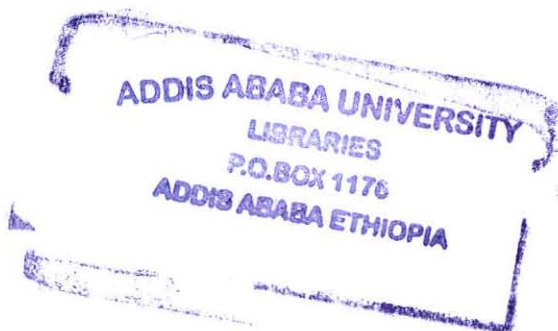


**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES  
INSTITUTE OF PSYCHOLOGY**

**THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF SEX, SELF - ESTEEM AND  
ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF INSTITUTIONALIZED  
ORPHANS AND NON - ORPHANS**

**ASAYE GEBREWOLD ASHENGO**



**June 2010  
ADDIS ABABA**

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

Words alone can't express the gratitude I feel for my advisor, Tamire Andualem (Ass. Professor). I cannot thank you enough for your constant support, encouragement, inspiration, and belief in my abilities. I sincerely appreciate your commitment and expertise you gave me during my research. I will never forget your positive demeanor and your welcoming smile every time I entered your office.

I would also like to offer my deepest gratitude to Sentayehu Tadesse (Dr.), who has been a supportive figure since the time I enrolled for my graduate program. He had been incredibly patient and tireless in responding to my questions and concerns both professionally and personally.

My gratitude also extends to the students, teachers and administrators of both the school and the organization of Selam Children Village for their maximum cooperation and support in data collection.

Finally, I would like to thank my family and friends for their encouragement and support throughout my entire graduate program.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS -----	i
LIST OF TABLES -----	v
LIST OF FIGURES -----	vii
ACRONYMS -----	viii
ABSTRACT -----	ix

## CHAPTER ONE

### 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY -----	1
1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM -----	5
1.3 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY -----	9
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS -----	9
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY -----	10
1.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY -----	13
1.7 DEFINITIONS -----	14
1.8 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY -----	14

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 THEORIES OF SELF-ESTEEM -----	15
2.2 GLOBAL AND SPECIFIC SELF-ESTEEM -----	21
2.3 SELF-ESTEEM, GENDER AND AGE -----	23

2.4 SELF-ESTEEM AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT-----	27
2.5 INSTITUTIONAL CARE/ORPHANAGES -----	42
2.6 SELF-ESTEEM ASSESSMENT -----	50
2.6.1 Coopersmith’s Self-Esteem Inventory -----	50
2.6.2 Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Scale-----	52
2.7 SUMMARY -----	53

## CHAPTER THREE

### 3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN -----	55
3.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE -----	55
3.3 VARIABLES INCLUDED IN THE STUDY -----	56
3.3.1 Independent Variables -----	56
3.3.2 Dependent Variables -----	56
3.4 INSTRUMENTS -----	57
3.4.1 Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Scale -----	57
3.4.2 Document -----	57
3.4.3 Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) -----	58
3.4.3 Pilot Study -----	58
3.5 PROCEDURE -----	60

## CHAPTER FOUR

### 4. RESULTS

4.1 DESCRIPTIVE DATA .....	63
4.2 RESULT OF ONE WAY ANOVA .....	65
4.3 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF-ESTEEM .....	69
4.4 SELF-ESTEEM, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND FAMILY .....	73
4.5 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF-ESTEEM DIFFERENCE IN SEX .....	78

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5. DISCUSSION

5.1 SELF-ESTEEM, SEX AND AGE .....	82
5.2 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF-ESTEEM .....	86
5.3 SELF-ESTEEM AND INSTITUTIONAL CARE .....	88

## CHAPTER SIX

### 6. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 SUMMARY .....	91
6.2 CONCLUSIONS .....	93
6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS .....	93
REFERENCES .....	96
APPENDICES .....	105

## LIST OF TABLES

1. Prior Finding on the Relation between Academic Achievement and Self-esteem -----	37
2. Number of Participants by Group and Sex -----	56
3. Academic Achievements of Students by Group and Sex -----	63
4. RSES Score of Students by Group and Sex -----	64
5. Summary of One way ANOVA concerning Academic Achievement of Institutionalized Orphans & Non-Orphans -----	65
6. Summary of One way ANOVA concerning RSES of Institutionalized Orphans & Non-Orphan -----	66
7. Summary of One way ANOVA concerning Academic Achievement of Male & Female Students -----	67
8. Summary of One way ANOVA concerning RSES of Female and Male Students -----	68
9. Correlation Coefficient for Both Sex Group -----	69
10. Relation of the Independent Variables to Dependent Variables in Male and Female Respondents -----	71
11. Partial Correlation of Variables -----	72
12. RSES Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Subjects in Sub-Categories of Independent Variables -----	73
13. One way ANOVA concerning the Institutionalized Orphans and Non-Orphans in their Self-Esteem -----	74

14. Academic Achievements Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Subjects in Sub-Categories of Independent Variables -----	75
15. One way ANOVA concerning Academic Achievement of Non-Orphans: in the Place Where they Live, and the Institutionalized Orphans -----	76
16. Intercorrelations among Variables -----	77
17. Independent Sample Test for Institutionalized Orphans and Non-Orphan Students Self-Esteem as measured by RSES -----	79
18. Independent Sample Test for Institutionalized Orphans and Non-Orphans Students Academic Achievement as Measured by CCGPA -----	80
19. Independent Sample Test for Institutionalized Orphans and Non-Orphan Female Students Self-Esteem & Academic Achievement as measured by RSES and CCGPA Respectively -----	118
20. Independent Sample Test for Institutionalized Orphans and Non-Orphan Male Students Self-Esteem & Academic Achievement as Measured by RSES and CCGPA Respectively -----	118

## LIST OF FIGURES

1. Malhi's Empowering Cycle of High Self-Esteem Model ----- 34
2. Malhi's Vicious Cycle of Low Self-Esteem Model -----35

## ACRONYMS

<b>AIDS</b>	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
<b>ANOVA</b>	Analysis of Variance
<b>CCGPA</b>	Current Cumulative Grade Point Average
<b>GPA</b>	Grade Point Average
<b>CSEI</b>	Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventories
<b>EC</b>	Ethiopian Calendar
<b>GPA</b>	Grade Point Average
<b>HDI</b>	Human Development Index
<b>HIV</b>	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
<b>IQ</b>	Intelligence Quotient
<b>NGO</b>	Non-Governmental Organization
<b>RSES</b>	Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale
<b>SD</b>	Standard Deviation
<b>SES</b>	Self-Esteem Scale
<b>TSCS</b>	Tennessee Self-Concept Scale
<b>UNICEF</b>	United Nations Children's Fund

## **ABSTRACT**

*The purpose of this study was to investigate whether there is any interrelationship between sex, self-esteem and academic achievement of institutionalized orphan and non-orphans at Selam Children Village in Addis Ababa. This study was conducted in a randomly sampled 200 non-orphan students (100 boys & 100 girls) and 83 (52 boys & 31 girls) institutionalized orphans through grades 5 to 8. The ages of the subject sample ranges between 10 to 18 years. Self-esteem was measured using School Form of Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale and academic achievement was measured through the Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA), which was computed based on participants' grade points of total subjects. Mean comparison, t-test, Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient, and one-way ANOVA were computed to assess the significance of difference between the self-esteem and academic achievement between groups, sexes, grade level and living place of the students. Results showed that academic achievement and self-esteem are significantly and positively correlated. Non-orphan students were superior to institutionalized orphans in their level of self-esteem and academic achievement. Although through all grades female students' self-esteem mean score was higher than males, there was no significant difference between the two groups.*

# CHAPTER ONE

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A country in transition for over a decade now, Ethiopia has experienced huge political, economic and social transformations. The efforts of Ethiopian society to ensure economic growth and social development have been associated with a number of unprecedented challenges, including poverty, extreme unemployment, and lack of job opportunities, as well as reduced access to the basic social services, including education and health, and massive migration flows. Disparities in economic and cultural conditions have led to the social exclusion of some population groups, depriving them of their basic rights. Children deprived of parental care are among the most deprived and least visible social groups. Providing social protection to children deprived of parental care, and ensuring their rights are challenges facing the Ethiopian Government and civil society that calls for special attention.

There have been a number of local and foreign NGO's working on street children. The traditional welfare provision for orphans outside families and the kinship system has been containment in institutions, largely financed through charitable donations. These institutions have decisive role in improving the self esteem and academic achievement of orphans who were in the street before joining the institution. Of course, the level and care provided in institutions differs from one institution to another, depending on the type of internal organization, the size of the family or other internal unit, internal equipment, the

number of qualified staff, the working hours of care givers and the type of relationship they have with the children, management style, the overall atmosphere within the institution and financial resources.

Self-esteem is a personality construct which refers to the individual's feelings about the self, and is indicative of the value placed over one's self. Self esteem is the individual's private feelings towards self that are derived from one's perceptions and appraisals of different attributes of the self. These are the general feelings of worth and competence associated with one's own self. These evaluations and feelings about the self affect the responses and shape one's behavior towards different aspects of life.

Self-esteem is a very personal experience for individual. It is an important judgment that is passed by the person himself or herself. This judgment reflects the degree of self respect and self confidence that a person can have. The person whose self esteem is high, feels worthy and important, and views himself or herself as a competent person who can live appropriately and happily in one's life. He or she feels capable, adequate and effective to deal with the demands of life and thinks himself or herself a likable person who can enjoy healthy relationships with other people. An individual of high self-esteem shows more resilience in times of despair or failure. On the contrary, the person whose self-esteem is low, feels less regard for self, lacks confidence and decisiveness. The person with low self-esteem is vulnerable to feel shattered and may become easily frustrated in difficult life situations. He or she tends to lose courage while facing the adversities of life.

Self-esteem has long been considered an essential component of good mental health. It is widely used concept both in popular language and in psychology. It refers to an individual's sense of his or her value or worth, or likes him or herself (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). Self esteem is a set of attitudes and beliefs that a person brings with him or herself when facing the world. Self-esteem can be an important contributor to academic success, productive behavior, and mental and physical health in children (Leary, Schreindorfer, & Haupt, 1995). Research has shown that students often experience a decrease in self-esteem when they move from elementary to middle school (Wigfield & Eccles, 1994).

Low self-esteem contributes to higher suicide rates, depression, teen pregnancy and other health related problems especially during critical adolescent years. Teenagers face so many mental, social and emotional issues in society today; and counselor have the opportunity to help them cope with their changing life. Teenagers need to feel good about themselves; this will contribute toward the confidence to help live a healthy and safe life. Without a strong self-esteem, teenagers may head down the wrong path in life (Coopersmith, 1967 cited in Scott, 2004).

The numerous researches on self-esteem indicated that the construct self esteem is central to personality psychology (Wylie, 1979). Psychologists have since long been interested in understanding and formulating a theory of self. A large number of self referent constructs e.g. self-acceptance and self-regard (Rogers, 1995), self-concept (Wylie, 1979) and self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1967 & Rosenberg 1979) cited in (Harris, 2009) were introduced

to theorize about self. Of these, the most important and quite frequently used constructs are self-concept and self-esteem. Self-concept, broadly defined, is a person's perceptions of him or her self (Rogers, 1959), whereas self-esteem is his or her evaluation of these perceived characteristics of self (Campbell, 1990). Self-esteem is considered a single most key factor in understanding human behavior. It is important aspect of individual's overall psychological functioning that affects his attitude toward others and life (Branden, 1987).

The present research conceptualized the construct of self-esteem as suggested by the definitions of (Rosenberg, 1965, Coopersmith, 1967 and Burns, 1979) cited in Rifai (1999). (Rosenberg, 1965) defines self-esteem as "a positive or negative attitude towards a particular object, namely, the Self" (p. 30). By self-esteem, Coopersmith (1967) refers to

the evaluation that the individual makes and customarily maintains with regards to himself; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitude the individual holds toward himself (p.4).

According to (Burns, 1979), self-esteem in terms of self-evaluation refers to the making of a conscious judgment regarding the significance, and importance of on self or of facets of oneself.

Self-esteem has become a house hold word in developed countries. Teachers, parents, counselors, and others have focused efforts on boosting self esteem, on the assumption that high self esteem will cause many positive out come and benefits. This research tries to compare the academic achievement and self-esteem of institutionalized orphans and non orphans and indicate the gaps that will be found in either of the two sides so that to help parents, teachers, counselors, managers in the institution and other concerned body to be aware of the orphans and non orphans' problem and solve immediately.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Although institutions are considered to be the last resort for the care of parentless children, they have a role to play in short term, emergency placements for sibling groups and for children who may be too traumatized to be able to fit easily into substitute family. First and for most regarding orphans homes; there is no empirical research to bolster the popular negative conception of orphan homes. The last large scale survey of orphan homes were conducted about 1929 and no study of such magnitude has been published since. In addition, "No controlled studies exist comparing the effectiveness of orphanages with that of foster care," (Lachman, 2004) just as there is almost no research that individualizes children in long-term total care institutions and compares them with those in their own families.

In the other hand it is believed that concern with the impact of institutional care on children began in the early part of the past century (Zmora, 1994), but the issue was not seriously and extensively investigated until World War II, when many English children

were separated from their parents and sent to “residential nurseries” in rural areas away from the bombings in the cities. (Freud Et al., 1973) determined that despite relatively good living conditions, the separated children suffered from feelings of not being wanted and from being deprived of maternal affection. (Spitz, 1945) cited in (Freud, Solonit & Goldstein, 1973) agree with Freud that children institutionalized in foundling homes for periods extending beyond six weeks were bound to develop a syndrome of emotional and psychological disorders, which he tagged “hospitalism.” Similarly (Goldfarb, 1947) cited in (Freud, Solonit & Goldstein, 1973) states; privation effects are permanent in institution children and their studies and clinical experience showed that maladjustment was by far the outstanding trend in institution children after they had left the infant’s home and were in foster homes.

The goal of UNICEF (1994) operations stated as:

UNICEF believes that whenever possible, children who are orphaned should remain in their communities to be raised by their extended families. Recognizing that family care is far better for children and for families also develop better social skill and are psychologically better adjusted than those who grow in institutions because they receive more affection and attention and develop a better sense of personal identity (p. 2).

In contrary to the above operational goal (Bledsoe, 1989) cited in (Sengendo and Nambi, 1997) stated that adopted or fostered children often receive worse treatment than the biological children in the same family. Similarly those children who are living with

extended families such as grand parents were found to be less able to provide discipline and adequate socialization and even to address the basic needs for food, clothing, shelter and health care (Hunter, 1990) cited in (Sengendo and Nambi, 1997). In addition to these (Sebina and Sengedo, 1987) found that the education nutrition and health status of children adopted into impoverished families suffered from lack of resources necessary for their basic needs.

The transition from elementary school to junior high school occurs at a time that is quite confusing for a child. Many changes aside from school are taking place at this age. Children are experiencing social, psychological, and physical changes while this transition is occurring, along with higher demands in nearly every situation they encounter. Some of the changes the child will encounter include having seven different teachers instead of that one, comforting face; instead of one continuous day, there will now be six or seven different periods, about forty minutes in length; the students will have numerous homework assignments to keep track of every night; and there will be new subjects as well as new classmates to get to know (Harter, 1985).

Different theorists have proposed that these changes can have significant impacts on students' self-esteem and self-concepts. These terms, self-esteem and self-concept, refer to how a person views himself or herself. A child's self-esteem has to do with his or her feelings of worth. It looks at how much the child senses his or her attributes and actions as being good, desired, and valued. The child's self-concept is the perceptions, conceptions, and values that the child holds about himself or herself (Mitchell,

McCauley, Burke, & Moss, 1988). Self-esteem and self-concept are two factors that greatly underlie a person's attributional style.

Studies have found that one third to one half of adolescents struggle with low self esteem, especially in early adolescence (Harter, 1985). The result of low self esteem can be temporary, but in serious cases can lead to various problems including depression, anorexia nervosa, delinquency, self-inflated injuries and even suicide. Self esteem is related to school performance and delinquency. Students with low self esteem are more likely to do poorly in school, to become pregnant, or to impregnate a partner.

Several theorists have specifically identified academic performance as an important determinant of global self esteem. (Harter, 1985) identified self perceived competence in school as one of the five dimensions that individuals use to evaluate themselves. (Erickson, 1968) specifically identified academic achievement as a vital component in forming a healthy self image.

Even though self- esteem has been studied for more than 100 years, specialists and educators continue to debate its precise nature and development. But they generally agree that parents and other adults who are important to children play a major role in laying a solid foundation for a child's development.

In the Ethiopian context the issue has been ignored and received little or no research attention is given when it is compared with the developed country. This study, therefore, focuses on this unexplored research area which has implications to parents, caregivers, counselors, orphans, non orphans and other concerned body.

### **1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

This is a study of the interrelationship of sex, academic achievement and self-esteem of institutionalized orphans and non orphans in the case of Selam Children Village. The study examines: (1) to investigate whether there is any difference in the level of self-esteem and academic achievement of institutionalized orphans and non orphans. (2) To assess the relationship between self-esteem and their (a) academic achievement and (b) place of living; (3) to examine how these relationships vary with sex and age of the students.

### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

1. Is there any significant difference between institutionalized orphans and non orphans in their level of self-esteem and academic achievement?
2. Is there any difference between institutionalized orphan girls and non-orphan girls in their level of self-esteem and academic achievement?
3. Does difference exist between non-orphan boys and girls in their level of self-esteem and academic achievement?
4. Does difference exist between institutionalized orphan boys and non-orphan boys in their level of self-esteem and academic achievement?
5. Is there difference between institutionalized orphan boys and girls in their level of self-esteem and academic achievement?
6. Are there distinct relationships between the academic achievement and self-esteem of institutionalized orphans and non-orphans?

## 1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

High self-esteem usually is beneficial, low self-esteem uniformly has negative effects. For example, low self-esteem can weaken the body's immune system, while high self-esteem helps ward off infections and illness (Strauman, Lemiux, and Coe, 1993); cited in (Baron and Byrne, 2004). There is evidence that serotonin levels in the blood are associated with self-esteem – lower esteem and lower serotonin levels are associated with impulsivity and aggressiveness (Wright, 1995); cited in (Baron and Byrne, 2004). This shows that keeping self-esteem alive is necessary to every human being and it needed to be the daily food of emotional health.

Similarly (Brockner & Hulton, 1978; Green Wald & Pratkanis 1984); cited in Sebina & Sengado (1987) stated that high self esteem is a felling of self worth – pays dividends. People who feel good about themselves tend to have fewer ulcers and less insomnia, are less likely to become drug addicted, are more independent of pressures to conform, and are more persistent at difficult tasks. Inversely, Low self esteem exerts great costs. People who feel they are falling short of their hoped for ideal are vulnerable to depression and those whose self-image falls short of what they think they ought to be are more vulnerable to anxiety (Wiggins, 1987) psychotherapy researcher (Strupp, 1982), reflected that

As soon as one listens to a patient's story, one encounters unhappiness, frustration, and despair which find expression in diverse forms of psychopathology including psychosomatic symptoms, neurotic symptoms,

and maladaptive characters styles..... Basic to all these difficulties are impairments in self-acceptance and self-esteem (p. 64-65).

Continuing rise in the number of orphans throughout the world presents a terrifying challenge to all child centered and humanitarian organizations. In year 2000 it was predicted that by the year 2010 there would be 44 million orphans with 68% of them or 30 million AIDS- related (Porter, 2000).

In contrary to this there are a limited number of studies and evaluations on the existing institutional care services concerning the self-esteem and academic achievement of children deprived of parental care in comparison with those children who live with in their families. These point to certain systematic inadequacies, particularly with respect to the quality of care and social reintegration, but there are significant gaps in the understanding of the extent of social care services available, the nature of care that is provided, and the welfare of the children in care.

As already mentioned, studying the academic achievement and self-esteem of institutionalized orphans and non-orphans is significant to counselors, parents, teachers, orphans, non orphans and other concerned bodies to take immediate measure for the problem that exist in the country. More over, the study is expected to have practical implications by identifying the relation between self-esteem and academic achievement. Further more, the findings of the study will be expected to have meaningful implications for further research in this area of inquiry.

Students' self-concepts were examined in a study conducted by (Eccles and Lord, 1994). They found that students' positive self-concept, both in academic and social areas, proved to be important in creating a positive adjustment throughout the transition from elementary school to junior high school. On the opposite end of the spectrum, they found that a negative self-concept in these same areas was detrimental to the adjustment. These findings highlight the crucial point that self-concept may play an extremely significant role in whether or not the child's transition from elementary school to junior high school has a positive or negative effect on that child's attributional styles. Further research is needed in order to examine this point.

The stress encountered by a child during this transition has also been examined. (Fenzel, 2000) proposed an integrative model of the process of stress in early adolescence during the transition period from elementary school to junior high school. This prospective study found that student role strain (both peer and school work), led to negative changes in feelings of self-worth, both socially and academically related. It also found that this role strain leads to negative changes in social support from friends, families, and teachers.

This study provides insight into self-esteem issues among children in the transition from elementary school to junior high school. Self-esteem is an important factor in creating a positive attributional style. It is a confidence and satisfaction within oneself, a factor that goes hand in hand with how a person may attribute his or her successes and failures.

The stress encountered by a child in this transition can lead to significant differences in academic achievement, as was found in some research performed by (Alspaugh, 1998). He discovered that there was a statistically significant achievement loss associated with the transition from elementary school to junior high school at sixth grade. This loss may be associated with a number of factors. For example, junior high school tends to focus more on performance. Furthermore, there is less of a bond formed between the teacher and the student in junior high school because the student is changing classes throughout the day. In elementary school, on the other hand, the child never switches classes, and as a result, most likely formed a closer bond with his or her teacher. Another finding in this study is that there is a decline in student self-perception and self-esteem associated with the transition from elementary school to junior high school (Alspaugh, 1998).

## **1.6 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

This study is limited to the interrelationship of sex, self-esteem and academic achievement of institutionalized orphan and non-orphan students of Selam Children Village Students in Addis Ababa.

## 1.7 DEFINITIONS

**Academic Achievement** – the level of academic performance, as indicated by GPA

**CCGPA**- the sum of respondents' current first semester (2002 E.C) point divided by total subject they are taking

**CGPA**- the sum of respondents' grade point divided by total subject

**Institutionalized Orphans** – children who are living in Selam Children Village

**Non-Orphans** – children who are living with their family or guardian and learn with the orphans in Selam Children Village School

**Self-Esteem** – positive or negative orientation toward oneself when measured with Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale School Form.

## 1.8 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The present study is organized in six chapters. Chapter one introduced the topic of the study, statement of the problem, the research questions and the significance of the study. The second chapter reviews the literature relevant to the study. Chapter three describes the methodology of the study, including the sampling techniques and the procedures surrounding the use of instruments. The fourth chapter describes the results of the study, and the fifth chapter discusses those results; and the final chapter summarizes & deals with their implications for future practice, research, and policy.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2.1 THEORIES OF SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem is a more complex term to define than it initially appears. The research on self-esteem prompts many more questions and opposing views on what defines self-esteem, how it develops, how it functions and what actually causes low self-esteem. There are several different theories of self-esteem that must be explored to obtain a better understanding of the subject.

Different psychological theories have various views of self-esteem. Abraham Maslow's theory of human motivation was based upon a hierarchy of human needs. One level in this hierarchy is esteem needs. Maslow believed that all people have a desire or need for a stable, firmly based, and usually high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, or self-esteem, and for the esteem for others (Blake, 1995) cited in (Lemley, 2004). Maslow elaborated that these needs are separated into two subcategories; the first is having a need for strength, achievement, adequacy, mastery, competence, independence and freedom. The second category for esteem needs is the need or desire for reputation, prestige, status, fame, glory, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, dignity, or appreciation (Blacke, 1995) cited in (Lemley, 2004). Maslow believed that satisfying these needs for self-esteem would lead to self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and overall usefulness to the world. Failure to satisfy these needs would lead to feelings of inferiority, weakness, and helplessness (Blake, 1995) cited in (Lemley, 2004).

Maslow originally conceptualized self-esteem in humans as a feeling of dominance, closely related to his observations of self-confidence in dominant monkeys (1937), as cited in (Cullen, 1997). A few years later (1940), Maslow developed a test of dominance feeling (self-esteem), which seemed to correlate well with sex drive in women. This established an anchor connecting dominance to self-esteem, as dominant monkeys also tend to have active sex lives.

Another important figure in the development of self-esteem theories was Carl Rogers. Rogers theorized that a client can be in a state of incongruence. Incongruence refers to a discrepancy between the actual experience of the organism and the self picture of the individual insofar as it represents that experience (Blake, 1995); cited in (Lemley, 2004). According to Rogers's theory, having low self-esteem would be from a person having incongruence between actual experiences and his perception of himself through these experiences. This indicates that when a person has low self-esteem, they would perceive experiences in a negative manner towards themselves, whether the experience was negative or positive.

Alfred Adler was an individual psychologist who believed that the personality develops out of a social content. He hypothesized that this social context provides a feeling of group unity or membership that causes individuals to assess themselves relative to others (Blake, 1995; cited in (Lemley, 2004). Accordingly, self-esteem would be primarily based upon social influences.

Steffenhagen and (Burns, 1987) Adler's model of individual psychology could be seen as a self-esteem model of behavior. Steffenhagen and Burns commented that Adler argued that self-esteem is the basic motivating force of behavior. Adler's theory contends that individuals are goal striving and develop skills and abilities to reach these goals in order to function in their primary group.

(Rosenberg, 1986a) cited in (Scott, 2004) views the development of the self-esteem from a cognitive developmental approach. Without certain cognitive capacities the individual cannot conceptualize themselves in certain self-esteem terms. High self-esteem involves feelings of self acceptance and self-respect, not feelings of superiority over others. Low self-esteem involves feelings of unworthiness, inadequacy, and lack of respect for themselves.

(Kaplan, 1986) views self-esteem as both a social product and social force. As a social product, the individual functions in a social system and experiences the influences of others in their group. As a social force, the individual behaves in a manner that requires appropriate responses from others in the social group. Their social group not only impacts the individual, but they impact their social group in an interdependent way.

Defining terms such as self-concept and self-esteem continues to be one of the challenges of professionals researching self-esteem. (Rosenberg, 1986a) cited in (Scott, 2004, p. 23) defined the term self-esteem as "the totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings having reference to himself as an object" (p. 7). (Kaplan, 1986) contends

that literature dealing with the self refer actually to self-referent behaviors and not some stable psychological structure. (Meggert, 2000) contends that terms such as self-esteem, self-concept, and self-acceptance are sometimes used interchangeably.

(James, 1983) in his principles of psychology defined self-esteem as being the sum of individual's successes divided by think they thought to achieve. Self-esteem can be increased by achieving great successes and maintained by avoiding failures. Raised self-esteem could, he argued, also be achieved and maintained by adopting less ambitious goals. Self esteem therefore defined as being competence-oriented but also open to change.

(Alexander, 2001) the founder of the Self-Esteem Network, in Britain, views self-esteem as a syndrome, as a set of indicators for mental well being. The core of self-esteem is an "unconditional appreciation of oneself" meaning an appreciation of both an individual's positive & negative potential in its fullest sense. Alexandria also distinguishes between 'trait' self-esteem which reflect confidence or ability in a particular area, such as work or port, and 'global' self-esteem which is intrinsic worthiness regardless of what particular abilities or qualities an individual may possess.

However; the most broad and frequently cited definition of self-esteem within psychology is Rosenberg's (1965), who describe it as a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward the self. Self-esteem is generally considered the evaluative component of the self-concept, a broader presentation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioral aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). Wilson suggests

that basic self-esteem develops during childhood to the age of about 12 years (Foddis, 1999). Braden was the first theories to combine the dimensions of self-competence (or self-efficacy) and self worth (or self-respect) to define the construct of self-esteem (Mruk, 1995). (Braden, 1995) defines self esteem as “the disposition to experience oneself as competent to cope with the challenges of life and as worthy of happiness” (P. 27).

Benar & Peterson’s (1995), cited in (Foddis, 1999) definition differs from Branden’s in that it excludes self-in that it excludes self-efficiency from self-esteem experience. Nevertheless, they still consider self efficacy as a necessary precondition to self-esteem. They define self-esteem as “a subjective and enduring sense of realistic self-approval” Bendar & Peterson, (1995, P.4) cited in (Foddis, 1999). Thus, their definition focuses on the approval or worthiness component of self-esteem. Despite these differences in definition, these theorists agree on the constituents of self-esteem.

Both Branden’s (1995) six practices model of self-esteem and Bednar & Peterson’s (1995) coping response style model share the premise that stable, healthy self-esteem needs to be primarily based on internal, self-directed cognitive process. Moreover, both models strongly suggest that external appraisal should not determine an adult’s self-esteem. Appraisals may be supportive of our self-esteem, i.e., respectful and dignified feed back is complimentary or critical. An appraisal can also be an assault on our self-esteem; that is, it can be disrespectful and denigrating feed back. In either case, a person can’t directly control these appraisals. Autonomy requires that a person’s internal,

mediating self-evaluation be the ultimate source of self-esteem. Thus, a person whose self-esteem is based on external approval is externally dependent, rather than autonomous.

The literature on self-esteem promotes the outlook of self-esteem as a construct that explains a person's ability to adapt to the environment. The inner balance and stability which each person achieves is directly related to their emotions, social relationships, and behaviors (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991; Braden, 1969; Brockner & Wallnou, 1981; Coopersmith, 1967, 1981; Rosenberg, 1979) cited in (Harris, 2009).

(Coopersmith, 1967) cited in (Harris, 2009) in his study suggested four major factors which are important in the development of self-esteem: The treatment and acceptance received from significant others in life, a person's past successes, the values and aspirations which modify and interpret a person's experiences and how a person responds to devaluation.

Self-esteem is described by Coppersmith as a process of integration, where the individual become a member of the group and internalizes ideas and attitudes as a mirror image, via key figures and by observing action and attitudes. Self-esteem is a form of self protection since presence of anxiety can minimize our self-esteem, defense allows the maintenance of an idealized image. The events and the people which surround the individual have a direct relationship with the development of self-esteem (Diaz, 1984).

(Alpay, 2000) constructed self-esteem from three stages of development. In early childhood, the child focuses on specific characteristics and behaviors. His/her self-esteem may reflect the parents' perception of that individual at this time. In middle childhood, the second stage, self-image acknowledges emotions, relationships, and other traits. It is at this stage that issues may arise of self-esteem. Avoidance, compensation, low motivation, and resistance are all behaviors of self-esteem issues. During the last stage, which is adolescence, image of self become more stable, but "depression, moodiness, and sensitivity" may emerge.

## **2.2 GLOBAL AND SPECIFIC SELF-ESTEEM**

Also contributing to the conflicting reports is the use of the same or similar research instruments to measure these constructs. Studies reveal that self-esteem is not a unitary construct, but that it consists of a number of distinguishable components such as academic self-esteem in specific subject domains, physical self-esteem, and social self-esteem. Therefore, when some researchers use academic self-esteem while others use global self-esteem, to measure a specific construct such as academic self-esteem without consideration of the differences in the components of self-esteem, differences in results will exist. (Harter, 1985) global self-esteem as the level of global regards that one has for the self as a person. In his research, Harter suggests that self-esteem can be understood in terms of separate domains, and that competence in domains considered important to the individual is the basis for global self-esteem. (Scholler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995) cited in (Harris, 2009) suggest that global and specific self-esteem is both important, but they are important for different reasons and are relevant in different ways. Specific self-

esteem is most relevant to an individual's behavior, while global self-esteem is most relevant to an individual's psychological well being Rosenberg et al. (1995).

Self-concept can be viewed as an "umbrella" term which encompasses three components: the self-image, the ideal-self, and the self-esteem of an individual (Reasoner, 2005). Reasoner believed that self-concept is the sum total of a person's perceived and desired mental and physical characteristics, as well as the person's perceived worthiness. Self-esteem is an evaluative component of self-concept, which has been described as the core of an individual's self-concept (Fontana, 1995). From the research perspective, self-esteem is concerned with the value the individual places upon him/herself which involves a feeling of adequacy and inadequacy, an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy (Coopersmith, 1967) cited in (Harris, 2009).

According to James (1983), a person's overall self-evaluation is derived from specific self-evaluations which are integrated according to their relative importance and relation to one's self-ideals and aspirations. (Coopersmith, 1967) cited in (Harris, 2009) stated, success or failure in any particular domain will affect an individual's self-esteem only to the extent that particular domain is considered relevant or important. More recently, however, self-concept theory has stressed that global and specific self-esteem are neither equivalent nor interchangeable, and that one cannot be automatically deduced from the other Rosenberg et al. (1995).

While global self-esteem, for instance, appears to be heavily affective and associated with overall psychological well-being, specific self-esteem, on the contrary, appears to have a more cognitive component and is more strongly associated with behavioral outcome Rosenberg et al. (1995). Marsh (1990) expresses that more recently, self-esteem theory has stressed the multi-dimensionality of self-esteem, and empirical studies have identified distinct, priority facets of self-concept. Looking at the large body of research on self-esteem it is evident that most of the literature deals with global self-esteem, the individual's total thoughts and feelings, positive or negative attitudes towards the self. Similarly, a number of writers have stressed the importance of studying specific self-esteem. Self-esteem is an attitude and the study of any attitude must take into account the fact that people have attitudes towards an object as a whole (global self-esteem) and towards specific facets of that object (specific self-esteem) Marsh (1986).

### **2.3 SELF-ESTEEM, SEX AND AGE**

Cross-culturally and cross-nationally in the U.S., researchers AAUW (1991); Rumbaut, (1994); Scott and Scott (1998) cited in Flynn (2003) find that girls have lower self-esteem than boys. In these studies, an interesting biologically-based explanation for the plummet of girls' self-esteem during adolescence is the onset of puberty. Findings indicate that puberty, at any age, generally has a positive socio-emotional and peer relational effect for boys Broods-Gunn & Reither (1990) cited in Flynn (2003); Puberty is viewed as a rite of passage and a time where a boy becomes a man. Weight gains are often associated with muscle gain, seen as a positive male identity marker.

