

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA



**GENDER RESPONSIVE PRACTICES AND SELF-ESTEEM AMONG
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDENTS IN ASHANTI REGION OF GHANA**



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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, Dorothy Akuffo Boateng, have declared that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

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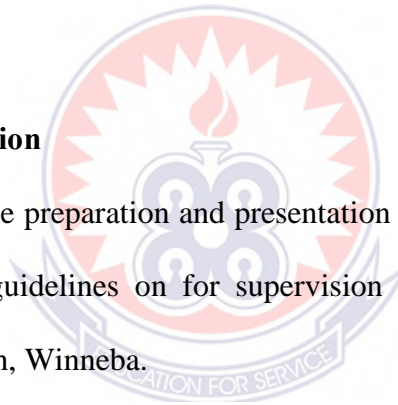
Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Prof. Alfred Kuranchie (Supervisor)

Signature:

Date:



DEDICATION

To my dear husband and children



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I am thankful to my supervisor, Prof. Alfred Kuranchie, for his valuable suggestions, guidance and dedication throughout this work. Your support and assistance kept me going coupled with your overwhelming confidence in my capability to finish this work successfully. For this and more, I say God richly bless you. I am equally indebted with gratitude to my dear husband, Dr. Daniel Gyapong Nimo, for his unwavering support and encouragement. I would also like to appreciate my children Kwaku Gyapong Anarfi Gyapong, Ama Akwaago Anarfi Gyapong, Kwasi Akuffo Anarfi Gyapong and Kwaku Obenfo Anarfi Gyapong for their understanding when they had to share my attention with the work. I wish to also share my sincere gratitude with Ms. Paulina Aboagye for sometimes holding the fort for me with the children. Many thanks also go to the principals and students of the selected colleges for their support in making this work a success.

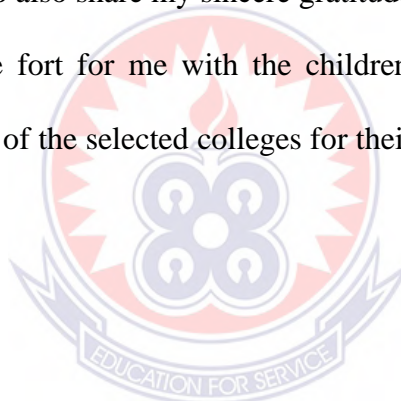


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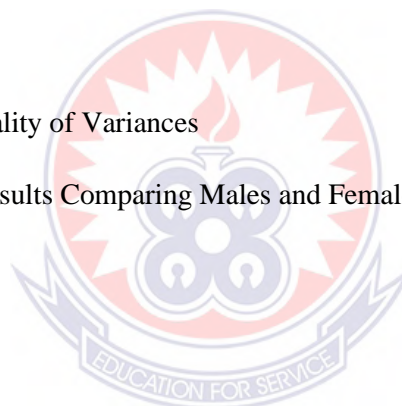
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ABSTRACT

The study investigated whether gender responsive practices in the Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana could have effect on self-esteem of the college students and to determine whether differences existed between males and females regarding their self-esteem. The study employed a descriptive cross sectional survey design. The multistage sampling technique was used to select 360 college of education students in Ashanti Region to participate in the study. Questionnaire was the main instrument for data collection with reliability of .88 and .70 for gender responsive practices and self-esteem respectively. The study employed a descriptive cross-sectional survey design. Data for the research question one was analysed using factor analysis whereas frequencies and percentages were used to analysed data on research question two. Logistic regression and independent sample t-test were used to test the hypotheses one and two respectively. The study revealed that most students (95.1%). Further, the study indicated that classroom practice, tutors challenging traditional gender roles and, activities and protocols as the main gender responsive practices in the college of education. The findings of the study also revealed that gender responsive practices in the Colleges of Education have influence on the students' level of self-esteem with tutor challenging gender roles having the highest influence. With respect to gender and self-esteem difference among the students, the study revealed no statistically significant difference between males and females' self-esteem. This implies that both males and female students possessed high levels of self-esteem and there will be decrease in students' self-esteem if the colleges stop or reduce the intensity of ensuring the practice of gender responsive activities. The study therefore, recommended that management of the Colleges of Education, hall wardens and college administrators should maintain the standard of engaging the students in gender responsive practices in order to perpetuate the high level of self-esteem among the students.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter presents background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research objectives, research question and hypotheses. The chapter also covers the significance of the study, delimitation, and limitation of the study, and organisation of the chapters.

1.1 Background to the Study

Gender as a concept is sometimes intriguing. The concept is understood and interpreted differently by people depending on their background. Gender can be understood as an evolving, embodied, sociocultural construct. UNESCO (2003) further explained the concept of gender to include the expectations held about the characteristics, aptitudes and likely behaviours of both women and men (femininity and masculinity). Gender is important in the College settings because it helps to reveal how women's subordination (or men's domination) is socially constructed and accepted in the college system. Gender responsive practices are the approaches that recognize and address the social, cultural, and institutional factors that shape the experiences of individuals based on their gender, with the goal of promoting equity inclusion and social justice (Mlama et al., 2009). It is important in educational settings especially in the colleges because college actors especially students have diverse needs that have to be addressed based on gender.

In 2018, a British government sponsored programme named Transforming Teacher Education and Learning (T-TEL) introduced a project in the colleges dubbed "Mainstreaming Gender Responsiveness into Ghana's Teacher Education System (T-

TEL, 2017)”. The aim of the project was to help the Colleges of Education to become gender responsive. The programme provided documents on gender responsive practices for the colleges to use which was used in this study. Workshops were organized to train college actors on gender responsive practices.

