

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**SELF-EFFICACY, SELF-ESTEEM, AND AGGRESSION AND
THEIR RELATIONSHIP WITH ADOLESCENT STUDENTS'
ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT: THE CASE OF GAMBELLA
NATIONAL REGIONAL STATE**

BY

ZERIHUN DESTA NEGUSSIE



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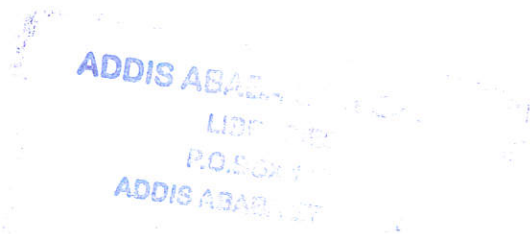
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ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Acknowledgment	i
Table of Contents	ii
List of Tables	iv
Abstract	v
CHAPTER ONE: Introduction	1
1.1. Background of the Problem	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem	4
1.3. Objectives of the Research	5
1.4. Significance of the Study	5
1.5. Scope of the Study	6
1.6. Operational Definitions.....	6
CHAPTER TWO: Review of Related Literature	7
2. 1. Adolescence	7
2.2. Academic Achievement	8
2.3. Self-Efficacy	9
2.3.1. Meaning and Development of Self- Efficacy	9
2.4. Self- Esteem.....	17
2.4.1. Self- Esteem: Definition and Background	17
2.5. Aggression	24
2.5.1. Definition and Types of Aggression	24
CHAPTER THREE: Method of the Study	31
3.1. Sampling Procedures	31
3.2 Sampling	31
3.3. Variables	32
3.4. Instruments	33
3.5. Data Gathering Procedures	34
3.6. Methods of Data Analyses.	35

CHAPTER FOUR: Results	36
4.1. The relationship of Self- Efficacy, Self-Esteem, and Aggression With Academic Achievement.....	38
4.2. The Relationship of Academic Achievement with Self- Efficacy, Self- Esteem, and Aggression.....	39
4.3. Gender Difference in Academic Achievement, Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, and Aggression	40
CHAPTER FIVE: Discussion	41
5.1. Relationship of Gender, Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem with Academic Achievement.....	41
5.2. Gender Difference in Academic Achievement, Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem and Aggression	41
5.2.1. Academic Achievement and Gender.	42
5.2.2. Self-Esteem and Gender.	42
5.2.3. Aggression and Gender.....	43
5.2.4. Self-Efficacy and Gender.....	43
5.3. Interdependence among the Independent Variables	43
CHAPTER SIX: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation.....	45
6.1. Summary	45
6.2 .Conclusion	45
6.3. Recommendation	46
REFERENCES	48
APPENDIX I: Self-Efficacy, Self -Esteem, and Aggression Scale (English Version)	
APPENDIX II: Self-Efficacy, Self -Esteem, and Aggression Scale (Amharic Version)	

List of Tables

	Page
Table A. Population and sample subjects of the study by school, grades and gender.....	32
Table 1: Descriptive statistics that involve the means, standard deviations, median, and range of the variables in the study.	36
Table 2: Means and standard deviations in academic achievement of students in the different levels of the independent variables (N=286)	36
Table 3. Intercorrelation of predictor variables and criterion variable.....	38
Table 4. Results of regression analysis on academic achievement	39
Table 5: t-test for sex differences in academic achievement, self-efficacy, self-esteem and aggression	40

ABSTRACT

The objectives of this study were to investigate the relationship between adolescent self-efficacy, self-esteem, aggression, gender and their academic performance. The data were gathered through three Likert type scales (self-efficacy, self-esteem, and aggression) and data on their academic performance were collected from the record offices of their respected schools. A total of 286 (225 males and 61 females) high school adolescent students ranging from 15 to 18 years of age attending grade nine and ten in the Gambella Region constitute the sample. The sample was selected through proportional stratified random sampling method. The results were analyzed using mean, standard deviation, Pearson correlation, t-test and multiple regression. The Intercorrelation matrix result indicated that self-efficacy and academic achievement had a positive correlation of $r=0.15$, $p < 0.05$; and aggression and academic achievement had a negative correlation of $r=-0.18$, $p < 0.01$; and aggression and self-esteem had a negative correlation of $r=-0.22$, $p < 0.01$. The contribution of gender, aggression, self-efficacy together accounted for 10.40 percent of variation in academic achievement. Gender was positively and significantly related to academic achievement ($r=0.20$, $p < 0.05$). A statistically significant difference was obtained in academic achievement and aggression in favor of males $t(284) = 3.434$, $p < 0.05$ and $t(284) = 3.82$, $p < 0.05$ respectively. Similarly, a statistically significant difference was observed between male and female self-esteem scores in favor of females ($t(284) = -4.071$, $p < 0.05$ in absolute value). However, the t-test shows that no statistically significant difference was observed between male and female students in self-efficacy $t(284) = 1.109$, $p > 0.05$. It indicates that students' gender difference influences their academic achievement. Hence, due attention should be given in enhancing self-efficacy and self-esteem and minimizing aggression of adolescent students in order to facilitate a better academic performance in schools.

CHAPTER ONE: Introduction

1.1. Background of the Problem

The role-played by education in reducing poverty and enhancing suitable development of any society has become an established fact. In this regard, parents and schools have a paramount role to play. The understanding of the essence of the development and problems of adolescents (about their self-efficacy, self-esteem, and aggressive behavior) in terms of their impacts on levels of academic performance is necessary in order to impart a fruitful education.

Academic success depends on a number of factors. Cognitive factors such as intellectual ability, constitutes one of the multiple factors that affect students' academic performance (Entwistle, 1972). Many studies works have indicated that these cognitive factors explain about one-half to three fourth of the variability in academic performance (Entwistle,1972; Makonnen,1987).This great amount of variability accounted for by the intellectual factors would make responsible bodies to give due attention to these factors in the process of instruction and evaluation.

In the viewpoint of the present research, this could be another important reason for the disparities. Scholars like Makonnen (1987) and Daniel (1992) argue that non-cognitive factors have the power to facilitate or hinder cognitive achievement. Thus, emphasis should be given to these variables in predicting academic achievement of adolescents in school. School counseling has great potential to help students achieve high standards in the academic, career, and personal/social aspects of their lives. An ongoing issue in the field of school counseling is a general lack of understanding by critical stakeholders about what school counselors do that impacts student outcomes. School counselors have historically been trained as mental health providers rather than as student advocates, school leaders, and empirical researchers (House & Martin, 1998). In relation to this, the researcher observed that there are no professional school counselors in the Gambella region in general and in the specific schools in particular.

Childhood aggression is an important focus for educators and parents owing to its relative stability over time and consistent link to a variety of negative outcomes later in adolescence, including delinquency, substance use, conduct problems, poor adjustment, and academic difficulties (poor grades, suspension, expulsion, and dropping out of school). In addition, verbal and physical aggressions often are the first signs, as well as later defining symptoms, of several childhood psychiatric disorders (Barry, T.D. & Lochman, J.E. ,2007).

Middle and junior high schools (typically any combination of Grades 6-9) may be particularly important, because these grades span the transition from childhood into adolescence. This transition is often marked by an acceleration in the prevalence of risky behaviors (Dryfoos, 1998), and there is some evidence weapon carrying and violent behaviors both on and off school grounds increase over the middle school grades (DuRant et al., 1996, 1999), although there is a paucity of violence-related surveillance data for this age group.

Researchers have reported that self-efficacy beliefs may play a mediation role in relation to cognitive enhancement and that might lead to increased use of cognitive strategies that, in turn, lead to improved performance. Concerning this, Pajares (2002) stated that in schools, the beliefs that students develop about their academic capabilities help determine what they do with the knowledge and skills they possess. Consequently, their academic performances are in large part the result of what students actually come to believe that they have accomplished, are accomplishing, and can accomplish in the future.

Vrugt (1994) stated that people with positive perceived self-efficacy pursue a relatively high level of performance because they do not put off easily while they face difficult tasks. On the other hand, if a person has perceived self-efficacy is negative, he/she pursues a lower level of performance. Other research works have also revealed that there exists potentially important relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance in the domain of writing and reading. A study by Shell (1995), which

examined self-efficacy in relation to writing achievement of children, indicated that self-efficacy is predictive of writing achievement. In the reading domain, self-efficacy for reading was significantly and positively correlated with reading achievement for elementary and high school students (Schunk, 1991; and Shell, 1995).

Existing Psychological and educational theories that emphasize individualistic values (e.g., innate ability, intrinsic interest, and self-esteem), however, cannot explain the high level of achievement of students. In contrast, self, relation, and social efficacies have direct and mediating influence on educational achievement. Relational efficacy and social support received from parents have a strong influence on student's academic performance. Social efficacy and social support received from teachers are important factors when students are young. When they enter high school, social support received from friends becomes important. The most prominent self-efficacy theorist is Albert Bandura (Bandura, 1977; 1982; 1989a and b). Bandura theorizes that individuals develop general anticipation regarding cause and effect based upon experience; He also suggests that individuals develop specific beliefs regarding their own coping abilities within situation-specific constructs. Consequently, if these theories are applied to the study of children's beliefs about learning specific subjects one might predict that children with high self-efficacy regarding academic matters (or, as we refer to it "academic efficacy") would demonstrate greater success. The apparent dynamic is that self-efficacy beliefs are "not simply inert predictors of future behavior" but that those with more efficacious beliefs "make things happen" (Bandura, 1989a, p. 731). This makes sense intuitively and is supported by research (Brookover, et al., 1978; Chapman, et al; Pintrich and DeGroot (1990), Pintrich, et al, 1994; Schunk, 1989a; Skinner, 1985; Skinner, et, al., 1988; Stodolsky, Salk, and Glaessner, 1991; Zimmerman, et al, 1992). The influence in schools of the surge of interest in the self-concept of students was pronounced but, to say the least, uneven. In great part, this was due to the fact that research on the relationship between self-esteem and adaptive functioning either was inconclusive or provided unsettling results. The relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement runs the extent from positive to negative.

The need to account for group difference in achievement related variables is particularly important in order to identify at risk groups (i.e., at risk of achievement problems), and to better structure learning environment and support systems for these students in an effort to enhance or facilitate their achievement prospects (Lavery, 1999). Ponsford and Lapadat (2001) stressed, " [schools can] use their environment" (p.140). Importantly, Stipek and Weisz (1981) argued that, if achievement related variables are more amenable to change intelligence, then achievement might be enhanced indirectly through practices that positively influence the development of these achievement related cognitions in students who are at risk of low educational achievement. Dowson and McInerneys (1998) argued, relationships between students' school perceptions, motivation, cognition and achievement vary as a function of their age, gender, cultural, and socioeconomic backgrounds".

Hence, this research tries to find the relationship of self-efficacy, self-esteem, aggression traits and the academic performance of adolescents.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

In the target community and schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State the academic achievement of students, particularly adolescents are getting worse from time to time. Adolescents are not seen to succeed as they are expected to. This poor performance results are suspected to be related to students' personal behaviors such as self-efficacy, self-esteem and aggression. It is assumed that these behaviors are likely to affect the adolescents' academic performance.

This research was therefore designed to answer the following questions:

- Are there significant relations between self-efficacy, self-esteem, aggression and Gender among Adolescents in predicting their academic performance?
- Is there significant relation in gender in the independent and dependent variable?
- Are the assumed independent variables (self-efficacy, self-esteem and aggression) significantly related with each other?

1.3. Objectives of the Research

A general objective of the study is to find the relationship between adolescents' self-efficacy, self-esteem, aggression, and gender in relation to their academic performance.

Specific objectives of the study are :

- To find whether self-efficacy, self-esteem, aggression, and gender are related in predicting academic achievement of adolescents' students.
- To see whether there is significant gender difference between the independent variables and academic performance of the students.
- To find whether adolescent self-efficacy, self-esteem, and aggression are significantly related each other in predicting academic performance of adolescents.

1.4. Significance of the Study

Now a day's aggressive behavior is an increasing and result violent and hostile individual. This behavior is also related with individuals self-esteem and self-efficacy that consequence poor academic performance.

