernberg, Sanchez-Sosa, Riveros, Mitchell and Mashunkashey (2004) emphasised the similarities. This study sought to explore differences and similarities in maternal and paternal parenting styles and how they shape the male’s body image and self-esteem perception.

Socio-cultural approaches to learning and development were first systematised and applied by L. S. Vygotsky and his collaborators in Russia in the 1920's and 1930's (Jackson, 2002). They are based on the concept that human activities take place in cultural contexts, and are mediated by language and other symbolic systems, and can be best understood when investigated in their historical development. According to Wertsch (1994) the socio-cultural perspective has profound implications for teaching, schooling, and education. A key feature of this emergent view of human development is that higher order functions develop out of social interaction.

5.2. Vygotsky's socio-cultural perspective

Vygotsky is distinctive in the field of psychology because he articulated a profoundly social explanation of human psychology (Vygotsky, 1978). Whereas most other psychologists postulate intra-organismic determinants of psychological phenomena such as physiological mechanisms or free will or some interaction between intra-organismic and social factors, Vygotsky regarded human psychology as entirely social (Vygotsky, 1986). He said that psychological phenomena originate in social interaction, they are organised by social relations, and their constituents are social artefacts such as linguistic symbols (Vygotsky, 1981).

Vygotsky's interest in psychology was developed through his work in defectology. Through his work in this field, he formulated his general developmental theory which has three central concepts: internalisation, semiotic mediation, and the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978**;** 1981**;** 1986). Vygotsky believed his model held true for all children, including those considered handicapped, explaining that the assumptions on which his theory was based were compatible with the phenomenon of disontogenesis (distorted development). He posited that both normal and abnormal behaviour were part of human development, which follows specific patterns of formation (Gindis, 1995).

Vygotsky saw human development as a socio-genetic process with learning coming about through social interactions between children and adults (Vygotsky, 1981). He believed that education "generates" and leads development, which is the result of social learning, through the internalisation of culture and social relationships. Vygotsky's work brings a fundamental understanding of parental influence and how the child thereafter internalises the social learning and forms his/her identity through the social influence. This chapter brings together the variables discussed in this study into theoretical grounds and brings out the relevance of socialisation and identity formation.

According to Vygotsky (1978), human cognitive development does not follow a straight path; he believed that development is about the process and not the product and that this process is diminished if treated as something that happens in stages. He disagreed with Piaget's hypothesis that cognitive development consists of four major periods of cognitive growth - sensorimotor, pre-operational, concrete operations, and formal operations - instead arguing it consists of a series of qualitative, dialectic transformations, which include a complex process of integration and disintegration (Vygotsky, 1978). Central to his theory is the belief that culture is transmitted through the interiorisation of social signs, the major one being language, and that human cognitive development takes place through mediation by psychological and other tools (Gindis, 1995).

The social cognition model claims that culture is the most important determinant of individual development. Humans are the only species with culture and every human child grows in the context of a culture (Vygotsky, 1981). Therefore, a child's learning development is affected by the culture in which he or she is raised. The adults and peers are the most important role players that serve as guides to support cognitive growth. They serve to assist learning and provide categories and concepts for thinking. According to Vygotsky's perspective, most guidance is communicated through language.

Vygotsky believed that the lifelong process of development was dependent on social interaction and that social learning leads to cognitive development (Gindis, 1995). That is, Children's psychological development happens within social interactions. Cognitive development occurs in a socio-cultural context that influences the form it takes. Most of a child’s cognitive skills evolve from social interactions with parents, teachers, and other more competent associates. In essence, through culture, children acquire much of the content of their thinking and their knowledge. The surrounding culture provides children with the processes or means of their thinking, the tools of intellectual adaptation. According to this model, culture teaches children what and how to think and guides behaviour.

The nature of the interdependence between individual and social processes in the construction of knowledge can be clarified by examining three major themes in Vygotsky's writings as highlighted by Wertsch (1991): 1) individual development, including higher mental functioning, has its origins in social sources; 2) human action, on both the social and individual planes, is mediated by tools and signs; and 3) the first two themes are best examined through genetic, or developmental, analysis. In developing these themes, we relied on Vygotsky's writings as well as the elaborations of his ideas by his co-workers and scholars influenced by his work.

5.2.1. Social Sources of Development

Human development starts with dependence on caregivers. The developing individual relies on the vast pool of transmitted experiences of others (Vygotsky, 1981). Vygotsky, in his well-known "genetic law of development", emphasises this primacy of social interaction in human development**.**

“Every function in the cultural development of the child comes on the stage twice, in two respects; first in the social, later in the psychological, first in relations between people as

an inter-psychological category, afterwards within the child as an intra-psychological category. All higher psychological functions are internalized relationships of the social kind, and constitute the social structure of personality" (Valsiner, 1987, p .67).

This principle describes a process situated in, but not limited to, social interaction. When beginning an activity, learners depend on others with more experience. Over time, they take on increasing responsibility for their own learning and participation in joint activity (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

5.2.2. Semiotic Mediation

Semiotic mediation is key to all aspects of knowledge co-construction according to Vygotsky. For Vygotsky, semiotic mechanisms including psychological tools, mediate social and individual functioning, and connect the external and the internal, the social and the individual (Wertsch, 1991). Vygotsky (1981, p. 137) listed a number of examples of semiotic mechanisms: "language; various systems of counting; algebraic symbol systems; works of art; writing; schemes, diagrams, maps and mechanical drawings; all sorts of conventional signs and so on".

Wertsch (1991) adopts Wittgenstein's metaphor of a socially provided tool kit of semiotic mechanisms. Those mechanisms and practices, which become internalised and available for independent activity, are critical in supporting and transforming mental functioning. Physical tools are directed toward the external world; psychological tools are directed internally and are appropriated during activity.

The psychological tools are not invented by the individual in isolation. They are products of socio-cultural evolution to which individuals have access by being actively engaged in the practices of their communities. Wertsch (1994) elaborates on the centrality of mediation in understanding Vygotsky's contributions to psychology and education.

Mediation is the key in his approach to understanding how human mental functioning is tied to cultural, institutional, and historical settings, since these settings shape and provide the cultural tools that are mastered by individuals to form this functioning. In this approach, the mediational mechanism are what might be termed the ‘carriers’ of socio-cultural patterns and knowledge (Wertsch, 1994).

5.2.3. Cognitive pluralism

Although the importance of semiotic mediation in thinking is recognised by most members of the socio-cultural thought community, interpretations of it differ. Almost all socio-cultural researchers place language in a central position; some consider that other semiotic mechanisms are of little theoretical interest (Kozulin, 1990). John-Steiner (1991; 1995) claims a pluralistic rather than a monistic theory of semiotic mediation and has coined the term cognitive pluralism for this stance. Evidence for cognitive pluralism includes the planning notes of experienced thinkers which incorporate words, drawings, musical notes, and scientific diagrams (John-Steiner, 1985).

The diversity of these mechanisms and the psychological tools that they represent are of special interest to educators who work in multicultural settings and with children who have special needs. In an issue of the *Educational Psychologist* devoted to Vygotsky's ideas, Gindis (1995) describes the emphasis Vygotsky placed on the variety of psychological tools in approaching the study of children who had special physical or mental circumstances. "Vygotsky pointed out that our civilization has already developed different means (e.g. Braille system, sign language, lip-reading, finger spelling, etc.) to accommodate a handicapped child's unique way of acculturation through acquiring various symbol systems" (Gindis, 1995, p. 79).

These acts of representation are embedded in social practice and rely on socially developed semiotic mechanisms. Ecology, history, culture, and family organisation play

roles in patterning experience and events in the creation of knowledge (John-Steiner, 1995). For example, the tasks confronting children, such as learning to talk, to walk, and to attach meaning to their experiences are reflected in cognitive strategies, derived in part from the culturally patterned environment into which they are born. Their thought is shaped by the prevalent methods of physical and economic survival, by the language and visual symbols used by their people, and by socially ordered ways of parenting, as pointed out by Gindis (1995). Some children who are born into tribal or agricultural communities spend many hours strapped to the backs of their mothers and other caregivers. In this position, they observe and represent the life of their community in a way that is not possible for children who are placed in cribs and playpens (John-Steiner, 1985).

Representational activities and the socio-cultural theory of semiotic mediation are fundamental to Vygotsky's concept of internalisation and the transformation of interpersonal processes into intrapersonal ones (John-Steiner & Souberman, 1978). Vygotsky used the concept of semiotic mediation to explain qualitative transformations in the human mind historically, ontogenetically, and micro-genetically. The role played by semiotic mediation in the development of higher psychological processes provided a central focus for Vygotsky's research (Gindis, 1995). The concept of semiotic mediation is essential to the socio-cultural view that the process of internalisation is transformative rather than transmissive.

5.2.4. Genetic analysis

Vygotsky developed his theoretical framework using genetic analysis, which examined the origins and history of phenomena, focusing on their interconnectedness (Cole, 1990). The genetic method holds that mental processes can only be properly understood from the perspective of how and where they occur in growth (John-Steiner & Souberman, 1978). In describing his approach he consistently emphasises that it is imperative to focus not on

the product of development, but on the process whereby higher forms are established. He posited that learning and development take place in society and in culturally shaped contexts. As historical conditions are constantly undergoing change, so do contexts and learning opportunities. Therefore there can be no universal schema that can fully represent the changing dynamics between internal and external aspects of development (Cole, 1990).

According to this perspective, learning and development take place in socially and culturally shaped contexts. Historical conditions are constantly changing, resulting in changed contexts and opportunities for learning.