The introduction of gender responsive practices was to help minimise or remove traditional gender biases in the Colleges of Education with regard to “recruitment of women into male dominated subjects like science and mathematics; and ensuring that all college leadership and management among others are equally available to women as they are to men” (T-TEL, 2017). The implication of this is that both male and female student teachers had to break the traditional gender tags. For the purpose of the study Gender responsive practices are the activities that are cautiously integrated by college of education actors to reduce or remove gender biases. The activities include but not limited to; tutors intentionally giving room for males and females in class leadership positions, college administrators making sure that both males and females do chores equally etc. There are a lot of attributes that can have an effect on self-esteem; gender is no exception in that category. Breaking the traditional gender tags has a potential of making student teachers have a high or low self-esteem. Woolfolk (2005) defined self-esteem as an emotional act which summarises the value or worth, we relate to our self-assessments. Battle (1982) suggested that the concept of self-esteem is a personal, evaluative experience which decides the individual’s characteristic insight of sense of worth. It is imperative to reckon that student teachers’ experience of gender responsive practices depending on their background can affect their sense of worth. For the purpose of this study self-esteem is the total self-worth of students as they experience gender responsive practices in their day to day college life. Therefore, the purpose of this study

was to find out how students experience of gender responsive practices affect their self-esteem.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The relationship between self-esteem and academic performance in students, particularly adolescents, has been extensively documented, with self-esteem recognized as a crucial factor influencing academic outcomes. However, the existing body of research (e.g., Abraha, Dagne & Seifu, 2019; Arshad, 2015; Aryana, 2010; Bahrami & Bhrami, 2015) presents mixed findings regarding the influence of gender on self-esteem and its subsequent impact on academic achievement. While some studies (e.g., Booth & Gerard, 2011; Ferreira et al., 2016) suggest males exhibit higher self-esteem than females, others report no significant gender differences. Furthermore, the precise mechanisms through which gender influences self-esteem remain unclear.

A potential pathway linking gender to self-esteem lies in the implementation of gender-responsive practices within educational settings. The theoretical framework proposed by T-TEL (2017) posits that increased exposure to such practices might enhance students' self-esteem. However, empirical studies directly testing this assumption are limited, particularly within the context of Colleges of Education in Ghana. Previous research (e.g., Agyekum, 2000; Kalouti-Mekky, 2012; Liu, 2009) has often examined individual components of gender-responsive practices (e.g., classroom practices, challenging traditional gender roles) in isolation, rather than considering their collective impact on self-esteem. Consequently, the overall effect of comprehensive gender-responsive practices on students' self-esteem remains ambiguous.

Moreover, while the importance of self-esteem is widely acknowledged (e.g., Osezua, & Agbalajobi, 2016; Sadia, 2013), there is a paucity of research investigating the

effectiveness of planned classroom interventions aimed at improving self-esteem in Ghanaian educational institutions, especially Colleges of Education. Existing studies (e.g., Ondicho, Kombo & Njuguna, 2019; Partey & Yidana, 2018; Demirdag, 2015; Deku, Amponsah, & Opoku, 2013) tend to focus on broad factors such as gender, environment, and parental education, neglecting the specific role of students' experiences with gender-responsive practices. This omission creates a significant gap in our understanding of the determinants of self-esteem among College of Education students. Additionally, the predominantly qualitative nature of previous investigations into gender-responsive practices limits the ability to quantify the relationship between these practices and self-esteem (e.g., Bleidorn et al., 2016; Chi-hung & Eudora, 2010; Falk & Heine, 2015; Cudjoe & Sarfo, 2019; Josephs & Markus, 1992; Nizeyimana et al., 2022; Sharifabad et al., 2020). This methodological gap necessitates a quantitative approach to provide statistical evidence regarding the impact of gender-responsive practices on students' self-esteem.

Therefore, this study aims to address these identified gaps by investigating the impact of comprehensive gender-responsive practices, as experienced by students, on their self-esteem among College of Education students in Ghana. Specifically, this study will examine the concurrent influence of various components of gender-responsive practices, including classroom practices, challenging traditional gender roles, and college-wide activities, on students' self-esteem. This research utilized a quantitative approach to provide empirical evidence and contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the factors influencing self-esteem in College of Education students.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to describe students' experience in gender responsive practices as well as their self-esteem.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were to:

1. identify the levels of self-esteem among students in the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana.
2. identify the types of gender responsive practices that exist in the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana.
3. examine the effect of each component of gender responsive practices [(a) classroom practices, (b) challenging traditional gender roles, and (c) CoE practices, activities and protocols] have on self-esteem of COE students in Ghana.
4. identify the gender difference in self-esteem among CoE students in Ghana.

1.5 Research Question

Based on the above objectives of the study, the following research questions were posed:

1. What is the level of self-esteem among students in the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana?
2. What are the types of gender responsive practices that exist in the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana.

The study tested the following hypothesis:

1. H_0 : Gender responsive practices components [(a) classroom practices, (b) challenging traditional gender roles, and (c) CoE practices, activities and

protocols] will not predict self-esteem among College of Education students in Ghana differently.

H₁: Gender responsive practices components [(a) classroom practices, (b) challenging traditional gender roles, and (c) CoE practices, activities and protocols] will predict self-esteem among College of Education students in Ghana differently.

2. H₀: There is no statistically significant difference between gender and the level of self-esteem among College of Education students in Ghana.

H₁: There is no a statistically significant difference between gender and the level of self-esteem among College of Education students in Ghana.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The results of this study would be beneficial to regulatory bodies and partners of the Colleges of Education which includes but not limited to the MoE, GTEC, T-TEL, Principals, Administrators, and councils of the colleges, tutors, students and researchers. To begin with, the findings would aid regulatory bodies like MoE and GTEC to understand how the introduction of gender responsive practices in the CoE affects the self-esteem of students. The results of this study would help student teachers to appreciate and understand how their gender responsive experiences affect their self-esteem. The study would also help the Colleges of Education to continue to implement gender responsive practices to improve the self-esteem of its student teachers. It would also help T-TEL to continue to provide support to ensure that gender responsive practices become a part of the everyday life of CoE as well as bridge the gender disparity gap in the CoE in Ghana. Another significance is that, the outcome of the study would give college tutors and management an idea about gender responsive practices and its influence on students' self-esteem. This is to motivate tutors and

management to orient students on how to improve their self-esteem using the gender responsive practices. The outcome will also give college management the chance to review existing Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) policies to ensure that gender responsive practices reflect in all college activities.