Thompson (1943) cited in Flynn (2003) has mentioned that in the industrialized societies, the devaluation of the women's unique biological contribution- the bearing of the children and the women's social and economic dependency result in less empowered status of women in social order and this position consequently causes a woman to feel less worthy and competent. Smith (1975) cited in Flynn (2003) assessed self-concept of 171 upper primary children and found that sex differences occurred in most aspects of the self-concept. Boys consistently rated themselves more favorably than girls on seven out of nine subscales (physical ability, appearance, convergent mentally ability, divergent mental ability, social relations, social virtues, school performance). On the remaining two scales (work habits and happy qualities) the boys were slightly but not significantly ahead. These findings indicate that as early as middle childhood girls were beginning to evaluate themselves less favorably than boys.

Piers and Harris (1964) found no consistent significant differences in samples of third graders (56 girls, 63 boys) sixth graders (56 girls, 71 boys) and tenth graders (53 girls, 64 boys). Similarly, several other studies that used Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory to measure the self-esteem of boys and girls revealed no significant difference of self-esteem among the two groups Primavera, Simon & Primavera (1974); Reschley & Mittman (1973); Simon & Bernstein (1971) cited in Rifai (1999). Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was used to assess the self-concept of girls and boys in the study conducted by Healey & Blassie (1974) cited in Rifai (1999) and the findings revealed no significant sex differences on the variable of self-concept. Hulbary (1975) cited in Rifai

(1999) found small and statistically nonsignificant difference between girls and boys' self-esteem as measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale.

Gender is culturally and socially constructed. Socialization is the lifelong process by which a society's constructed values and norms, including those pertaining to gender are taught and learned Renzetti & Curran (1999). Gender schema theory Bem (1981) argues that as children learn appropriate cultural definitions of gender, this becomes the key structure around which all other information is organized. Therefore, much of the socialization process for children involves learning how to act like a "boy" and learning how to act like a "girl," and in what ways these genders differ. Gender polarization is exaggerated through stereotyping and reinforced by the media, clothing, books, toys and games. American stereotypes of masculinity include independence, strength, and dominance. American stereotypes of femininity include interdependence, sensitivity, passivity, and emotionality Flynn (2003).

Previous research Carpenter & Johnson (2001); Knox (1998); and Smith (1999) cited in Flynn (2003) using the collective self-esteem scale or the possible selves questionnaires, instead of a global self-esteem scale, indicates that girls, indeed, do identify more strongly with a collective notion of self than do boys. They assert that self-esteem is multidimensional for girls: they report more contradictory or opposing self-attributes Knox (1998). Furthermore, women's self-esteem is more strongly related to social acceptance and inclusion than to accomplishments Carpenter & Johnson (2001). In other

words, it should be considered that female self-esteem can be more dependent on a collective rather than individual orientation.

It is evident that boys and girls choose different referent others and use different goals and standards to judge themselves by. Reasoners (2005) throughout elementary school girls judge their athletic abilities to be inferior to boys. Beginnings in fourth grade girls have significantly worse images of their bodies and overall physical appearance. However, girls rate themselves as higher than boys in academic self-concept, personal character, and being more responsible. Boys who tend to be observers calm, socially at ease, and satisfied with themselves at age fourteen experience continued growth in self-esteem.

Boys and girls, men and women have very different values by which they judge themselves. Reasoner (2005) for women, one's family, peer support, reflected appraisals and family relationships are important determiners of self-esteem. Parental support and family connectedness are especially important for girls. Feelings of mastery, self-actualization and academic performance are more important for males. Similar differences between boys and girls are also found in other countries.

Research on age and self-esteem has mostly focused on children's transition into adolescence. The focus on this age is not surprising considering the transition into adolescence has long been considered an important one. Erik Erickson's stages of psychological development describe the adolescent years as a time of either establishing identity or experiencing role or identify confusion. It would logically follow that this new formation of identity, or lack thereof, would play a significant role in terms of developing

in academic success. Emler (2001) surmised from his study that genes are more important than parenting and environment, and that low self esteem is not a risk factor for poor academic performance. He found that people with high self-esteem may have an unrealistic sense of themselves; they expect to do well at things, discount failure and feel beyond reproach.

Several theorists have specifically identified academic performance as an important determinant of global self-esteem. Harter (1985) identified self-perceived competence in scholastics as one of the five major dimensions that individuals use to evaluate themselves. Erickson (1968) specifically identified academic achievement as a vital component in forming a healthy self-image. Academic self-esteem is operationally defined as the evaluative appraisal of the experience of being capable of meeting academic challenges and being worthy of happiness. Academic self-concept or academic self-esteem can be broadly considered to be how a student views his or her academic ability when compared with other students Cokley (2000) cited in Emler (2001). However, other evidence indicates that members of stigmatized or disadvantaged groups also protect their self-esteem by selectively devaluing those domains in which the out-group is advantaged and selectively valuing those domains in which their in-group has advantages Major, Sciacchitan, & Crocker (1983).

The relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement has been well documented in the literature. Different studies have reached the conclusion that academic achievement and self-esteem are positively correlated Schmidt & Padilla (2003). For

example, West, Fish and Stevens (1980) cited a correlation ranging from 0.18 to 0.50 between general self-esteem and academic achievement. Another study, conducted by Carr, Borkowski, and Maxwell (1991) found self-esteem to be a significant predictor of reading awareness. Purky (1970) found that self-esteem is related to some components of success, either academic or verbal. He concluded that there is continuous interaction between self-esteem and academic achievement. Reynolds (1988) found that academic self-concept is related in a positive and significant manner to grade point average in college students. Covington (1989) reports that as level of self-esteem increases, so does the level of academic achievement scores but as the level of self-esteem decreases, achievement declines. He concluded that self-esteem can be modified through direct instruments which can lead to achievement gains.

Reasoner (2005) explained that there is a general agreement among researchers that there is a close relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement but that there are considerable disagreements among them as to the nature of the relationship. Some researchers argue that students who perform higher in school do so to possess positive self-esteem, while others argue that positive self-esteem is a necessary pre-requisite for academic achievement.

Hamachek (1995) found that there is a relationship between self-concept and academic ability. He argues that this relationship is very interactive, with each variable affecting the other. He concludes that it is vital for educators to be sensitive to student's self-concept and student's perceived academic ability. He indicated that there could be a

positive affect on one variable with a positive affect on the other variable. In other words, if self-esteem were lowered, one would see a drop in academic achievement, and if academic achievement were lowered, one would see a drop in self-esteem.

Wiggins (1987) found that self-esteem and academic achievement were positively correlated. They found that students who gained fifteen or more points on a self-esteem inventory during the first year of the study raised their grade point averages substantially the second year. This supports the theory that gains in self-esteem and gains in academic achievement are positively correlated.

Kifer (1973) found similar result that successful academic achievement interacted with self-esteem, achievement responsibility, and self-concept as a learner increasing over time. He found that unsuccessful academic achievement interacted with self-esteem, achievement responsibility, and self concept as a learner decreasing over time. As time went by, a gap between successful achievement/high view of self and unsuccessful achievement/low view of self was created. Students who had high academic achievement also had a high self-esteem, self-concept, and academic responsibility over time; students who had low academic responsibility over time. This finding supports the theory that consistent success or failure has an effect on self-esteem and self concept as a learner.

While most research supports the theory of an interaction between academic achievement and self-esteem, there are a few researchers who disagree. Holly (1987) cited in Yogev & Ilan (1987) disagrees with the idea that self-esteem has a direct impact on academic

achievement, but points out that it may have an effect in three ways. First, feeling worthless can lead to depression, and depression can inhibit performance. If a student does not feel worthwhile, they will not feel like doing their best. Second, fear of failure can lead students to hold back, whereas those with greater self-esteem and self-confidence may be more willing to take up the challenge. The risk-takers are more likely to score better because they are more likely to guess at questions for which they do not know the answers. Finally, constant failure and the accompanying feelings of incompetence tend to be discouraging and demoralizing. For students who are convinced that they lack the ability to succeed, it does not make much sense to even try.

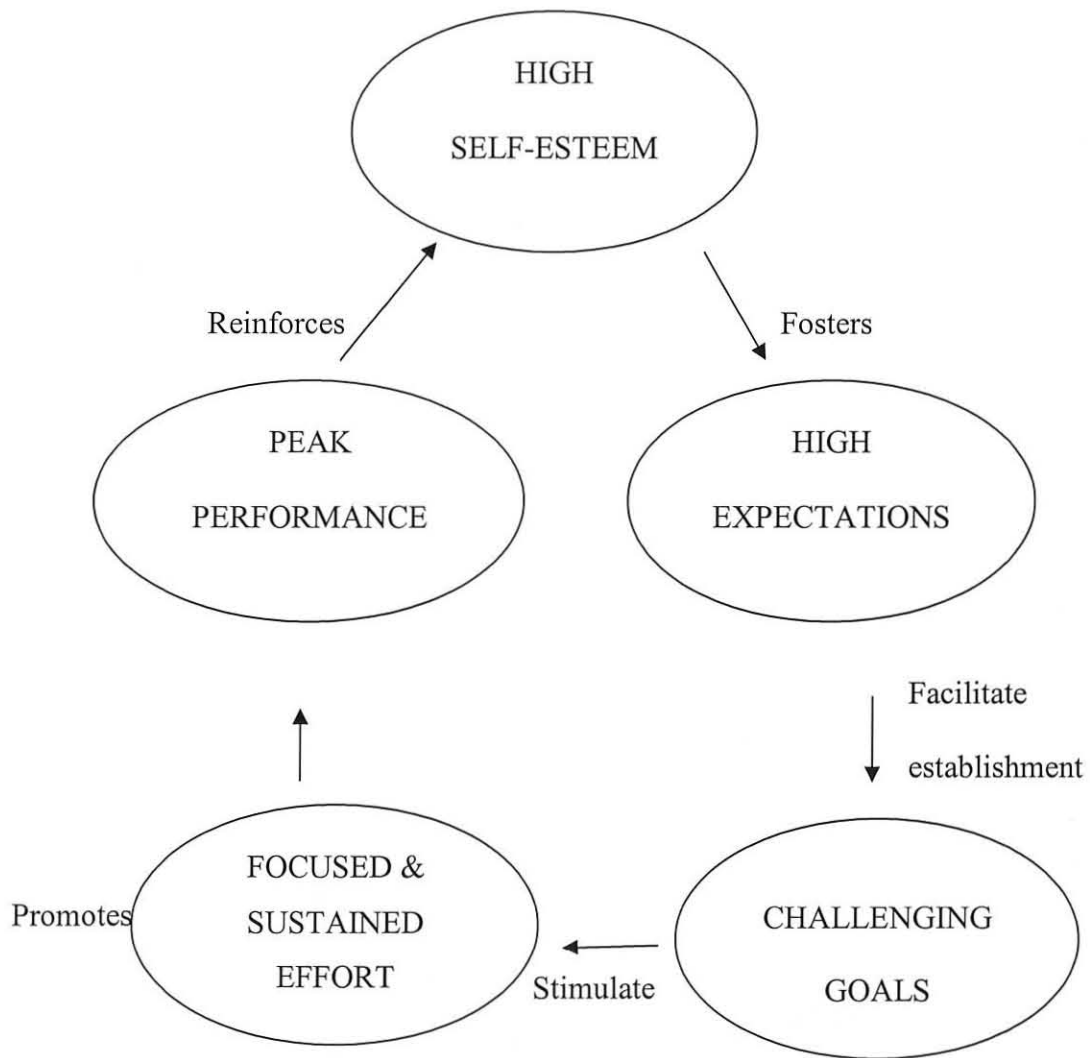
There have also been conflicting reports ranging from null to positive and negative relationships between self-esteem and academic achievement that have been documented in the literature. Van Tuinen and Ramanaiah (1979) researched the prediction of academic performance of specific and global self-esteem in undergraduate female students. They reported that specific self-esteem was a significant predictor of actual performance on concept attainment tasks, whereas global self-esteem was not an adequate predictor. Yogev & Ilan (1987) produced a conflicting report that self-esteem was generally not related to educational aspirations, but the relationship was important to some student's feelings of competence. The differences in the reports can be attributed to differences in the conceptions and definitions of: general and specific self-concept, self-concept and self-esteem, and global and specific self-esteem; and the consequential interchangeable use of these constructs as one unitary construct by researchers.

Research also suggests a reciprocal process whereby academic accomplishments foster self-esteem, and high self-esteem, in turn, facilitates academic achievement Purkey (1970). Numerous studies exist that support the relationship between high self-esteem and academic achievement in school aged children, but the question still exists whether academic achievement has the same significance to college students as it does for younger students. If it does, then individuals would be expected to evaluate themselves and others on the basis of academic achievement and an association between academic achievement and self-esteem would also be expected. A history of success in an educational setting was found by Rosenberg (1965).

The most definitive compilation was Hansford & Hattie's (1982) Meta analysis of 128 studies involving more than 200,000 participants. These studies explored a variety of measures of self-regard (mostly self-esteem) and a variety of objective performance measures, most of which were achievement tests. The correlations reported varied widely, from  $-.77$  to  $+.96$ , and average between  $+.21$  and  $+2.6$  (depending on how the average was compared, how studies were weighted, etc). Hansford & Hattie concluded that overall there is a significant positive relationship between self-esteem and academic performance, with self-esteem accounting for between 4 and 7% of the variance in academic performance.

The reciprocal relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement is best exemplified in the Empowering Cycle of High Self-Esteem and the Vicious Cycle of Low Self Esteem which Ranjit Singh Malhi has recently developed based on literature

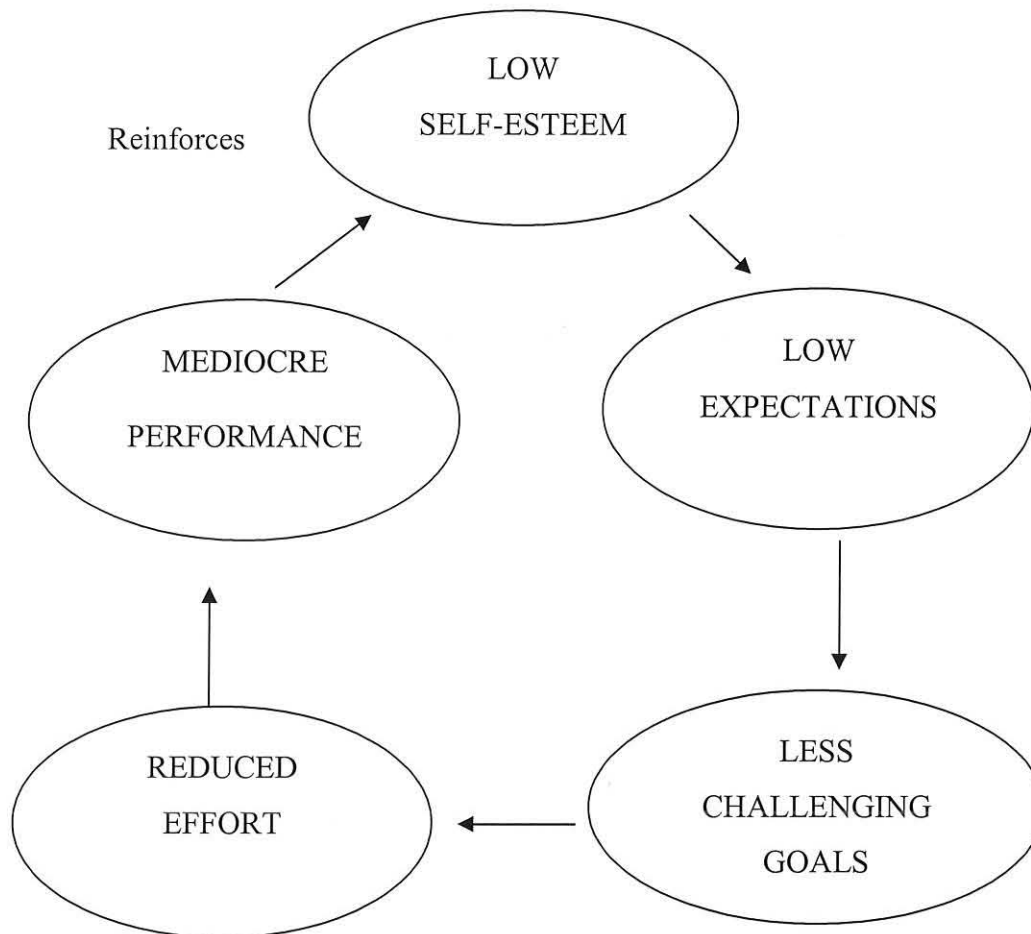
research. As shown in Figure 1 below, high self-esteem fosters high expectations. Research shows that individuals with high self-esteem are more confident than those with low self-esteem that their efforts will lead to success Baumgardner (1990); McFarlin & Blascovich (1981) cited in Malhi (2007). Research also generally shows that feelings of self-competence are conducive to higher levels of intrinsic motivation Bandura & Cervone (1983); Deci & Ryan (1985); Harackiewicz & Larson (1986); Harter & Jackson (1992); Vallerand (1983) cited in Malhi (2007). In short students with high self-esteem tend to be more ambitious than those with low self-esteem.