Vygotsky argued that psychological systems that unite separate functions into new combinations and complexes arise in the process of development (Gindis, 1995). An example of this unification is the linking of spoken and written language into a new and broader semiotic system. When it was discovered that it was "possible to represent the sounds of language using marks in clay just as it is possible to represent objects" (Cole, 1990, p. 95), a qualitative transformation in the development of humanity occurred. The unification of separate functions represented in literacy also provides insights into the relationships between individual and social processes.

Within genetic analysis the use of functional systems provides a framework for representing the complex interrelationships between external devices, psychological tools, the individual, and the social world (John-Steiner & Souberman, 1978). Vygotsky used the socio-cultural framework based on the three central tenets described above social sources of development, semiotic mediation, and genetic analysis - to develop his concept of internalisation (Vygotsky, 1986).

In conclusion, human beings are socially embedded and their actions can be understood better when observed within a group. Social interaction, according to the Vygotsky's

socio-cultural theory, determines the structure and pattern of internal cognition, through which self-concept and body image perception can be developed. Parents and their values and the atmosphere they create in the family can set the scene for children to begin to make some assumptions about themselves. In essence, learning and development take place in socially and culturally shaped contexts.

There is an abundance of empirical literature supporting the utility of Baumrind's parenting styles in explaining behaviour. Furthermore there is a lot of literature on body image, self-esteem, and theories such as socio-cultural perspective attempting to explain body image development. However, this abundance of information attempts to explain the girl and woman's development and influences on body image. Levin and Harrison (2004) pointed out that various literature reviews have highlighted the influential role of the media, while peer and particularly familial influences have been somewhat less studied. Cash (2002) further pointed out that socio-cultural factors are seen as powerful determinants of body image development and influence. Yet there is very little research on man and body image, and even less research exists on male body image and maternal and paternal influences. In essence, there appears to be a gap in the literature as far as the relationship between maternal and paternal parenting styles and the male child's body image and self-esteem. Furthermore, it was not clear in the literature whether race or culture has any influence on body image or self-esteem of males. This study focused on these gaps in the literature and developed the following research questions.

5.3. Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between perceived maternal parental style as measured by the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) and the male students' body esteem perception as measured by the Body Esteem Scale?

2. What is the relationship between perceived paternal parental style and the male students' body esteem perception?

3. What is the relationship between perceived maternal parental style and self-esteem as measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale?

4. What is the relationship between perceived paternal parental style and self-esteem?

5. What differences are there between the different races in terms of body esteem perception?

6. What differences are there between the different races in terms of self-esteem?

Chapter 6: Research Methodology

6.1 Introduction

The consideration given to the selection of the methods to analyse the data was guided by the literature review. The literature pointed out that there are different parenting styles that are utilised by parents. According to the literature, body esteem and perception also play a role in how one develops as a person. It further revealed that most research is being done observing the relationship of the mother and the girl child. The gap in research on the relationship of both the mother and the father to the male child was identified. This study therefore investigated the influence of parenting styles on the body image and self-esteem of male students. The sample consisted of students from the medical faculty at the University of the Witwatersrand enrolled in psychology. The extent to which the perception of parental styles influenced body esteem and self-esteem of the male students was investigated utilising the Demographic Questionnaire, Parental Authority Questionnaire, Body Esteem Scale and Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale. These are existing scales that are reliable and valid.

6.2. Research rationale

"The attitude a person takes toward himself grows out of the attitude which parents showed toward him when he was little" (Symonds, 1949, p.2). In essence, according to Symonds (1949), parents' attitudes are crucial in the child's developmental process as parents' attitudes may gradually determine the child's personality. Through the parents' attitude, the child gradually develops physical, mental, emotional, spiritual, and social maturity (Symonds, 1949). Therefore, according to the research contribution above, in trying to attain an understanding of men's perceived body image and to determine the kind of influence parental styles might have had on the child's development, it was

crucial to observe the parental styles. This study was not able to observe or study the parenting styles, therefore it proposed to study the male student's perception of their parents' parental styles and the influence it might have had on their body esteem perception.

Body esteem remains one of the most well studied research areas in the social science profession (Cash, 2004). Most studies have extensively focused on girls and women and their concerns over their body image (Grogan, 1999; Tiggermann & Ruutel, 2001). Phares (1996) also adds that previous research on body image has been limited to maternal influences on the body image of a girl child with little or no attention to paternal influence. This study therefore anticipated extending the line of research to explore both maternal as well as paternal influences on the body image of male students. Paulson and Sputa (1996) note that fathers and mothers bring different strengths to child rearing. Consequently, both parental styles were evaluated to determine which parental style had the greater influence on the male students' perceptions of their body esteem.

The influences on body esteem have been widely researched in terms of socio-cultural factors such as the media, peers and parental influence (Cash, 2002; Polce-Lynch, Myers, Kliewer & Klimartin, 2001). Some influences are substantially more researched than others, according to Levine and Harrison (2004). The media, followed by peer influences have been highly researched and very few studies have been done on parental influence (Cash, 2002). It was therefore crucial to know how important the influences of the people around the individual are in self-evaluation of the body. This study therefore investigated the less focused-on influences on body esteem, such as parental role in the development of the male student's body esteem perception.

Although research abounds in the area of media influence on women's body esteem, researchers have only recently begun to turn their attention to male experiences. Palladino and Pritchard (2003) emphasised that the impact of social pressure on men is an area in

need of greater attention in future studies. At present, no explicit theoretical statement exists to explain why body dissatisfaction is occurring more and more among men (Garner, 1997). This research hopes to contribute to the body of knowledge on males in the area of body esteem perception. Garner (1997) holds that some studies have shown that the best predictor of general self-esteem levels vary with racial differences. This study utilised race to compare group differences.

Twenge and Crocker (2002) conducted a study that examined racial differences in self-esteem. The Black group scored higher than the Caucasian group on self-esteem measures, but the Caucasian group scored higher than other racial groups, including Hispanics, Asians and American Indians. It was indicated that most of these differences were smallest in childhood and grew larger with age. Previous research has found that Blacks tend to report higher levels of self-esteem than Caucasians (Hall & Bracken, 1996; Chandller, 2006). Despite the robust nature of the Black self-esteem advantage, an adequate explanation for the higher self-esteem of Blacks relative to Caucasians has yet to be offered. The present study investigated the differences between races in terms of self-esteem; the findings are discussed in the results chapter.

6.3 Sampling

First year male students enrolled in the medical faculty at the University of the Witwatersrand studying psychology were recruited to participate in this study. The targeted sample size was 100 students. Even though 100 questionnaires were returned, only 98 of those questionnaires could be used. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 30 years, but most (n = 90%) participants were 18 to 22 years of age, as indicated in Table 1 below. The mean age was 22 (SD = 8.23). The sample consisted of Black (n=55%), Caucasian (n=20%), Indian (n=21%) and Coloured (n=2%) individuals (see Table 2). The participants were also requested to indicate in the demographic questionnaire if their parents were present for the first twelve (12) years of their upbringing, 91 participants

indicated the presence of the mother, 7 indicated the absence of the mother, 71 indicated the presence of the father and 27 indicated the absence of the father. The participants generally indicated the presence of both of their parents throughout their lives.

Table 1:

Sample descriptions: according to age

Age Range	Mean	SD
18-22	22.01	8.23

Table2:

Frequency table of the variables

Variable	Description	Number	Cumulative frequency
Race:	Black, White Indian Coloured	55 21 20 2	55 76 96 98 98
Mother-present		91	
Mother-absent		7	

Father-present		71	
Father absent		27	

The study used a non-probability sampling technique; this technique did not involve random selection. In a non-probability sample, some people have a greater, but unknown, chance than others of selection (Howell, 2002). The selection of the participants was arbitrary. The study utilised the convenience sampling technique, whereby members of the population were chosen based on their relative ease of access and availability. (Neyman, 1997). The study also utilised the purposive sampling technique. There were specific, predefined groups the researcher was targeting, i.e. male students above the age of 18.

6.4 Research procedure

Permission to conduct this study was received from the internal ethics committee protocol number MPSCH/07/005 IH; furthermore permission was granted from a psychology lecturer to utilise students from one of her psychology classes. Ninety eight percent of the respondents who were asked to take part in the study from one of the psychology classes agreed to do so. The data was collected utilising four questionnaires. The questionnaires were administered to the first year medical psychology male students at the University of the Witwatersrand.

A brief summary of the purpose of the study was presented to the prospective participants at the beginning. The questionnaires were handed out to the participants and they were briefed on the procedures and their rights in verbal and written form. The participants were given the questionnaire package with the participant information sheet on the front (see Appendix B), which they were asked to detach and keep. After the participants filled

in the questionnaires, they were asked to place the questionnaires in a sealed box. Those were later viewed by the researcher and research supervisor only.

The researcher's and the supervisor's contact details were provided in case there were any questions. The participants were also provided with the details of the Career Counselling and Development Unit (CCDU). This counselling unit is on campus and provides free counselling or debriefing sessions for the university students. Participants were reminded after the completion of the questionnaires that, should they be in need of counselling after the session, they could freely utilise one of the services officered by CCDU. All of these details were also on the participant information sheet.

6.5 Instruments

This study made use of four instruments. A demographic questionnaire was utilised to gather data on age, race and parents' presence in childhood. The second instrument used was the Body Esteem Scale to measure the perceptions of the body esteem of the students, followed by the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ), which measured the parental styles' (maternal and paternal) influence as perceived by the male students. Finally, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was utilised to measure the self-esteem of the male students.