Moreover, the study has given insight into gender responsive practices to tutors in the Colleges of Education to psych the students during lesson facilitation. Thus, understanding of how gender responsive practices affects students' self-esteem in the Colleges would aid higher educational institutions and policy makers to develop strategies and interventions to build on self-esteem among students in educational institutions in general.

The findings and implications of the study are of importance as an extension of previous research in the area and fill gaps in the literature on gender responsive practices and self-esteem of students. Finally, the results of this study would help to provide a strong conceptual and empirical support to serve as reference material and offer directions for future researchers in this area and has added to the body of knowledge.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

Geographically, the study was restricted to some selected Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region, which included Akrokerri College of Education, Wesley College of Education, St. Louis College of Education and Mampong College of Education. These colleges were used as the target population for the study. Considering the variables that could influence students' self-esteem, this study was restricted to only the influence of students' experience in gender responsive practices in the colleges.

1.8 Definition of Terms

It is vital to define some key terms that have been used in order to enhance understanding of the study.

College of Education: - Public tertiary institutions responsible for professional teacher education.

Gender responsive practices (GRPs): - Activities that are cautiously integrated by college of education actors to reduce or remove gender biases (Classroom practice; Tutors challenge traditional gender roles; CoE practices, activities and protocols).

Self-esteem of students: - Refers to self-confidence of students.

1.9 Organisation of the Study

To facilitate easy reading and understanding, the study has been organised into five chapters. The first chapter was chapter one, which handled the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives, research question and hypotheses, significance of the study, delimitation, and limitation of the study, The rest are chapter two to chapter five. Chapter Two presents the literature review. The review touches on theoretical framework, concepts of self-esteem (definition of self-esteem, determinants of self-esteem) and empirical evidence self-esteem, gender and self-esteem. After the review of related literature, conceptual framework of the study was added. Chapter Three presented the methodology which outlined how the study was conducted. This chapter consists of the research design, positivist paradigm that enforces the quantitative approach of inquiry, population, sample and sampling techniques, instrumentation, validity and reliability of instrument, and data collection.

It also describes the sources of data and data collection procedure, ethical consideration and data analysis procedures. Next to Chapter Three is Chapter Four which took care

of the results and discussion. Finally, Chapter Five presented a summary of the study including the findings, conclusions, recommendations and areas for further research.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This study sought to investigate the influence of gender responsive practices on self-esteem among College of Education students in the Ashanti region of Ghana. This review of the related literature was intended to place the study into an intellectual context by reviewing the main contributions made by researchers. In this chapter, the researcher has organised the review into three thematic areas. The first thematic area dealt with modes of self-esteem theory. While the second thematic area touched on conceptual review and framework for the study, the third thematic area captured empirical review for this study.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Theory of Self-esteem

The term self-esteem is an aspect of the self-concept. The nature of self-esteem has been looked into from three models, namely, affective, cognitive and psychomotor models of self-esteem.

2.1.1.1 Affective models of self-esteem

This study aimed to investigate the influence of gender responsive practices on self-esteem of college students and to determine students' self-esteem level. To get insight of levels of self-esteem, affective model among others was revived. Affective models of self-esteem seem to demonstrate that self-esteem is thought to develop early in life and is characterised by two types of feelings. These are feelings of belonging which is rooted in social experience and the feelings of mastery which is more personal (Rogers, 1951). Belonging is the feeling that you are cherished and loved for who you are,

without regard for any other person or circumstance. People feel safer in life when they feel like they belong. They get the impression that they are appreciated and valued regardless of what occurs.

The second aspect of self-esteem from the perspective of affective model is sense of mastery. Mastery is referred to as the perception of having an impact on the world, not necessarily on a grand scale but rather in one's daily life (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1983). This explains that mastery is not the same as perceived competence. Because the feelings one gets in a process of exhibiting a skill in doing something brings joy and this, according to (Deci & Ryan, 1995), promotes high self-esteem. In this case, the affective model maintains that the feeling of having mastery is important in the development of self-esteem.

Affective model contends that feelings of mastery and belonging are typically developed early in infancy. Erik Erikson's model of psychosocial development provides a useful foundation for considering how these feelings evolve. According to Erikson (1963), building trust with their caregivers is the first developmental task that infants face. These trusting emotions, which are assumed to emerge in the first year of life, are comparable to the feeling of belonging that are essential to a high sense of self-esteem. This emphasis on early childhood experiences does not mean that self-esteem can never change. It simply means that early experiences lay the foundation for high self-esteem or low self-esteem. Later experiences in life may also affect self-esteem, although none is suitable to be as important as the parent-child relationship.

One reason that latter experiences are less important is that they are always viewed through the schema that is established earlier. Once high or low self-esteem develops, it guides the way we view ourselves, other people, the experiences and events we

confront. Often, this guiding process occurs at an automatic or preconscious level (Epstein, 1990), making it difficult to detect and even harder to correct. For this reason, self-esteem tends to persist.

Relating affective model to this study, since the affective model explains a change or continuation in a child's (student's) self-esteem due to later life experiences, introducing students to gender responsive practices might alter their self-esteem if their experience is different from the gender socialization they have received at the early stages of their lives. The alteration might occur because the students might have developed a certain feeling or mastery over certain attitudes and would have to change them due to the new experiences they might be getting from the college. This might affect their self-esteem positively or negatively.