Similarly, in our country adolescent students are seen to be involved in much domestic violence and might affect their academic performance. Some studies have been conducted by Getachew (2006): on adolescents' self-esteem and attitudes toward counseling; Adugna (2005): parenting styles and adolescents' aggression, and Ali (2005): role of counseling and corporal punishment. However, this study is mainly focused on the relationship between adolescents' aggression, self-esteem, and self-efficacy and their academic performance. The result of the investigation will be used as a source of information for concerned authorities to design intervention strategies pertaining to the adolescent group. The output of this inquiry may also inform concerned stakeholders, teachers, and parents on how to be aware of their behavior problems and adjust them to enhance their academic achievement. The research product can also serve as initial reference to conduct further study on the development of adolescents' academic achievement level.

1.5. Scope of the Study

This research is conducted in one of the regions of Ethiopia, which is 777 km far from Addis Ababa, and the time limit of the study is one year, which is from Sep. 2006 up to august 2007. So due to time, money and other factors it is limited to study the population sample from three secondary schools found in the Gambella Region. In addition, the variables considered in the study are only seen from their general perspectives, i.e., both aggression and self-esteem are considered as general aggressiveness and global self-esteem of the adolescent students.

1.6. Operational Definitions.

The following words are assumed to be defined according to the objectives of the study.

- **Adolescence-** Adolescence is the transitional stage of development between childhood and full adulthood, representing the period during which a person is biologically adult but emotionally not at full maturity. The ages, which are considered as part of adolescence, vary by culture. In this study, adolescence ranges from 15 to 18 years old.
- **Aggression-Aggression** is a harmful or damaging attack upon other people or things. It is a perception of adolescents about their own aggressive behavior as measured by Buss and Perry (1992), Bjorkqvist et al., (1992), and Eysenck (1997) 36 items .
- **Self-Efficacy-** It is an impression that one capable of performing in a certain manner or attaining certain goals. It is judgments of adolescents' capabilities to perform a given actions as measured by Pitnrich and DeGroot (1990) and Roeser et al., 1996 15 items.
- **Self- Esteem-** It refers to an individual's sense of his or her value or worth, or the extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes him or herself. Here, self-esteem refers the global self-esteem, not domain –specific as measured by Rosenberg self-Esteem Scale (1965) 10 items.
- **Academic Achievement-** Scores of individual subjects from their school record office.

CHAPTER TWO: Review of the Related Literature

2.1. Adolescence

Adolescence is a period of human development characterized by a complex set of developmental changes which bridges childhood and young adulthood. It is a time of major changes-social, emotional, physical and cognitive-in all developmental domains (Rickwood et al., 2005), with potential for conflicts and stress (Rosanne and Martin, 2004). Adolescence is a critical period in human life span, particularly in terms of factors influencing mental health and well-being (Rickwood et al, 2005; Reinherz et al, 1993 in Sheffield, Fiorenza and Sofronoff, 2004). Developmental tasks associated with adolescence cause a unique set of stressors and strains (Patterson and McCubbin, 1987). Likewise, Aggarwal (1994) described adolescence as a period of anxieties, worries, ambitions, conflicts and complexities. The word adolescence is Latin in origin, derived from the word 'adolescere' which means "to grow in to adulthood" (Steinberg 1999), or "to grow into maturity" (Gross, 2001). Adolescence is "roughly the second decade of the life span" (Steinberg, 1999, P.4). Steinberg (1999) described adolescence as a time of growing up and moving from immaturity into maturity in all societies. Lefton (2000) defined adolescence as a transitional period from childhood to adulthood involving a dramatic cognitive, social, and emotional change, ranging in age from 12to20. Lipsitz (1977), and Kagan and Coles (1972) as cited in Steinberg (1999) classified the period of adolescence into three phases, namely, early adolescence (11to14 years), middle adolescence (15 to 18 years) and late adolescence (18 to 21 years). Steinberg (1999) correspond these division of adolescence with educational institutions approximate age, middle or junior high school, high school and college respectively. Adolescence is considered to be the most crucial and critical period in human development.

Adolescence can be a period marked by severe psychological and emotional stresses (Durham, 1999). It is during this time that gender identities, values of self worth, and sexual attitudes become topics of relentless and serious contemplation. Adolescents are moving from childhood into adulthood. They want to understand their new roles, their new ideas, and their new feelings. This exploration of self and newfound independence can result in feelings of anxiety and uncertainty. Now while these changes are occurring

in both males and females, it has been found that females experience a more difficult time with this transition than males (Block and Robins, 1993). Adolescent girls are more apt to experience decreased feeling of attractiveness and self-esteem. Girls are more likely to feel ashamed and distressed by the changes in their body and appearance. They become more insecure and self-aware of the changes that occur. Boys, however, find the progression of adolescence to be a more positive and reassuring time. They tend to experience improved feelings of body satisfaction and self-assurance. While both are increasing in sizes and changing in shape boys welcome this change and girls dread it. Adolescence is nothing but a time of great changes: personal (physical, cognitive, social, emotional), academic (school transitions, responsibility, independence), self-identity, peer friendships. How self-efficacy changes has important implications for adolescents' future in school, personal relationships, and career choices.

2.2. Academic Achievement

The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1989) estimates that about one quarter of the adolescent population is at risk of academic failure and other problem behaviors, with another quarter considered "moderately" at risk (Carnegie council on Adolescent Development, 1989, p.8).

School failure is thus a real problem. As such, it has attracted the attention of researchers in psychology, sociology, and education. They have identified numerous factors that are associated with academic success or failure. These range from individual aspects of learning, such as behavior problems or cognitive deficiencies, to family factors such as parenting techniques, to social issues such as poverty and cultural differences.

Low academic achievement is measured in a variety of ways. The most commonly cited indicators are the rate of high school completion, but statistics are also available on grades, standardized test scores, absenteeism, suspensions and expulsions, and the percentage of students who have been held back.

Dropping out of school before high school graduation is a commonly cited indicator of academic failure. Approximately one-fourth of 18 and 19 year olds have not completed high school (National Center for Education Statistics, 1989, p.24). In addition, a substantial number enter training programs of some kind within two years of dropping out. Because the evidence on self-concept and school achievement is largely correlational, we don't know which came first or which the causal factor is. Perhaps having low self-esteem is the cause of doing poorly in school. On the other hand, poor school performance might cause a negative self-concept, which in turn might precipitate dropping out of school. Recent research supports this latter view, suggesting that improving school performance may enhance self-confidence (Steinberg, 1989, p.247; Sundius, Entwisle, & Alexander, 1991). Behavior problems in school, starting in the elementary grades, are associated with low academic achievement. For example, individuals who are highly aggressive in childhood are less likely to graduate from high school or pursue any college training (Lambert, 1988). Children that are hyperactive also have problems in school. By age 17 or 18, they are more likely than other children to be either achieving poorly, attending a special school, or dropped out altogether (Lambert, 1988). Earlier school problems may be at the root of academic failure in high school. Many students, especially minorities, decide to leave school during early adolescence, and a substantial number of dropout of school before the end of the 10th grade (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1989). Being below grade level, especially by more than one year, is correlated with the likelihood of dropping out of school (Mahan & Johnson, 1983); Center for the study of Social Policy, 1986). Poor performance in school leads to discouragement and ultimately to dropping out (Ekstrom et al, 1986; Steinberg, Blinde & Chan, 1984; Gawa & Griggs, 1985).

2.3. Self-Efficacy

2.3.1 Meaning and Development of Self- Efficacy

Bandura (1986) cited in Zeldin and Pajares (2000) defines self-efficacy, as people's judgment of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action which requires attaining designated types of performance. A person with a well-developed sense of efficacy will behave strongly in his or her capacity, to carry out a task, invest effort in

the activity, and persist in the face of difficulty and have an optimistic outlook. Persons with low level of self-efficacy have little confidence in their capacity to carryout a task, and this can result in evidence of difficult tasks, low aspiration, weak commitment to goals and pessimistic outlook (Pajares, 1996). High self-efficacy helps to create feelings of serenity is approaching difficult tasks and activities. Conversely, people with low self-efficacy may believe that things are tougher than they really are a belief that fosters anxiety, stress, depression, and narrow vision of how best to solve a problem. Although inefficacious individuals usually avoid challenging tasks when they do attempt them give up more easily than individuals with high efficacy. When inefficacious fail, they attribute the unsuccessful result to a lack of ability and tend to lack faith in their success to external factors (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy refers to an individual's expectancy in his or her capability to organize and execute the behavior needed to successfully complete a task (Bandura, 1977; Schunk, 1991). Self-efficacy is also defined as the "self-assessment of ability to master a task or achieve mastery over a specific situation or set of circumstances" (Bandura, 1997).

Self-efficacy beliefs can determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and act. Self-efficacy beliefs affect choices of persons about whether they will be in similar occupational activities in the future or not. These beliefs not only affect the choice of activities, but also help person in determining how much will they strive for achievement, how long they will exert themselves against difficulties, and how will they handle troubles and maintain their course (Bandura, 1977; Pajares, 2002). In the case of education, self-efficacy is seen to be related with effort, persistence and achievement. Chemers and Garcia(2001), in their work on mathematical problem solving, have shown that children with higher self-efficacy strived for longer periods and used more effective problem solving strategies than lower self- efficacious children.

Bandura (1994) has to say that a person's self efficacy expectations influence whether a person will attempt a task, how much effort she/he will spend, and how much the person will persevere in pursuing the task in the face of obstacles and difficult experiences.

According to Pajares (2002), for some scholars the conceptual difference between self-efficacy and self-concept is not always clear. Some researchers use the terms

synonymously and others describe self-concept as a generalized form of self-efficacy. Because there is so much confusion around this issue, it is better making to clarify. According to Pajares (2002), these two constructs represent entirely different self-beliefs. Pajares further has described self-efficacy as the beliefs of personal capability; they are judgments of one's capabilities to perform given actions. Self-concept on the other hand is measured at a more general level than of specificity and includes the evaluation of such competence and the feelings of self-worth associated with the behaviors in question.

Another important difference according to Bandura (1986) is that self-efficacy judgments are especially sensitive to contextual factors, even to the degree of being quite task and situation specific. Compared to self-efficacy judgment, self-concept judgments are more general and less sensitive to context they can be domain specific but not task-specific (Pajares, 2002).

Marsh, Walker and Debus (1991), cited in Pajares (2002) saw the distinction between the two constructs as a difference in the source of an individual's judgments. By comparing one's performance with those of others in related areas, an individual develops a judgment of self-concept. Self-efficacy judgments, on the other hand, focus on the specific abilities one possesses in order to accomplish the critical task.

Bandura (1977) speaks of self-efficacy as the degree of expectancy that one will successfully perform a desired task. When a young person obtains sensory feedback that he or she succeeded in a given task or has demonstrated a talent, he or she will be confident in applying that ability in the future. In contrast, the braggart or the show-off displays a lack of confidence in that he/she needs to prove to himself/herself and others that there is reason to view his/her actions as acceptable or worthy, compensating for unconscious self-doubts.

One individual characteristic that can have an effect on educational resiliency is self-efficacy. General self-efficacy determines how much effort adolescents will expend and how long they will continue to work on an objective even when faced with obstacles

and/or aversive experiences (Bandura, 1982; Sherer et al., 1982). According to Solberg and Villarreal (1997), adolescents with high self-efficacy are more likely to succeed academically and perform behaviors that are conducive to academics. Hence, it is hypothesized that adolescents with higher self-efficacy will stay on-task with schoolwork and make better grades.

Self-efficacy is a key belief underlying adolescents' motivation to act intentionally. Neither a trait, like global self-concept, nor an inborn drive for personal control, self-efficacy beliefs are sensitive to variations in the conditions and outcomes of actual performance. Historically, Bandura's decision to distinguish self-efficacy from outcome expectations is recounted, and self-efficacy is contrasted with alternative self-efficacy constructs.

Bandura (1977) has theorized that self-efficacy stems from one's past experience, i.e., from performance accomplishments (where successful performance strengthened efficacy expectations and occasional failure of which resulted in threatened self-efficacy), and by undergoing vicarious experiences by observing others, verbal persuasions, and emotional arousal of individuals. According to Bandura (1994), people's beliefs about efficacy can be developed by four main sources of influence: Mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasions, and physiological states.