**Figure 1: Malhi's Empowering Cycle of High Self-Esteem Model**

According to Malhi (2007) as shown in Figure 2 below, low self-esteem generally results in low expectations. Research shows that, relative to high self-esteem people, low self-esteem people set lower expectations for their performance in a variety of situations Coopersmith (1967); Kiesier & Baral (1970) cited in Malhi (2007). People with low self-esteem generally underestimate their capabilities primarily because they lack a realistic knowledge of their own abilities, they lack self-confidence or because they are threatened

by failure. Low expectations naturally result in the establishment of less challenging or mediocre goals. Research shows that lower the children's self-esteem, the lower their preference for challenge Waschull & Kemis (1996) cited in Malhi (2007).



**Figure 2: Malhi's Vicious Cycle of Low Self-Esteem Model**

Studies examining self-esteem's impact on African American student academic achievement have presented conflicting results. It has been proven that there is a visible gap in African American and White student academic performance and some researchers

have proposed that a failure to achieve academically may be a function of negative self-concept Mayo-Booker (1996) cited in Malhi (2007). Berry (1974) found that students attending a special school for dropouts had lower self esteem than a comparable group of non-dropouts attending a regular high school. However, there are studies that have found little to no relationship between self-esteem and academic success in African American students Van Laar (2000). Many social scientists have assumed that the lower academic performance experienced by African Americans students would be reflected in a more negative self-evaluation in these students, but paradoxical results have been reported.

In an early review, Wylie (1979) concluded that the correlation between self esteem and students' grade point average was about .30. She added that similarly or slightly stronger relationship had been reported between self esteem and scores on various achievement tests. Creativity; However, was not consistently related to any form of self regard.

In contrary to the above, Gage and Berliner (1992), stated that the research on the relation between self-esteem/ self-concept and school achievement suggests that measures of general or even academic self concept are not significantly related to school achievement.

**Table 1 Prior Finding on the Relationship between Academic Achievement and Self-esteem (Compiled from different Journals)**

No	Name of the Researcher(s)	Year	Instrument (s)	Sample(s)	Findings
1	Bachman & O'Malley	1966	RSES	1,600 students	Positive correlation between self esteem and school performance
2	Maruyama, Rubin, & Kingsbury	1981	RSES	700 students	Self-esteem and academic achievement are correlated but concluded that there is no causal relationship between them
4	Khalid Ruhi	1985	Pier Harris short form	160 children aged 10-11	Academic achievement & the self esteem is positively correlated in both group

5	Thomas- Brantley & Betty J.	1988	CSEI & CGPA	150 high, medium, and low achievers at a large Midwestern public high school	Positive correlation between self esteem and academic achievement; no significant deference between male and female
6	H. Naderi, R. Abdullah, T. Aizan, J.Sharir & V.Kumar	2009	RSES & CGPA	150 Iranian undergraduate students in Malaysian University	There was no significant relationship between self-esteem & academic achievement
7	Ali A. Bayani		RSES	355 high school students of Gorgan	Significant positive relationship $r=.459$ self-esteem of boys are meaningful greater than girl students

8	Chen, Shu-Jen	2000	CFSEI-2	220 students at national Chengchi University in Taiwan	No significant relationship between Chinese male and female college students in the level of self esteem
9	S. Jashi & R. Srivastava	2009	RSES	400 urban & rural adolescents Varanasi district	Female adolescents were found significantly superior on academic achievement than male is. Boys would score significant higher on self esteem
10	Kwan, Bond, & Singelis	1997	RSES	60 students who were enrolled in undergraduate courses at university	There was no correlation found between academic achievement and self esteem

11	R. Baharudin	2000	RSES	386 on campus students of university Putra , Malaysia	Students with low level of self esteem performed better in their academics
12	S. Settles	1992	The self-esteem index	44 3 <sup>rd</sup> grade students from rural elementary school	There was no significant relationship between self-esteem and GPA
13	B. Wickline	2003	Meta analysis study	141 studies involving self-esteem & academic achievement with 80 separate effect size and 48,038 participant	A small significant correlation between self-esteem & academic achievement
14	Harris	2009	CSEI	260 Africa-American students enrolled in a minority engineering	Significant positive correlation between level of self-esteem and academic achievement

15	Hansford & Hattie	1982	Meta analysis study	128 studies, involving more than 200,000 participant	A significant positive relationship between self-esteem & academic performance
16	El-Anzi, Freih Owayed	2005	RSES	400 students from basic education college in Kuwait	Significant positive correlation between self-esteem & academic achievement
17	Chin-Chai Pan	2004	SES	Six-grade students from 21 schools totally 509 elementary school students in the Taipei	Self-concept & academic achievement got positive correlation

## 2.5 INSTITUTIONAL CARE/ORPHANAGES

Several influential studies have concluded that institutional care is damaging to the development of infants and small children relative to foster care Juffer (2008). One study of 65 children in the 1960s in London found that children placed in institutions who were then adopted or returned to their birth families ( $N = 39$ ) did not suffer the negative emotional consequences that those left in institutions suffered Hodges (1978).

Tizard and her colleagues compared four groups of young children who had been reared in institutions in the United Kingdom for the first two to four years of life: a group that was adopted between ages 2 and 4, a group returned to their biological families between age 2 and 4, a group who remained institutionalized, and a group of never-institutionalized children of the same age Tizard (1977); Tizard & Hodges (1978); Tizard & Reese (1974; 1975) cited in Nelson (2007). Across all domains, the adopted children fared better than the institutionalized children. Unfortunately, as is the case with virtually all studies of institutionalized children, they were not randomly assigned to the groups, and selection factors may have influenced the findings.

The Bucharest Early Intervention Project found that children 12 to 31 months of age in institutions in Romania, a high Human Development Index (HDI) country, had significantly higher rates of Reactive Attachment Disorder and that Reactive Attachment Disorder significantly decreased with increased quality of care giving within the institutions Zeanah, Smyke, Koga, Carlson (2005). Other studies in Romania found that young children in institutions were more likely to have Reactive Attachment Disorder,

cognitive delays, poorer physical growth and competence and negative behavior but that, within the same institution, when the ratio of children to caregivers was reduced over a one week period, the rates of Reactive Attachment Disorder significantly decreased and that improving care giving quality within an institution was associated with better outcomes Smyke, Dumitrescu, Zeanah (2002); Smyke, Koga, Johnson, Fox, Marshall, et al. (2007) cited in Nelson (2007).

One comparative study that explored the well-being of working street children and orphans in SOS Children's Villages in Ethiopia reveals an interesting result Abebe (2002); cited in Abebe (2009). It showed that, children in SOS Villages seem to be secure in terms of housing, nutrition and access to education; however, they fare less in terms of peer interaction and social capital compared to their counterparts. Many working street children have the social and material capacity to be active contributors to the livelihoods of their families and have relatively better sociability those children in SOS Villages Abebe (2002); cited in Abebe (2009).

A meta-analysis of 42 studies conducted in 19 countries using IQ as an outcome found significant differences between the IQ of institutional children and those raised in family settings and that children younger at assessment and at age of being placed in the institution had worse outcomes than those who were either older or placed in the institution at an older age Van IJzendoorn, Luijk, Juffer (2008).

Significantly, in 3 of 4 medium or low HDI countries included no differences were found between the IQs of children in institutions and families Van IJzendoorn, Luijk, Juffer

(2008). These studies indicated that, at least in high and very high HDI countries, living in institutions is associated with poor outcomes, particularly for children aged 4 and younger; however, improving care in institutions improves outcomes.

A study of orphanages in Eritrea found that children aged 9 to 14 in institutions with participatory decision making and where children were encouraged to become self-reliant had significantly fewer emotional and behavioral difficulties than children in institutions that did not have such characteristics Wolff & Fesseha (1998), while another study found that changing the organizational structure of institutions so that they provided the children with greater decision making and encouragement resulted in improvements in child emotional wellbeing Wolff, Dawit & Zere (1995).

A study of orphanage alumni in the US found that the alumni fared well compared to their non-orphanage counterparts in terms of economic and emotional wellbeing and that alumni credited the structure of the orphanage, including the work ethic and religious teaching, with their long term wellbeing MacKenzie (1999).

Whetten, Ostermann, Pence, O'Donnell, Messer, Thielman (2009) conducted a study on a comparison of the well being of orphans and abandoned children ages 6-12 in institutional and community based care setting in five less wealthy nations (Tanzania, Kenya, India, Cambodia, and Ethiopia). This positive outcomes for orphans study employed two stage random sampling survey methodology in six sites across five countries to identify 1,357 institution living and 1,480 community living orphans and abandoned children ages 6-12, 658 of whom were double orphans or abandoned by both

biological parents. They used survey analytic techniques to compare cognitive functioning, emotion, behavior, physical health, and growth. Additionally, they used Linear mixed effects models to estimate the proportion of variability in child outcomes attributable to the study site, care setting, and child levels and institutional versus community care settings.

They found that health, emotional and cognitive functioning, and physical growth were no worse for institution living than community living orphans and abandoned children cared for by persons other than a biological parent. Their study does not support the hypothesis that institutional care is systematically associated with poorer well being than community care for orphaned & abandoned children aged 6-12 in those countries facing the greatest orphaned and abandoned children burden. The results of this analysis cast doubt on the generalizability of past studies indicating that institutions are systematically associated with poor child outcomes to children of this age group, 6 to 12 years of age, in less wealthy nations.

In a series of studies with a small group of children from one New York City orphanages, Goldfarb (1943; 1945a,b, ;1947; 1949) cited in McKenzie (1997) found evidence from projective, personality, and ability tests that the orphans showed deficiencies in speech, intelligence, personality, and social development.

Many institutions grew out of the community to meet the need of caring for the new wave of orphans and are a part of the community in a way that institutions in other regions and perhaps of the past were not Whetten, Ostermann, Pence, O'Donnell, Messer, Thielman

(2009). They argue, these institutions are not family-style/community care and they are not foster care, but they also do not look like institutions as people have come to think of them. Additionally they notice that, if this represents a new kind of care structure that minimizes some of the damage to children demonstrated in past studies and in different contexts, then researchers and policy makers need to: gain a better understanding of these organic care structures and ensure that they are not hindered by blanket policies about institutions.

Musis, Kinyanda, Nakasujja, Nakigudde et al. (2007) in their study of comparison of the behavioral & emotional disorders of primary school going orphans & non-orphans in Uganda they found that the mean Rutter score 7.99 for the orphans was not significantly different from that of the orphans had a Rutter score of >9 compared to 36.5% of the non-orphans. According to the researchers this finding showed that both orphans and non-orphans experienced psychological difficulties with no statistically significant difference between both groups.

Zhoa & Zhang et al., (2009) have conducted a research on advantages and disadvantages of institutionalized care of HIV/AIDS orphans in to two rural countries of central China based on qualitative data from children and workers in AIDS orphanage, and their findings indicate that children living in orphanages mostly felt that the living conditions were better than the families they lived with after the death of their parents. However, according to the children and orphanage workers, the institutional care has some disadvantages, such as administrative restraints, limited psychological guidance, stigma, lack of education on AIDS, and financial burdens of the operation.

Studies have shown that orphanages offer fewer opportunities for young children to acquire or practice new skills that do home environments, which results in deficits in social and cognitive functioning Kaler & Freeman (1993) cited in Ijzendoorn, Juffer & Poelhuis (2005).

Family plays an important factor in establishing self-esteem. Parents can influence their children not only by what they are and what they believe, but also by what they do. In the growing stages of development, a child's sense of positive self-worth contributes to the child's well being. Psychoanalysts postulate that there is an optimal balance of need gratification and realistic thwarting in childhood for the creation of later stability in self-esteem regulation Ijzendoorn, Juffer & Poelhuis (2005). The protection of self-esteem is one of the central developmental tasks in childhood.

From the earliest moments, the child-parent relationship is shaped by reciprocity, the qualities of both parties determine how they influence and change each other. McCormick & Kennedy (1994) cited in Robins et al (2002) investigated the degree of continuity over time in the quality of parent-child attachments and the relationship between these attachments and current self-esteem. Using Coopersmith's (1967) Self-Esteem Inventory the study showed self-esteem was positively related to independence, acceptance, and secure attachment to both parents for both initial and current assessment. A possible explanation cited in different studies for securely attached individuals rating themselves higher in self-esteem than insecurely attached individuals may be related to the findings found by Ainsworth, that children in insecure attachments are not confident that they will be responded to while those in secure attachments possess that confidence.

A child self-concept is affected not only by his face to face relationships with those directly surrounding him, the family members so likely to represent significant others, the schoolmates and neighborhood peers in his context but also by the broader social structure Mc Carthy et al. (1994). When one thinks of social class you must think of social comparison because the very meaning of social class is founded on the relative position of superior or inferior, higher or lower, better or worse, a comparison of ones prestige with that of other people Rosenberg et al. (1995). One would like to assume that people who have a higher social class would have higher self-esteem, though this may be true for adults, it is not true for children. It has been found that social class has a different personal relevance for adults and children so therefore different self-esteem consequences Rosenberg et al. (1995).

By the time a child enters school, the foundations of the self have been formed. If all has gone well, the child will enter school with a sense of basic acceptance. It is in school with the new adult (teacher) and with his peers that the child first tests his view of himself as significant and competent, two of the four sources of self-esteem described by Coopersmith (1978) cited in Harris (2009). A sense of significance results from the acceptance, attention, and affection of others while to be competent relates to successful performance in meeting demands for achievement.

Epstein (1980) wrote.

People with high self-esteem, in effect, carry with them a loving parent who is proud of their successes and tolerant of their failures. Such people tend to have an optimistic view about life, and to be able to tolerate external stress without becoming excessively anxious. Although capable of being disappointed and depressed by specific experiences, people with high self-esteem recover quickly, as do children who are secure in their mother's love. In contrast, people with low self-esteem carry within them a disapproving parent who is harshly critical of their failures, and register only short-lived pleasures when they succeed. Such people are apt to be unduly sensitive to failure and to rejection, to have low tolerance for frustration, to take a long time to recover following disappointments, and to have a pessimistic view of life. The picture is not unlike that of children who are insecure in their parent's love. (Epstein, 1980, p. 106 cited in Brown, 2002, p.28-29)

They argued that high self-esteem people deal with failure more adaptively than do low self-esteem people. Not because they believe they do many other things well, but because their self-esteem is explicitly not based on their self-evaluations. In their judgment, self-esteem has little to do with what they think about themselves and everything to do with how they feel about themselves.

Some research has found that self-esteem is associated with parenting style. Paternal participation in childcare is shown to have positive effects on children's self-esteem.

“Among intact two-parent families, when 8- and 9-year-old children reported that their fathers talked to them and that they were satisfied with the amount of help fathers gave them, their self-esteem was enhanced relative to other children” Deutsch, Servis & Payne (2001) cited in Fawcett, Means, McDanel & Eve (2002). For this group of boys, self-esteem was fostered by their perception of their father’s interest in them. For girls in this age group, the only paternal variable associated with self-esteem was satisfaction with the help they received from fathers.

## **2.6 SELF-ESTEEM ASSESSMENT**

### **2.6.1 COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY**

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventories (CSEI) is one of the most widely used measures of self-esteem. It has been administered to tens of thousands of children and adults participating in research studies or in special education or clinical programs to enhance self-esteem. Findings demonstrate the relationship of academic achievement to personal satisfaction in school and adult life. The CSEI was developed by Stanley Coopersmith (1967) cited in Harris (2009) as part of an extensive study of self-esteem in children.

The CSEI has been one of the more popular self-report measures of self-esteem. Coopersmith (1967) Harris (2009) based his scale on the premise that self-reports do add to the understanding of the self-esteem of individuals. He developed items associated with generally accepted sources of self-esteem Harris (2009). Coopersmith constructed the CSEI on the basis of items selected from the Rogers & Dymond scale (1954). The

initial instrument is 58-item self-report inventory in which the subjects read a declarative statement and then checks whether the statement is “like me” or “unlike me.” The inventory was concerned with the student’s perception in four areas: general self esteem, social self-esteem, home-parents, school-academic, and an eight item lie scale Diaz (1984). Coopersmith developed that 25 item Short Form version of his original CSEI. When scoring the CSEI appropriately marked item is weighted at a value of 1, the summary score is then multiplied by 4. Given this scoring procedure, the hypothetical range of scores on the CSEI is from 0 to 100, with higher scores associated with higher levels of self-esteem.

The CSEI has been used extensively with many African American populations ranging in age from grade school to adult. Clark et al. (1982) used the CSEI to examine the relationship between self-esteem and racial identity in African American children grades 3-6. In 1991 Jennings used the CSEI adult form to investigate the relationship between self-esteem, racial identity and membership in an Africentric organization to academic achievement among African American college students.

Acceptable reliability (internal consistency and test-retest) and validity (convergent and discriminate) information exists for the CSEI Blascovich and Tomaka (1991). First, internal consistency reliability estimates for the total self-score for the School Form ranged from 0.80 and a 5-week retest correlation was 0.88. These data suggest that the reliability of the total score for children is about 0.85. For the Adult Form total score, internal consistency estimates ranged from 0.71 to 0.80, and retest reliabilities were 0.80

and 0.82. These figures support a reliability estimate for college students of about 0.80 Bolton (2003). Coopersmith (1987) reports, that the test-retest reliability with a group of 102 fifth and sixth grade students was 0.88. There were significant correlations between CSEI score  $r = 0.29$ , and achievement scores  $r = 0.30$ , and sociometric choice  $r = 0.37$ . The multiple correlation between sociometric choice and achievement combined  $r = 0.69$  advanced the prediction of self-esteem Harris (2009).