6.5.1. Demographic questionnaire

Participants were requested to provide demographic information on a self-developed questionnaire. Information on the questionnaire asked for the students' age, race and whether their parents were both present for the first twelve years of their childhoods. The participants demographic details were requested in order to make certain that the correct participants took part in the study, that is, only the targeted age group, which was 18 and above. Most importantly, the demographic questionnaire was utilised to determine if

there were any variables that could show if there were any differences or similarities in body esteem perception and self-esteem of male students according to the demographic factor of race (see Appendix B).

6.5.2. Body Esteem Scale

The Body Esteem Scale (BES) was utilised to measure the esteem the participants had in regards to their bodies, such as their appearance, weight and attributes. As shown in Appendix C, the Body Esteem Scale is a 35-item scale developed by Franzoi and Shields (1984) that measures body esteem. This scale is administered in the form of a questionnaire for adolescents and adults. It uses a Likert-type scale, measuring three subscales: BE-Appearance (general feelings about appearance), BE-Weight (weight satisfaction), and BE-Attribution (evaluations attributed to others about one's body and appearance). These sub-scales were not used in this study as this was not the focus of the research.

The subscales have high internal consistency and 3-month test-retest reliability. The internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha coefficents) for the BES scale was reported to be .95, with a test re-test reliability of .86 (Winstead & Cash, 1984). This study indicated a reliability value of .92, which is in line with other studies world wide.

The BES has been found to yield reliable and valid scores for adult's world wide, but it has not been used among adolescents (Cecil & Stanley, 1997). Cecil and Stanley (1997) conducted research in which findings indicated internal consistency for the gender-specific subscales, with values ranging from .82 to .94. The researcher found few studies conducted in the South African context that utilised the BES.

6.5.3. The Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)

The Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) was developed to measure Baumrind's permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parental prototypes in 1971 (Buri, 1991). There were three subscales: permissive (Q: 1, 6, 10, 13, 14, 17, 19, 21, 24, and 28), authoritarian (Q: 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18, 25, 26, and 29) and authoritative (Q: 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 20, 22, 23, 27 and 30).

As shown in Appendix E and F, the PAQ consists of 30 items and yields permissive, authoritarian and authoritative scores for both the mother and father based on the subjective rating of the individual. In addition items are rated on a 4 point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). It has an internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha coefficients that range from .74 to .87 for the subscales (Dwairy, 2004). For the three PAQ subscales the author of the scale reported very good two week test-retest reliabilities that ranged from .77 to .92 indicating good reliability. Buri (1991) reports favourable reliability and validity estimates on the Parental Authority Questionnaire instrument. Dwairy (2004) conducted a study on parenting styles and mental health of Arab gifted adolescents. In this study the construct validity was tested by self-esteem. Self-esteem correlated inversely with authoritarianism and positively with authoritativeness and was unaffected by permissiveness (Buri, 1991).

Dwairy (2004) indicated in his study alpha coefficients of .73 for the authoritarian, .79 for the authoritative and .57 for the permissive subscales. Dwairy (2004) reported that when principal component factor analysis was applied with a priori three-factor solution and a varimax rotation, all items that comprise the authoritative style and all those that comprise the authoritarian style matched accordingly. Reliability for the South African studies has been found to range between .86 (authoritarian), .80 (authoritative) and .76 (permissive) (Chandler, 2006). This study identified the reliability of paternal PAQ at .75 and the maternal PAQ at .84. The scales indicated a high reliability value world wide.

Baumrind (1971) reported that seven studies were conducted to test the PAQ's reliability, internal consistency, content-related validity, criterion-related validity, discriminant-related validity, and its correlations with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. The results of these studies showed the PAQ to have highly respectable measures of reliability and validity. The suggestion was that the PAQ should be useful for assessing the parental authority exercised by both mothers and fathers and it is appropriate for both females and males who are older adolescents or young adults. Muris, Loxton, Neumann, du Plessis, King & Ollendick (2006) pointed out that South African studies indicated that the scale has good construct validity,

6.5.4. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (SES) is perhaps the most widely-used self-esteem measure in social science research. Rosenberg's scale was originally developed to measure adolescents' global feelings of self-worth or self-acceptance, and is generally considered the standard against which other measures of self-esteem are compared (Lowery, Robinson Kurpius, Befort & Blanks, 2005). As shown in Appendix D, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale instrument includes 10 items that are scored using a four-point response ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4) (Rosenberg,1965). The items are face valid, and the scale is short, easy and fast to administer; it takes about 5 minutes to complete.

According to Rosenberg (1965) the Rosenberg SES has a reported internal consistency of .88 and a test-retest correlation of .82. This indicates that the test is a highly reliable measure of self-esteem. A similarly high internal reliability, alpha .92, was found in recent studies (Baldwin & Hoffman, 2002). Reliability (internal consistency) for South Africans has been found to range between .78 and .92 (Maluka, 2004). This study showed a Cronbach alpha coefficient value of .85.

Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale is a brief and unidimensional measure of global self-esteem (Maluka, 2004). The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale has demonstrated good reliability and validity across a large number of different sample groups (Cash 2004, 2002). The SES has been validated for use with both male and female adolescent and adult and elderly populations (Baldwin & Hoffman, 2002).

6.6 Method of analysis

SAS Enterprise Guide 4th version was utilised to analyse the data collected. The input of the data was carried out and scored in the Excel program and thereafter transferred to SAS Enterprise Guide (4) where statistical tests were carried out. There were two statistical tests that were utilised to answer the proposed questions after checking for normality of the data - One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Correlation Coefficients.

6.6.1 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

The One-way Analysis of Variance F-test is a statistical technique used to test the significance of the differences between the means of a number of different groups (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002). The one way ANOVA is an analysis of variance where groups are defined on only one independent variable with more than two levels, that is, involving more than two groups. With regard to this research, the variables in this analysis were the Body Esteem Scale and Self-esteem Scale as dependent variables and race as the independent variable. One way ANOVA was therefore appropriate in analysing the data as it was used to measure more than two groups or categories (Howell, 1999).

Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002 (2002) notes assumptions regarding the use of the F-test as follows:

Normality: the scores within each population are normally distributed.

Homogeneity of variances: variances of scores in the population are equal.

Independence: the measurement of scores in the different groups are independent of one another (usually achieved through random sampling).

According to Tredoux and Durrheim (2002), the F-Test is a fairly robust measure, so if the assumptions are violated to a limited degree, the final results will not be influenced.

6.6.2 Correlation coefficients

The correlation coefficient (r) is a measure of the linear relationship between two attributes. The value of the correlation coefficient can range from -1 to +1 and is independent of the units of measurement. A value of correlation near 0 indicates little correlation between attributes, a value near +1 or -1 indicates a high level of correlation (Jacobson & DeBock, 2001). When two attributes have a positive correlation coefficient, an increase in the value of one attribute indicates a likely increase in the value of the second attribute. A correlation coefficient of less than 0 indicates a negative correlation (Howell, 1999). That is, when one attribute shows an increase in value, the other attribute tends to show a decrease.

Correlations coefficients procedure was utilised to examine the relationship between variables, that is, parenting styles (independent variable) and body esteem and self-esteem (dependent variables). The study looked at the correlation between paternal parenting style and the Body Esteem and Self-esteem Scales, as well as the correlation between maternal parenting style and the Body Esteem and Self-esteem Scales. The data was normally distributed for paternal parenting style as a result. Pearson's r correlation coefficients were used and maternal parenting styles were not normally distributed, therefore Spearman's rho was used.

6.7 Ethical considerations

The nature of the study involved human beings as participants and their personal and even sensitive issues. Therefore, various ethical considerations were applied by the researcher. The research proposal was firstly sent for ethical approval to the internal ethics committee. The study obtained an ethical protocol number of: MPSYCH /07/005 IH.

The research questions required people to reveal very personal information about themselves to the researcher, information that may be unknown by their families or friends. It was therefore vital to ensure that participation was voluntary. Anonymity and confidentiality of the responses were discussed and assured. The questionnaires did not require primary identification such as names and numbers; hence there was no chance of identifying the participants. Only the researcher and the research supervisor had access to the data in order to ensure confidentiality. The data was kept in the researcher's personal locker at the University and accessed if needed during the analysis process. This process was clearly explained to the participants before they took part. The students that did not wish to participate were assured that their decision was not going to affect them or their marks in any way, as participation was voluntary.

The researcher's and the supervisor's contact details were provided in case the participants needed any information or had any queries. They were also provided with the details of the Career Counselling and Development Unit (CCDU), which is on campus and provides free counselling for students of the University.

Chapter 7: Results

7.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceived influence of parenting styles on the body esteem of male students from the University of the Witwatersrand. This investigation intended to determine if the parental styles have any influence on the body esteem perception and self-esteem of the males.

7.2 Research variables

This study considered different variables in an attempt to answer the six study questions. The study questions addressed parenting styles, race, body esteem and self-esteem. Parenting styles were assessed according to Braumrid's three parenting styles, thus, authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting styles for both the mother and father.

The maternal and paternal parenting styles were measured by the Parental Authority Questionnaire, while body esteem was measured by the Body Esteem Scale and self-esteem was measured by Rosenburg's Self-esteem Scale. Details on race were obtained from the demographic questionnaire. In essence, this study contained the following independent variables: maternal authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting style, then paternal authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting style, and race. The dependent variables were as follows: body esteem and self-esteem.

7.3 Descriptive statistics

This study investigated whether parenting styles have an influence on the current body esteem and self-esteem of male students. The purpose of this study was therefore to describe a set of data given by the students. Descriptive statistics (see Table 4) were

therefore used to describe the basic features of the data in the study. Descriptive statistics provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures. The descriptive statistics chosen include: minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation.