Mastery experience, the interpreted result of purposive performance, is the most influential source of self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1994). On the other hand, Zimmerman (1989) has indicated that low-test results and poor grades generally weaken students' confidence in their capabilities. As a result, students with low mathematics self-efficacy are more likely to avoid future mathematics classes and tasks, and they may approach the area of mathematics with apprehension.

Concerning successes and efforts made for achieving success; Bandura (1994) has found that if people had experienced only easy successes in the past, they came to expect quick results and were easily discouraged by failure. However, a resilient sense of efficacy

requires experience of overcoming obstacles through perseverant effort. Schunk (1989) has shown that the impact of modeling on perceived self-efficacy is strongly influenced by perceived similarity to the models. That is, the greater the assumed similarity, the more persuasive are the model's successes and failures. Schunk (1989) proposed that, if people see the models as very different from themselves, their perceived self-efficacy is not much influenced by the models' behavior and the results it produces. Bandura (1994) has shown that a model's failure has a more negative effect on the self-efficacy of observers when observers judge themselves as having comparable ability to the model. Bandura (1986) postulated that just as positive persuasion may work to encourage and empower, negative persuasions might work to defeat and weaken self-efficacy beliefs. Individuals can also create and develop self-efficacy beliefs as a result of social persuasion others make on them.

Self-efficacious beliefs leading arousal and aroused feeling bolstering self-efficacious beliefs. The loop can operate in the reverse direction also. Bandura (1986) has stated that it is not the sheer intensity of emotional and physical reaction that is important, but rather how they are perceived and interpreted. People who have a high sense of efficacy are likely to view their state of affective arousal as an energizing facilitator of performance, whereas those who are beset by self-doubt regard their arousals as a debilitator. Physiological indicators of efficacy play an especially influential role in health functioning and in athletic and other physical activities

Concerning the relationship between self-efficacy, self-concept and academic performance, there are controversial explanations and research findings. Marsh and his colleagues (1991), cited in Pajares (2002), for instance, compared the direct effect of achievement on the math exams self-concept and self-efficacy of fifth graders and reported a strong direct effect on self-concept than self-efficacy.

Chapman and Tunmer (1995), cited in Pajares (2002), on the other hand, found that the reading performance of beginning readers during their first year of schooling had a stronger effect on their subsequent self-efficacy than on their reading self-concept. At

the domain specific for leaning levels of generality, self-concept and self-efficacy beliefs may be empirically similar. In line with this, Shaalvik and Rankin (1996), cited in Pajares (2002), subjected self-concept items and domain – specific self-efficacy items to confirmatory factor analysis and discovered that they loaded on the same factor, leading them to conjecture that the two may be different measures of the same construct. Research works (Bandura, 1994; Schunk, 1986, 1989) indicated that a strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment. What people know, the skills they possess, or the attainments they have previously accomplished alone are often poor predictors of subsequent attainments; what matters are the beliefs that they hold about their abilities and about the outcomes of their efforts. These beliefs along with the knowledge of past performance influence the ways in which they will behave (Pajares, 2002). In sum, it can be stated that how people behave can often be better predicted by their beliefs about their capabilities than by what they are actually capable of accomplishing. Further, Pajares (2002) has clearly established that people cannot accomplish tasks beyond their capabilities simply by believing that they can. Individuals should possess competencies in the first place and self-perception of such capabilities helps determine that individuals will do with them. Pajares has also asserted that self-efficacy beliefs are critical determinants of how well knowledge and skill are acquired in the first place. This is a relatively unexplored area.

Bandura (1994) asserted that people who remain assured in their compatibilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Such an efficacious outlook according to Bandura fasters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities. However, people who are not self – efficacious shy away from difficult tasks, which they view as personal threats.

Though many of the research evidences in this area have confirmed significant positive relation between self-efficacy and academic performance of students, some other empirical findings show that self-efficacy beliefs were not predictive of academic performance.

When compared with students who doubt their learning capabilities and those who feel efficacious for learning or performing a task participate more reading, persist longer when they encounter difficulties, and achieve at higher level (e.g., Schunk, 1984; Yalaw, 1996, 1997). Students' confidences in their academic skills, expect higher marks on exam, and expect the quality of their work to reap on exam benefits. The opposite is also true of those who lack such confidence, students who doubt their academic ability envision before they begin an exam (Pajares, 1997). In different research results, positive and statistically significant relationships were found between self-efficacy and academic performance (Multon, Brown, and Lent, 1991; Yalaw, 1996; Hackett and Betz, 1989). Self-efficacy has been found to predict performance (Bandura,1997;Multon et al.,1991;Lane & Lane,2001;Lane et al.,2002,in Press; Milton et al.,2003).

Many researchers show that boys and men tend to be more confident than girls and women in academic areas related to mathematics, science, and technology (Hackett and Betz, 1989; Pajares and Miller, 1994; Yalaw, 1997). It has been further noted that females have lower, self-efficacy for scientific occupation and occupation requiring quantitative skills (Zeldin and Pajares, 2000). Many researchers investigated that lower self-efficacy in females than males in science classes (e.g. Pintrich and DeGroot, 1990; Hackett and Betz 1989). To sum up, Betz and Hackett (1981) in extending Bandura's theory to the domain of career choices of women and men. They argue that largely because of socialization experiences women exhibit lower expectation than men for many achievement related behaviors do and they fail to fully realize their capabilities and talents in career pursuits.

Since females in Ethiopian context encounter repeated failures in classes and get little or no significant encouragement from others specially parents and teachers to strive harder in academic settings, they will develop lower level of self-efficacy than their male counterparts (Genet, 1991).

Research findings by Schunk and Lilly (1984) and Pajares (1994) have found that female student's reported lower self-efficacy expectations than their male counterparts and these

lowered efficacy expectation was improved through training. Junge and Dretzke (1995) stated that females' self-efficacy level is lower than their male counterparts for the fact that they think they failed because they lack some internal qualities helpful for success and probably because they are not expected to achieve high status as the males do by their society.

Similarly, other research findings indicated that boys rated themselves more efficacious than girls, and therefore, the poorer performance of women was largely due to lower judgments of their capabilities. For example, Yalew (1996) has studied gender difference in self-efficacy judgment among high school subjects in the Ethiopian context and results have indicated significant difference between the sexes that favored the boys.

Johnson (1999), cited in Pajares (2002) has argued that boys and girls tend to respond to self-report instruments with a different "mind set". That is, boys and girls may well use a different "metric" when providing confidence judgment that these types of ratings may represent more of a promise to girls than they do to boys. In line with this Wigfield et al., (1996) as cited in Pajares (2002) has found that boys tend to be more "self-congratulatory" in their responses whereas girls tend to be more modest. In other words, boys are more likely to express confidence in skills they may not possess and to express overconfidence in skills they do possess. Some researchers have found that girls perform as capably as do boys in varied academic tasks but often report lower self-efficacy, particularly at higher academic levels. Pajares (1996) has revealed that gifted girls were biased toward under confidence, although most students are generally biased toward overconfidence.

According to Hackett and Betz (1989), Schunk and Pajares (2001) the first and most powerful source of efficacy expectations is mastery experiences, which refer to individuals' experiences with success or failure in particular situation. Information gathered from these experiences is then internalized past successes raise self-efficacy and repeated failures lower, it which indicates to individuals' their levels of capability; (Bandura, 1977; Pajares, 1996, 1997; Swanson and Woitke, 1997).

In general, according to Pajares (1996), self-efficacy is a social cognitive theory of personality, which postulates a triadic reciprocal interaction between individual's personal factors, environmental events, and behavior.

2.4 Self- Esteem

2.4.1. Definition and Background

Self-esteem is a 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 the extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes him or herself (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). The most broad and frequently cited definition of self-esteem within psychology is Rosenberg's (1965), who described it as a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward the self (p. 15).

Self-esteem is generally considered the evaluative component of the self-concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioral aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). While the construct is most often used to refer to a global sense of self-worth, narrower concepts such as self-confidence or body-esteem are used to imply a sense of self-esteem in more specific domains. It is also widely assumed that self-esteem functions as a trait, that is, it is stable across time within individuals. Self-esteem is an extremely popular construct within psychology, and has been related to virtually every other psychological concept or domain, including personality (e.g., shyness) behavioral (e.g., task performance), cognitive (e.g., attribution bias), and clinical concepts (e.g., anxiety and depression).

Self-esteem is an important construct that is related to academic achievement, social functioning and psychopathology in children and adolescents. With respect to academic achievement, various studies indicated that children with low self-esteem are less successful at school (Mann, Hosman, Schaalma & DeVries, 2004)

The relationship between self-esteem and general wellness behavior remained significant even when health values were controlled for. Rivas Torres and his colleagues (Rivas Torres & Fernandez, 1995; Rivas Torres, Fernandez, & Maceira, 1995) examined the relationship among self-esteem, health values, and health behaviors among adolescents.

They found a significant relationship between self-esteem and general health behavior for both younger and older adolescents, and that self-esteem accounted for a significant percent of the variance in mental health behavior, social health behavior, and total health behavior.

Campbell, Krueger & Vohs (2003) in a review of the self-esteem literature concluded that the benefits of high self-esteem fall into two categories enhanced initiative and pleasant feelings. They conclude that self-esteem has little association with health behavior. High self-esteem does not appear to prevent children from drinking, taking drugs, smoking or engaging in early sex.

One's self forms according to experiences and relationships with family, school, work, etc, it is really a person's perception of these experiences and relationships that have a greater impact on one's self-esteem (Mecca et al., 1989)

First, causation needs to be established. It seems possible that high self-esteem brings about happiness, but no research has shown this outcome. The strong correlation between self-esteem and happiness is just that –a correlation. It is plausible that occupational, academic, or interpersonal successes cause both happiness and high self-esteem and that corresponding failures cause both unhappiness and low self-esteem. It is even possible that happiness, in the sense of a temperament or disposition to feel good, induces high self-esteem. What then should we do? Should parents, teachers, and therapists seek to boost self-esteem wherever possible? In the course of our literature review, we found some indications that self-esteem is a helpful attribute. It improves persistence in the face of failure. In addition, individuals with high self-esteem sometimes perform better in groups than do those with low self-esteem.

Marsh and Craven, 1997 have claimed that academic self-concept and achievement are mutually reinforcing, each leading to gains in the other. Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger and Vohs (2003) have claimed that self-esteem has no benefits beyond seductive pleasure and may even be detrimental to subsequent performance. Research based on the model developed by Valentin, DuBios and Cooper shows that prior academic self-concept (as opposed to self-esteem) and achievement each have positive effects on

subsequent measures of the same constructs. Positive self-concept is valued as a desirable outcome in many disciplines of psychology such as education, developmental, sport/exercise, health, social, and personality psychology, as well as in a broad array of other social science disciplines. Methodologists are concerned with particular measurement and methodological issues inherent in the study of self-concept. Professionals, practitioners and policy makers in many areas of social services and welfare seek to improve the self-perspectives of their clients. Hence, self-concept is widely valued as a desirable outcome.

Shavlsion et al., in 1976 stressed that self-concept is important both as an outcome and as a mediating variable that helps to explain other outcomes. Hence, self-perceptions influence the way one acts, and these behaviors in turn influence one's self-perceptions. Thus, academic self-concept is both a cause and an effect of academic achievement whereby academic self-concept influences subsequent achievement beyond the effects of prior achievement, antisocial behavior and delinquency. Whereas some researchers have argued that externalizing problems are related to high self-esteem and result from threatened egotism (e.g., Baumeister, Smart, and Boden, 1996), others have found a strong relation between low self-esteem and externalizing problems (Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt, and Caspi, 2005). Given the importance of self-esteem in the development and general functioning of youths, it is not surprising that many interventions have been developed to change self-esteem in youths. Self-esteem refers to an overall evaluation of one's worth value as a person (Harter, 2003). Global self-esteem is distinguished from domain-specific self-esteem, such as scholastic competence, athletic competence, per-likeability; to make global self-evaluations does not occur until middle childhood. Younger children are able to judge their ability in specific domains but they are not able to make overall judgments about their self-worth (Harter, 1999). In adolescence, self-evaluations become more differentiated and other domains become relevant, such as close friendship, romantic appeal, and job competence (Harter, 2003).