### **2.6.2 ROSENBERG'S SELF-ESTEEM SCALE**

The SES is a 10-item self-report questionnaire designed to measure a person's self-esteem. It was created as part of a multi-questionnaire battery, originally administered to 5,024 high school students in New York State Blascovich & Tomaka (1991). The SES was originally intended to measure self-esteem in adolescents. Rosenberg's reasons for using adolescents for his original sample are multi-fold, one of which being that adolescents tend to focus on their self-image more than others. Today, the SES is used in numerous settings, from schools to clinics, and with people of various ages, from adolescence into adulthood Blascovich & Tomaka (1991).

Rosenberg's version of unidimensionality is tacitly supported by a majority of today's social and personality psychologists, due mainly to the continuing popularity and widespread influence of his Self-Esteem Scale (SES). The SES, a simple, ten-item self-report instrument with compelling face validity, has been the measure of choice in one-quarter of self-esteem studies published since its creation Blascovich & Tomaka (1991).

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES); Rosenberg (1965) is an attempt to achieve a unidimensional measure of global self-esteem. It was designed to be a Guttman scale, which means that the RSE items were to represent a continuum of self-worth statements ranging from statements that are endorsed even by individuals with low self-esteem to statements that are endorsed only by persons with high self-esteem.

Multiple studies have been conducted to investigate the validity and reliability of the RSE. Whereas some studies have shown that the scale is a valid and reliable unidimensional measure of self-esteem, others have found that the RSE is comprised of two factors. Goldsmith (1986) suggested that the RSE factor structure depends on age and other characteristics of the sample. Investigations that used high school or college students supported the scales unidimensionality or obtained factors that were interdependent and had similar patterns of correlates Harter (1985). In contrast, analyses completed with adults identified two meaningful and, sometimes, independent dimensions of personality Kaplan and Pokorny (1969) cited in Blascovich & Tomaka (1991). The identified dimensions were mostly defined by negatively worded vs. positively worded RSE items and were called self-derogation and self enhancement.

## **2.7 SUMMARY**

This review of the literature demonstrated that extensive research in the area of self-esteem does exist. The topic of self-esteem is surprisingly complex. Not all psychologists are even in agreement on what self-esteem is, let alone where it comes from or how to improve it. Many theorists have developed their own personal definitions of self-esteem. However, all theorists concur that self-esteem affects the entire person. Although there

has been a general consensus that academic performance is an important determinant of global self-esteem, there have been numerous debates about the extent to which self-esteem is related to academic performance.

The review of literature discovered that many researchers have found that there is a relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement in schools. The majority of the studies conducted on this topic have used White or developed country's students as the subjects of their research. However, the data pertaining to African or developing country students' self-esteem and its relationship to academic performance has been conflicting. Research has proven that African Americans students have generally been found to have equal or higher self-esteem than White students, even though there is a reported gap in academic performance Harris (2009). Literature has revealed that the paradox of high self-esteem and lower academic performance in African American or developing country students can be attributed to negative stigmas that may exist about the intellectual ability of them.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3. METHOD**

This chapter deals with the description of research design, population and sample, the procedure of data collection, research instruments, procedure and results of the pilot study, and statistical methods.

#### **3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN**

This study was designed as an exploratory correlational study. Three indicators of academic success were used as dependent variables: previous two year Cumulative Grade Point Average and first semester Grade Point Average. The independent variable self-esteem was measured by subject's scores on the School Form of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. The nature of the study requires the use of descriptive, comparative, and correlational research methods.

#### **3.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE**

The target population of this study was defined as institutionalized orphan and non-orphan students enrolled in Selam Children Village School in Addis Ababa. The population for institutionalized orphans were orphans who get care and support from the organization, and the non orphans were students who live with their parents or guardians and currently learning with in the same school with the orphans.

The target population of the main study was conducted in a randomly sampled 50 non-orphan students (25 boys & 25 girls) from grade 5 through 8 to make the total number of

non-orphan students 200. In the other way all the institutionalized orphans 83 (52 boys & 31 girls) were purposefully selected through grade 5 to 8.

**Table 2 Number of Participants by Group, Sex and Age**

Student Group	Sex	N	Age		Mean Total	SD Total
			Mean	SD		
Institutionalized Orphans	M	52	13.36	1.71	13.55	1.61
	F	31	13.87	1.38		
Non-Orphans	M	100	12.72	1.39	12.57	1.29
	F	100	12.42	1.17		

### 3.3 VARIABLES INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

#### 3.3.1 Independent Variables

a) Student Group

Institutionalized Orphans

Non-Orphans

b) Age

c) Sex

#### 3.3.2 Dependent Variables

a) Academic Achievement

b) Self-Esteem

## **3.4 INSTRUMENTS**

### **3.4.1 Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale**

Self esteem was measured in this study using Rosenberg's (1965) Self-Esteem Scale (RSES). The RSES consists of ten questions that address one's feelings about him/herself. The Rosenberg scale takes approximately ten minutes to complete. The ten-question Likert scale asks the participant to respond with one of four choices, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Scores range from 10 to 40. A high score on this survey indicates that the participant feels that he or she is a person of value and is worthy of self-respect. A low score on this scale indicates the feelings of self-rejection, self-dissatisfaction, and self-contempt. Rosenberg did not indicate discrete cutoff points to distinguish high and low self-esteem.

### **3.4.2 Document**

Data on the specific demographic and academic variables related to the objectives of this study was collected from the school's official records in the children village. The school provided information on the following variables: sex, age, grade level, three semester average cumulative grade point and rank of the students. These profiles provided a comparison of the number of students, their age, gender, date of entry to the school as well as the institution for the orphans.

In order to avoid the variance from the academic record profile the researcher in collaboration with the class room teacher prepared and administers teacher made standardized tests.

### **3.4.3 Cumulative Grade Point Average**

For the purposes of this study, Academic achievement was measured through the Cumulative Grade point Average (CGPA), which was computed based on participants' grade points of total subjects. The CGPA is calculated by dividing the total amount of grade points earned by the total number of subjects attempted. The student's academic achievement used based on, their three mid year examination result. It is the aggregate or the total grade points in the mid year examination that was earned in 2009 first semester and second semester, and current 2010 first semester results. In this examination, each school subject is graded along one hundred point scales, the best grade point being one hundred and the lowest being zero.

### **3.4.4 Pilot Study**

Before the pilot study the instruments: the school form of RSES & short form of CSEI were translated in to Amharic in order to make them easily understood by elementary and junior school students. The Amharic versions of the two tests were initially administered for elementary and junior school students other than the study area.

Having modified the initial translated Amharic version of the RSES and CSEI the researcher conducted a pilot study. The objectives of the pilot study were (1) to evaluate the technical adequacy of the instruments (to check their reliability) (2) To check whether or not the wordings are appropriate for reading and comprehending at respondents age level (3) To check whether or not the items were fair with regard to Ethiopian context.

The participants, instruments, the setting, the scoring and the result of the pilot study are presented in the following paragraphs.

The participants of the pilot study were 51 students (26 girls, 25 boys) at Selam Children Village School. They were sampled from grade 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8. From each class the researcher randomly selected 5 girls and 5 boys totally 10 students to participate in this study. The age of participant ranged from 9-17 years ( $M=13.34$ ).

Testing materials consisted of a 40 -item questionnaire; a demographics survey, a 10-item Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale and 25-item Coopersmith's Self-Esteem inventory which assessed participants' self-esteem were used.

The 40 item questionnaire was delivered in to two forms, so as to see if there would be difference in the result. One form of the questionnaire involved participants first responding to the 10-items of the RSES followed by 25 –item CSES and the second vice versa.

The questionnaires were administrated in a classroom setting. The researcher explained the general nature of the questionnaire to the participants, stating that they would be taking a self-report, self-esteem test which they wouldn't know their individual results. In addition he red the direction loudly and told that their is no real answer to be taken as correct and wrong; however, its personal felling that they should respond to the statements. The testing session lasted approximately 45 minutes.

The scoring process conducted using hand. Scoring the SES involves giving a numerical value to each of the responses, then adding the values across the 10 items. Typically these

values are: strongly agree = 4, agree = 3, disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1. Five of the items on the RSES are negatively worded (i.e. agreement implies lower self-esteem). These five items are reverse scored (3, 5, 8, 9, and 10). Therefore, final scores can range from 10 – 40, with higher scores indicating higher self-esteem. In the other way scoring the CESI appropriately marked item is weighted at a value of 1. Given this scoring procedure, the hypothetical range of scores on the CSEI is from 0 to 25, with higher scores associated with higher levels of self-esteem. Eight of the items on the CSEI were positively worded (i.e. agreement implies higher self-esteem). The rest 17 items were reversely scored.

The reliability of the RSES was .774 and the CSEI was .745 Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the scale from grade 5 through 8 was .800. The correlation of the two tests was .634. This indicates that the technical quality, the wording and the relevance of the RSES in for the respondents was better than that of the CSEI.

### **3.5 PROCEDURE**

The researcher initially employed a pilot study on the two groups of students in the school before selecting the target population. This small scale methodological test helped the researcher to ensure the proposed methods and procedures could work in practice before being applied in a large, expensive investigation. In addition to this it also provided the researcher an opportunity to make adjustment and revisions before investing in, and incurring.

For the actual research, the target population was initially arranged according to their sex and living place in their respective class with their roll number. Then, the researcher inserted the roll number of all non-orphans in to SPSS program in the computer with respect to their grade level and randomly drew fifty respondents (25 male & 25 female) from each grade level 5 through 8. The result of the pilot study indicated that grade four students were not capable of understanding the questions, that they were seen asking questions, discussing each other, and most of them don't completed. Because of this they were omitted in the actual research.

The participants were approached through the educational institution and after having their consent for participation, they were given the RSES in small groups. They were told that the present research is an academic activity and it aimed at studying the self-esteem in general. The real nature of the scale was not told deliberately to avoid the possible effect of social desirability. They were asked to read each statement and to indicate the response by selecting the appropriate response category, which they considered in their opinion appropriate and applicable about their own self. The participants completed the scale in about fifteen minutes. The participants were acknowledged for their cooperation and participation.

The following statistical methods were employed to analyze the data:

Descriptive statistical measures- mean & SD were used to see general pattern of academic achievement and self-esteem of the respondents according to sex, grade level and the place where they live.

T-test was computed to determine whether there is a significant mean difference between institutionalized orphans and non-orphans in their academic achievement and self-esteem. In addition to this, t-test was also used to compare the mean score of male and female, and the respondents.

Pearson correlation coefficients were used to provide information whether the independent variables and dependent variables correlate each other and to measure the degree of relationship between variables.

One way ANOVA was used to check whether the different conditions have resulted in significantly different scores and to check whether scores significantly varies across those conditions.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### 4. RESULTS

In this section, the results obtained from the employed statistical methods are presented in table followed by verbal descriptions.

#### 4.1 DESCRIPTIVE DATA

**Table 3 Academic Achievement of Students by Group and Sex**

Study group	Sex	N	Academic Achievement (CCGPA)			
			Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Institutionalized Orphans	M	52	61.08	10.15	45.30	84.11
	F	31	59.30	7.43	46.40	76.00
Total		83	60.42	9.22	45.30	84.11
Non-Orphans	M	100	66.43	11.74	46.8	94.50
	F	100	63.91	11.05	44.80	88.40
Total		200	65.17	11.44	44.80	94.50
Over all total		283	63.77	11.04	44.80	94.50

As can be noted from Table 3 above the academic achievement of institutionalized students (Mean=60.42, SD= 9.22) was significantly lower than non-orphans (Mean= 65.17, SD=11.44). The minimum score for non-orphans (44.80) was lower than the institutionalized orphans (46.40) and in the other way the higher score for the former students (94.50) was significantly higher than the later students. The academic achievement of both girls (Mean= 63.91, SD= 11.05) and boys (Mean= 66.41, SD= 11.7) were higher than that of the institutionalized orphan girls (Mean= 59.29, SD= 7.43) and boys (Mean= 61.08, SD= 10.14). In both group orphan and non-orphan boys performed better than girls in their academic achievement.

**Table 4 RSES Score of Students by Group and Sex**

Study group	Sex	N	Self-Esteem Score (RSES)			
			Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Institutionalized Orphans	M	52	28.57	5.20	15.00	40.00
	F	31	29.38	5.07	18.00	38.00
Total		83	28.87	5.14	15.00	40.00
Non-Orphans	M	100	30.68	5.06	20.00	40.00
	F	100	31.45	4.77	17.00	40.00
Total		200	31.06	4.92	17.00	40.00
Over all total		283	30.42	5.07	15.00	40.00

As it is shown in table 4 above the RSES score of Non-orphans (Mean= 31.06, SD= 4.92) was significantly higher than the institutionalized orphans (Mean= 28.87, SD= 5.14). The minimum score of RSES for non-orphans (17.00) was higher than their counterpart (15.00) and the maximum score for both groups was equally forty. In the other hand the RSES score of girls (Mean= 29.38, SD= 5.07; Mean= 31.45, SD=4.77) for Institutionalized orphans and Non-orphans significantly higher than boys (Mean= 28.57, SD= 5.20; Mean= 30.68, SD= 5.06) for institutionalized orphans and non-orphans respectively. The total self-esteem score indicated that girls' self-esteem was higher than boys.

## 4.2 RESULT OF ONE WAY ANOVA

**Table 5 Summary of One way ANOVA Concerning Academic Achievement of Institutionalized Orphans & Non-Orphans**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1323.375	1	1323.375	11.261	.001
Within Groups	33022.376	281	117.517		
Total	34345.751	282			

The analysis from the above table indicates that there was a statically significant difference  $F(1,281) = 11.261, P < .05$  between institutionalized orphans and non-orphan students in their academic achievement. Non-orphan students were found to be superior than the institutionalized orphans. The mean CCGPA of non-orphan students (65.16)

significantly exceeds the mean CGPA of institutionalized orphans (60.41). The mean difference between the two 4.74 and the 95% confidence interval for the estimated population mean difference is between 1.96 and 7.53. The effect size was small ( $d = .23$ ). An independent t-test showed that the difference between the two groups was statistically significant ( $t = 3.56$ ,  $df = 281$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) (Appendix C).

**Table 6 Summary of One way ANOVA Concerning RSES of Institutionalized Orphans & Non-Orphan**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	280.166	1	280.166	11.268	.001
Within Groups	6986.950	281	24.865		
Total	7267.117	282			

According to the place where students were living one way ANOVA was conducted to assess the difference on RSES result of the two group students. The analysis from the above table indicates there was a statistically significant difference  $F(1,281) = 11.268$ ,  $P < .05$  between institutionalized orphans and non-orphans on RSES result. The non-orphans self-esteem (Mean= 31.06, SD= 4.92) is significantly higher than the institutionalized orphans (Mean= 28.87, SD= 5.14). The mean difference between the two was -2.18 and the 95% confidence interval for the estimated population mean difference is between .90 and 3.46. The effect size was moderate ( $d = .43$ ). An

independent t-test showed that the difference between the two groups was significant ( $t=3.357$ ,  $df=281$ ,  $P<.05$ ) (Appendix C).

**Table 7 Summary of One way ANOVA Concerning Academic Achievement of Male & Female Students**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
First semester GPA (2002 E.C)	Between Groups	219.928	1	219.928	1.811	.179
	Within Groups	34125.823	281	121.444		
	Total	34345.751	282			
Second Semester GPA (2001 E.C)	Between Groups	111.347	1	111.347	.848	.358
	Within Groups	36126.665	275	131.370		
	Total	36238.012	276			
First Semester GPA (2001 E.C)	Between Groups	27.773	1	27.773	.229	.632
	Within Groups	33437.528	276	121.150		
	Total	33465.301	277			

Concerning sex difference in academic achievement the above table 7 indicates that there was no statistically significant difference  $F(1,281) = 1.811$ ,  $P = .179$  between female and male students in their academic achievement (CCGPA 2002). Similarly, the second

semester CGPA 2001 E.C  $F(1, 275) = .848, P = .358$  and first semester CGPA 2001 E.C  $F(1, 276) = 2.29, P = .652$  doesn't have statistically significant difference between female and male students. Though, males were found to have higher mean score than females in their academic achievement, the above summary of one way ANOVA result indicated that there was no statistical difference between the two groups. The mean CCGPA 2002 E.C of male students (64.59) was significantly higher than female students (62.82).

**Table 8 Summary of One way ANOVA Concerning RSES of Female and Male Students**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	70.544	1	70.544	2.754	.098
Within Groups	7196.572	281	25.611		
Total	7267.117	282			

Similar to Table 8 summary of one way ANOVA result concerning academic achievement of male and female students, the above table on summary of one way ANOVA concerning RSES of girls and boys indicated some what related result. As the table indicates there was no statistically significant difference  $F(1,281) = 2.754, P = .098$  between male and female students in their self-esteem score. However, the mean self-esteem score indicated that female students were found to have higher self-esteem than male students. The mean score of RSES for female students (30.96) was higher than male students (29.96).