2.1.1.2 Cognitive models of self-esteem

Cognitive models provide an alternative viewpoint on self-esteem. They perceive self-esteem as a more or less conscious choice people make towards how they value themselves. People are likely to develop high self-esteem if they believe they have a lot of attributes that are seen as desirable by society. Cognitive models stress that our total level of self-esteem is determined by how we rate ourselves across a range of areas, which is one of the three definitions of self-esteem I have examined under conceptual review of self-esteem.

Cognitive models used in this study are the add-em-up model which assumes that global self-esteem represents the sum of the way people evaluate their more specific qualities; the weight-em by importance and the model assumes that self-esteem depends not only on how you evaluate yourself in specific domains, but also on how important you think it is to be good in those domains; and the self-ideal model assumes that self-esteem

depends on the difference between who we think we are now and who we would ideally like to be (Epstein, 1990).

Having gone through how cognitive models view self-esteem, there are certainty of self-knowledge towards self-esteem. High self-esteem people seem not to only appraise themselves in more positive terms than do low self-esteem people, they also appear to be more sure of who they are. According to Campbell and Lavallee (1993), high self-esteem people are more likely to possess clearly defined and temporally stable self-views than are low self-esteem people. This assertion is based on evidence that low self-esteem people: show greater changes in their self-evaluations from one day to the next; take longer to make decisions regarding their attributes; report being less certain of where they stand on various attributes; and display greater inconsistency in their self-evaluations than high self-esteem people (Setterlund & Niedenthal, 1993). Because people's ideas of themselves are often used as behavioural guides, the self-concept confusion of low self-esteem people can have important consequences (Baumgardner, 1990). For example, low self-esteem people may be more willing than high self-esteem people to accept self-discrepant feedback.

In relation to this work students who have formed high self-esteem might find it difficult to alter it because they might assume that the gender experiences, they have formed supersedes any other. In view of this they might find it difficult to change than students with low self-esteem who have less consistency in evaluating themselves.

2.1.1.3 Sociological Models of Self-Esteem

Sociological models offer another viewpoint of self-esteem about people. From the “looking glass self” model propounded by Cooley (1902) sociological models believe that self-esteem is influenced by societal factors. The looking glass model portrays that

people mirror themselves from how the society sees and value them so if we think we are highly regarded and valued by society at large, then we are likely to have high self-esteem and vice versa. From this view, sociological factors, such as occupational prestige, income, education, and social status (e.g., race, religion, and gender) are assumed to affect self-esteem (Cooley, 1902). In fact, the import of Cooley's idea about self-esteem is challenged by authors like Crocker and Major (1989) and Rosenberg (1979). Crocker and Major (1989) contended that the successful, the affluent, the well-educated, and the socially privileged do not have higher self-esteem than people who are less honoured in these areas. Indeed, emphasis on Crocker and Major (1989) argument could be supported by Rosenberg (1979) who opposed that members of defamed or stigmatised and minority groups sometimes report higher levels of self-esteem than do those who are more privileged.

Explanation has been offered on why self-esteem is not lower in socially deprived groups because group pride may affect self-esteem. According to Tajfel and Turner (1986), self-esteem depends, in part, on our group memberships or social identities. People who judge their social groups positively enjoy greater self-esteem than those who judge their social groups negatively. Crocker, Luhtanen, Blaine and Broadnax (1995) tested these ideas and found that self-esteem (as measured by the Rosenberg scale) is positively correlated with a measure of collective self-esteem (the degree to which people evaluate their various social groups in favourable terms). Although this correlation does not prove that positive group evaluations promote high self-esteem (it is just as likely that high self-esteem leads people to evaluate their groups positively), it does establish that personal self-esteem and collective self-esteem are related. Crocker and Major (1989) have offered another explanation for why members of socially disadvantaged groups do not have low self-esteem. These theorists have

suggested that socially disadvantaged groups protect themselves from prejudice and discrimination by; first, attributing negative feedback to prejudice against their group rather than to themselves; second, by selectively comparing their own outcomes with other in-group members rather than with members of the majority group; and third, by devaluing attributes on which their group is deficient and exaggerating the importance of attributes on which their group excels.

In relating this theory to the work students from socially disadvantaged groups might easily embrace gender responsive practices in the college if they see them as attributes that do not affect their group negatively.

2.2 Conceptual Review

2.2.1 Meaning of self-esteem

Self-esteem seems to be a major element that influences the level of expertise in all fields of life. In the words of Redenbach (1991), self-esteem has relationship with job success, school accomplishments, interpersonal compatibility, and common happiness of which student students are not left out. The construct self-esteem has been defined from the psychological perspective on how people make judgement about themselves. Rosenberg (1965) defined self-esteem as individual's judgment of his or her self-worth. Battle (1982) suggested that the concept of self-esteem is a personal evaluative experience which decides the individual's characteristic insight of sense of worth. From the definition of Rosenberg (1965) and Battle (1982), self-esteem is can be considered as the evaluative component of the self-concept, which is a broader representation of cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects. The reason can be that the judgment of individuals about themselves is dependent upon how they think about themselves, appreciate and relate to people.

Apart from looking at self-esteem as making evaluation about oneself, some authors (such as Baumeister et al, 2003; Demirdag, 2015) defined self-esteem as capabilities, health, and quality life of an individual. For instance, Baumeister et al, (2003) stated that self-esteem is a significant psychological element causal to health and quality of life. Demirdag (2015) also maintained that the most important elements of mental health are self-concept, self-esteem and self-identity where self-esteem is frequently considered as a guide of general happiness or well-being of individuals. Self-esteem is the sense of personal significance and capability that persons correlate with their self-concepts (Emil, 2003).

While the construct is most often used to refer to a global sense of self-worth, narrower concepts such as self-confidence is 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 based on individual's environment. Environment of acceptance and success raises self-esteem, while environment of failures lower it. Studies suggest that for children of age seven to adolescents, school frequently represents the first occasion in which they act on their own and measure themselves against others. The image one has about one self as children often affects how one feel about one self as adults. Academic challenges, gender roles and socio-economic background of individuals may lead to low self-esteem, withdrawal and behaviour problems (Emil, 2003).