Sociometric theory acknowledges the importance of competence related beliefs for high self-esteem (e.g., academic achievement or athletic competence), but argues that the impact of these beliefs on self-esteem is mediated by perceived relational value (Leary and MacDonald, 2003). Whereas the level of global self-esteem is generally relatively high during childhood, it drops dramatically when children enter adolescence (Robins, Trzesniewski, Tracy, Gosling, and Potter, 2002; Major, Barr, Zubek, and Babey, 1999). The enormous decrease of global self-esteem during adolescence can be attributed to significant changes that take place during the transition from childhood to adolescence. Clearly, adolescence is a stressful developmental stage with marked biological, cognitive, social, psychological, and academic changes (Finkenauer, Engels, Meeus, and Oosterwelgl, 2002; Robins et al., 2002).

Research on gender differences in childhood self-esteem has yielded inconsistent results. Some studies have indicated that boys have a higher self-esteem than girls (King, Hyde, Showers, and Buswell, 1999), whereas other studies have found no gender differences (Major et al., 1999; Robins et al., 2002). During adolescence, however, the picture seems clear. Most studies have demonstrated that self-esteem decreases more sharply in adolescent girls than in adolescent boys (Robins et al., 2002).

According to Harter, two factors play an important role in the development and maintenance of self-esteem in children and adolescents: (1) perceived competence in areas of importance, and (2) the experience of social support (Harter, 1999). Domains of perceived competence not only have a direct impact on self-esteem, but also influence approval and support of parents and peers. That is, good academic competence and behavioral conduct elicit approval and support of parents, whereas good physical appearance, relationships to peers and athletic competence result in an approval and support of peers (Harter, 2003).

Many children and adolescents maintain a positive view of themselves by achieving success in domains of perceived competence (Crocker and Park, 2003). For example, children who are relatively good in football may play football more frequently and may

invest more time in training. Consequently, their football skills increase even further and their self-esteem remains high. However, youths are not always capable of achieving success, which makes them to engage in strategies to protect, maintain or enhance their self-esteem levels.

According to Harter (1999), self-esteem interventions should be directed at its cognitive and social determinants. Four strategies can be identified that are directed at the cognitive determinants. First, self-esteem interventions should reduce strategies between aspirations and perceived competence. One way is to improve skills in areas in which there are large discrepancies, which may in turn lead to enhanced perceptions of competence. Another way is to highlight the importance of areas in which the child is skillful and the discount the ones which he/she is unsuccessful. Second, self-esteem interventions for older children and adolescents could attempt to encourage relatively accurate self-evaluations. However, the enhancement of perceptions of competence youths with low self-worth is rather difficult as they generally tend to seek feedback that confirms their self-concept and thus are relatively resistant to attempts to alter their self-perceptions. Third, self-esteem interventions should assess the potential for change in the valence of self-representations. For example, during the transition from elementary school to high school, young people become vulnerable and self-esteem levels tend to drop drastically. This seems a proper developmental period for primary prevention interventions and attempts to increase self-esteem of those youngsters who have low self-esteem. Fourth, self-esteem interventions should also pay attention to individual's own theories about the causes of their low self-esteem. In general, children and adolescents with low self-esteem tend to attribute their failures internally. The development of self-esteem interventions targeting children and adolescents is a complex process. Such self-esteem programs should be theory-and evidence-based and should be developed in close collaboration between intervention developers, social scientists, program implementers and users.

In 1986, a group of California state legislators convinced themselves that low self-esteem was the root cause behind a variety of social and economic problems such as drug abuse, teen pregnancy, and poor school performance.

Australian researchers B.C. Hansford and J.A. Hattie (1982) scoured academic literature on the link between global self-esteem and academic achievement. And although they found a slim correlation, they discovered that the better the research, the lower and less significant the connection. They recommended replacing efforts to boost global self-esteem with efforts to boost academic or subject-specific self-esteem -- which can only occur after students achieve academic success.

Other studies show that programs created to promote self-esteem among elementary school students actually produce less of it than those designed to improve academic performance do. At least three distinct traditions in the social sciences posit a link between low self-esteem and externalizing problems. Rosenberg (1965) suggested that low self-esteem weakens ties to society; according to social bonding theory, weaker ties to society decrease conformity to social norms and increase delinquency (Hirschi, 1969). Humanistic psychologists such as Rogers (e.g., 1961) have argued that a lack of unconditional positive self-regard is linked to psychological problems, including aggression. Finally, neo-Freudians also posit that low self-regard motivates aggression. Self-esteem is a central concept that is related to academic achievement, social functioning and psychopathology of children and adolescents. With respect to academic achievement, various studies indicated that children with low self-esteem are less successful at school (Mann, Hosman, Schaalma, and De Varies, 2004). Finally, many studies have shown that low self-esteem is related to child psychopathology, including anxiety (Beck Brown, Steer, Kuyken, and Grisham, 2001; Muris, Meesters, and Fijen, 2003), depression (Harter, 1993; Mann et al., 2004) and eating pathology (e.g. Muris, Meesters, Van de Bloom, and Mayer, 2004; Stice, 2002). There is still much debate about the relation between self-esteem and externalizing problems.

Shavelson et al., (1976)'s theoretical model argues that academic self-concept relates more positively with school performance than general self-concept. Students have

varying levels of self-concept, which in turn affect their performance in school. This implies a view that a person holds of him self; in terms of his adequacies and inadequacies, in terms of his values and in terms of his desires (Campbell, 1967). The concern with levels of self-concept, on the other hand, implies a dissatisfaction with the self-picture which does not motivate for change because of fear of failures (Campbell, 1967). In other study Reeder (cited in Campbell, 1967) found that, children achieve lower in terms of their potential if they have low self-concept. Campbell, (1967) also reported that bright boys who are low achievers perceive themselves as defensive and limited in communication with their environment. Experimental studies have demonstrated that a poor self-concept is related to poor achievement in school (Derlega and Janda, 1986). They suggest this relationship begins at a very early age and their self-concepts can have an effect on their performances in school in the early grades. Then by the time reach high school; there are clear differences between achievers and under achievers (Ibid). In the experimental study in which children were divided into high or low self-concept scores, both boys and girls in the top quartile for self-concept obtained significantly low scores at school testing (Alban Metcalfe, 1981).

Purkey (1970) surveyed many early researches and concluded that the student's subjective and personal evaluation of himself or herself has a dominant influence on his/her success in school. Supporting this Maltz (1972) after his twenty-five years of study concludes that old people who have poor self-concept will fail in their activists. However, if they change their self-concept into a positive self-concept, they will succeed and will become creative people.

In the most extensive meta-analysis of the academic achievement and academic self-concept relationship, Hansford and Hattie (1982) found that measures of performance correlated about .20 with measure of general self-concept. Bachman (1970) also reported that IQ correlated .46 with academic self-concept but only .14 with general self-concept. Moreover, in a review of studies relating to self-concept and academic achievement, it was found that nearly all studies report that self-concept is positively correlated with academic achievement while many find academic achievement to be correlated strongly

with academic self-concept (Byrne, 1984, Arul, 1972). Thus, school performance is significantly correlated with self-concept in academic area and most directly related to the specific area of academic achievement (Marsh, Relich and Smith, 1983 and Byrne, 1984)

Hamachek (1995) reviewed investigations related to self-concept and academic achievement. According to his survey, there is a reciprocal relationship between self-concept and school achievement. Accordingly, each is mutually reinforcing to the extent that a positive or negative change in one causes change in another one. The reciprocity of the relationship between them is particularly noticeable by the middle school years, when children are better able to interpret feedback from their academic performance (Derlega and Janda, 1986; Hamachek 1995). However, there is disagreement among researchers in the direction of the causal relationship between academic self-concept and academic achievement. Byrne (1984), for example, noted that much of the interest in the self-concept and achievement relationship stems from the beliefs that academic self-concept has motivational properties such that changes in academic self-concept will lead to changes in subsequent academic achievement. Shavelson and Bolus (1982) also concluded that causal predominance of self-concept over academic achievement, but Byrne (1982 cited in Byrne, 1984) was unable to determine this causal predominance.

2.5. Aggression

2.5.1. Definition and Types of Aggression

Regarding the meaning and the form of aggression Vasta, et al, (1999), indicates that the concept of aggression depends on social judgment and its meaning is contextually specific to a given culture. Vasta and others define aggression as behaviors that intentionally inflict harm to other persons or property. Similarly, Berkowitz (cited in Forsyth and Archer, 1995) define aggression as actions with the intention of hurting other persons. These behaviors can be displayed by actions, which range from insulting to killing.

According to Maccoby (cited in Cole and Cole, 1989) aggression is a hurtful action, which is deliberately inflicted to harm a victim. For behavior to be considered

aggressive, it has to intentionally cause suffering. To be aggressive, individuals must recognize that they can cause harm to others. Aggressive individuals may be characterized by irritation, passion, frustration, anger lack of self-control and end with destruction. Aggression is the action one person commits to attack though not all hurts are aggressive.

For instance, dentists and surgeons can't be labeled as aggressive, because the intention of producing pain is not their goal. Furthermore, spilling hot tea incidentally on a friend is not aggression, whereas throwing a stone and missing to hit the person is aggression. Aggressive behavior is also defined as a specific form of human action characterized by display of superiority in or use of strength towards another person or group of persons to damage (A.V.Petrovsky and M.G.Yaroshevsky, 1987).

Children may become angry but do not exhibit aggression because they are too young to develop intentional ideas. When they struggle over objects and their goal is to gain possession of objects rather than to harm others, it is not termed as aggression (Shaffer, 1994).

In daily life style, individuals exhibit aggressive behavior in actions such as quarrelling, jealousy, hyperactivity, uncooperativeness, ill temperedness, stubbornness, scolding, denial, betrayal, resentment, argumentativeness, criticizing, flattering, fighting, cruelty, disregarding, destroying, terrible insult, burst out in outrageous way by saying "why don't you kill me?", smashing, violating rules, domination, stealing, starting fire, blocking one's promotion and soon.

Aggression is often manifested in a variety of behaviors such as, physical attack, robbery, rape, homicide, alienation, gossiping, and violence. According to Berkowitz (cited in Forsyth and Archer, 1995) a behavior that involves quarrel simply to possess something or to protect oneself is called instrumental aggression; for example, robbery, stealing, and the like. In line with this, Hetherington and Parke (1993) state that when individuals use force to dominate others or to gain possession, it is called proactive aggression. Crick and Dogde (cited in Papalia, et al., 1999) indicate that people who employ instrumental aggression view force as an effective way to achieve a goal and

attack deliberately. Instrumentally aggressive individuals hold distorted beliefs as if violence was legitimate and victims suffer little.

Crick and Dogde (cited in Papalia, et al, 1999) reveal that individuals engage in hostile aggression due to their distorted perceptions. They see as if others are trying to hurt them. In this case hostile aggression is manifested in the form of retaliation. Hostile adolescents have negative attitude, which they don't try to control (Winkley, 1996).

According to Craig (2000) aggression can be also categorized as follows:

1. Physical aggression: This refers to action that inflicts harm by employing physical means such as pinching, slapping, nodding, kicking, throwing objects at, stabbing, flogging, knocking, shooting, hitting, frowning, aiming at, protruding the tongue at, and so forth.
2. Verbal aggression: This is another form of aggression displayed to harm the victim's psychologically using speech or verbs of insulting, nicknaming, teasing, blaming using rude words, flattering, cursing, scolding, warning, yelling, threatening, etc.
3. Indirect aggression: It is a kind of social manipulation: The aggressor manipulates other individuals to attack the victim. In other words the aggressor makes use of other persons in order to hurt the target person, without being personally involved in the attack (Bjorkqvist, et al., 1998).

According to Kuppuswamy (1998) there can be two ways of expressing aggression. One of them is called externalized aggression. It is externalized to the outer world by way of observable actions. But if the person does not express their anger on others, the aggression turns to that individual. Such form of aggression is called internalized aggression. For instance, people beat their breast, kick their head, tear their clothes, break objects, and in extreme cases may even commit suicide.