### 4.3 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF-ESTEEM

**Table 9 Correlation Coefficient for Both Sex Group**

		RSES result	First semester GPA (2002 E.C)	Second semester (2001 E.C)	First semester CGPA (2001 E.C)
RSES result		1			
	N	283			
First semester GPA (Current 2002 E.C)		.537**	1		
	N	283	283		
Second semester GPA (2001 E.C)		.480**	.798**	1	
	N	277	277	277	
First semester CGPA (2001 E.C)		.455**	.834**	.893**	1
	N	278	278	277	278

\*\**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

Another question to be answered in this study was whether the RSES result significantly associated with academic achievement of students and whether there is significant difference in magnitudes of association between the two sex's. Product moment correlation between academic achievement and RSES result were calculated for both

group and separately for male and female to assess this issue. The correlation matrix in Table 11 presented the correlation coefficient of both sex groups.

To check the consistency of the students' academic achievement two semesters GPA were used in addition to current GPA to see the correlation. The correlation of first semester GPA of 2001 E.C with second semester CGPA 2001 E.C ( $r = .798, P < .05$ ) and with first semester GPA of 2001 E.C ( $r = .834, P < .05$ ). This indicate that there was strong positive correlation exists between each semester academic achievement of students.

As shown in the above Table 9, the correlation of self-esteem with current GPA 2002 E.C ( $r = .537, P < .05$ ) with second semester GPA 2001 E.C ( $r = .451, P < .05$ ) and with first semester GPA 2001 E.C ( $r = .455, P < .05$ ). This indicates a significant positive relation ship exists between academic achievement and self-esteem of students. As academic achievement increases so does self-esteem and vice versa.

As shown in the Table 10 below, the correlation of female students self-esteem result with CCGPA ( $r = .508, P < .05$ ) with second semester CGPA ( $r = .451, P < .05$ ) and with first semester CGPA ( $r = .439, P < .05$ ) was positively correlated. However, the correlation of self-esteem score with all academic variables was highly positively correlated for boys than girls.

**Table 10 Relationship of the Independent Variables to Dependent Variables in Male and Female Respondents**

		RSES	FSGPA 2002 E.C	SSCGPA 2001 E.C	CGPA 2001 E.C
RSES result		1			
	N	283			
First Semester GPA (2002 E.C)	Male	.580**	1		
	N	152	152		
	Female	.508**			
	N	131	131		
Second Semester GPA (2001 E.C)	Male	.515**	.788**	1	
	N	149	149	149	
	Female	.451**	.810**		
	N	128	128	128	
First Semester CGPA (2001 E.C)	Male	.475**	.814**	.891**	1
	N	150	150	149	150
	Female	.439**	.864**	.898**	
	N	128	128	128	128

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**Table 11 Partial Correlation of Variables**

Control Variables		RSES result	Current CGPA
Sex of the participants	RSES result	1.00	.549**
	Current CGPA	.549**	1.00
Age of the participants	RSES result	1.00	.516**
	Current CGPA	.516**	1.00
Living place in to two group	RSES result	1.000	.518**
	Current CGPA	.518**	1.000

*\*\**. Correlation is significant at 0.01 level

As indicated in Table 11 result there was no unique variance between self-esteem and academic achievement while elimination the variance from sex of the participants and others. Statistically, it shows significant relationship to both self-esteem and academic achievement. It is interesting to not that controlling for living place of participants' did not lower the strength of the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement by that much ( $r = .549, P < .001$ ). In other words the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement is not due to living place of the participants.

#### 4.4 SELF-ESTEEM, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND FAMILY

**Table 12 RSES Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Subjects in Sub-Categories of Independent Variables**

Students Group		N	Self-Esteem Score (RSES)			
			Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Institutionalized Orphans	In the institution	83	28.879	5.1404	15.00	40.00
Non-orphans Who live	With mother & father	144	31.701	4.6410	20.00	40.00
	Only with father	10	29.100	4.5570	22.00	33.00
	Only with mother	34	29.588	4.9733	18.00	36.00
	With relatives & others	12	29.250	6.9167	17.00	38.00
Total		283	30.424	5.0764	15.00	40.00

As can be noted from Table 12 above self-esteem, RSES score of non-orphans who are living with mother and father (Mean= 31.70, SD= 4.64) was statistically significant and higher than non-orphans who are living only with their father (Mean= 29.10, SD= 4.55), only with their mother (Mean= 29.58, SD= 4.97) and with their relatives and others (Mean= 29.25, SD= 6.91). Similarly, the self-esteem, RSES score of non-orphans who are living with their mother and father (Mean= 31.70, SD= 4.64) was statistically significant and substantially higher than with people who are living in the institution (Mean= 28.87, SD= 5.14).

**Table 13 One way ANOVA Concerning Self-Esteem of Institutionalized Orphans and Non-Orphans- in the Place where they live**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	490.776	4	122.694	5.034	.001
Within Groups	6776.340	278	24.375		
Total	7267.117	282			

The analysis from the above Table 13 indicates that there was a statistically significant difference  $F(1, 278) = 5.03, P < .05$  between institutionalized orphans and non-orphans- who live with their mother and father, only with their father, only with their mother and with respondents who are living with their relatives and others in their self-esteem.

**Table 14 Academic Achievements Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Subjects  
in Sub-Categories of Independent Variables**

Student Group		N	Academic Achievement CCGPA			
			Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Institutionalized Orphans	In the institution	83	60.41	9.29	45.30	84.11
	With mother & father	144	66.00	11.57	47.60	94.50
Non-orphans	Only with father	10	63.68	8.70	49.40	75.10
	Only with mother	34	63.12	12.19	45.70	94.00
	With relatives & others	12	62.16	9.31	44.80	75.33
Total		283	63.77	11.04	44.80	94.50

As can be noted from Table 14 the academic achievement of non-orphans who are living with mother and father (Mean= 66.00, SD= 11.57) was statistically significant and higher than non-orphans who are living only with their father (Mean= 63.68, SD= 8.69), only with their mother (Mean= 63.12, SD= 12.18) and with their relatives and others (Mean= 62.16, SD= 9.30). Similarly, the academic achievement of non-orphans who are living with their mother and father (Mean= 66.00, SD= 11.57) was statistically significant and substantially higher than with students who are living in the institution (Mean= 60.41, SD= 9.21).

**Table 15 One way ANOVA Concerning Academic Achievement of Non-Orphans in the Place Where they Live and the Institutionalized Orphans**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1695.765	4	423.941	3.610	.007
Within Groups	32649.986	278	117.446		
Total	34345.751	282			

As can be noted from Table 15 summary of one way ANOVA result concerning academic achievement of respondents who are living in the institution, with their mother and father, only with their father, only with their mother, and those who live with their relatives and others was statistically significant  $F(4, 278) = 3.61, P < .001$ .

**Table 16 Intercorrelations among Variables**

	RSES result	Current CGPA	Age	Sex	Grade	Living place
RSES result	1					
Current CGPA	.537**	1				
Age of the participants (Age)	-.177**	-.286**	1			
Sex of the participants (Sex)	.099	-.080	-.068	1		
Grade level of the participants (Grade)	-.054	-.242**	.635**	.027	1	
Living place in to two group	.196**	.196**	-.306**	.116	.062	1
N	283	283	283	283	283	283

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Pearson product moment correlation was performed on the dependent variables of RSES and the independent variables of sex, age, grade level and place of living. The result revealed that RSES- A score was statistically significant and negatively correlated with age ( $r = -.177$ ,  $P < .05$ ). This indicates that when the age of the students increases their self-esteem decreases. Similarly, the correlation between RSES and with grade level ( $r = -.054$ ,  $P < .05$ ) is non-significant and negatively correlated. In the other hand the correlation between RSES with sex ( $r = .099$ ,  $P < .05$ ) was positively correlated and statistically non

significant; however, with place of living ( $r = .196$ ,  $P < .05$ ) was statically significant and positively correlated.

Similarly, Pearson product moment correlation was performed on the dependent variables of CCGPA and the independent variables of sex, age, grade level and place of living. As it is shown in the above table, the correlation of CCGPA with age ( $r = -.286$ ,  $P < .05$ ) and with grade level ( $r = -.242$ ,  $P < .05$ ) was statistically significant and negatively correlated. In the other way the correlation between CCGPA and sex ( $r = -.080$ ,  $P < .05$ ) was statistically non significant and negatively correlated.

The correlation between age of he participant and place of living ( $r = -.306$ ,  $P < .05$ ) was statistically significant and negatively correlated. The age of institutionalized orphans (Mean= 13.55, SD= 1.60) was statistically significant and higher than the non-orphans (Mean= 12.57, SD= 1.29). This indicates that the age of institutionalized orphans is higher than the non-orphans.

#### **4.5 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF-ESTEEM DIFFERENCE IN SEX**

As the Table 17 below indicates the institutionalized orphan female students self-esteem (mean= 29.38, SD, 5.07) was significantly lower than the non-orphan females (mean= 31.45, SD= 4.77). The mean difference between the two is -4.03 and -.09. An independent t-test showed that difference between the two groups was statistically significant ( $t = -2.07$ ,  $df = 129$ ,  $P < .05$ ).

**Table 17 Independent Sample Test for Institutionalized Orphans and Non-Orphan Female Students Self-Esteem & Academic Achievement as Measured by RSES and CCGPA Respectively**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
RSES Score	Equal variances assumed	.259	.611	-2.072	129	.040	-2.060	.99564	-4.03	-.093
Current CGPA	Equal variances assumed	6.396	.013	-2.175	129	.031	-4.612	2.12189	-8.81	-.41

Similarly to the RSES the academic achievement of institutionalized orphan female students (mean= 59.29, SD= 7.43) was significantly lower than the non-orphan females (mean= 63.91, SD= 11.04). An independent t-test also indicates that difference between the two groups was statistically significant ( $t = -2.175$ ,  $df = 129$ ,  $P < .05$ )

**Table 18 Independent Sample Test for Institutionalized Orphans and Non-Orphan Male Students Self-Esteem & Academic Achievement as Measured by RSES and CCGPA Respectively**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
RSES Score	Equal variances assumed	.095	.758	-2.407	150	.017	-2.10308	.87384	-3.82	-.37
Current CGPA	Equal variances assumed	.883	.349	-2.780	150	.006	-5.33513	1.9193	-9.12	-1.5

The above Table 18 an independent t-test indicates that the difference in self-esteem between institutionalized and non-orphan male students was statistically significant ( $t = -2.40$ ,  $df = 150$ ,  $P < .05$ ). This indicates that the non-orphan male students (mean= 30.68, SD= 5.06) was higher than the institutionalized male students (mean= 28.57, SD= 5.20) in their level of self-esteem.

Similarly, the academic achievement of non-orphan males (mean= 66.41, SD= 11.74) was substantially higher than the institutionalized orphan males (mean= 61.08, SD= 10.14). An independent test above indicates that the difference between the two groups was statistically significant ( $t = -2.78$ ,  $df = 150$ ,  $P < .05$ )

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5. DISCUSSION

#### 5.1 SELF-ESTEEM, SEX AND AGE

Conflicting evidence is indicated from studies in the literature with respect to self-esteem and gender. Several research including (Sing 1986; Ismail 1992; and Slerbin & Rakow, 1996) cited in (Rifai, 1999) report that males have a higher self-esteem than females. However, others (e.g. Wylie, 1979) have found no significant difference which is inline with the present study.

Cross culturally and cross-nationally in the U.S, researchers AAUW, 1991; Rubaur, 1994; Scott and Scott, 1998 cited in Flynn, 2003 found that girls have lower self-esteem than boys. Similarly, (Smith, 1975) cited in (Flynn, 2003) found that sex difference occurred in most aspects of the self-concept. According to his findings boys consistently rated themselves more favorable than girls.

However, the result from the present study indicates that, though the girls mean self-esteem score was higher than their counter parts, there was no statistically significant difference in self-esteem score of boys and girls. Parallel to this research (Piers & Harris, 1964) found no consistent significant difference in samples of third graders (56 girls, 63boys), six graders (56 girls, 71 boys) and tenth graders (53 girls, 64 boys). Similar to this research several other studies that used CSEI to measure the self-esteem of boys and girls revealed no significant difference among the two groups (Primavera, Simon & Primavera, 1974; Reschley & Mittman, 1973; Simon & Bernstein, 1971) cited in (Rifai,

1999). In addition, (Hulbary, 1975) cited in (Rifai, 1999) also found small and statistically nonsignificant difference between girls and boys' self-esteem as measured by RSES.

Summary result of one way ANOVA concerning RSES of female and male students indicated that there was no statically significant difference between the groups in their self-esteem score. Similar to this the one way ANOVA result indicates; even though, male students' academic achievements mean score was higher than female student, there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups in their academic achievement.

In the other way t-test result indicates that institutionalized orphan female students self-esteem and academic achievement score was significantly lower than the non-orphan females and the difference between the two groups was statistically significant. Similarly, institutionalized orphan male students self-esteem and academic achievement score was significantly lower than the non-orphan males and the difference between the two groups was statistically significant.

Summary of one way ANOVA concerning academic achievement of male and female students indicates that the difference between the two groups was statistically nonsignificant. However, as academic achievement of students by group and sex indicates the mean score of male students was slightly higher than their counterparts. Male students from both institutionalized orphan and non-orphan groups got higher mean score on academic achievement than female students. The present study contradicts with (Pomerantz, Altermatt, & Saxon 2002; Stetsenko, Little, Gordeeva, Grasshof, &

Oetlingen, 2000) cited in (Rifai, 1999) finding that females perform better academically and receive better grades than their male peers.

An independent t-test indicates that the difference in self-esteem between institutionalized orphan and non-orphan male students was statistically significant. This indicates that the non-orphan male students were superior to the institutionalized orphan males in their level of self-esteem. In addition to this non-orphan male students performed substantially higher than the institutionalized orphan males in their academic achievement. Similar to male students, the self-esteem score and the academic achievement score of non-orphan female students were also significantly higher than institutionalized orphan females. The result of this research concedes with (Goldfarb, 1949) cited in (Freud, Solonit & Godstein, 1973) finding that the orphans' in the institution showed deficiencies in speech, intelligence, academic achievement, personality, and social development evidence from projective, personality, and ability tests.

Different types of self-esteem have been proposed (e.g., Piers Harris, 1963; RSES 1965; CSEI 1971 etc.) that may have different implications for the genders. This was evident from a study by Gabelko et al., (1997) who examined age and gender differences in global, academic, athletic, and social self-esteem in a group of 311 middle and high school students (ages 12-18) attending science, mathematics, or computer science classes at a summer program for the academically talented. The self-esteem scores were obtained from the RSES and Self Perception Profile for Adolescents. Factors investigated were athletic competence, scholastic competence, and social competence. Results indicated a

significant main effect for gender, but no age effect was found. In contrary to the present study males obtained significantly higher scores on global and athletic self-esteems, whereas females obtained significantly higher scores on social self-esteem.

A number of theorists have predicted changes in self-esteem in relation to the age of the examinee. Thus for instance, the developmental level at which an individual is, likely has a bearing on his/ her self-concept (Harter, 1983) suggested that stability of self-concept may relate to contextual factors such as environmental demands, performance expectations, and one's social comparison group, and that these relate to age changes (e.g., transitions from primary to junior high school). (Jegede, 1982a, 1982b) cited in Lemley (2004) observed a nonlinear relationship between age and self-esteem in 1,380 children. Self-esteem scores increased between age 11 and 13, declined gradually from age 14, dropped sharply in ages 16 and 17, and then rose. This finding goes parallel to the present study. As indicated in the result part from the mean plot the highest mean self-esteem score was held by 11 year old students and it sharply dropped around the age of 16.

As a matter of fact, the preponderance of studies in the literature using children/adolescents as subjects parallel to this study do not appear to find significant differences between the self-esteem of males and females Crase et al. (1981); (Devoc 1977; Ketchman & Snyder, 1977) cited in (Marsh, 1986). In the other hand (Mussen, Conger & Kagon, 1979) opposite to this study concluded, sadly, at all ages, girls tend to show lower self-esteem than boys.

Eccles et al. (1989) found that self-esteem was lowest in fall of the seventh grade year; right after the transition to junior high had been made. In addition to this (Burnett, 1996) cited in (Strange, Neuensch, Wander, and Daver, 2005) found a decline in self-esteem in adolescence. Robins et al. (2002) found that a sharp decline in self-esteem during adolescence. Similar to this as the result of self-esteem level of students by grade level and sex indicates that grade eight students were found to have the lowest self-esteem. The highest level of self-esteem was found in grade six and five students. This result indicates that self-esteem is not stable.

The result of the present study is contrary to research finding reported that gender difference have shown opposite effects in favor of males (Kling, Hyde, Showers, & Buswell, 1999; Major, Barr, Zubek, & Babey 1999). In the contrary to the above finding Baum et al., 1970; Bledsoe, 1967; Campbell, 1966 cited in (Loeb & Horst, 1978) found the self-esteem of females significantly higher than males. In the other way the present finding is in line with (Hansford & Hattie, 1982); Muller et al. (1988) that the difference in level of self-esteem between female and male students didn't yield any significant findings. .