It can be explained that self-esteem is a comprehensive feeling of sense of worth or capability as an individual, or general feelings of self-acceptance, kindness, and self-worth dependent on the person's setting.

2.2.1.1 Three Meanings of Self-Esteem

Self-esteem as a psychological concept has been defined from three perspectives, namely, global self-esteem, self-evaluations and feelings of self-worth. These have been discussed in detailed the subsequent aspect of the review.

1. Global Self-Esteem

Considering the global perspective of self-esteem, the term self-esteem is most frequently used to describe a personality trait that describes how people typically feel about themselves. This type of self-esteem is known by researchers as trait or global self-esteem since it tends to last across settings and time. When referring to this variable in this book, I have simply used the phrase "self-esteem" (without any qualifiers). Attempts to define self-esteem have ranged from an emphasis on primitive libidinal impulses (Kernberg, 1975), to the perception that one is a valuable member of a meaningful universe (Solomon, Greenberg, & Pyszczynski, 1991). I take a decidedly less exotic approach and define self-esteem in terms of feelings of affection for oneself (Brown, 1993; Brown & Dutton, 1995). High self-esteem is defined in normal populations as a widespread fondness or love for oneself, whereas low self-esteem is defined as somewhat pleasant or ambivalent attitudes about oneself. In extreme cases, low self-esteem people hate themselves, but this kind of self-loathing occurs in clinical populations, not in normal populations (Baumeister, Tice, & Hutton, 1989).

2. Self-Evaluations

Self-esteem is a term that is also used to describe how individuals view their unique skills and qualities. For instance, someone who has poor academic self-esteem is sometimes described as having low self-confidence in their academic abilities, but someone with strong social self-esteem believes she is loved and popular by most people. People often talk about having strong self-esteem at work or low self-esteem in sports in a similar vein. These ideas have also been referred to by the labels self-confidence and self-efficacy, and many people confuse self-confidence with self-esteem. Since they apply to how people assess or evaluate their skills and personality traits, I like to refer to these views as self-evaluations or self-appraisals. Although they are related, those with high self-esteem believe they possess many more admirable traits than those with low self-esteem. Self-esteem and self-evaluations are not the same. Unfortunately, psychologists frequently conflate the terms self-esteem and self-evaluations, failing to distinguish between the two.

It is also uncertain how self-esteem and self-evaluations are related causally. Cognitive models of self-esteem assume a bottom-up process (e.g., Harter, 1986; Marsh, 1990; Pelham & Swann, 1989). They believe that having high self-esteem results from receiving favourable assessments of oneself in specific areas. Because it assumes that overall self-esteem is created from these more detailed judgments, I refer to this process as bottom-up. Affective models of self-esteem assume a top-down process (Brown, 1993; Brown, Dutton, & Cook, 1997). These theories presuppose that the causal arrow connects particular self-evaluations to overall self-esteem: People who like themselves on the whole tend to think they have a lot of good qualities.

3. Feelings of Self-Worth

Last but not least, the phrase "self-esteem" is used to describe fleeting emotions, especially those that follow a successful or unsuccessful conclusion. When people talk about situations that boost or undermine their self-esteem, they are referring to this. For instance, a person can claim that his or her self-esteem was extremely low following a divorce or that it was extremely high after receiving a significant promotion. Following James (1890), I will refer to these emotions as self-feelings or as feelings of self-worth. Examples of what I mean by sentiments of self-worth include feeling satisfied or proud of oneself (on the positive side) or ashamed and embarrassed of oneself (on the negative side). Some researchers (e.g., Butler, Hokanson, & Flynn, 1994; Leary et al., 1995) use the terms state self-esteem and trait self-esteem to refer to the emotions we are calling feelings of self-worth and the way people generally feel about themselves, respectively. These terms connote an equivalence between the two phenomena, implying that the only difference is that global self-esteem is persistent, while feelings of self-worth are not permanent.

There are significant ramifications to the trait-state hypothesis. First, it implies that feeling proud of oneself is comparable to having a high sense of self-worth and that feeling ashamed of oneself is comparable to having a low sense of self-worth. This in turn prompts researchers to hypothesize that an analogy of high or low self-esteem can be produced by briefly making people feel positive or negative about themselves (e.g., Greenberg et al., 1992; Heatherton & Polivy, 1991; Leary et al., 1995). Giving people self-relevant feedback, such as informing them they are good or bad at something, is a common way to do this. Other researchers (Brown & Dutton, 1995; Wells & Marwell, 1976) disagree with this strategy, claiming that these manipulations do not provide a fair analogy of high or poor self-esteem.

One final thing to consider is sentiments of value. We've mentioned the need for self-esteem as a basic human need several times in this book. This is referred to as the self-enhancement motive in psychology. This phrase describes the tendency for people to value themselves highly. Instead of feeling ashamed of themselves, they want to feel proud of themselves. They make an effort to enhance and safeguard their sense of worth. Across time, countries, and subcultures, people approach trying to meet this desire in different ways, but the need itself is constant. Perhaps Ernest Becker, an anthropologist who won the Pulitzer Prize, best articulated the conclusion when he said:

The fundamental datum for our science is a fact that at first seems banal, or irrelevant: it is the fact that—as far as we can tell—all organisms like to “feel good” about themselves. . . . Thus in the most brief and direct manner, we have a law of human development. . . . (Becker, 1968, p.328)

Interestingly, there is no consensus on why people are motivated to have positive feelings of self-worth. Some believe these feelings are intrinsically satisfying; as James (1890) put it, “direct and elementary endowments of our nature” (1890, p.306). Others (Gergen, 1971; Kaplan, 1975) believe that positive feelings of self-worth are preferred simply because they have come to be associated with positive outcomes, such as praise from others or success in performance. Others contend that having a sense of worth makes dying easier to bear and that it is desirable (Greenberg et al., 1992) since it gives life purpose. It has been assumed that a wide spectrum of human conduct is motivated by a drive to foster, preserve, and safeguard positive sentiments of self-worth. This covers conduct in social, health, and academic contexts (Ditto & Lopez, 1992), as well as settings for achievement (Covington & Berry, 1976).