Some forms of aggression are difficult to understand and predict. When people seem charming on the surface but empty inside, they don't appear attacking others. Their

hostile aggression is cool and secretly planned in such a way that they wait for convenient time and place to harm others (Feldman, 1994).

Aggression becomes bullying when it is deliberately and persistently attacking those who are weak, vulnerable and defenseless. Bullies have more friends who are engaged in with them. They can not imagine how the victims feel (Papalia et al, 1999). Tony (cited in Levine and Havighurst, 1992) found that, bullies tend to continue aggression into adulthood, frequently becoming spouse and child abusers.

Finally Tedeschi and Smith (cited in Forsyth and Archer, 1995) identify two forms of aggression namely, legitimate and illegitimate aggression. Legitimate aggression refers to actions that produce pain or harm to others which can be considered a legal action. For instance, soldiers are legally ordered to kill enemy. Actions that one takes to defend oneself against the attack from other can also be considered legal violence. If the police exercise power beyond his /her authority and inflict suffering on criminals, such action will be labeled as illegitimate aggression.

Caron, Haltman, and Stancy (cited in Lemieux, 2002) indicate that vigorous sport person's activities can be aggressive because players try to inflict damage as step to goal winning. Here players employ legitimate forces within game rules.

Regarding age related change in aggression Hetherington and Parke (1986) suggest that aggression starts in early life of childhood and continue through adolescence. Aggression patterns appear to be moderately stable from early life up to 22 years for both males and females. Young children display more physical attack and older children show more verbal aggression. As children get older, their early instrumental aggression changes to hostile form of aggressions.

Freud (cited in Shaffer, 1994) suggests that human beings are driven by destructive instincts called Thanatos, which are responsible for the production of aggression. To him Thanatos build up energy and must be released in the form of aggression. According to

Shaffer (1994) ethnologists consider aggression as a fighting instinct produced by certain eliciting cues in the environment. From the above ideas it is possible to understand that both Freud and ethnologists believe that aggression is inborn behavior. Other researchers reported different sources of aggression. Krauss (cited in Forsyth and Archer, 1995) reveals that threading people in many cases are sufficient to arouse aggression. Berkowitz, et al (cited in Forsyth and Archer 1995) indicate that when individuals experience pain, they become more aggressive. According to Miller (cited in Forsyth and Archer, 1995) environmental stressors such as too hot or too cold temperature, noisy, crowded places, and dirty places can raise the level of aggression.

Dollard and Miller (cited in Forsyth and Archer, 1995) state that frustration can be the source of aggression. To him when people get frustrated they behave aggressively. Similarly, Feirabend and Horland (cited in Forsyth and Archer, 1995) reports that hate, crime, riots, terrorism and political instability have been blamed on the aggression facilitating effects of frustration. Berkowitz (cited in Sdorow, 1990) argues that, frustration dose not directly provoke aggression. Rather frustration provokes anger or other unpleasant emotions such as anxiety, depression, and the like. These unpleasant emotions in turn provoke aggression. Since 1950's many psychologists shifted their concern away from inner determinants of aggression to external factors. Social learning theory considers aggression as a product of social environment. In contrast to the above views of inner determinants of aggression, Bandura (cited in Shaffer, 1994) argued that emotion may facilitate the occurrence of aggression, but is not the determinant factor. Bandura (cited in Sdorow, 1994) indicated that aggression is the product of learning by observation. To him aggression is acquired by watching models that are rewarded for aggression. Furthermore, Bandura (cited in Crosini and Averbach, 1998) stated that aggression is acquired by the means of vicarious experience. He emphasized reinforcement in the process of learning aggression. According to him, observational learning tends to stem from three types of modeling influences. First, children learn aggression through observation from their parents' behavior. Second to sub-cultures,

adolescents learn aggression through observation from peers and other adults. The third form is vicarious symbolic modeling on television, the paper and in comic books.

The aggressive pattern of adolescent boys and girls seem to vary in different ways. According to Craig (2000), past research on aggression had been limited on aggressive boys, exclusive of female aggression. Aggression in girls is often over looked, because it has a different form in females. In line with this view, Cole and Cole (1999) indicate that boys are more aggressive than girls in both physical and verbal aggression. Supporting this idea, Cairns (cited in Vast, 1999) point out that aggression by boys towards other becomes increasingly physical, but aggression by girls appears to be indirect whose purpose is to damage ones social acceptance through spreading rumor, withdrawing friendship, and making social exclusion. Why are males and female different in aggression? From biological view point Jacklin (cited in Shaffer, 1994) suggests that boy's are more aggressive than girls because of the higher level of androgen and testosterone activating the male's sex hormones that lead to aggression. In addition, Germain (cited in Shaffer, 1994) found that there is link between adolescent aggression and their level of androgen hormones. From social perspective, Bandura and Patterson (cited in Sprinthall, 1994) state that the difference in aggression between the sexes is not biological but environmental.

According to, Bell et al (cited in Shaffer, (1994), biological and social influences are inter-wined and result in sex differences in aggression. Crick et al (cited in Papalia et al, 1999) state that adolescent boys exhibit more overt aggressive behaviors such as physical and verbal actions than girls. On the other hand, girls tend to manifest indirect aggression such as spreading rumor, blaming, ignoring, withdrawal of friendship and the like which have an intention to damage others' social relationship and psychological well-being. Similarly, Berkowitz (cited in Craig, 2000) also indicates that boys are significantly more overly aggressive than girls.

Hetherington and Parke (1993) note that boys are more likely to retaliate physically than girls are. Girls may use other aggressive strategies. They use indirect aggression or social sanction. Similarly, Hyde, Maccoby and Whiting (cited in Shaffer, 1994) in the research they conducted all over the world, show that males are not only more physically

aggressive but also more verbally aggressive than females. A contrasting view has been held by Lagerspetz and Pentameter (cited in Craig 2000) who indicate that girls and boys are both aggressive in overt (physical /verbal) as well as in indirect aggression forms. According to Carlo (1999) the US Department of Justice believes that male adolescents or children at all ages are more aggressive than the girls of similar age range. Similarly, Benson (cited in Carlo, 1999) states that gender differences in physical aggression remain stable from early childhood through adolescence.

Indirect aggression is a type of hostile aggression, which is more typical to females than to males. Across a range of cultural research, regardless of class, race, or family background, indirect aggression is most used by girls than any form of aggression. For one thing, the aggressor remains unidentified, for the other thing, females are physically weaker and they seem to resort to verbal and indirect aggression (Ostermn, 1999).

Aggression has many psychological effects and social costs on both the perpetrator and victim. For instance the aggressor may be isolated due to peers rejection, have no long-term friend(s), and be expelled from school. The victim loses freedom, forfeits self-assertion, becomes submissive and lives under fear. Aggression can disrupt the school's educational processes and disturb group and inter-group relationships in the school community. Because of its many adverse impacts, aggression should be prevented or minimized in all social contexts (home, school, and work).The best program to reduce aggressive behaviors are those which are preventive and family-focused .Parents and teachers can reduce aggression by removing aggressive toys ,videos, and games from the playrooms thereby creating non aggressive environments(Shaffer,2002).Aggression can be reduced by addressing most of the non biological factors that cause it. Parents and teachers can, for example, also control the type of programs and games children watch and play on television, video and internet at home and school (Lefrencois, 2001).Although aggression can not be reduced to zero, there are many procedures that can decrease it significantly. These include the cognitive behavior modification scheme, schedules of the reinforcement and behavior shaping under operant conditioning ,the aggression replacement training, ART model(Glick,1996),and the whole school approaches to bullying (Olweus,1993).Anti-violence intervention programs in schools have been shown to be effective as early as kindergarten(Shaffer, 2002).

CHAPTER THREE: Method of the Study

3.1. Sampling

To get the determined sample size of the present study, proportional stratified random sampling method was used. Stratified random sampling was to increase the probability of including unique characteristics of each member of the population as well as to ensure proportional representatives of the population in the samples. Students were stratified based on their school, grades and gender. Accordingly, in each distinct stratum, the member of participants to be selected was determined by proportional method, that is 8 %. Then after, the required members of subjects were selected from each distinct stratum through simple random sampling technique by using random member table in doing so, male and female students were listed separately in their representative schools and grade levels. Then, each member of the population (Sampling frames) in each stratum was assigned consecutive members from zero to the required member. Finally, 286 participants (225 males and 61 females) were obtained from the main study. The summary of total population and sample subjects of the study are presented in table A by schools, grade and gender.

3.2. Sampling Procedures

The study is confined to Gambella Region grade nine and ten high school students. According to the statistical data procured from the participating schools, there were 286 regular students (225 males and 61 females) who were attending in grade 9 and 10 in 2006, 2007 academic year in the three Woredas of the region (among the six woredas of the schools). Taking representative sample of the population is one criteria of a good research. The sample size of the present study was administered in accordance with Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) recommendation. These authors recommended taking 364-sample size from 7000 population (i.e., 5.2% of the population). Hence, the recommended sample size of the present study became 185 (146 males & 39 females). However, it was felt that increasing the amounts of sample from 5.2% to 8% so that the

number of females will increase in some amounts. Therefore, the sample size increased to 286 (225 males & 61 females).

Table A: - Population and sample of the study by school, grades and gender

Schools	Grade	Population of the study			Samples subjects of the study		
		Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Gambella Sen.Sec.Sch.	9	1125	287	1412	90	23	113
	10	665	170	835	53	14	67
	Sub Total	1790	457	2247	143	37	180
Itang Sen.Sec.Sch.	9	458	151	609	37	12	49
	10	264	56	320	21	5	26
	Sub Total	722	207	929	58	17	74
Abobo Sen.Sec.Sch.	9	180	68	248	14	5	19
	10	118	25	143	10	2	12
	Sub Total	298	93	391	24	7	31
Grand Total		2810	757	3567	225	61	286

3.3. Variables

Independent Variables

- Self-efficacy, self- esteem, aggression scores were classified in to high and low based on their mean scores.

Dependent variable

- Academic Achievement scores scores obtained from the average scores on all subjects given in grades nine and ten.

In gender-specific analyses Self-Efficacy, Self –Esteem, Aggression and Academic Achievement scores were used as dependent Variables. Sex in this case served as independent variable.

3.4. Instruments

Three Self-report questionnaires were administered to gather information concerning the independent variable under considerations, namely.

A) Self-efficacy scale, B) self-esteem scale, and C) aggression scale

All the instruments were presented in Amharic. The questionnaires among the three, self-Efficacy scale were translated from English Version to Amharic one, Self-Esteem and Aggression scales were already translated and used in Amharic.

To avoid language confusion the three scales were evaluated by two languages and one psychology graduates experts.

- The Self-Efficacy scale has been constructed by the present researcher adopting the items from Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) and Roeser et al., 1996. The scale has 15 items and was formerly used to measure academic self-efficiency beliefs of high school students. The item in this scale were scored on five point Likert type scales varying from “very true of me” with a scale of five to “not true of me” with a scale of one. All the items were positively stated. The minimum and maximum scales were 15 and 75 respectively.

The academic self-efficacy scale of Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) that contained nine items and Roeser et al (1996) that contained six items was administered for pilot test The pilot study was conducted on 42 students (28 males and 24 females) of Yekatit 12 Senior Secondary School. The reliability of the scale was of obtained using split-half method, which is about .80 a result that is almost congruent with the result of Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) that is .89 and that of Roeser et al.,(1996) that is .86. As a result, 15 items were used to collect the Self- Efficacy belief of the students.

- Among the most popular and well-utilized measures of self-esteem are the Rosenberg self-Esteem Scale (1965) and the coppermith Self-Esteem inventory (1967/1981). Rosenberg’s scale was originally developed to measure adolescents’ global feelings of

self-worth or self-acceptance, and is generally considered the standard against which other measures of self-esteem are compared. It includes 10 items that are usually scored using a four-point response ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. scores were calculated for items 1,2,4,6,7:S.A=3,A=2,D=1,& S.D=0. and for items 3,5,8,9,10 :S.A=0,A=1,D=2 & S.D=3.