## **5.2 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF-ESTEEM**

Several theorists have specifically identified academic performance as an important determinant of global self-esteem West, Fish & Stevens, 1980) cited the correlation between academic achievement and general self-esteem ranges from 0.18 to 0.50. Another study, conducted by (Reynolds, 1988) found in his research that academic self-concept is related in a positive and significant manner to grade point average. Similarly to

this research the present study found a close relationship between academic achievement and self-esteem. All the three semesters CGPA or academic achievement was significantly correlated with self-esteem score measured by RSES. Academic achievement of the respondents second semester CGPA ( $r = .480, P < .05$ ), first semester CGPA ( $r = .455, P < .05$ ), and current CGPA ( $r = .537, P < .05$ ) was significantly correlated with their self-esteem measured by RSES. This finding supports the theory that gains in self-esteem and gains in academic achievement are positively correlated. In line with this in a previous study (Wiggins, 1987) found significant correlation between earned grades and self-esteem scores.

In addition to this the present study is parallel to (Boersman 1979; Rogers & Saklofske 1985; Winnie et al. 1982; and Ismail 1992) that found a positive relationship between total self-esteem and academic achievement.

The present study result was opposite to Naderi et al., (2009) finding that indicate no significant relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement by using RSES and CGPA. Similar to this finding, (Settles, 1992) found no significant relationship between self-esteem and CGPA by using the self-esteem index and CGPA. However, the present study has found positive and significant correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement.

An early summary of the literature on self-esteem and academic performance (Purkey, 1970), observed that “there is a persistent and significant relationship between the self-esteem and academic achievement” and that “change in one seems to be associated with change in the other” (p. 27). (Wylie, 1979) concurred with this evaluation and

hypothesized a number of plausible causal link relating ability, achievement and self-concept. She posited that variations in success in academic activities can influence self-perception; likewise, she noted that overall self-esteem may be related more to achievements than to ability. Purkey also cautioned that perceived ability and achievement may correspond to measures of these factors. Finally, (Wylie, 1979) noted evidence indicating that persons tend to evaluate themselves against the reference group that seems relevant to them. Similar to the present study Wylie summarized the research relating achievement and self-esteem; correlations ranged from .10 to .50 and typically were in the 3.0s and low.40s.

The present study found that there was no significant difference between male and female students self-esteem. The correlation of academic achievement CCGP of male student ( $r = .58, P < .05$ ) and females ( $r = .508, P < .05$ ) was positive and significantly correlated with self-esteem as measured by RSES.

The self-esteem score of institutionalized orphans was significantly lower than the non-orphans. Parallel to this the academic achievement of institutionalized orphan was also significantly lower than their counterparts. This result concedes with Van Ijzendoorn, Luijk, Juffer (2008) finding that significant difference between the IQ of institutionalized children and those rose in family setting. Similar to this Kaler & Freeman (1993) cited in Ijzenoorn, Juffer & Poelhuis (2005) in their study shown that orphanages offer fewer opportunities for young children to acquire or practice new skills that do home environments, which results in deficits in social and cognitive functioning.

In addition to this independent sample test of institutionalized orphans and non-orphans on academic achievement was computed. The non-orphans academic achievement was significantly higher than the institutionalized orphans. An independent t-test showed that the difference between the two groups was statistically significant. Similarly, the non-orphan self-esteem was significantly higher than the institutionalized orphans. The difference between the two groups was also significant.

### **5.3 SELF-ESTEEM AND INSTITUTIONAL CARE**

Studies have shown that orphanages offer fewer opportunities for young children to acquire or practice new skills that do home environments, which results in deficits in social and cognitive functioning Kaler & Freeman (1993) cited in Ijzendoorn, Juffer & Poelhuis (2005).

The academic achievement of non-orphans who are living with their mother and father was statistically significant and higher than the non-orphans who are living only with their relatives and others. Similarly, the academic achievement of non-orphans who are living with their mother and father was statistically significant and substantially higher than with those students who are living in the institution. Mack & Ablon (1985) in their earlier study indicated that the important of family in establishing self-esteem. They stated that parents can influence their children not only by what they are and what they believe, but also by what they do.

In the other hand Mc Carthy et al. (1997) indicated that self-concept is affected not only by face to face relationship with those directly surrounded him, the family members so

likely to represent significant others, school mates and neighborhood peers in his context but also by the broader social structure. Although self-esteem is influenced by different constructs, the present study indicated that students who are living with their parents have got superior in academic achievement and self-esteem score when they are compared with others.

Similar to the above, the result from the one way ANOVA concerning the institutionalized orphans and non-orphans on self-esteem indicates, there was statistically significant difference between institutionalized orphans and non-orphans- who live with their mother and father, only with their father or mother, and with respondents who live with their relatives and others. Parallel to this the academic achievement of the two groups was also contains statistically significant difference in favor of non-orphan students. This result coincides with Rosenberg (1965), Coopersmith (1967), and Clark (1994) cited in Harris (2009) that found a positive correlation between children with lower level of self-esteem and absence or death of parents.

## CHAPTER SIX

### 6. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether there is any interrelationship between sex, self-esteem and academic achievement of institutionalized orphan and non-orphans at Selam Children Village in Addis Ababa.

The target population of this study was defined as institutionalized orphan and non-orphan students enrolled in Selam Children Village School in Addis Ababa. The population for institutionalized orphans were orphans who get care and support from the organization, and the non-orphans were students who live with their parents or guardians and currently learning with in the same school with the orphans.

The target population of the main study was conducted in a randomly sampled 50 non-orphan students (25 boys & 25 girls) from grade 5 through 8 to make the total number of non-orphan students 200. In the other way all the institutionalized orphans 83 (52 boys & 31 girls) were purposefully selected through grade 5 to 8.

Self-esteem was measured in this study using Rosenberg's (1965) Self-Esteem Scale (RSES). The RSES consists of ten questions that address one's feelings about him/herself. Data on the specific demographic and academic variables related to the objectives of this study was collected from the school's official records in the children village. The school provided information on the following variables: sex, age, grade

level, three semester average cumulative grade point and rank of the students. For the purposes of this study, Academic achievement was measured through the Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA), which was computed based on participants' grade points of total subjects. The CGPA is calculated by dividing the total amount of grade points earned by the total number of subjects attempted.

Statistical analyses of the data was done and mean comparison t-test was computed to determine whether there is a significant difference between institutionalized orphans and non-orphans in their academic achievement and self-esteem. Pearson correlation coefficients were used to provide information whether the independent variables and dependent variables correlate each other and to measure the degree of relationship between variables. One way ANOVA was used to check whether the different conditions have resulted in significantly different scores and to check whether scored significantly varies across those conditions.

Results showed that academic achievement and self-esteem are significantly and positively correlated. Non-orphan students were superior to institutionalized orphans in their level of self-esteem and academic achievement. Although through all grades female students' self-esteem mean score was higher than males, there was no significant difference between the two groups. The difference between female and males students in academic achievement was insignificant. The academic achievement and self-esteem was significantly associated with the place where the students live and the person with whom they are living. Students who live with mother and father have got the highest score on self-esteem and academic achievement.

## **6.2 CONCLUSION**

Based on the findings the following conclusions can be drawn:

There was a statistically significant difference in self-esteem between institutionalized orphan and non-orphan students.

The difference in academic achievement between institutionalized orphans and non-orphans was statistically significant.

There is no statistically significant difference between the two sex groups in their level of self-esteem & academic achievement

There was statistically significant association between self-esteem and academic achievement.

## **6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **For Further Research**

The present study as a relationship study, which indicated that self-esteem is linked with students' sex and academic achievement. Correlational studies, however, do not establish which is causing what. It will thus be worthwhile to explore the cause and effect relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement by designing experimental studies in this vital area.

The existing study focused upon the self-esteem and academic achievement of second cycle students and its relationship with different variables. Similar studies

may be carried out at first cycle, secondary high school and tertiary level to generalize results of the present study to other levels of education.

The existing study was delimited to students of Selam Children Village in Addis Ababa. Similar studies may be conducted in the private and government sector schools as well as in other provinces.

### **For practitioners**

The result of the study indicates that self-esteem and academic achievement of students almost go together. It means that self-esteem may reinforce academic achievement and academic achievement may further strengthen self-esteem. This finding has vital implications for curriculum design, training of teachers and policy matters regarding curriculum development.

As revealed by the study, low achievement is related to low self-esteem. Therefore, low achievers may be provided individualized or grouped instruction through different mechanisms. Guidance and counseling, as a backup strategy, may go a long way in improving the self-esteem and academic performance of weak students. At policymaking level, secondary cycle school curriculum may incorporate additional books on boosting self-esteem to inculcate productive academic achievement of both high achieving and low achieving students.

The relationship between the self-esteem and academic achievement at second cycle level indicates that self-esteem of the student is an indicator of their

academic achievement. Therefore, adequate awareness among non-orphans and institutionalized orphans- care takers, parents, teachers and administrators is necessary to shape the self-esteem of students.

For polishing and inculcating high self-esteem in students, guidance and counseling service should be set up in schools. The counselor may measure the self-esteem of students in the beginning of the year and identify the areas where counseling is especially required. They may conduct remedial classes for this purpose.

It is recommended that short courses and periodic workshops and seminars be organized for guardians and community development workers to train them on boosting self-esteem and counseling service.

## REFERENCES

- Abebe, T. (2009). Orphanhood, Poverty and the Care Dilemma: Review of Global Policy Trends. Trondheim, Norwegian Center for Child Research, Norway
- Alexander, T. (2001). Defining self-esteem. What is self-esteem and why does it matter? Self-esteem as an aid to understanding and recovery. *Mental Healthcare, 4(10)*, 332-335.
- Alpay, E. (2000). Self-concept and self-esteem. Department of Chemical and Chemical Technology, Imperial College of Science, Technology, and Medicine. London
- Alsbaugh, J. (1998). Achievement loss associated with the transition to middle school and high school. *Journal of Educational Research, 92(1)*. 20-26.
- Baharudin, R. & Zulkeflym, N. S. (2009). Relationship with father and mother, self-esteem and academic achievement among college students. *American Journal of Scientific research Issue 6*, 84-94.
- Baron, R. A., & Byrne, D. (2004). Social Psychology. Tenth edition, Pearson Education, Inc.
- Bechman, J.G., & O'Malley, P.M. (1986). Self-concepts, self-esteem, and educational experiences: The frog pond revisited (again). *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 50*, 35-46.
- Bem, S.L. (1981). "Gender Schema Theory: A Cognitive Account of Sex Typing." *Psychological Review 88*, 598-616.
- Berry, G. L. (1974). Self Concept and need factors of inner-city high school adolescents and dropouts. *Child Study Journal, 4(1)*, 21-31.

- Blascovich, J., & Tomaka, J. (1991). Measure of self-esteem. In J.P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver, and L.S. Wrightsam, Measure of personality and social psychological attitudes. New York: Academic Press
- Braden, N. (1995). The six Pillars of Self-esteem. New York: Bantam.
- Brown, J.D. & Kobayashi, C. (2002). Self-enhancement in Japan and America. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 5, 145-168.
- Campbell, J. D. (1990). Self-esteem and clarity of the self-concept. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(3), 538-549.
- Care and Support for Orphans and Families Affected by HIV/AIDS  
[http://www.unicef.org/aids/index\\_orphans.html](http://www.unicef.org/aids/index_orphans.html), cited on November 18, 2009.
- Carpenter, Sandra & Lesley E. Johnson (2001). "Women Derive Collective Self-Esteem from their Feminist Identity." *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 25/3, 254-257.
- Covington, M.J. (1989). Self-esteem and failure in schools: Analysis and policy implications. In A.M. Mecca, N.J. Smelser, & J. Vasconcellos (Eds). The social importance of self-esteem (PP. 72-124). Berkeley. University of California Press.
- Diaz, Joseph O.P. (1984). A cross-cultural study of the reliability of the Coopersmith self esteem inventory. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 44, 575-581.
- Eccles, J. S., Wigfield, A., Flanagan, C. A., Miller, C., Reuman, D.A., & Yee, D. (1989). Self-concepts, domain values, and self-esteem: Relations and changes at early adolescence. *Journal of Personality*, 57(2), 283-410.
- Eccles, J.S., Lord, S.E., & McCarthy, K.A. (1994). Surviving the junior high school transition: family processes and self-perceptions as protective and risk factors. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 14(2). 162-200.

- Emler, N. (2001). *Self-esteem: The costs and consequences of low self-worth*. York, England: York Publishing Services.
- Erikson, E.H. (1968a). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. New York: W.W. Norton & Co.
- Fenzel, L. M (2000) Prospective Study of Changes in Global Self-Worth and Strain During the Transition to Middle School. *The Journal of Early Adolescence* 20, 93-116.
- Flynn, Heather Kohler. "Gender and Race Portrayal in Children's Picture Books: An Analysis of Recent Caldecott Winners." Paper Presented at Society for Australasian Social Psychologists Meetings #32, Sydney, Australia. 2003.
- Foddis, W.F. (1999). Sentence completion and self-esteem: Initial validation of an assessment method and a theory. Bachelor of Arts Honors Thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton.
- Fontana, D. (1995). *Psychology for Teachers* (third edition) New York: Palgrave.
- Freud, A., Solonit, A., and Goldstein, H. (1973). *Beyond the Dust interest of the child*. London: Andre Deutsch
- Gage, N., and Berliner, D. (1992). *Educational Psychology* (5<sup>th</sup> Ed). Boston: Hughtom Mifflin.
- Hamachek, D. (1995). Self-concept and school achievement: Interaction dynamics and a tool for assessing the self-concept component. *Journal of counseling and development*, 73(4), 419-452.
- Hansford, B.C., & Hattie, J.A. (1982). The relationship between self and achievement/performance measures. *Review of Educational Research*, 52, 123-142.

- Harris, Sandra L. (2009). The Relationship between Self-Esteem and Academic Success among African American Students in the Minority Engineering Program. A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Louisiana State University.
- Harter, S. (1985). Competence as a dimension of self-evaluation. Towards a comprehensive model of self-worth. *The Development of the Self*. Oriando, FL: Academic Press.
- IJzendoorn, M.H. Van, Luijk, P.C.M., Juffer, F. (2008). IQ of Children Growing Up in Children's Homes: A Meta-Analysis on IQ Delays in Orphanages
- James, W. (1983). *The principles of psychology*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Kaplan, H. B. (1986). *Social psychology of self-referent behavior*. New York.
- Kaplan, H. B., & Pokorny, A. D. (1969). Self-derogation and psychosocial adjustment. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, 149, 421-431.
- Kifer, E. (1973). The effects of school achievement on the affective traits of the learner. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Education Research Association, New Orleans.
- Knox, Michele et al. "Adolescents' Possible Selves and Their Relationship to Global Self-Esteem." *Sex Roles* 39/1 (1998)
- Lachman, R., "Review of Defa views of an aging orphan: Growing up in the Hebrew National Orphan Home," by S.G. Arcus Philadelphia: Xlibris, 2004

- Leary, M.A., Schreindorfer, L.S., & Haupt, A.L. (1995). The role of self-esteem in emotional and behavioral problems: Why is low self-esteem dysfunctional? *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 14*(32), 297-314.
- Lemley, Nello N. (2004) The Reliability of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-concept Scale, Second Edition. Thesis submitted to the graduate college of Marshall University, In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Ed. S.
- Loeb, R.C. & Horst, L. (1978). Sex differences in Self- and Teachers' Report of Self-Esteem in Preadolescents. *Sex Roles, 4*(5), 780-788.
- Major, B., Sciacchitano, A., & Crocker, J. (1983). In-group versus out-group comparisons and self-esteem. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 19*(6), 711-721.
- Malhi, R. S. (1995). Self-esteem and academic achievement. Retrieved February 13  
<http://www.tas.com.my/bulletin4/Hr/article.htm>
- Marsh, H.W. (1986). Global Self-Esteem: Its relation to specific facets of self-concept and their importance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1224-1236.
- Marsh, H.W. (1990). Causal ordering of academic self-concept and academic achievement: A multiwave, longitudinal panel analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*, 646-656.
- Meggert, S. S. (2000). Who cares what I think: Problems of low self-esteem. In Capuzzi, D., & Gross, D. R. (Eds.). *Youth at risk: A prevention resource for counselors, teachers, and parents* (3rd ed.). Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.

- Mitchell, J., McCauley, E., Burke, P.M., & Moss, S.J. (1988). Phenomenology of depression in children and adolescents. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 27, 12-20.
- Mruk, Christopher. (1995) *Self-Esteem: Research, Theory, and Practice*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Musisi, S., Kinyanda, E., Nakasujja, N., & Nakigudde, J. (2007). A comparison of the behavioral and emotional disorders of primary school-going orphans and non-orphans in Uganda. Makerere Medical School, Uganda.
- Mussen, P. H, Conger, J. J. & Kagon, J. (1979). *Child development and personality*, New York: Harper and Row.
- Naderi, H., Abdullah, R., Aizan, H.T., Sharir, J., Kumar, V. (2009). *Self Esteem, Gender and Academic Achievement of Undergraduate Students*.
- Piers, E.V., & Harris, D.B. (1964). Age & other correlated self-concept in children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*. 55(2)
- Porter, C., "Report predicts World's orphans will exceed to 40 million by 2010" Fact Sheet, United States Embassy, Tokyo 2010.
- Purkey, W.W. (1970). *Self-concept and school achievement*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- R. Mackenzie, (1999). *Rethinking Orphanages for 21<sup>st</sup> century*. Sage publications.
- Reasoner, R. (2005). The true meaning of self-esteem. Retrieved November 4<sup>th</sup> from international Council for Self-esteem. Website: <http://www.self-esteem-nase.org/whatiself-esteem.shtml>.