2.2.2 Nature of Self-esteem

I may have a different opinion about self-esteem, because, how may the self-esteem of one person differ from that of another if self-esteem is simply one's perception of oneself? According to James (1890), there are two ways that self-esteem might change. First of all, it would act somewhat emotionally; it would change, if not from hour to hour, then at the very least from day to day and possibly from week to week. One person might have a stronger sense of self-worth than another one week, but that could change the following week. According to this perspective, self-esteem is reactive, with responses to the variable or ever-changing circumstances of a person's everyday existence. So, just as an insult can make someone angry or unanticipated project challenges can make someone depressed, warm praise or a huge success can momentarily boost one's self-esteem while an embarrassing failure may have the opposite effect. If self-esteem does vary in this way, then there are two relevant questions for us.

How responsive is self-esteem, first? Is self-esteem more like to terror (very short-term) or grief (a relatively long-term reaction from which one recovers slowly)? Can it, for example, be dropped or boosted very quickly, and does it rebound to some resting state somewhat slowly? Do people differ in how their self-esteem reacts, secondly? Do some people quickly adapt their perception of themselves in response to even the smallest change in circumstances, while others take much longer and are more resistant to change? These disparities may occur and may have significant ramifications, according to some recent study, but mostly when present in conjunction with more enduring or chronic variances in self-esteem levels.

Self-esteem is like a barometer in that it tracks conditions rather than responding to events, which is a related idea. . Self-esteem will be reasonably high when these relations are favourable, when one feels accepted, included, and loved. Self-esteem will be low when relationships are poor, such as when one is rejected, ostracized, or disliked. The significance of this tracking, according to Leary (2012), is that it starts, or ought to start, remedial action when something is going wrong. In other words, low self-esteem serves as a warning sign that one's relationships with other people are in need of repair and are in a bad shape. According to Leary, the importance of this tracking is that it starts, or should start, corrective action when something is going wrong. In other words, having low self-esteem serves as a warning sign that one's interpersonal relationships are in need of repair and should be improved.

Self-esteem as a motivator is a concept that the barometer notion is similar to. People have a need for self-esteem, and when they lack it, they will work harder to build it up. This does not, however, rule out the possibility that some people would experience this need more acutely than others, just as some people may be more concerned with their achievement than others or may feel their need to be loved and accepted more intensely than others. In other words, the need and pursuit of self-esteem may act as a stronger motivator in certain people's life than it does in others. There doesn't seem to be much proof of this thus yet. Everyone tends to value their own sense of worth and find it upsetting when it is lacking (Brown, 1993, for example). However, not everyone finds it as simple to obtain and maintain. This puts us one step closer to the second variation in self-esteem William James foresaw. He believed that each person possesses "a certain average tone of self-feeling," and that this average varies from person to person. This is comparable to what would be referred to as a "trait" concept of self-esteem in modern psychology; it is a quality of the person that is largely constant or enduring.

'Relatively' is, of course, the key word here. How unmovable are the differences? Are they more like weight differences - adjustable within certain parameters but gradually and with difficulty - or adult stature, which is essentially permanently established once people are fully grown?

The answers to these questions have implications for how self-esteem is measured as well as the effects that could be anticipated to result from changes in self-esteem. In the majority of the studies that will be looked at in this review, self-esteem was considered and quantified as a trait rather than a state, and questions about the effects of chronically high vs chronically low self-esteem were raised. However, many researchers and undoubtedly the conceptual entrepreneurs hold the belief that chronic low self-esteem can be improved (and that high self-esteem can, in turn, be undermined and suffer long-term harm). Their implicit, if not explicitly stated, model of self-esteem is similar to Rosenberg's in this regard: it is an attitude. If the attitude is firmly entrenched and retained, it will resist change, be stable, but it won't be completely impervious to change. If it is not firmly held, it will be less stable, more prone to rise or fall with shifting conditions, and more easily altered by actions intended specifically for this goal. The veracity of ideas concerning the malleability of self-esteem is of great practical significance. But rather than being presumptuously assumed, their veracity should ultimately be judged by the available evidence. The process of creating and analysing self-esteem measurement tools has produced some of the pertinent evidence, so I have measured self-esteem as part of my objectives.

2.2.3 Scholars and Scientists views about Self-Esteem

William James stated in his 1890 book *Principles of Psychology* that self-esteem is success divided by pretences. This idea's beautiful simplicity has some intriguing

ramifications. In addition to choosing less ambitious aims, self-esteem can also be raised by obtaining larger accomplishments and avoiding failures: "to give up pretensions is as blessed a relief as to get them gratified" (James, 1890). James' formula also made the crucial assertion that self-esteem cannot be only predicted from the level of achievement that a person really achieves. It matters if their accomplishments are commensurate with their goals. Because their accomplishments are either irrelevant to their aspirations or fall short of them, some people may be undeniably highly successful and even widely admired for their accomplishments, but to a detached observer, they may appear to be very unsuccessful.

Additionally, James anticipated that people would have varying average levels of self-esteem. The implications of James's formula boil down to this: Is the numerator or the denominator more variable in real life? If most people aspire to achieve the same things – which is to say there is little variance among people in their pretensions – then the main cause of differences in self-esteem would be differences in degree of success. The fundamental reason for disparities in self-esteem would be differences in degree of achievement, and we should anticipate these two things to be highly associated if most people strive to attain the same things. That is, if there is little variation among people in their pretensions. On the other hand, objective disparities in success become less significant drivers of differences in self-esteem if there is a considerable degree of variation in pretensions, people differ significantly in what they aspire to and/or in the standards they strive to. These two items should be closely tied to one another. There is evidence that young people seek or aspire to similar things, at least in terms of material possessions, regardless of their circumstances. For instance, young people from disadvantaged communities tend to have traditional adult objectives, such as nice house, good job, nice car, nice family. Self-esteem, however, is more strongly related

to goals for character traits, and these desires might vary since not all adolescents cared equally about being likeable (Rosenberg, 1979).