The scale ranges from 0-30. Scores between 15 and 25 are within normal range; scores below suggest low self-esteem. Rosenberg (1965). Similarly, this scale had also been evaluated together with the other two scales under study and it was resulted a reliability coefficient of 0.71.

- Out of the 51 items of adolescent aggression questions from Buss and Perry (1992), Bjorkqvist et al., (1992), and Eysenck (1997) 36 items were used previously by Ato Adugna Debush and the researcher of this study took the items and evaluated by language and subject experts for approval. The 36 items had been given a pilot test for 42 adolescent students (28 males and 24 females) of Yekatit 12 Senior Secondary School with alpha coefficients of 0.84 reliability founded before the final work. Scores were calculated for items 4,7,11,14,17,23,28,30, and 35 reversely i.e., SD=5,D=4,U=3,A=2,SA=1 and the scores range from 36-180.

3.5. Data Gathering Procedures

The three Amharic version instruments were administered to 286 students in the three different sessions (each had 75 minutes duration) with the help of the research assistant. The researcher and research assistant, in addition to the directions given on the questionnaires, briefed the students orally concerning the purpose of the study and on how they were supposed to respond to the questionnaires. The students' academic results were obtained from each school's record office. For grade nine students, only their first semester results (1999E.C) and for grade ten students an average results of three semesters (1998/999E.C) academic performance of each students in all subject was considered.

3.6. Methods of Data Analyses.

The responses obtained from the students and their academic performances were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science). Responses of the self-efficacy, self-esteem and aggression were categorized on the mean high or low in the trait based on the mean score. That is those who scored above the mean score in the self-efficacy, self-esteem and aggression were grouped as possessing high values of each trait and low for those who have scores below the mean score.

To examine the independent and interactive effect of any combination of the predictor variables in explaining the criterion variable, multiple regression analyses was employed. The t-tests were applied to see whether there could be any significant differences between male and female in all these variables and their different levels. Pearson correlation was also conducted to see interrelationships of the variables under the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: Results

In this section, the major findings of the study are presented in tables. In addition, the tables are described in words.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics that involve the means standard deviations median and range, of the variables in the study.

Variables	Mean (X)	Standard deviation (S.D)	Median	Range of scores	
Academic Achievement score (A.A).	55.55	9.65	53.00	88	39
Self-Efficacy score (S.Ef).	54.80	9.09	54.50	75	30
Self-Esteem score (S.Es).	15.08	3.24	15.00	28	6
Aggression (Agg).	87.81	19.16	86.50	141	43

The above table gives descriptions of the mean, standard deviation, median and range of scores of both the dependent variable and independent variables.

From table 1 it could be observed that the mean score of academic achievement was less than its median by 2.55. This might indicate that their total academic achievement scores were poor. In the case of self-efficacy and self-esteem, their mean scores were slightly greater than their medians by 0.30 and 0.08 respectively. However, when we look at aggression the mean score was greater than its median by 1.31.

Table 2: Means and standard deviations in academic achievement of students in the different levels of the independent variables (N=286)

		Academic Achievement		
Variables	Levels	Mean (X)	S.D	N
S.Ef.	High	54.69	10.14	143
	Low	54.60	9.07	143
S.Es.	High	55.28	9.82	159
	Low	55.76	9.53	137
Agg.	High	54.32	9.41	137
	Low	56.67	9.71	149
Gender	Male	56.55	9.99	225
	Female	51.85	7.22	61

The above data represent the distribution of the respondents into the various categories of each predictor variables based on their responses.

From table 2 it could be observed that the difference of high and low self-efficacy achievers scored a range of academic achievement mean score of +0.09. The result of this study is in agreement with various studies. Bandura (1982, 1986) postulated that individual's wise high self-efficacy actually does better on many kinds of tasks. Bandura and Schunk (1991) and Bandura (1986) have confirmed that self-efficacy beliefs influence levels of performance, task choice, effort, persistence, thought patterns and stress reactions. However, the difference was not significant it indicates that effort should be needed to increase their self –efficacy levels.

In the case of self-esteem the range of academic achievement mean score between high and low achievers was found to be -0.52. This result was inconsistent with research findings reported by (Mann, Hosman, Schaalma, and De Varies, 2004) which stated that with respect to academic achievement, various studies indicated that children with low self-esteem are less successful at school. This might indicate that having high self-esteem can not guarantee to achieve successfully academically. In other study Reeder (cited in Campbell, 1967) found that children achieve lower in terms of their potential if they have low self-concept. Campbell, (1967) also reported that bright boys who are low achievers perceive themselves as defensive and limited in communication with their environment. This result is supported by Renowned Psychologist William Damon(1995), of Brown University, concluded that research clearly shows no causal relationship between self-esteem and positive developments in a child's personal or academic life.

In the case of aggression, scores of the two levels the mean score range of their academic achievement was to be -2.35 which was statistically significant. This implies that as aggression levels increase students academic achievement will decrease and vice versa.

4.1. The Relationship of Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, and Aggression with Academic Achievement.

Table 3 Intercorrelation of predictor variables and criterion variable.

Step	Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1	A.Ach.	-				
2	S.Ef.	0.19**	-			
3	S.Es.	0.12	0.04	-		
4	Agg.	-0.14*	-0.04	-0.26**	-	
5	Gender	0.20**	0.07	-0.24**	0.22**	

* $P < 0.05$ & ** $P < 0.01$

In this section the relationship of variables were presented. It was the second interest of the study. Table 3 shows that gender was positively and significantly related with academic achievement ($r=0.200$, $p<0.05$). It indicates that gender has established a significant association with academic achievement. This implies that gender has an impact on students' academic achievement. Further, academic achievement was positively and significantly correlated with self-efficacy ($r=0.192$, $p<0.05$). This indicates that as the student's efficacy level and interest in academic achievement increases, their academic performance also increases. However, the relation of academic achievement with self-esteem and aggression was failed to reach the significance level. A multiple regression analysis was detected in order to see the relative contribution of each trait in the prediction of the students' academic achievement score.

4.2. The relationship of academic achievement with self-efficacy, self-esteem, and aggression.

Table 4. Results of Regression analysis on academic achievement.

Step	Variables	β	t	R ²	R ² Chang	F	P
1	Gender	0.200	3.0434*	0.040	0.040	11.790	<0.05
2	Gender	0.243	4.138*	0.076	0.036	11.572	
	Agg.	-0.194	-3.308*				
3	Gender	0.229	3.953*	0.104	0.028	10.895	
	Agg.	-0.184	-3.171*				
	S.Ef	0.169	2.982*				

The data in table 4 were used to carry out mean difference tests (t-tests) to find out whether there are statistically significant sex differences in the predictor variables.

As shown in Table 4, when all the variables were entered in to the regression equation, gender was founded to be the variable that's relatively accounted for the highest variation in the students academic achievement. This variable contributed 4 percent of the total variation in academic achievement. Aggression of the students was the next best variable that entered into the regression equation. This variable contributed 3.6 percent of the total variation in academic achievement. The contribution of gender and aggression together accounted for 7.6 percent of the total variation in academic achievement. Self-efficacy of the students was the third important variable that entered into the regression equation. This variable contributed 2.8 percent of the total variation in academic achievement. The contribution of gender, aggression, self-efficacy together accounted for 10.4% of variation in academic achievement.

Besides, the computation of the beta weight for each variable (Table 4) shows that gender, self-efficacy, self-esteem ,and aggression have beta values of 0.200,0.169,0.002

and -0.184 respectively. More over, the beta values of gender, self-efficacy, and aggression were statistically significant. But self-esteem was not statistically significant. It is because of the higher standard error associated with it.

4.3. Gender Difference in Academic Achievement, Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, and Aggression

The major purpose of this study was to compare the mean scores of male and female adolescent students' academic achievement, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and aggression.

Table 5: t-test comparisons on academic achievement, self-efficacy, self-esteem, aggression, and gender for males' (225) and females' (61) scores on the variables considered

Variables	Group	N	Mean (X)	Std. Deviation	t-tests
A.A.	Male	225	56.55	9.988	3.434*
	Female	61	51.85	7,220	
S.Ef	Male	225	55.11	9.236	1.109
	Female	61	53.66	8.526	
S.Es	Male	225	14.69	3.260	-4.071*
	Female	61	16.54	2.712	
Agg	Male	225	90.01	18.923	3.820*
	Female	61	79.69	17.910	

* P < 0.05.

Table 5 shows that there was a statistically significant difference in academic achievement and aggression in favor of males $t(284) = 3.434, p < 0.05$ and $t(284) = 3.820, p < 0.05$ respectively. Similarly, a statistically significant difference was observed between males and females in self-esteem scores in favor of females ($t(284) = -4.071, p < 0.05$ in absolute value).

CHAPTER FIVE: Discussion

This discussion section tries to relate the results of the analyses with the research questions forwarded at the beginning. Thus, it is important to relate the questions once again for the purpose of easy reference.

1. Is there significant relation between scores of self-efficacy- beliefs, self-esteem, aggression, and gender with academic achievement scores of adolescent students'?
2. Do self-efficacy- beliefs, self-esteem, aggression, and gender separately and/ or jointly contribute to a statistically significant contribution in the academic achievement scores of males and females students when treated independently?
3. Is there significant difference in gender among the adolescents in their self-efficacy belief, self-esteem, and aggression scores with respect to predicting academic achievement score?

5.1. Relationship of Gender, Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem with Academic Achievement

In this study, it was found that gender, self-efficacy, and aggression influences the academic achievements of students (Table 3) .Moreover, when all the variables were entered into the regression equation, gender was found to be the variable that relatively accounted for the variation in the students' academic achievement; which contributed 4 percent of the total variation. In a similar manner aggression 3.6 percent, self-efficacy 2.8 percent was accounted for the contribution of predicting students' academic performance respectively (Table 4). The study indicated that self-esteem was not significantly associated with academic achievement of the students. This result is consistent with the finding reported by Hansford and Hattie (1982) which stated that there is slim correlation between academic achievement and self-esteem. However, it is inconsistent with other research findings (Shavlsion et al., 1976; Donnellan et al., 2005).

5.2. Gender Difference in Academic Achievement, Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, and Aggression.

5.2.1. Academic Achievement and Gender

The independent sample t-test (Table 5) indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students on academic achievement ($t=3.434$, $p<0.05$). It implies that the mean of males' (56.55) was statistically greater than that of females' (51.85). This finding contradicts the one reported by Hyde (1991) which suggested that girls get better and consistent grades at high schools as compared to boys. However, the finding of the present study was consistent with most of the research findings reported in Ethiopia. To mention few, Genet (1991); Markos (1996); and Nema and Wagner (1993) which reported superior performances of male students as compared to their female counterparts. Almaz and Barbara (1990) stated that in the case of Ethiopia, the value that members of the society give to the education of females is very much lower than males and these beliefs could make females not to be equally competent to that of males.

This widely accepted practical belief might have influenced the attitude of people who directly or indirectly involved in the process of instruction like teachers, counselors, parents, and even females students themselves. Students interpret the praise, criticism and interaction of teachers to the male students as more important for boys than for girls to succeed at school (Anbesu, 1991)

5.2.2. Self-Esteem and Gender.

Independent sample t-test was compared for significant mean difference between the male and female self-esteem score (Table5).Accordingly, it was found that there was statistically significant mean difference ($t=-4.071$, $p<0.05$).This suggests that the mean score of female students (16.54) was significantly greater than that of males (14.69).Therefore, the result indicated that female students have better self-esteem compared to male students. This finding was inconsistent with the research finding

reported by Hyde et al., (1999) which says that boys have a higher self-esteem than girls. Moreover, Robins et al., (2002) reported that no gender difference in self-esteem.

5.2.3. Aggression and Gender

The computed t-value (Table5) indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female mean scores on aggression ($t=3.820$, $p<0.05$). The mean score of males (90.01) was greater than the mean score of females (79.69). This result supports the finding reported by Craig (2000) Hetherington and Parke (1993), Cole and Cole (1999) which stated that boys are more aggressive than females.