- Renzetti, C. and Curran, D. (1999). *Women, Men, and Society*. 4th Edition, Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Reynolds, W.M. (1988). Measurement of academic self-concept in college students. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 52, 223-240.
- Rifai, F. (1999). Development and Validation of Self-Esteem Scale. Ph D. Thesis, Quaid i- Azam University, Islamabad.
- Robins, R. W., Trzesniewski, K. H., Tracy, J. L., Gosling, S.D., & Potter, J. (2002). Global self esteem across the life span. *Psychology and Aging*, 17(3), 423-434
- Rogers, C. R., & Dymond, R. F. (Eds.). (1954). *Psychotherapy and personality change*. Chicago. University of Chicago Press.
- Rosenberg , M. (1979). *Conceiving the Self*. New York: Basic Books.
- Rosenberg, M.(1965). *Society and the adolescents' self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Rosenberg, M., Schooler, C., Schoenbach, C., & Rosenberg, F., (1995). Global self-esteem and specific self-esteem: different concept, different outcomes. *American Sociological Review*, 60, 141-156.
- Schmidt, J.A., & Padilla, B. (2003). Self-esteem and family challenge: An investigation of their effects on achievement. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 32, 37-46.
- Scott, David A. (2004). *A Character Education Program: Moral Development, Self-Esteem and At-Risk Youth* A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of North Carolina State University In partial fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

- Sebina, N. and Sengedo, J. (1987). Orphaned and disabled children in Luwero and Kabale Districts and in Ugandan Child care institutions. A comparative profile to the general child population, Kampala: Makerere University.
- Sengedno, J & Nambi, J (1997). The psychological effect of orphanhood: a study of orphans in Rakai district. *Health Transit Rev.* 7, 105-24.
- Steffenhagen, R. A., and Burns, J. D. (1987). The social dynamics of self-esteem.
- Strange, J. L. Neuenschwander, N L. and Dauer, A L. (2005). Self-Esteem in Females throughout Childhood and Adolescence, Huntington College
- Tizard, B., & Hodges, J. (1978). The effect of early institutional rearing on the development of eight year old children. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 19, 99-118.
- Van Laar, C. (2000). The Paradox of Low Academic Achievement but High Self-Esteem in African American Students: An Attributional Account. *Educational Psychology Review*, 5(1), 33-61.
- Van Tuinen, M. & Ramanaiah, N. V. (1979). A multi-method analysis of selected self-esteem measures. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 13, 16-24.
- West, C.K., Fish, J. A., & Stevens, J. A. (1980). General self-concepts, ability and school achievement: Implications for "causes of self-concept". *Australian Journal of Education*, 24, 194-213.
- Whetten, K. Ostermann, J. Whetten, R. A. Pence, B.W. O'Donnell, K. Messer, L.C. Thielman, N.M. (2009). A comparison of the wellbeing of orphans and abandoned

children ages 6-12 in institutional and community based care settings in 5 less wealthy nations.

- Wigfield, A. & Eccles, J.S. (1994). Children's competence beliefs, achievement values, and general self-esteem: Change across elementary and middle school. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 14*(2), 107-138.
- Wiggins, J.D. (1987). Self-esteem, earned grades, and television viewing habits of students. *The school counselor, 35*(2), 128-133.
- Wolff , Fesseha G. (1998). The orphans of Eriteria: are orphans parts of the problem or part of the solution? *Am I Psychiatry, 155*(10), 1319-24.
- Wolff, Dawit Y. Zere B (1995). The solomuna orphanage: a historical survey. *Soc Sci Med. 40*(8), 1133-9.
- Wylie, R.C., (1979). *The Self Concept: Vol. 2. Theory and Research on Selected Topic.* Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Yogev, A. & Ilan, Y. (1987). Does self-esteem affect educational aspirations? *Urban Education, 22*(2), 182-202
- Zamora, N. (1994). *Orphanages Reconsidered: Child Care Institutions in Progressive era.* Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Zeanah, C. H., Smyke, A. T., Koga, S. F., & Carlson, E. (2005). Attachment in institutionalized and community children in Romania. *Child Development, 76*(5), 10-15.
- Zhoa Q, Li X, Kaljee LM, Fang X, Stanton B, Zhang L. (2009). AIDS orphanages in China: reality and challenges. Department of Pediatrics, Pediatric Prevention Research Center, Wayne State University School of Medicine, Detroit, Michigan USA.

## **APPENDIX A**

### **Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory**

#### **English Version**

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**  
**SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY**

**The objective of the questionnaire**

The objective of this questionnaire is to assess and collect information that used to study the self-esteem, academic achievement and related issues of Selam Children Village students. The questionnaire has two main sections, the first contains questions regarding to students background and the second contains questions about self-esteem of the students.

**Dear students**

Since the accuracy and appropriateness of this study is based on each question that you are going to replay, we kindly request you to add your impute by reading the directions carefully and replay each questions with correct answer you feel.

- 1) Each questions don not contain 'right' or 'wrong' answer, rather they have personal thoughts and judgments; so it is forbidden to cheat or discuss, since it can mislead the objective of the study.
- 2) We would like to inform you that, your response will be kept confidential and it will be used only for the study result. Thank you for your constructive cooperation.

## Part I General Information

**Direction:** Below, general question that require your information are found. For question that are provided as a choice please mark / ✓ / and write for question that require your answer in front of the given space.

1. Sex:                      Male \_\_\_\_\_                      Female \_\_\_\_\_
2. Grade:                      \_\_\_\_\_ student
3. You are living-  

in the institution _____	with my father only _____
with my father and mother _____	with my mother only _____
with my relatives _____	If other, please specify _____
4. If your answer is 'in the institution' for question number 3, when did you joined the institution?  

Before 1 year _____	Before 2 years _____	Before 4 years _____
Before 6 years _____	Never remember _____	If other, specify _____

## Part II Self-Esteem Test (Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale)

After reading each statement in this part choose your level of agreement that represent most about your feeling from the levels given below. Mark your level of agreement in front of the statement by using / ✓ / mark.

The levels are;      **4: Strongly Agree**  
                                  **3: Agree**

**2: Disagree**  
**1: Strongly Disagree**

No	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I feel I'm as important as others.				
2	I feel there are a lot of good things about me.				
3	I tend to feel that I am a loser.				
4	I feel I can do things as well as most other people.				
5	I feel I don't have much to be proud of.				
6	I have good feelings about myself.				
7	Most of the time I am happy with myself.				
8	I wish I could appreciate myself more.				
9	I feel useless sometimes.				
10	At times I think I am no good at all.				

### Part III Self-Esteem Test (Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory)

After reading each statement in this part choose your level of agreement that represent most about your feeling from the levels given below. Mark your level of agreement in front of the statement by using / ✓ / mark.

*The levels are:*            *Like Me*  
                                      *Unlike Me*

No	Statements	Like Me	Unlike Me
1	Things usually don't bother me.		
2	I find it very hard to talk in front of a class.		
3	There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.		
4	I can make up my mind without too much trouble.		
5	I have a lot of fun to be with.		
6	I get upset easily at home.		
7	It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.		
8	I'm popular with persons my own age.		
9	My family usually considers my feelings.		

10	I give in very easily.		
11	My family expects too much of me.		
12	It's pretty though to be me.		
13	Things are all mixed up in my life.		
14	People usually follow my ideas.		
15	I have a low opinion of myself.		
16	There are many times when I would like to leave home.		
17	I often feel upset with my work.		
18	I'm not as nice looking as most people.		
19	If I have something to say, I usually say it.		
20	My family understands me.		
21	Most people are better liked than I am.		
22	I usually feel as if my family is pushing me.		
23	I often get discouraged with what I am doing.		
24	I often wish I were someone else.		
25	I can't be depended on.		

## **APPENDIX B**

### **Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory**

#### **Amharic Version**

**አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ  
ድህረ ምረቃ ት/ት ቤት  
የሳይኮሎጂ ት/ት ክፍል**

**ለሰላም የህጻናት መንደር ት/ቤት ተማሪዎች የቀረበ**

**የመጠይቁ አጠቃላይ አላማ**

የዚህ መጠይቅ ዋና አላማ ለሰላም የህጻናት መንደር ት/ቤት ተማሪዎች ግለ-እሳቤ (ለራስ ያለን ዋጋ) እና የቀለም ትምህርት ውጤትና ተዛማጅ ሀሳቦችን ለማጥናት የሚያስችል መረጃ መስጠት ነው። መጠይቁ ሁለት ዋና ዋና ክፍሎች ሲኖሩት የመጀመሪያው ክፍል ስለተማሪዎች አጠቃላይ መረጃ ማግኘት የሚያስችሉ ጥያቄዎችን የያዘ ሲሆን ሁለተኛው ክፍል ደግሞ የተማሪዎችን ግለ-እሳቤ የሚመለከቱ ጥያቄዎች የቀረቡበት ክፍል ነው።

**ውድ ተማሪዎች :-**

የዚህ ጥናት አስተማማኝነትና ትክክለኛነት የሚወሰነው እናንተ ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ በምትሰጡት ምላሽ በመሆኑ በእያንዳንዱ ክፍል ውስጥ ያሉትን መመሪያዎች በጥሞና በማንበብ ለጥያቄዎቹ ትክክለኛ መልስ በመስጠት የበኩላችሁን አስተዋጽኦ ታደርጉ ዘንድ ከወዲሁ በትህትና እንጠይቃለን። በዚህ መሠረት፡-

- 1) እያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ የራስን ሀሳብና የስምምነት ደረጃ የሚገልጽ እንጂ አንድ ትክክለኛ መልስ ስለሌለው የሌላን ሰው መልስ በማየት ወይም ተወያይቶ መስራት የመጠይቁን ዓላማ ስለሚያዛባ የየራሳችሁን መልስ ብቻ በመመለስ እንድትተባበሩን
- 2) ለመጠይቁ የምትሰጡት ምላሽ በሚስጥር ተጠብቆ ለጥናቱ ውጤት ብቻ የሚውል መሆኑን እየገለጹን ለምታደርጉልን ቀና ትብብር ሁሉ ከወዲሁ እናመስግናለን።

**ክፍል አንድ: አጠቃላይ ጥያቄዎች**

መመሪያ: ቀጥሎ ስለ እናንተ አጠቃላይ መረጃዎችን የሚሹ ጥያቄዎች ቀርቦዋል።

በምርጫ መልክ ለቀረቡት ጥያቄዎች ትክክለኛ አማራጮቹ ፊትለፊት የ / ✓ / ምልክት

በማስቀመጥ መልሱ ፣ በክፍት ቦታ ለቀረቡት ደግሞ በክፍት ቦታው ላይ መልሱን

በመጻፍ መልሱ።

1. ጾታ:                      ወንድ -----                      ሴት -----

2. የክፍል ደረጃ: -----

3. እየኖርክ/ሽ ያለከው/ሽው

በተቋሙ ውስጥ -----	ከአባቴ ጋር ብቻ -----
ከአባትና ከእናቴ ጋር -----	ከእናቴ ጋር ብቻ -----
ከዘመዶቹ ጋር -----	ሌላ ካለ ግለጸው -----

4. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 3 መልስህ/ሽ 'በተመባ ውስጥ' ከሆነ ወደተቋሙ የገባኸው/ሽው መቼ ነው?

ከ1 ዓመት በፊት----- ከ2 ዓመት በፊት ----- ከ4 ዓመት በፊት -----

ከ6 ዓመት በፊት----- በፍጹም አላስታውሰውም -----ሌላ ካለ ግለጸው ----

**ክፍል ሁለት : የሮዘንበርግ ግለ-እሳቤ (ለራስ ያለን ዋጋ) መመዘኛ መጠይቅ**

በዚህ ክፍል ውስጥ የቀረቡትን ጥያቄዎች በጥሞና ካነበባችሁ በኋላ በእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ ፊት ለፊት ከቀረቡት ደረጃዎች መካከል ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ የእናንተን የስምምነት ደረጃ ይበልጥ ይገልፀዋል ብላችሁ በምታስቡት ደረጃ ላይ የ / ✓ / ምልክት በማስቀመጥ መልሱ።

**ደረጃዎቹም :-**

4: በጣም አስማማለሁ

2: አልስማማም

3: እስማማለሁ

1: በጣም አልስማማም

ተ/ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	አዎን በጣም እስማማለሁ (4)	አዎን እስማማለሁ (3)	አይ አልስማማም (2)	በፍጹም አልስማማም (1)
1.	እንደሌሎች ዋጋ ያለኝ መስሎ ይሰማኛል።				
2.	ስለራሴ በርካታ መልካም ነገሮች እንዳሉኝ ይሰማኛል።				
3.	በአመዛኙ የተሸናፊነት ስሜት ይሰማኛል።				
4.	ሌሎች ሰዎች እንደሚሰሩት አኔም መስራት እንደምችል ይሰማኛል።				
5.	ብዙ የምኮራባቸው ነገሮች እንደሌሎች ይሰማኛል።				
6.	ስለ ራሴ ጥሩ የሆነ አመለካከት አለኝ።				
7.	አብዛኛውን ጊዜ በራሴ በጣም ደስተኛ ነኝ።				
8.	ራሴን ይበልጥ ማድነቅ ብትል ብዬ አመኛለሁ።				
9.	አንዳንድ ጊዜ ምንም ዋጋ የሌለኝ እንደሆንኩ ይሰማኛል።				
10.	ምንም ጥሩ ጎን እንደሌለኝ የማስብበት ጊዜያት አሉ።				

**ክፍል ሶስት፡ ኮፐርፖሬሽን የግለ-አሳቤ መመዘኛ መጠይቅ**

በዚህ ክፍል ውስጥ የቀረቡትን ጥያቄዎች በጥሞና ካነበባችሁ በኋላ በእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ ፊት ለፊት ከቀረቡት ደረጃዎች መካከል ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ የእናንተን የስምምነት ደረጃ ይበልጥ ይገልጻል ብላችሁ በምታስቡት ደረጃ ላይ የ / ✓ / መልክት በማስቀመጥ መልሱ።

ደረጃዎቹም፡-

- 1. አልስማማም/ አይገልጽኝም
- 2. እስማማለሁ/ ይገልጻል

ተ/ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	እስማማለሁ/ ይገልጻል	አልስማማም/ አይገልጽኝም
1	ነገሮች እምብዛም አያስጨንቁኝም።		
2	በክፍል ተማሪዎች ፊት ለፊት መናገር ለእኔ በጣም ይከብደኛል።		
3	መቀየር ብኝል ስለራሴ የምቀይራቸው በርካታ ነገሮች አሉ።		
4	ያለ ብዙ ችግር አስተሳሰቤን አስተካክላለሁ።		
5	ብዙ ደስተኛ የሚያደርጉኝ ነገሮች አሉ።		
6	እቤት ውስጥ በምሆንበት ጊዜ በቀላሉ እናደዳለሁ።		
7	አዳዲስ ነገሮችን ወይንም ሁነቶችን ለመልመድ ብዙ ጊዜ ይወስድብኛል።		
8	ከእድሜ እኩቶቼ መካከል እኔ ታዋቂ ነኝ።		
9	ቤተሰቦቼ/ተንከባካቢዎቼ ብዙውን ጊዜ ስሜቴን ይረዱልኛል።		

10	በቀላሉ ተስፋ እቆርጣለሁ።		
11	ቤተሰቦቼ/ተንከባካቢዎቼ ከእኔ ብዙ ይጠብቃሉ።		
12	ራሴን ለመሆን በጣም ይከብደኛል።		
13	ነገሮች ሁሉ በህይወቴ የተዘበራረቁ ናቸው።		
14	በአብዛኛው ተማሪዎች የእኔን ሐሳብ የቀበላሉ።		
15	ስለራሴ ዝቅተኛ አመለካከት አለኝ።		
16	የምኖርበትን ቤት ለመልቀቅ የፈለኩባቸው ጊዜያት አሉ።		
17	በአብዛኛው በስራዬ እናደዳለሁ።		
18	እንደሌሎች ተማሪዎች ጥሩ የምመስል አይደለሁም።		
19	የምናገረው ነገር ካለኝ ብዙውን ጊዜ እናገራለሁ።		
20	ቤተሰቦቼ/ተንከባካቢዎቼ ሀሳቤን ይረዳሉ።		
21	ብዙ ሰዎች ከእኔ ይበልጥ የሚወደዱ ይመስለኛል።		
22	ቤተሰቦቼ/ተንከባካቢዎቼ ብዙ ጫና የሚያሳድሩብኝ ይመስለኛል።		
23	ብዙ ጊዜ በምሰራው ስራ ተነሳሽነቴን አጣዋለሁ።		
24	ብዙውን ጊዜ ሌላ ሰው መሆንን እመኛለሁ።		
25	የምታመን አይደለሁም።		

## **APPENDIX C**

### **Independent Sample Test Result**

**Table 19 Independent Sample Test for Institutionalized Orphans and Non-Orphan Students Self-Esteem as measured by RSES**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.524	.470	3.357	281	.001	2.1854	.651	.90	3.4

**Table 20 Independent Sample Test for Institutionalized Orphans and Non-Orphans Students Academic Achievement as Measured by CCGPA**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	5.190	.023	3.356	281	.001	4.749	1.415	1.9	7.5

## DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work, has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Asaye Gebrewold

Signature: 

Date of Submission: 13-07-2010