Prior to analysis, all data sets were examined for accuracy of data entry, in order to determine possible missing values and outline them. The study targeted and obtained the participation of 100 students. One participant did not complete the demographic questionnaire and two participants did not fully complete the paternal PAQ. There were therefore missing data in three participants; the study therefore discarded those three participants' data. Ninety seven students were able to fully participate in the study.

Table 3*:*

Abbreviations used in this study

Abbreviation	Meaning	Measuring
BESTotal	Body esteem Scale Total	Body esteem
SESTotal	Self-esteem Scale Total	Self-esteem
M#PAQ-permissive	Maternal, Parental Authority Questionnaire	Maternal permissive style
M#PAQ-authoritarian	Maternal, Parental Authority Questionnaire	Maternal authoritarian style
M#PAQ-authoritative	Maternal, Parental Authority Questionnaire	Maternal authoritative style
F#PAQ-permissive	Father(Paternal),Parental Authoritative Questionnaire	Paternal permissive style
F#PAQ-authoritarian	Paternal, Parental Authority Questionnaire	Paternal authoritarian style

F#PAQ-authoritative	Paternal, Parental Authority Questionnaire	Paternal authoritative style

Table 4:

Summary statistics of the variables utilized in this study

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	N
BESTotal	128.05	18.88	84	170	97
SESTotal	22.40	4.78	7	30	97
M#PAQ-permissive	22.90	5.51	0	34	97
M#PAQ-authoritarian	27.24	5.11	0	38	97
M#PAQ-authoritative	29.80	5.45	0	40	97
F#PAQ-permissive	22.32	4.95	10	34	97
F#PAQ-authoritarian	28.02	5.03	16	40	97
F#PAQ-authoritative	28.75	5.16	16	40	97

7.4. Statistical Assumptions

Data was examined to assess compliance with assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance for both the independent and dependant variables of the study.

7.4.1 Normality assumption

The assumptions of normality deal primarily with the normality of the sampling distribution of the mean, rather than the distribution of the individual observations (Howell, 1999). According to Mertler and Vennatta (2005, p.74), “the distributions of scores on the variables must be normal in the populations from which the data were sampled”. The SAS procedure PROC UNIVARIATE provided a test for Normality, utilising both the Shapiro-Wilk (W) statistic and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test. The statistical tests of normality of the variables in the study follow.

7.5 Normality of Variables

7.5.1 Age

Age was tested for normality. It was found that the probability associated with the W statistic is of the order of Pr<W 0.0001. This is the probability of getting such a sample distribution when the true distribution is not normally distributed. Hence the hypothesis that the age of the male students follows a normal distribution was rejected. Likewise, the (K-S) test (K-S; Pr<D 0.010) arrives at the same conclusion; age is not normally distributed. Thus the Null Hypothesis that the age of male students is normally distributed is rejected.

7.5.2 Race

Race was also tested for normality. It is crucial to note that South Africa has a population of 47 850 700 (Statistics South Africa Mid-year population estimates, 2007). The South African population consists of Blacks 79.5%, Caucasians 9.2%, Coloured 8.9%, and Indians 2.5%. The race test for normality indicates that the W statistic is of the order of Pr<W 0.0001 and the (K-S) test (K-S; Pr<D 0.010) and leads to the conclusion that race is not normally distributed.

7.5.3 Mother PAQ

The Mother PAQ was tested for Normality. The Mother Parental Authoritarian Questionnaire-total is not normally distributed. This is the probability of getting such a sample distribution when the true distribution is non-normal. Thus, we reject that the Mother PAQTotal for male students follows a normal distribution, Pr<W 0.0001. Likewise, the (K-S) test (K-S; Pr<D 0.010) leads to the same conclusion; the Mother PAQTotal is not normally distributed. Thus we reject the Null Hypothesis that the Mother PAQTotal of male students is normally distributed.

All the maternal PAQ's are skewed to the left which is negatively skewed. The Maternal PAQ-Permissive test for normality indicates that the data are normally distributed (Pr<W 0.006, K-S; Pr<D 0.082). Hence, the Maternal Parental Authority Questionnaire-Permissive is normally distributed. In the Mother PAQ-Authoritarian measure on the other hand, the K-S test and W statistic (Pr<W 0.0001, K-S; Pr<D 0.010) lead to the conclusion that Mother PAQ-Authoritarian is not normally distributed. Similarly, the Mother PAQ-Authoritative test for normality appears to be not normally distributed, (Pr<W 0.0001, K-S; Pr<D 0.010).

7.5.4 Father PAQ

The paternal parental styles were measured for normality, thus: PAQ-Permissive, PAQ-Authoritarian and PAQ-Authoritative. The findings indicate that all three paternal parental styles are normally distributed. The paternal PAQ-Permissive test for normality indicates that the data are normally distributed (Pr<W 0.255, K-S; Pr<D 0.012). The paternal PAQ-Authoritarian test for normality indicates normal distribution of (Pr<W 0.659, K-S; Pr<D 0.150). The paternal PAQ-Authoritative test for normality indicates that the data are normally distributed (Pr<W 0.163, K-S; Pr<D 0.059). Thus we accept the null hypothesis that the three F#PAQ parenting styles are normally distributed. Inspection of the histogram for the three F#PAQ indicates normality. However, the F#PAQ Total indicates no normal distribution. Thus we reject the null hypothesis that the F# PAQ Total of male students is normally distributed. Likewise, the (K-S) test (Pr<W 0.0001, K-S; Pr<D 0.010) leads to the same conclusion; the Father PAQTotal is normally distributed.

7.5.5 BES Total

In terms of the frequency distributions, the BESTotal test for normality indicates that the probability associated with the W statistic is of the order of (Pr<W 0.5298, K-S; Pr<D 0.150). The data are also normally distributed. Hence, the Body Esteem Scale total is normally distributed. Thus the hull hypothesis that the BESTotal is normally distributed is accepted. Inspection of the histogram for the BESTotal also indicates normality.

7.5.6 SES Total

The SESTotal test for normality reveals that the W statistic and K-S test (Pr<W 0.0009, K-S; Pr<D 0.010) lead to the conclusion that SESTotal is not normally distributed. Hence, the Self-esteem Scale total is not normally distributed. We therefore reject the

Null Hypothesis and instead conclude that the data is not normally distributed. Inspection of the histogram for the SESTotal indicates a distribution that is not normal as well.

7.6 Reliability

The instruments were tested for reliability since without reliability, research results using the instrument are not replicable (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002). Internal consistency was estimated based on the correlation among the variables comprising of Cronbach's alpha coefficient as the most common form of internal consistency reliability coefficient (Howell, 2002). Alpha equals zero when the true score is not measured at all and there is only an error component. Alpha equals 1.0 when all items measure only the true score and there is no error component. The results of the reliability test are demonstrated in Table 5 below.

Table 5:

Reliability of scales

Cronbach Coefficient Alpha		
Variable	Raw	Standardization
Body Esteem Scale	0.742	0.929
Self-esteem Scale	0.745	0.853
Paternal PAQ	0.652	0.751
Maternal PAQ	0.772	0.842

From the above table, the scales seem to have acceptable reliability. The alpha is at least .75 and higher indicating reliability of the scales. Therefore one can conclude that the scales have acceptable reliability.

7.7 The results of the six research questions

The study developed six questions from the literature review, four of which are correlation questions and two of which are ANOVA. The following section addresses these questions.

A: What is the relationship between perceived maternal parental style as measured by the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) and the male students' body esteem perception as measured by the Body Esteem Scale?

The question aimed to determine the extent to which the value of maternal parental style is associated with changes in male students' body image perception. The null hypothesis (H0) asserts that maternal PAQ and BES are not correlated and the alternative hypothesis (H1) asserts that BES and maternal PAQ are correlated. Both the BES and PAQ were not normally distributed; therefore the Spearman Correlation Coefficient was used.

Table 6:

Spearman Correlation Coefficient for BES and maternal PAQ

Spearman Correlation Coefficients, N = 97 Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0		
M#PAQ	BESTotal	Level of significance
M#PAQ-permissive M#PAQ-permissive	r = -0.03095 p = 0.7635	Non-significant
M#PAQ-	r = -0.04094	Non-

authoritarian M#PAQ-authoritarian	p = 0.6905	significant
M#PAQ-authoritative M#PAQ-authoritative	r = 0.08701 p = 0.3967	Non-significant

The Spearman Correlation Coefficient values indicate the following: maternal PAQ-Permissive (*r* = -.03, *p* = 0.76), authoritarian at *(r* = -0.04, *p* = 0.69). The *r* values indicate a negative relationship, while the p value exceeds the observed value of 0.05 in both the maternal permissive and authoritarian styles. Therefore the independent variables of maternal PAQ-Permissive and Authoritarian do not relate to the dependant variables, which is the body esteem of male students. Maternal-Permissive and Authoritarian PAQ do not relate to the body esteem of the males in this instance.

The authoritative parenting style indicates *(r* = 0.08, *p* = 0.39). The maternal PAQ-Authoritative on the other hand shows a positive correlation as the *r* value indicates a correlation of 0.08 while the *p* value indicates 0.39. There is therefore a non-significant correlation that exists between the perceived maternal authoritative parental style and the body esteem of the male students. Therefore there is no relationship between body esteem and maternal-authoritative style.

B: What is the relationship between perceived paternal parental style and the male students' body esteem perception?