5.2.4 Self-Efficacy and Gender.

The independent sample t-test confirmed that there is no significant gender difference in self-efficacy (Table 5). This finding is inconsistent with research findings reviewed in the literature (Pajares,2000;Pintrich and DeGroot,1990) which stated that females have less self-efficacy than males in academic area. Concerning the influence of self-efficacy on individuals' academic performance, Vrugt (1994) has stated that people whose perceived self efficacy is positive pursue relatively high level of performance. Vrugt added that these peoples would not be put off easily; seek new situations and also persevere in the case of difficult tasks.

Or the other hand, individuals with a negative perceived self-efficacy will pursue a lower level of academic performance because doubts and uncertainty during the performance of a task table undermine the individual's concentration (Vrugt, 1994).

5.3 Interdependence among the Independent Variables

The Pearson Interco relation matrix (Table 3) among self-efficacy, self-esteem, aggression, and gender indicated that self-efficacy was found to have no statistically significant relationship with self-esteem aggression, and gender. Self-esteem was found to be statistically significant negatively correlated with both aggression and gender ($r=-0.256$ and $r=-0.235$, $p<0.05$) respectively. Gender was significantly related with aggression ($r=0.221$, $p<0.01$).Aggression and self-esteem were negatively

correlated. This implies as the level of aggression increases, self-esteem decreases and vice versa. The above results may occur due to the absence of school counselors in the schools under study. As mentioned before there are no professional school counselors in the

schools to identify students' both personal and academic problems and make an intervention. Hence, focus must be given to counselor interventions with low achieving students and their parents to determine whether school counseling interventions are effective in boosting academic achievement by grade point average (Wilson, 1986). In this regard, it is important to give due attentions by educational stakeholders in boosting students academic achievement: -a comprehensive curriculums about career, academic and social/personal development can positively impact student knowledge in each of those domains (Bergin & Miller, 1990; Gerler & Anderson, 1986; Gerler & Drew, 1990; Gerler, Kinney & Anderson, 1985).

CHAPTER SIX: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation

6.1. Summary

The main goals of this study were to identify the significant relationship of gender, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and aggression with academic achievement of adolescent students. The following points summarize the results in the study:

Gender, self-efficacy, and aggression influence the academic achievement of students. Moreover, gender, aggression, and Self efficacy according to their order found to be contributed for the prediction of academic achievement of students respectively. However, the study indicated that self-esteem was not significantly associated with academic achievement of the students.

From independent sample t-test statistically significant mean difference was found between male and female student's academic achievement, self-esteem, and aggression. However, there was no statistically significant gender difference found in self-efficacy scores.

When we see the interdependence relationship among the independent variables, the Pearson Interco relation matrix revealed that self-efficacy was found to have no statistically significant relationship with self-esteem, aggression, and gender. Self-esteem was found to be statistically significant and negatively correlated with both aggression and gender. In addition, aggression and self-esteem were negatively correlated.

6.2. Conclusion

The objectives of the present study were to investigate the relationship between adolescents' self-efficacy belief, self-esteem, and aggression in academic achievement of students: -

From the summary of the results of the study, the following points are given as a conclusion:

- ✓ Gender, self-efficacy, and aggression were strongly related with students' academic achievement. However, self-esteem was not related with the academic achievement of students.
- ✓ There was statistically significant difference in gender with respect to students' academic achievement, self-esteem and aggression. But, there was no variation with self-efficacy.
- ✓ When we examine the interdependence among the independent variables, self-efficacy was not significantly related with self-esteem, aggression, and gender.
- ✓ On the other hand, aggression and self-esteem were negatively correlated.
- ✓ This result indicates that both aggression and self-esteem play significant role in academic achievement of students.

6.3. Recommendation

In the present study, there were three specific objectives of the research:

Relationships of gender, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and aggression with academic achievement of adolescent students; Finding the significant gender difference in academic achievement, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and aggression; Identify the interdependence relationships among the independent variables under study. According to the results, summary and discussion the following suggestion will be recommended:

- ⚡ Concerned bodies such as parents, teachers, and school principals should be aware of gender difference in achievement among students and design strategies to minimize it.
- ⚡ Emphasis should be given to reduce or minimize aggressive behavior of adolescent students.
- ⚡ Moreover, concerned bodies should assign professional counselors in schools, so that aggressive behavior can be identified and be intervened.
- ⚡ Regional Educational Office, School communities, parents, etc., should give high emphasis for adolescent students to improve their self-efficacy and self-esteem and to reduce their aggressive behavior.

- ✚ Educational authorities, particularly Regional Educational Bureaus, School administrators, teachers, and Parents should not only focus in activities related to cognitive performance, but also give attention to the non –cognitive aspects as well.
- ✚ At last, the researcher of this study highly recommend that further research should be taken in order to investigate the impacts of other related factors that affects adolescent students academic achievement.

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APPENDIX I

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY SCHOOLS OF GRADUATE STUDIES.

Objectives: The major objectives of these questionnaires are to measure the levels of Self-Efficacy,

Self-Esteem, and Aggression among adolescents. The precision of the information you provide is highly valuable and critical for the effectiveness of this research undertaking. The investigator would like to assure you that your responses will be kept confidential and used only to assess the levels of Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, and Aggression. There is no right or wrong answers so don't spend a lot of time on any one item. Thus, please be confident and honest enough while filling these questionnaires throughout. Also, note that you don't need to write your name and then mark "✓" under your choices on the basis of your belief.

Age _____ Gender _____

Grade _____ Name of school _____

Thank you for your cooperation!

Academic Self-Efficacy Scale- Inventory I

Direction:

Try to think and read each statement that accurately reflects your own behavior. Some possible statements are listed below. Please read each item separately and respond as more appropriately as to your own behaviors (Characteristics) using the five-point scale indicated below.

Key: 1= Not at All True of Me (NAT)

2= Not True of Me (NT)

3= Some What True of Me (ST)

4= True of Me (T)

5=Very True of Me (VT)

No	List of Items	1 Not at All True of Me (NAT)	2 Not True of Me (NT)	3. Some What True of Me (ST)	4. Tru e of Me (T)	5. Very True of Me(V T)
1	I am certain I can master the skills taught in this class this year.					
2	I can do even the hardest class academic work if I try.					
3	If I have enough time, I can do a good job son all my class work.					
4	I can do almost all the academic work in this class if I do not give up.					
5	Even if the academic work in this class is shard, I can learn it.					
6.	I am certain I can figure out how to do the most difficult academic work.					
7	Compared with other students in this class I expect to do well.					
8	I am certain I can understand the idea taught in this class.					
9	I expect to do very well in this class.					
10	Compared with others in this class, I think I am a good student.					
11	I am sure I can do an excellent job on problems and tasks assigned in the courses I am taking.					

No	List of Items	1 Not at All True of Me (NAT)	2 Not True of Me (NT)	3. Some What True of Me (ST)	4. True of Me (T)
12	I think I will receive a good grade in the course I am taking.				
13	My study skills are excellent compared with others in this class .s				
14	Compared with other students in this class, I think I know a great deal about the course I am taking.				
15	I know that I will be able to learn the material for the courses I am taking.				

Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale - Inventory II

Direction:

Try to think and read each statement that accurately reflects your own behavior. Some possible statements are listed below. Please read each item separately and respond as more appropriately as to your own behaviors (Characteristics) using the four-point scale indicated below.

Mark (✓) in the respective spaces.

Thank you for your cooperation!

Key: 1= Strongly Agree

2= Agree

3=Disagree

4=strongly Disagree

No	List of Items	1. Strongly Agree	2. Agree	3. Disagree	4. Strongly Disagree
1	I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.				
2	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.				
3	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.				
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people.				
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.				
6	I take a positive attitude toward myself.				
7	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.				
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.				
9	I certainly feel useless at times.				
10	At times I think I am no good at all.				

Aggression Scale- Inventory III

Direction:

Try to think and read each statement that accurately reflects your own behavior. Some possible statements are listed below. Please read each item separately and respond as more appropriately as to your own behaviors (Characteristics) using the five-point scale indicated below.

Mark (✓) in the respective spaces.

Thank you for your cooperation!

Key: 1= Strongly disagree

3= Undecided

5= Strongly agree

2= Disagree

4= Agree

No	List of Items	1 Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Undecided	4. Agree	5. Strongly Agree
1	I like to snatch some materials from my classmates.					
2	I stamp my feet and kick things when I am angry.					
3	I usually start fighting with some body just for pleasure.					
4	If some body hits me, I like to hit back.					
5	I often grind my teeth when I get angry.					
6.	I often like to watch war (horror) movies.					
7	I like to avoid involving in group of gangs who are organized to attack their opponents.					
8	I would like to show my power to be respected.					
9	When I suspect some one's plan to harm me, I would like to talk the first quick action.					
10	I usually like push away my friend when I pass by them.					
11	To satisfy my needs, I would like to negotiate with people rather than using force.					
12	I like watching boxing games.					

No	List of Items	1 Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Undecided	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree
13	I like to tease at my classmates who fail examinations.					
14	I like to avoid criticizing my teachers when they do wrong things.					
15	People say that I am rude in my speech.					
16	I get in to arguments when people disagree with me.					
17	I reserve my self from insulting for their wrong doing.					
18	I usually threaten people when I quarrel with them.					
19	When I get so angry with people, I yell and swart at them.					
20	I laugh at people when they fail in the mud.					
21	I usually give nickname to people.					
22	For no god reason, I often like to terrorize people.					
23	I often accept orders given to med by my parents.					
24	When I make dialogues with people I, like to use harsh words.					
25	If someone treat me unfairly, my friends and I gossiping about him/her.					
26	When a friend cheats me, I agitate my other friends to hate and alienate him/her from the group.					

No	List of Items	1 Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Undecided	4. Agree	5. Strongly Agree
27	If someone disappoints me, I usually build a friendship to which he/she has conflict.					
28	I am happy and welcoming to someone who has just treated me bad.					
29	If I fight with someone who I can't win, I purposely spoil his/her name by talking false about him/her.					
30	Once I am cheated by friends that I am loyal to, it is easy for me to be obedient as I was.					
31	I like to continue the normal relationship even though someone goes against me.					
32	Once I fight with someone, I tell all his/her secrets to everybody.					
33	When I quarrel with someone I write small notes where the other one is criticized.					
34	If somebody does rude to me, I like to enjoy when he/she entertain hard time.					
35	By working hard, I enjoy being the best person in the middle of my enemies.					
36	If somebody attacks me, I try to criticize the other one's hair or clothing.					

በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ
የድህረ ምረቃ መርሃ ግብር
የሳይኮሎጂ ትምህርት ክፍል

ጤና ይስጥልኝ። ይህ መጠይቅ የተዘጋጀው በጋምቤላ ክልል በሚገኙ በጎረምሣ/ ኮረዳ ዕድሜ ላይ ላሉ ተማሪዎች ስለራስ የሚሰጥ ግምት፣ በትምህርት ውጤታማነት ረገድ ለራስ የሚሰጥ ግምት እንዲሁም የጠባኤነት መጠን (ደረጃ) ከትምህርት ውጤታቸው ጋር ያለውን ዝምድና መረጃ ለመስብሰብ እና ለማጥናት ነው። ጥናቱ የሚያተኩረው በጎረምሣ/ ኮረዳ ዕድሜ ላይ የሚገኙ ተማሪዎችን ሲሆን አንተ/ቺ በዚህ ጥናት ውስጥ እንድትሳተፍ/ሙ ተመርጠህል/ሻል። በዚህ ጥናት ውስጥ የምታደርገው/ረው ተሳትፎ በፈቃደኝነት ላይ የተመሠረተ ሲሆን የምትሰጠው/ጨው መረጃ ሁሉ በሚስጥር ይያዛል። የምትሰጠው/ጨው መረጃም በጣም ጠቃሚ ስለሆነ የአንተ/ቺ ትክክለኛ ተሳትፎ ለጥናቱ ዓላማ መሳካት ከፍተኛ አስተዋጽኦ ያበረክታል።

ማስታዎሻ

- ስምህን/ሽን አትጻፍ/ፊ
- ግልፅ ያልሆኑ ጥያቄዎች ካሉ ተጨማሪ ማብራሪያ መጠየቅ ይችላሉ
- በዚህ መጠይቅ የሚሠበሰበው መረጃ ለጥናቱ ዓላማ ብቻ የሚውል ይሆናል
- ትክክለኛ ነው ብለህ/ሽ የምታስበውን/ቢውን መልስ ባዶ ቦታው ላይ በመሙላት ወይም የምርጫውን ቁጥር በመክበብ መልስ/ሺ።

መጠይቅ አንድ

መመሪያ:-

በትምህርት ውጤታማነት ለራስ የሚሠጠውን ግምት ደረጃ/መጠን ለመለካት ከዘሀ በታች አማራጮች ቀረበዋል። ስለዚህ ያንተን/ቺን ባህርይ በትክክል የሚገልፀውን ዓ/ነገር በጥንቃቄ በማንበብ በአያንዳንዱ ዓ/ነገር ፊት ለፊት ካሉት ቁጥሮች አንዱን በማክበብ መልስ/ሺ

ስለትብብርህ/ሽ በቅድሚያ አመሠግናለሁ!