The success or pretensions formula also makes it evident that a calculation or judgment is being made, which further begs the question of how this calculation is being performed. The most obvious question is: How can people know if and to what extent they are successful and that they possess the traits they want? The sociologist Charles Horton Cooley provided a very significant response to this query in 1902. We base our evaluations of our own value on what we believe others would say about us. Furthermore, the traits we perceive in these other persons are what influence our assumptions regarding these judgments. I expect that those who are virtuous or successful will be harsher on us than those who lack these qualities. In other words, it's not our accomplishments that are immediately and objectively evaluated that determine our self-esteem; rather, it's how we expect others to perceive our accomplishments. Additionally, when these other people achieve great success, our own achievements will appear less spectacular. Three guises that have been relevant to scientific thought about self-esteem were to take these concepts up again much later. The social psychology theory of social comparison processes was first created by Leon Festinger in 1954. Its basic thesis is that we rarely have access to unambiguous, objective standards by which we can evaluate our own performance. In a few plainly visible ways, this is accurate. For instance, we might aspire to have taste in music or sane viewpoints on current affairs. But unlike, for instance, the question of whether we can swim 50 yards or remain upright while riding a bicycle, there is no objective test we can use to evaluate ourselves in this situation. Even with respect to such matters of performance, however, as often as not we want to know whether we are *good* at swimming, cycling, etc., and not merely whether we can do these things. And, in order

to estimate how well we are doing, we need to compare ourselves with others – to make social comparisons. So, but even in these performance-related areas, we frequently want to know whether we are good at swimming, cycling, etc. rather than just whether we can do them. Additionally, we must compare ourselves to others in order to create social comparisons in order to determine how well we are doing. Therefore, it is important who we select for comparison. Festinger's theories inspired a lot of study that mainly aimed to understand how these decisions are made. It is crucial *who* we choose for comparison. Much of the research following on Festinger's propositions sought to determine how such choices are made.

Second, based on the idea that self-esteem can take many different forms of attitude, Rosenberg (1965) developed a method for assessing it. Nearly 40 years prior, the concept of attitude had begun to take centre stage in the social sciences, coinciding with the advancement of methods for measuring social attitudes rather precisely. Once social attitudes could be assessed, it was possible to study how different attitudes affected behaviour. The primary way that attitudes have been characterized is in terms of emotional or evaluative reactions; attitudes are our reactions of acceptance or disapproval, like or disliking, for societal customs, behavioural patterns, racial or ethnic groups, political ideologies, public figures, and so forth. And in this regard, Rosenberg understood self-esteem to be an attitude of evaluation toward oneself. The fact that this viewpoint closely resembles everyday speech or the dictionary definition of self-esteem is one of its many advantages. Rosenberg's assertion that this attitude is profoundly influenced by what one believes others think of oneself served as the connection to Cooley. Rosenberg's definition has continuing significance since it is incorporated in his self-esteem scale, which has emerged as the industry standard in self-esteem research. The sociological tradition of symbolic interactionism and its theories that we

learn about ourselves via our interactions with others and through the access these interactions offer us to other people's perceptions of us are the third long-lasting effect of Cooley's ideas. Most of the theorizing and research on self-esteem has made the assumption that our interactions to others have a significant impact on our self-esteem. If the criticism we hear from others is consistently negative, we will include that into how we view ourselves. Our self-esteem will definitely increase if others consistently express their praise. It is also a guiding principle underpinning nearly every intervention program currently in development to boost self-esteem, as well as the fundamental tenet of the majority of well-known literature on the subject.

One such example is Ramsey's *501 Ways to Boost Your Child's Self Esteem* (1994), which is just a list of various opportunities and ways to provide your kids with encouraging words. Last but not least, opinions on criticism are predicated on the same premise: one should never offer constructive criticism because doing so would violate the recipient's unalienable right to self-esteem.

According to Cooley (1902), it should be recalled, emphasised in particular what we *imagine* others think of us: 'We imagine, and in imagining share, the judgments of the other mind' (p. 152). This emphasis should be kept in mind because it may be very important to comprehending the origins and nature of self-esteem. This insight can lead one to believe that our experiences serve as a foundation for what we believe to be the case. To put it another way, we base our assumptions about how other people feel about us on how they really treat us. However, these two concepts are not always the same.

2.2.4 The consequences of self-esteem

Insofar as it has consequences, and more specifically implications with benefits and costs, self-esteem transitions from a matter of solely academic interest to one of genuine

practical concern. In fact, this belief that low self-esteem has many, especially negative effects, has stoked a larger public interest in the topic. Emler (2001) asserts that there are essentially seven options that need to be taken into account. Though it may not be immediately clear why, each of these alternatives has unique practical repercussions, therefore it is crucial to distinguish between them. So, let's take a look at each potential relationship between self-esteem and behaviour or other outcomes in turn. To start with, low self-esteem is a direct contributing factor unrelated to other factors. This may entail proving, for instance, that self-esteem has an effect on sexual risk-taking behaviour (such as unsafe sexual practices that increase the risk of STDs or unwanted pregnancies), independent of or in addition to the effects of other factors predictive of such risk-taking. The two practical implications are that (a) one might thereby reduce the level of risk taking by increasing self-esteem and (b) one might identify groups – i.e., those with low self-esteem – most vulnerable to the outcome of interest and concentrate resources upon them to reduce the impact of other risk factors (Emler, 2001).