Table 7:

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for BES and paternal PAQ

Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 97 Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0		Level of significance
	BESTotal	
F#PAQ-permissive F#PAQ-permissive	r = 0.10311 p = 0.3149	Non-significant
F#PAQ-authoritarian F#PAQ-authoritarian	r = -0.01316 p = 0.8982	Non-significant
F#PAQ-authoritative F#PAQ-authoritative	r = 0.18237 p = 0.0738	Non-significant

This question comprises normally distributed data, therefore the data were analysed using the Pearson Correlation Coefficients. The *r* value of paternal PAQ-Permissive is (r = 0.1, p =0.31), authoritarian at (r = -0.01, p = 0.89) and authoritative at (r= 0.18, p = 0.07). The *r* values indicate weak positive or negative relationships, while the *p* values exceed the observed value of 0.05. Therefore the independent variables of paternal PAQ-Permissive, Authoritarian and Authoritative are not related to the dependant variables, which is the body esteem of the male students.

C: What is the relationship between perceived maternal parental style and self-esteem as measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale?

Table 8:

Spearman Correlation Coefficient for SES and maternal PAQ

Spearman Correlation Coefficients			Level of significance
M/PAQ-Permissive	r = -0.19	p = 0.58	non-significant
M/PAQ-Authoritarian	r = -0.16	p = 0.11	Non-significant
M/PAQ-Authoritative	r = -0.06	p = 0.52	Non-significant

The results indicate that the maternal PAQ Permissive is not related to self-esteem (*r*= -0.19, *p* =0.58). The maternal authoritarian (r= -0.16, p = 0.11) and authoritative parental styles at (*r*= -0.06, p = 0.52) also indicate no relationship with self-esteem, as indicated in Table 8 above. The results indicate that the independent variables of maternal PAQ Authoritarian, Authoritative and Permissive do not relate to the dependant variable, which is the self-esteem of the male students.

D. What is the relationship between perceived paternal parental style and self-esteem?

Table 9:

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for SES and paternal PAQ

Pearson Correlation Coefficients			Level of significance
F/PAQ-Permissive	r = 0.02	p = 0.77	Non-significant
F/PAQ-Authoritarian	r = -0.03	p = 0.71	Non-significant

F/PAQ-Authoritative	r = -0.00	p = 0.93	Non-significant

The Pearson Correlation Coefficients indicate that there is no significant relationship between the paternal parental styles and the self-esteem of the male students. The results as indicated above in Table 9 table demonstrate that the fathers' parenting style shows no relationship with the self-esteem of the male students.

E. What differences are there between the different races in terms of body esteem perception?

The Analysis of Variance requires certain assumptions to be met if the statistical tests are to be valid. One of the assumptions made is that the errors (residuals) all come from the same (normal) distribution (Mertle & Vannatta, 2002). The assumption is that the variances in each of the cells are not different from each other; this is the homogeneity assumption. Thus, there is a need to test not only for normality, but to also ensure (test) that the variances are homogeneous. One of the requirements of ANOVA is that there should be no difference between the variances of the data set; if difference is then found through using the test, it can be assumed that the means of the data set are different.

Table 10:

Test of Homogeneity of Variances (BESTotal) for BES and PAQ

Levene's Test for Homogeneity of BESTotal Variance ANOVA of Squared Deviations from Group Means						Level of significance
Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F	

Race	2	1726674	863337	4.37	0.0154	Non-significant

Levene's test tested for homogeneity of variance between race and BESTotal among the male students. The F value of the BESTotal is 4.37. Levene's statistic is significant at the .05 level in this case. The null hypothesis for the Levene's test is that the variances are homogeneous, therefore the homogeneous variance assumption is not met for BESTotal in this study. Hence the non-parametric equivalent of ANOVA, Kruskal- Wallis was used.

Table 11:

Kruskal-Wallis Test for BES and PAQ

Kruskal-Wallis Test	
Chi-Square	5.740
DF	3
Pr>Chi-Square	0.124

The statistical conclusion is that p = 0.124 the χ^2 value is 5.740. According to the results, there is no significant difference between race and body esteem among the first-year male students.

F. What differences are there between the different races in terms of self-esteem?

Table 12:

Levene's Test for Homogeneity of SESTotal Variance

Levene's Test for Homogeneity of SESTotal Variance **ANOVA of Squared Deviations from Group Means**						
Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr>F	Level of significance
Race	2	1565.6	782.8	0.55	0.5772	Non-significant

Levene's test was utilised to test for homogeneity of variance between race and SESTotal among the male students. The F value was 0.55. Levine's statistic is significant at the 0.05 level in this case. Therefore the homogenous assumption for SESTotal is met. Hence ANOVA was carried out.

Table 13:

Analysis of Variance for SESTotal

Source	DF	ANOVA SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F	Level of significance
Race	3	8.15292096	2.71764032	0.12	0.9508	Non-significant

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was carried out to examine differences between races in terms of self-esteem. Results of one-way ANOVA shown in Table 13 where, the F value is 0.12 and the P value 0.95, indicate that there are non-significant differences between the racial groups with regards to self-esteem. We therefore conclude that there is no difference between the different races in terms of self-esteem.

Chapter 8: Discussion

The intent of the present study was to determine the perceived relationship of parenting styles on the body esteem of male students from the University of the Witwatersrand. This investigation also intended to determine whether parental styles have any relationship with self-esteem of males. The study sought to answer six questions that addressed parenting styles, body esteem, self-esteem and race. The parenting styles as indicated by the students were observed specifically according to maternal and paternal parenting styles, focusing on Baumrind's authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting styles. The literature reviewed suggests that familial constructs may influence the development of body esteem perception and self-esteem. Furthermore, the literature provides inconsistent results of racial differences seen in terms of body esteem and self-esteem.

8.1 Interpretation of results

This study attempted to find possible significant relationships between parenting styles, racial factors and body esteem and self-esteem respectively of male students. There were many significant reasons for selecting to examine these relationships. Studies such as Cafri et al. (2005), Levine & Harrison (2004) and Mangweth et al. (1997) have shown a strong relationship between the quality of maternal parenting and the development of body esteem, self-esteem and eating disorders of a girl child. Lamb (2004) looked at the impact of the absence of a father figure in the male child's life. Paulson and Sputa (1996) pointed out that studies that examine the parental influence on the male child's body image do not separate the mother's and the father's contribution: they look at familial influence.

The literature reviewed showed that parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviours that work individually and together to influence child outcomes (Buri, 1999; Dornbusch et al., 1987, Ingoldby et al., 2003). Parents may differ in how they try to control or socialise their children and in the extent to which they do so. It is assumed that the primary role of all parents is to influence, teach, and control their children (Sobal, 1995). Usmiani and Daniluk, (1996) urged that although specific parenting behaviours, such as spanking or reading aloud may influence child development, looking at any specific behaviour in isolation may be misleading. This study therefore focused on the influence of both the mother and father individually on the male students' body esteem and self-esteem. Furthermore, the study investigated the differences between races in terms of body esteem and self-esteem.

8.1.1. Reliability

The instruments utilised in the study were tested for reliability since without reliability, research results using the instruments are not replicable (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002). The instruments utilised in the study indicate a high reliability. The Body Esteem Scale indicates (.92), the Self-esteem Scale (.85), the Paternal PAQ (.75) and the Maternal PAQ (.84). The scales have test-retest reliability similar to the reliability found in the literature, which indicates a Body Esteem scale of (.86), (Winsatead & Cash, 1984), a Self-esteem Scale of (.88), (Cash & Burk, 2002), a Paternal PAQ of (.77), (Dwairy, 2004), and a Maternal PAQ of .92, (Buri, 1991).

It is crucial to note that the parenting styles measured in this study were perceptions of the male students. The participants were divided into four racial groups thus: the Caucasian, Black, Indian and Coloured groups. The Black group was significantly larger than the other races and the Coloured group had the least amount of individuals. Racial factors will be discussed in detail further on. Six questions were developed in an attempt to investigate the research concerns.

8.1.2 Body Esteem

A. What is the relationship between perceived maternal parental style as measured by the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) and the male students' body esteem perception as measured by the Body Esteem Scale?

This question was designed to determine the extent to which the value of the mother's parenting style is associated with the male student's body esteem perception. The results indicate that the maternal parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative and permissive) do not have a significant relationship with the body esteem of the male students.

According to Levine and Harrison (2004), the mother is said to be the primary socialisation agent who transmits messages regarding appearance and eating practices to their daughters. Furthermore, Cafri et al. (2005) suggest that mothers are viewed as exerting a greater influence over males' body esteem than other influences, such as that of peers and the media. Moreover, the majority of messages that the males reported receiving from their mothers concerning their body were very positive (compliments and praise), and these positive messages were associated with males' positive feelings about their bodies (Pope et al., 2000). In contrast to previous research, the results of this study could indicate that the mother has minimal influence on male students' body esteem perception. This lack of correlation between parental styles and body image perception of male students may be due to the tripartite influence indicated in the literature; there are at least three factors (peers, family and media) that play a role at different stages of development in a male's life (Thompson et al., 2004).

The literature indicates that familial influence plays a crucial role in the very early developmental stage of the child's life; peers play a crucial role in the identity formation stage which begins in the teenage years, while the media plays a crucial role in the early adulthood stages of males (Cafri et al., 2005, Cash, 2004; Levine & Harrison, 2004). The

male students in this study were between 18 to 22 years of age. Thus, according to the literature, this is the stage when the media influences them most strongly (Keery et al., 2004; Reed et al., 1991).