መፍቻ:

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1= እኔን በፍጹም አይገልጽም | 3= እኔን በመጠኑ ይገልጻል |
| 2= እኔን አይገልጽም | 4= እኔን ይገልጻል |
| | 5= እኔን በጣም ይገልጻል |

በትምህርት ውጤማነት ረገድ ለራስ የሚሠጥ ግምት (ደረጃ) መጠይቅ

ተ.ቁ	መጠይቆች	የመጠይቁ አማራጭ መልሶች				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	በምማርበት የክፍል ደረጃ በዚህ ዓመት እየተከታተልኩ ያለሁትን ትምህርት በጥሩ ውጤት እንደማጠናቀቅ እርግጠኛ ነኝ።	1	2	3	4	5
2	በጣም ከባድ የሆነውን የትምህርት ክፍል እንኳን የተቻለኝን ጥረት ሁሉ ካደረግኩ ልሠራው እችላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
3	በቂ ጊዜ ካገኘሁ በሁሉም የክፍል ውስጥ ሥራዎቼ ጥሩ ውጤት ማስመዘግብ እችላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
4	ተስፋ ካለቆረጥኩ በስተቀር የሚሰጡኝን የክፍል ውስጥ ሥራዎች ሁሉ በሚገባ ማጠናቀቅ እችላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
5	እየተከታተልኩ ያለሁት ትምህርት ከባድ ቢሆንም እንኳን እንደምወጣው እርግጠኛ ነኝ።	1	2	3	4	5
6	በጣም ከባድ የሆነ የትምህርት ይዘት ቢቀርብልኝ እንኳን እንዴት ልረደው እንደምችል የሚረዳኝን የአሠራር ስልት በቀላሉ መቀየስ እችላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
7	ከሌሎች የክፍል ጓደኞቼ ጋር ራሴን ሳስተያይ የተሻለ ውጤት እንደማስመዘግብ ይታዩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
8	በክፍል ውስጥ የሚሰጡኝን ትምህርት ሁሉ የመረዳት ብቃት እንዳለኝ አተማመናለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
9	በምማራቸው ትምህርቶች ሁሉ በጣም ጥሩ ውጤት እንደማስመዘግብ ይታወቀኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
10	ከሌሎች የክፍል ጓደኞቼ ጋር ራሴን ሳነፃፀር ገብቻ ተማሪ እንደሆንኩ ይታወቀኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
11	እየተከታተልኩ ባለሁት ትምህርት የሚቀርቡልኝን ጥያቄዎችና የክፍል ሥራዎች ሁሉ በሚገባ በማጠናቀቅ ጥሩ ውጤት እንደማስመዘግብ እርግጠኛ ነኝ።	1	2	3	4	5
12	አሁን በምከታተላቸው ትምህርቶች ሁሉ ጥሩ ውጤት ይኖረኛል ብዬ አስባለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
13	የእኔ የአጠናን ዘዴ ከሌሎች የክፍል ጓደኞቼ የአጠናን ዘዴ እጅግ የተሻለ ነው።	1	2	3	4	5
14	እየተከታተልኩ ባለሁት ትምህርት ከሌሎች የክፍል ጓደኞቼ የበለጠ ዕውቀት አንዳካበትኩ ይታወቀኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
15	በመውሰድ ላይ ያለሁትን የትምህርት ዓይነቶች ሁሉ ተከታታይ በመረዳት ውጤት እንደማስመዘግብ እርግጠኛ ነኝ።	1	2	3	4	5

የት/ቤት/ህ/ሽ ሙሉ ስም _____

ክፍል _____ ተ/ቁጥር _____ አድሜ _____ ጾታ _____

መጠይቅ ሁለት

ለራስ ስለሚሰጥ ግምት መጠይቅ

መመሪያ:

በትምህርት ውጤታማነት ለራስ የሚሠጠውን ግምት ደረጃ/መጠን ለመለካት ዘዘሀ በታች አማራጮች ቀረበዋል። ስለዚህ ያንተን/ቼን ባህርይ በትክክል የሚገልፀውን ዓ/ነገር በጥንቃቄ በማንበብ በአያንዳንዱ ዓ/ነገር ፊት ለፊት ካሉት ቁጥሮች አንዱን በማክበብ መልስ/ሺ

ስለትብብርህ/ሽ በቅድሚያ አመሠገናለሁ!

መፍቻ:

1= በጣም አልስማማም

3= እስማማለሁ

2= አልስማማም

4= በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ.ቁ	መጠይቆች	የመጠይቁ አማራጭ መልሶች			
		1	2	3	4
1	በአጠቃላይ በራሴ ሁኔታ እረካለሁ።	1	2	3	4
2	አንዳንዴ ጥሩ ሰው እንዳልሆንኩ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4
3	ብዙ ጠንካራ ጎኖች እንዳሉኝ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4
4	ብዙ የሚያኮራ ነገር እንደሌለኝ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4
5	ብዙ ሰዎች የሚሰሯቸውን ስራዎች እኔም አሰራቸዋለሁ።	1	2	3	4
6	አንዳንዴ የማልጠቅም ሰው እንደሆንኩ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4
7	ጠቃሚ ሰው እንደሆንኩ ይሰማኛል፤ ቢያንስ ከሌሎች አላንስም።	1	2	3	4
8	ለራሴ ጥሩ ግምት /ክብር እንደሌለኝ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4
9	በአጠቃላይ ህይወቴ በውድቀት የተሞላ እንደሆነ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4
10	ስለራሴ በጎ/አወንታዊ አመለካከት አለኝ።	1	2	3	4

መጠይቅ ሦስት

የወጣት ጠባጫሪነት መጠይቅ

መመሪያ:

በትምህርት ውጤታማነት ለራስ የሚሠጠውን ግምት ደረጃ/መጠን ለመለካት ከዚህ በታች አማራጮች ቀረበዋል። ስለዚህ ያንተን/ቺን ባህሪይ በትክክል የሚገልፀውን ዓ/ነገር በጥንቃቄ በማንበብ በአያንዳንዱ ዓ/ነገር ፊት ለፊት ካሉት ቁጥሮች አንዱን በማክበብ መልስ/ሺ

ስለትብብርህ/ሽ በቅድሚያ አመሠግናለሁ!

መፍቻ:

1= በጭራሽ አልስማማም

2= አልስማማም

3= አልወሰንኩም

4= እስማማለሁ

5= በጣም እስማማለሁ

ዕድሜ _____ ያታ _____ የክፍል ደረጃ _____

የት/ቤትህ/ሽ ሙሉ ስም _____


ተራቁ	መጠይቆች	የመጠይቁ አማራጭ መልሶች				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	ከክፍል ጓደኞቹ ዕቃን መንጠቅ እወዳለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
2	ስናደድ በአካባቢው ያሉትን ነገሮች እረጋግጣለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
3	አንዳንዴ የምማታወ ለመደሰት ያህል ነው።	1	2	3	4	5
4	ሰው ከመታኝ እኔም መልሼ ከመማታት እቆጠባለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
5	ስናደድ ጥርሴን እነክሳለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
6	የድብድብና ግርግር ያለበት ፊልሞችን ማየት ያስደስተኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
7	በቡድን በተደራጁና ተደባዳቢ ጎረቤቶች ጋር ከመሳተፍ ራሴን አገላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
8	እንድከበር ሀይልን መጠቀም እወዳለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
9	እንደ ሰው ሊያጠቃኝ ማሰብን ካወቅሁ አስቀድሜ አጠቃዋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
10	ብዙውን ጊዜ በጓደኞቹ ጎን ሳልፍ ገፍተር አድርጌ መሄድ ያስደስተኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
11	ፍላጎቴን ለማሟላት ማንኛውንም የጋይል አማራጮችን ከመጠቀም እቆጠባለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
12	የቦክስ ውድድሮችን ማየት እወዳለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
13	የክፍል ጓደኞቹ ፈተና ሴወደቁ አሾፍባቸዋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
14	ቡዙን ጊዜ መምህሮቹ ስህተት ሲፈጽሙ ከመተቸት እቆጠባለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
15	ሰዎች በንግግራ ልቅ እንደሆንኩ ይናገራሉ።	1	2	3	4	5
16	ከሰዎች ጋር በሃሳብ ካልተግባባን መከራከር እወዳለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
17	ሰዎች የተሳሳተ ነገር ሲሰሩ ከመሳደብ ይልቅ መምከር ይቀናኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
18	ሰዎች ሲጣሉኝ አስፈራራቸዋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
19	በሰዎች ስናደድ እየጨሀኩባቸው እንደረደርባቸዋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
20	ሰዎች በጭቃ ውስጥ ሲወድቁ እስቅባቸዋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
21	አንዳንዴ ለሰዎች የቅጽል ስም መስጥት እወዳለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
22	ያለበቂ ምክንያት ሰዎችን ማሸበር ያስደስተኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
23	ብዙውን ጊዜ የወላጆቼን ትዕዛዝ እቀበላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5

24	ከሰዎች ጋር ስከራ-ከር አስከፊ ቃላትን አጠቀማለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
25	ሰው ከጎዳኝ እኔና ጓዳኞቼ ያንን/ያችን ሰው እናማዋለን/ እናማታለን።	1	2	3	4	5
26	አንድ ሰው ከጎዳኝ ለጓደኞቼ ነገሬ እንዲጠሎት/ሊት በማድረግ ከቡድናችን አገለግለሁ/ላታለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
27	አንድ ሰው ካስቀየመኝ ከሚጠላቸው ሰዎች ጋር ጓደኝነትን እመሰርታለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
28	በመጥፎ ሁኔታ ያስተናገዱኝ ሰዎች ከልብ በሆነ ጥሩ ፊት እያሳዩኋቸው በሚገባ አስተናግዳቸዋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
29	የተጣላሁትና የማልችለውን ሰው ውሸት አውርቼ ስሙን/ስሟን አጠፋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
30	ጓደኛዬ ቢያጭበረብረኝም እንኳ ካሁን በፊት ታማኝ እንደነበርኩለት/ላት አቀጥላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
31	ብዙን ጊዜ ሰዎች ጥቃት ቢያደርሱብኝም ከነርሱ ጋር የነበረኝን ጓደኝነትን አቋርጣለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
32	ከአንድ ሰው ጋር ስጣላ ሚስጥሩን/ሯን ለሌሎች አበትናለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
33	አንድ ሰው ካስቀየመኝ የተኮነነበትን/ችበትን ደካማ ጎነን/ኋን በጽሁፍ ለብዙ ሰዎች አደርሳለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
34	መጥፎ ያደረጉብኝ መከራ ሲያዩ በጣም እረካለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
35	ቀና በማያስብልኝ መሃል ጥሩ በመስራትና የተሻለ ሆኖ መገኘትና ማስቀናት ደስ ይለኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
36	አንድ ሰው ካጠቃኝ አለባበሱንና የፀጉር አሰራሩን/ሯን በሰዎች ፊት አንቋሽሽበታለሁ/ባታለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5

Declaration

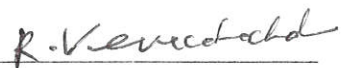
I hereby, declared that this thesis is my original work. It has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Zerihun Desta

Signature: 

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as a University advisor.

Name: R. Venkantachalam (Professor)

Signature: 

Date: 08.07.07