Vygotsky regarded human development as entirely social (Vygotsky, 1986). He said that psychological phenomena originate in social interaction, they are organised by social relations, and their constituents are social artefacts such as linguistic symbols (Vygotsky, 1981). Vygotsky saw human development as a socio-genetic process with learning coming about through social interactions between children and adults (Vygotsky, 1981). He believed that education "generates" and leads development, which is the result of social learning through the internalisation of culture and social relationships. Vygotsky's work brings about a fundamental understanding of parental influence and how the child thereafter internalises the social learning and forms his/her identity through the social influences.

In essence, Vygotsky's theory explains how a child's self-concept can develop and how that child can internalise social influences and form a strong definition of who they are, without realising how their concepts are formed. This could at some level explain why the results of this study indicate that the male students feel that their parents are not a significant influential part of how they view themselves. Basically, one can develop an understanding that the concept of the self becomes internalised to an extent that the individual perceives it as his/her own development, when there is in fact a strong chance that his/her their views of self has been learned from the social environment. This understanding leads to an interesting way of interpreting the non-significant results. The tripartite theory's perspective is similar to Vygotsky's, in the sense that both theories focus on the external social environment as being highly influential in how individuals view themselves.

B. What is the relationship between perceived paternal parental style and the male students' body esteem perception?

The literature reviewed shows that socio-cultural factors - parents, siblings, friends and the mass media - appear to have at least some influence over the males ' feelings about their bodies (Bettelheim, 1987; Mruk, 1995). The research on girls reports that the mother contributed as the social re-enforcer and role model for the girl child, while the father plays a less visible role in developing the girl child's body image (Buri, 1991). The literature on males demonstrates that the father has a specific contribution to make to his son's development, starting at infancy, and that the absence of this contribution causes predictable defects in the child (Koff & Rierdan, 1991).

A recent systematic review of studies (taking account of mothers' involvement and gathering data from different independent sources), found 'positive' father involvement associated with a range of desirable outcomes for children and young people (Usmiani & Daniluk, 1996; Sobal, 1995). The positive outcomes include higher self-esteem and life-satisfaction and 'locus of control' (Paulson & Sputa, 1996). It was pointed out that, fathers, like mothers, can also influence their children's development in negative ways (Steinberg, 1996). Low levels of father involvement are associated with a range of negative outcomes in children, as pointed out by Grogan (1999).

Poor body esteem perception in children is also associated with their fathers' substance misuse and with fathers' abuse of the children's mothers (Owen, 2001). Fathers' influence has been found to be more significant than mothers' for males (but not for girls). Fathers are said to exert greater influence than mothers on males' body esteem perception (Cash, 2004). Fathers' affection, support and 'authoritative' parenting style are also clearly related to children's better educational outcomes, just as poor parenting by fathers is associated with children's worse educational attainment (Koffe & Rierdan, 1991; Mruk, 1995).

The results of this study indicate no significant relationship between the paternal parenting styles and the body esteem perception of the male students. The results from the Body Esteem Scale indicate that most of the male students were not content with their body esteem. The males reported mostly that they were not satisfied with their chest, muscle tone and stomach. There seems to be a link between the results and the literature showing that the low levels of the father's involvement in the male child's upbringing is associated with poor body esteem perception of the male child (Bettelheim, 1987, Cash, 2004; Owen 2001). Vygotsky's theory (Vygotsky's, 1981) and the tripartite theory (Reed, 1991) to some extent, bring together the variables discussed in this study as being relevant to socialisation and identity formation. According to these theories, adults and peers are the most important role players that serve as guides to support cognitive growth. They serve to assist learning and provide categories and concepts for thinking. Mothers are identified in the literature (Cafri et al., 2005) as exerting a greater influence over males ' body esteem than other influences such as that of fathers, peers and the media. Moreover, the majority of messages that the male student's reported receiving from their mothers concerning their body were very positive (compliments and praise), and these positive messages were associated with the male student's' positive feelings about their body (Pope et al., 2000).

8.1.3 Self-esteem

The adolescent years are a period of tremendous change in a young person's life (Buri, 1991). There are biological changes such as rapid physical growth and the development of secondary sexual characteristics (Cole, 1990). Adolescents also experience a change in their cognitive abilities (John-Steiner, 1985). At this stage they are able to think abstractly and solve problems in a logical manner (Kozulin, 1990). It is during this time that young people also begin to develop a sense of identity or self-esteem (Blascovich & Tomaka,

1993). There are several factors that can help shape self-esteem, such as personal performance and peer acceptance (Furnham & Cheng, 2000).

Another important factor is the style of parenting the young person receives Baumrind (1971) and Coopersmith (1967) pointed out that adolescents who receive positive parental support generally have higher self-esteem. They tend to be cheerful and social and do well in school while those with low self-esteem tend to be depressed (Buri et al., 1988). If males begin with higher levels of body satisfaction, which in turn is closely interrelated with high self-esteem, then males may be better equipped to ignore media messages (Owen, 2001). Similarly, if males initially have a more positive and invariable body image, then social comparison is unlikely to modify it (Harter, 1993).

C. What is the relationship between perceived maternal parental style and self-esteem as measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale?

D. What is the relationship between perceived paternal parental style and self-esteem?

The literature indicates that maternal parenting styles, specifically the authoritative style, are significant predictors of self-esteem (Cafri et al., 2005). The parental authoritarian style is argued to be negatively correlated with self-esteem (Pope et al., 2000). Parental authority has been linked to levels of self-esteem in the child (Levine & Harrison, 2004). Baumrind (1991) reported authoritative parenting as more likely to result in self-reliant and independent children than either permissive or authoritarian parenting. Maternal authoritativeness was pointed out to enhance positive self-esteem when comparing maternal and paternal parenting styles (Thompson et al., 2004).

There is further a suggestion that young males with authoritative parents have high self-esteem (Lamb, 2004). In essence, the literature emphasises that parental authority may have either a negative or positive effect upon self-esteem, depending on the type of

authority exercised (Ingoldby et al., 2003; Sobal, 1995). Furthermore, the literature also points out that a healthy exercise of authority within the home may be of greater significance in the development of self-esteem in daughters as opposed to sons (Paulson & Sputa, 1996).

The literature pointed out that paternal authoritativeness shows a direct link with the child's positive self-esteem (Rosenburg, 1965), while paternal authoritarian behaviour appears to have a negative impact on the self-esteem of males (Herz & Gullone, 1999). Fathers tend to spend more time with sons than with daughters (Paretti & Staturm, 1984). Furthermore the literature states that an involved father increases a child's likelihood of developing healthy body esteem, self-esteem, moral strength, and social competence (Coopersmith, 1967). In essence, through positive socialisation and culture, children acquire much of the content of their thinking and their knowledge. The surrounding culture provides children with the processes or means of their thinking, the tools of intellectual adaptation. According to Vygotsky's model (Vygotsky, 1981), culture teaches children what to think, how to think and guides behaviour; this is the foundation of self-esteem according to this theory.

The results of this study indicate that the relationship between maternal parenting styles and self-esteem of the male students was not significant. There was an indication that there is a minimal relationship between the mother's and father's parenting styles and self-esteem. Most previous research on parental influence did not distinguish specifically which parent in particular was more influential than the other. Furthermore, the reported studies on maternal influence on the child's self-esteem have been done on the female child as opposed to the male child (Cafri et al., 2005; Levine & Harrison, 2004). The results of this study are supported by the tripartite theory of Levine and Harrison) (2004) and Vygotsky's socio-cultural perspective (Vygotsky, 1978), which state that socialisation is a process situated in, but not limited to, social interaction. When beginning an activity, children depend on others with more experience. Over time, they

take on increasing responsibility for their own learning and participation in joint activity (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

8.1.4 Racial factors

As stated previously, the South African population consists of Blacks 79.5%, Caucasians 9.2%, Coloured 8.9%, and Asians 2.5 % (Chandller, 2006). The sample of this study consisted of different races which were found in the first year student group targeted. The races involved included the Caucasian, Black, Coloured and Asian groups. The race test for normality indicated that race is not normally distributed. As indicated in the South African census, it is expected that the race differences in this study are dominated according to the racial percentage of the South African population, which is: Black 55%, Caucasian 21%, Indian 20% and Coloured 2%. The races involved in the study fell into four groups thus: the Black, Caucasian, Indian and Coloured racial groups. The dominating groups were the Black and the Caucasian groups. The Back group was significantly larger than the other groups in the study.

E. What differences are there between the different races in terms of body esteem perception?

The results of this study indicate that race has a non-significant relationship with body esteem perception of male students. The Body Esteem Scale indicate that there were students that indicated the need to maintain a muscular body shape in order to create a positive body esteem perception, while some students seemed more content with their physical structure and did not feel the need to alter it. The male students were therefore divided as far as their body esteem was concerned. There was not enough sample size from the coloured group to make a generalisation on their body esteem perception.

There is very limited evidence in the literature of race or ethnic differences in body esteem in men. The results from the literature have been inconsistent in reporting the relationship between race and body image. Altabe (1998) for instance, conducted a study on body image and realistic weight loss; the results indicate that there were no ethnic differences among men. Similarly, Striegel-Moore and Smolak (1996) found no race differences for men on body esteem or body satisfaction. On the other hand, Smith et al. (1999) reported that compared to Caucasian males, Indian males were more dissatisfied and black males were less dissatisfied with their weight.

This study concludes that there are non-significant differences between race and body esteem of male students. Previous studies show inconsistency in the relationship between race and body esteem.

F. What differences are there between the different races in terms of self-esteem?

The results indicate that there is no significant relationship between race and self-esteem of male students. Therefore according to the results, race does not affect the self-esteem of male students. These results seem to be consistent with previous research showing that self-esteem does not differ between Caucasian and Black students, nor does overall body image, specifically in college females (Altabe, 1998).

Findings in the literature indicate a strong positive correlation between body area satisfaction and self-esteem of Caucasian students, but not Black students (Smith et al., 1999). When testing for a correlation between body area satisfaction and self-esteem across both Black and Caucasian students, no relationship was found. In essence, many studies report no significant differences in self-esteem between races (Miller et al, 2000). However, differences may be more pronounced in area-specific self-esteem than in general measures (Altabe, 1998). There may be a tendency for blacks to have lower academic esteem but higher self-evaluations related to physical attractiveness (Ingoldsby

et al., 2003 and Dornbusch et al., 1987). Four features were identified as critical to Black self-esteem: value of unity, cooperative effort, collective responsibility, and concern for the community (Hill, 1995).

8.2 Conclusion

Prior research has revealed support for parental, medial and peer influences on children's eating and body esteem concerns (Levine & Harrison, 2004). This study found no relationship between parental styles for male students and body esteem and self-esteem, respectively. However, the results were supported by the tripartite (Levine & Harrison, 2004) and socio-cultural theory (Cafri et al., 12005), indicating that different age groups experience different factors to be more influential to their body esteem and self-esteem at different stages in their lives (Reed et al., 1991; Thompson et al., 2004). The study examined the theoretical perspectives on socio-cultural influences affecting the male child's development. The theory review indicates that there are different factors that influence the upbringing of the child and his/her development (Cafri et al., 2005).

Vygotsky (1981) believed that human development was a socio-genetic process with learning coming about through social interaction between children and adults. He pointed out that social learning is the internalisation of culture and social relationships which can vary from family members to friends. In essence, adults and peers are the most important role players that serve to support cognitive growth.

The socio-cultural perspective indicated specifically that the impact of family, peers, and the media have a fair share of influence on body esteem and development of the child in different stages of his/her life (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). The results from this present study suggests that male students' body esteem concerns in this particular developmental stage possibly result from other external pressures to conform to the definition of masculinity, more than from their parental influences. This study suggests, as reported in

the literature, that men are bombarded with media images of superheroes, action figures and bodybuilders that suggest that they should work towards having defensive and muscular bodies (Lorenzen et al., 2004).

Contrary to research with girls, this study suggests that only a few males felt negative about their bodies (Pope et al., 2000). In fact, most male students reported feeling either more positive or neutral about their body and self-esteem as measured by the Body Esteem Scale and Rosenberg's self-esteem scale, respectively.

The study examined the difference between race and body esteem and self-esteem of the male students. When testing for a difference in body image across the races of the male students, the results indicated no significant level of difference. Also, no difference was found between race and self-esteem of the male students. These results were consistent with previous research showing that self-esteem does not differ within the racial boundaries of male students (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991; Harter, 1991). Previous studies have shown it is not necessarily one ethnic group that has a higher self-esteem than the other. However there are suggestions that race has an influence over the male's body image perception (Bradley & Caldwell, 1995). Research has suggested that this is because the specific cultural identity of Black males plays a large role in their assessment of body image, whereas other races rely heavily on a combination of influential factors (Bradley & Caldwell, 1995).

8.3 Limitations

While the present study yields interesting findings, it had some limitations, indicating that these results should be interpreted with caution.

Firstly, the primary limitation was the small number of the sample size. Dividing the sample into ethnic groups made the groups even smaller. The Black group dominated the

sample with 55%, the Caucasian with 21%, the Coloured group with 2% and Indian with 20%. Not enough generalisation could be made from the Coloured group for instance. This may have contributed to the lack of significant correlations found for authoritarian parenting styles as found in previous research. For instance, Chandller (2006) conducted a study in which the results indicate that 41.1% of African American students classified experiencing an authoritarian parenting style, versus 18.2 % by Caucasian students.

Another limitation was the pool from which participants were drawn. Although the study measured results for university students in general, the study sample consisted of first year medical students taking psychology. This small group may be less diverse than the university as a whole, therefore may not be representative of university students. Nonetheless, this sample was generally representative of undergraduates at the University of the Witwatersrand. Although the sample size was small, its findings were consistent with those from previous research in the area of body esteem, self-esteem, and self-concept.

The lack of in-depth information from multiple sources, such as parents may have affected the outcome of the study. A true reflection of the parenting styles could have been achieved had the study observed the parents instead of only relying on children's self-reports.

The study did not measure against other socio-cultural factors such as the media and peer influence to determine other factors that could contribute to the male students' self-esteem and body esteem. Therefore the study cannot completely assume that media or peer influences are also related to self-esteem and body esteem. An assumption can however be made considering the input from the literature that stages of youth or early adulthood of the males is heavily influenced by the media.

Another limitation may be inherent in using self-report measures such as BES, SES and PAQ. Our findings may have differed if other measures were used that are administered in face-to-face interviews, rather than self-administered as used in the study. As suggested by socio-cultural theory, our findings may have been different if we had administered the questionnaires to a different age group of males.

8.4 Recommendations for future research

This study could have had different results if the sample size had been well distributed. Future studies should therefore consider that the South African population is not equally distributed racially, therefore research on racial groups should be approached with caution. More in-depth information from multiple sources, such as parents, would enhance future studies on this topic in order to avoid over reliance on one source. Whether or not older or younger males may be more affected by socio-cultural influences also requires further exploration. Furthermore, research is required to understand how these factors promote and protect males' positive body image. A qualitative study among young male adults could help focus research, depending on what themes emerge; it could help direct future quantitative studies.

8.5 Final conclusion

The male students in the present study indicated a higher percentage of dissatisfaction with their body esteem. Their body ideal seems to be drifting away from body reality, measured by the Body Esteem Scale. However the literature on body esteem perceptions in men is far more limited and the available scales are less well developed (Cash 2004). The majority of the male students showed body esteem dissatisfaction. It should be pointed out further that the sample of the study was not equally distributed; the Black students dominated the group. Therefore, generalisations are not easily made.

Parental authority has been linked to levels of body esteem and self-esteem in the child (Owen, 2001), yet the investigations into this area yield contradictory results (Buri et al., 1988). The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between perceived parenting styles, (both maternal and paternal) and the body esteem of male students. The

socio-cultural theory (Cafri et al., 2005) and tripartite model (Thompson, et al., 2004) suggest that parents play a crucial role at the pre-adolescent stage; peers are more influential at the adolescent stage and the media is more influential at the early adulthood stage (Gindis, 1995). Social interaction, according to Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory, determines the structure and pattern of internal cognition, through which self-concept and body esteem perception can be developed (Vygotsky, 1981). Parents and their values and the atmosphere they create in the family can set the scene for children to begin to make some assumptions about themselves. In essence, learning and development take place in socially and culturally shaped contexts.

Therefore, according to these theories, the male students in this study are at that early adulthood stage which is highly influenced by media messages and demands. The lack of correlation between the parental styles and the male students self-concept and body esteem perception seems to be more in line with the tripartite and socio-cultural theories. The results of this study could therefore recommend further studies comparing the influences on males at different levels in their development such as from 3 to 12, 13 to 18 and 18 onwards.

This study investigated the influence of parenting styles on the body image and self-esteem of the male students, respectively. The literature indicated that maternal parenting styles were significant predictors of self-esteem (Cafri et el., 2005). The paternal authoritarian style was reported to have a negative relationship with self-esteem. The students, on the other hand, indicated that their perceptions of their parents' parenting styles did not relate to their body esteem perception and self-esteem. The study therefore

concludes that there may be many other factors that can have an influence the relationship.

Race did not differ according to self-esteem and body esteem according to this study. This study identified the Black racial group as not differing in body image perception. The background to the Black community indicates that African heritage emphasises larger body features, such as chest, lips, buttocks, and shapely bodies. As a whole, the community is identified as being more favorable to these larger features (Smith et al., 1999). Altabe (1998) on the other hand, conducted a study on body esteem and realistic weight loss; the results report that there were no ethnic differences among men. The results from this study are not in line with the understanding of the black community according to the literature; however they are in line with the general understanding that there are no ethnic differences with respect to body esteem. The results are, however, treated with caution due to the lack of the normal distribution of the racial groups to verify these results.

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Appendix A: participant Information Sheet (Quantitative/questionnaire Based Research)

School of Human & Community Development: Community Development

Witwatersrand

Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050

Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559

Hello

My name is Zanele Dubazana, and I am conducting research in partial fulfilment of a Masters in Research Psychology degree at the University of the Witwatersrand. My area of focus is on perceived influence of Parental styles on the body image of male students. Basically, the study looks at how the male student perceives the parenting styles of their parents and how they think these parenting styles influenced their body image perception. I would like to invite you to participate in this study.

● You must be 18 years or older to participate in this study.

● Participation in this research will entail completing the attached questionnaires, which should take no more than 20 minutes.

● Participation is completely voluntary. You will not in any way be advantaged or disadvantaged for either completing or not completing the questionnaires.

● There are no direct benefits to you if you participate. Similarly, I do not foresee any risks for you if you participate. However should any discomfort arise while filling in these questionnaires please go to Career Counselling and Development Unit (CCDU),

this counselling unit is on west campus and provides free counselling or debriefing sessions with the university students.

● While questions are asked about your personal circumstances, no identifying information, such as your name or I.D. number, is asked for, and as such you will remain anonymous.

● Your completed questionnaire will not be seen or processed by any person other than myself and my supervisor. Your responses will only be looked at in relation to all other responses, and as such no individual feedback will be given.

● Once the study has been completed and written up, a report will be available at the Cullen Africa library.

Should you choose to participate in the study, you are requested detach this page. Then please complete the attached questionnaires as carefully and honestly as possible. Please place you questionnaires in the sealed collection box at the front of the venue as you leave, it is to ensure confidentiality. Should you have questions, please feel free to contact me.

Thank you very much for taking time to read this letter.

Yours Sincerely

Zanele Dubazana (Researcher)

Zanele Dubazana	Ms Adilia Silva
Researcher	Supervisor
zdubazana@yahoo.com	Adilia.Silva@.wits.ac.za

Appendix B: Demographic questions

Please answer the following sets of questions as honestly as possible. You are not obliged to answer any or all questions if you choose not to.

Age: _____

2. Race:

Please tick the box that applies to you

Black Coloured Indian White

Other (please specify) _____

(These categories are used solely for research purposes and are not meant to be offensive)

Was your mother present (living in the same home) during your first twelve years of your childhood?

_____

Was you father present (living in the same home) during your first twelve years of your childhood?

_____

Appendix C: The Body esteem Scale (Franzoi & Shields, 1984)

Instructions: On this page are listed a number of body parts and functions. Please read each item and indicate how you feel about this part or function of your own body using the following scale:

1 = Have strong negative feelings

2 = Have moderate negative feelings

3 = Have no feeling one way or the other

4 = Have moderate positive feelings

5 = Have strong positive feelings

---

1. body scent _____
2. appetite _____
3. nose _____
4. physical stamina _____
5. reflexes _____
6. lips _____
7. muscular strength _____

8. waist _____

9. energy level _____

10. thighs _____

11. ears _____

12. biceps _____

13. chin _____

14. body build _____

15. physical coordination _____

16. buttocks _____

17. agility _____

18. width of shoulders _____

19. arms _____

20. chest or breasts _____

21. appearance of eyes _____

22. cheeks/cheekbones _____

23. hips _____

24. legs _____

25. figure or physique _____

26. sex drive _____

27. feet _____

28. sex organs _____

29. appearance of stomach _____

30. health _____

31. sex activities _____

32. body hair _____

33. physical condition _____

34. face _____

Appendix D: Rosenberg self-esteem scale

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. If you **Strongly Agree**, circle **SA**. If you **Agree** with the statement, circle **A**. If you **Disagree**, circle **D**. if you **Strongly Disagree**, circle **SD**.

		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1.	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	SA	A	D	SD
2.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	SA	A	D	SD
3.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	SA	A	D	SD
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	SA	A	D	SD
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	SA	A	D	SD
6.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	SA	A	D	SD
7.	On the whole, I am satisfied	SA	A	D	SD

	with myself.				
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	SA	A	D	SD
9.	I certainly feel useless at times.	SA	A	D	SD
10.	At times I think I am no good at all.	SA	A	D	SD

Appendix E: Parental Authority Questionnaire for the **Mother's Parenting Style**

Instructions: For each of the following statements, circle the number on the 4-point scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Agree and 4= Strongly Agree) that best describes how that statement applies to you and your mother. Try to read and think about each statement as it applies to you and your mother during your years of growing up at home. There are no right or wrong answers, so don't spend a lot of time on any one item. We are looking for an overall impression regarding each statement. Be sure not to omit any items.

		STRONGLY DISAGREE 1	DISAGREE 2	AGREE 3	STRONGLY AGREE 4
1.	While I was growing up my mother felt that in a well run home the children should have their way in the family as often as parents do.	SD	D	A	SA
2.	Even if their children didn't agree, my mother felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what she thought was	SD	D	A	SA

	right				
3.	Whenever my mother told me to do something as I was growing up, she expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.	SD	D	A	SA
4.	As I was growing up, once family policy had been established, my mother discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family	SD	D	A	SA
5.	My mother has always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable.	SD	D	A	SA
6.	My mother always felt that what children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to	SD	D	A	SA

	do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want.				
7.	As I was growing up my mother did not allow me to question any decision she had made	SD	D	A	SA
8.	As I was growing up my mother directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.	SD	D	A	SA
9.	My mother has always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.	SD	D	A	SA
10.	As I was growing up my	SD	D	A	SA

	mother did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behavior simply because someone in authority had established them				
11.	As I was growing up I knew what my mother expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my mother when I felt that they were unreasonable.	SD	D	A	SA
12.	My mother felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family.	SD	D	A	SA
13.	As I was growing up, my mother seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behaviour	SD	D	A	SA

14.	Most of the time as I was growing up my mother did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions	SD	D	A	SA
15.	As the children in my family were growing up, my mother constantly gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways	SD	D	A	SA
16.	As I was growing up my mother would get very upset if I tried to disagree with her.	SD	D	A	SA
17.	My mother feels that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.	SD	D	A	SA
18.	As I was growing up my	SD	D	A	SA

	mother let me know what behaviors she expected of me, and if I didn't meet those expectations she punished me.				
19.	As I was growing up my mother allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from her.	SD	D	A	SA
20.	As I was growing up my mother took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but she would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.	SD	D	A	SA
21.	My mother did not view herself as responsible for directing and guiding my	SD	D	A	SA

	behavior as I was growing up				
22.	My mother had clear standards of behavior for the children in our homes as I was growing up, but she was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each individual child in the family.	SD	D	A	SA
23.	My mother gave me direction for my behavior and activities as I was growing up and she expected me to follow her direction, but she was willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.	SD	D	A	SA
24.	As I was growing up my mother allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and she generally	SD	D	A	SA

	allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do.				
25.	My mother has always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up	SD	D	A	SA
26.	As I was growing up my mother often told me exactly what she wanted me to do and how she expected me to do it.	SD	D	A	SA
27.	As I was growing up my mother gave me clear directions for my behavior and activities, but she also understood when I disagreed with	SD	D	A	SA

	her.				
28.	As I was growing up my mother did not direct the behaviors, activities, and desires of the children in my family	SD	D	A	SA
29.	As I was growing up I knew what my mother expected of me in the family and she insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for her authority	SD	D	A	SA
30.	As I was growing up, if my mother made a decision in the family that hurt me, she was willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if she had made a mistake	SD	D	A	SA

Appendix F: Parental Authority Questionnaire for the **Father's Parenting Style**

Instructions: For each of the following statements, circle the number on the 4-point scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Agree and 4= Strongly Agree) that best describes how that statement applies to you and your father. Try to read and think about each statement as it applies to you and your father during your years of growing up at home. There are no right or wrong answers, so don't spend a lot of time on any one item. We are looking for an overall impression regarding each statement. Be sure not to omit any items.

		STRONGLY DISAGREE 1	DISAGREE 2	AGREE 3	STRONGLY AGREE 4
1.	While I was growing up my father felt that in a well run home the children should have his way in the family as often as parents do.	SD	D	A	SA
2.	Even if their children didn't agree, my father felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what he thought was right	SD	D	A	SA

3.	Whenever my father told me to do something as I was growing up, they expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.	SD	D	A	SA
4.	As I was growing up, once family policy had been established, my father discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family	SD	D	A	SA
5.	My father has always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable.	SD	D	A	SA
6.	My father always felt that what children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if	SD	D	A	SA

	this does not agree with what their parents might want.				
7.	As I was growing up my father did not allow me to question any decision he had made	SD	D	A	SA
8.	As I was growing up my father directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.	SD	D	A	SA
9.	My father has always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.	SD	D	A	SA
10.	As I was growing up my father did not feel that I needed to obey rules and	SD	D	A	SA

	regulations of behavior simply because someone in authority had established them				
11.	As I was growing up I knew what my father expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my father when I felt that they were unreasonable.	SD	D	A	SA
12.	My father felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family.	SD	D	A	SA
13.	As I was growing up, my father seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behaviour	SD	D	A	SA
14.	Most of the time as I was	SD	D	A	SA

	growing up my father did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions				
15.	As the children in my family were growing up, my father constantly gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways	SD	D	A	SA
16.	As I was growing up my father would get very upset if I tried to disagree with him.	SD	D	A	SA
17.	My father feels that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.	SD	D	A	SA
18.	As I was growing up my father let me know what	SD	D	A	SA

	behaviors he expected of me, and if I didn't meet those expectations he punished me.				
19.	As I was growing up my father allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from him.	SD	D	A	SA
20.	As I was growing up my father took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but he would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.	SD	D	A	SA
21.	My father did not view himself as responsible for directing and guiding my behavior as I was growing	SD	D	A	SA

	up				
22.	My father had clear standards of behavior for the children in our homes as I was growing up, but he was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each individual child in the family.	SD	D	A	SA
23.	My father gave me direction for my behavior and activities as I was growing up and he expected me to follow his direction, but he was willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.	SD	D	A	SA
24.	As I was growing up my father allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and he generally allowed me to decide for myself what I	SD	D	A	SA

	was going to do.				
25.	My father has always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up	SD	D	A	SA
26.	As I was growing up my father often told me exactly what he wanted me to do and how she expected my to do it.	SD	D	A	SA
27.	As I was growing up my father gave me clear directions for my behavior and activities, but he also understood when I disagreed with him.	SD	D	A	SA
28.	As I was growing up my father did not direct the	SD	D	A	SA

	behaviors, activities, and desires of the children in my family				
29.	As I was growing up I knew what my father expected of me in the family and he insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for his authority	SD	D	A	SA
30.	As I was growing up, if my father made a decision in the family that hurt me, he was willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if he had made a mistake	SD	D	A	SA