Self-esteem also functions as a mediator. This implies that the psychological state that connects a cause to an effect is one of self-esteem. Consider the possibility that teenage females who perform poorly in school have a higher risk of getting pregnant. If scholastic failure reduced self-esteem and this decreased self-esteem increased the risk of teenage pregnancy, then this effect would be mediated by self-esteem. The practical benefit of this is the potential to disrupt at least one link in the causal chain, most notably the one connecting academic failure to low self-esteem (Emler, 2001). If this turns out to be feasible, having failed before need not raise the likelihood of getting pregnant.

Self-esteem is also a mediated or indirect cause of the situations in which people find themselves (Emler, 2001). For instance, low self-esteem may have an indirect impact on the chance of teenage pregnancy by influencing how easily one is influenced by others. The mediator could then act as a break in the chain of causation.

Self-esteem additionally acts as a moderator. Even though in fact the majority of moderator effects thus far observed take this form, this does not always mean that self-esteem interacts with other causes (Emler, 2001). Let's assume that there is a link between subpar academic achievement and teen pregnancies. If this connection were present or stronger at one level of self-esteem (for example, low), and absent or weaker at another level (for example, high), self-esteem would be acting as a moderator. There are two distinct practical implications to this. One results from the potential to alter self-esteem. The influence of the cause on the effect would be lessened if it could be elevated. The possibility of identifying an at-risk population is the other.

A linked result is increased self-esteem. Consider the possibility that experiencing an early teen pregnancy is linked to low self-esteem. Low self-esteem and pregnancy could also be effects of other things, such as having several partners or having strained relationships with your parents. If so, the link between pregnancy and low self-esteem is just coincidental.

Self-confidence is a result. Another idea is that self-esteem is damaged by pregnancy as a result of early sexual involvement. In actuality, a link between such exercise and self-esteem is mediated through pregnancy. If the causal consequences cause other negative outcomes (such sadness, suicidal thoughts, drug misuse, or prostitution), there are practical ramifications. Of course, if we believe low self-esteem has negative effects, we will be particularly interested in the factors that contribute to it.

Self-worth is a cause and an effect. Some theoretically derived predictions regarding self-esteem suggest that a person's level of self-esteem will influence their propensity to engage in particular behaviours or actions, and that the occurrence of these actions or behaviours will have an impact on future levels of self-esteem. However, it is sometimes anticipated that the causal loop will include negative feedback. Assume, for instance, that low self-esteem increases the risk of teenage pregnancy, which, if it happens, raises self-esteem. This possibility has been considered seriously; for more information, see the section on "Risky sexual behaviour" later in this chapter. It has also been considered seriously for another outcome, delinquency; for more information, see the section on "Crime and delinquency" later in this chapter. Other instances, such as the relationship between self-esteem and the development of close relationships, are said to involve positive feedback loops. However, upon closer examination, it usually always transpires that extra links are present in the loop and that it is not entirely closed. This practically means that causal chains can be severed. Almost all of the studies that have looked at how low self-esteem may contribute to outcomes like risky behaviour, antisocial behaviour, and poor life management (poor work habits, etc.) have been conducted in a way that makes it impossible to differentiate between direct and indirect causal influences, mediators, correlated outcomes, or effects. In particular, it has not been possible to rule out these last two possibilities whenever a relationship between self-esteem and some pattern of behaviour has been found - either that some other condition affects both self-esteem and the behaviour in question or that this behaviour influences self-esteem.

2.2.5 Why the study of Self-esteem is relevant

Due to both good and negative effects of self-esteem on a variety of outcomes,

including academic achievement (Arshad, 2015; Aryana, 2010) and the capacity to overcome obstacles in life (Joshi & Srivastava, 2009), the significance of self-esteem cannot be understated. As a result, it is a top priority and concern for all parties involved—students, parents, educators, and the general public (Bahrami & Bhrami, 2015). Low self-esteem has been linked to indifference for high academic aspirations, which leads to poor academic achievement, according to studies (Arshad et al., 2015), but strong self-esteem is a key factor in academic pursuit (Booth & Gerard, 2011). According to the self enhancement paradigm, academic success is predicted by self-concept (Zimmerman, 2001). According to Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, and Vohs (2003), self-esteem improves adolescent pupils' and even adults' academic performance, allowing them to win academic honors. Due to the fact that self-esteem rises with age, the developmental stage of teenagers is quite important (O'Mally & Bachman, 1983). According to research, academic performance is also influenced by socio-demographic status, school atmosphere, adolescent aspirations (Sirin & Rogers-Sirin, 2004, Nworgu & Nworgu, 2013), peers, and environmental factors (Farid & Akhtar, 2013). The research is highly conflicted and inconclusive (Baumeister et al., 2003; Naderi, 2009), despite the fact that self-esteem has been highlighted as essential for academic achievement (Aryana, 2010). While some studies have found a significant correlation between self-esteem and academic performance (Blankson & Zhou, 2002; Alves-Martin et al, 2002; Lockett & Harrell, 2003), others (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002; Bryne, 1984; Diseth et al., 2014) have found a modest predictive relationship as well as a bi-directional relationship (Baumeister, et al., 2003). The literature's results are not conclusive due to a number of issues.

Adolescents' inconsistent test results have been linked to their environment (Apostal & Bilden, 1991; Markstrom et al., 2000). Studies examining the link between self-esteem

and academic achievement usually ignore urban poor contexts in favor of rural (Nagar, 2008; Akinleke, 2012; Twinomugisha, 2008) and urban (Akinleke, 2012) settings. However, a difference in the distribution of resources between urban and suburban populations is what leads to urban poverty. Ludwig et al. (2001; UN, Millennium Project, 2005; Baker, 2008; CHF/AMA, 2010) claim that more than half of the urban poor population lives below the federal poverty line, has a high unemployment rate, poor housing conditions, inadequate drainage systems, and uses improper waste disposal methods. People who live in poverty in cities typically experience social, economic, cultural, and resource limitations. This may then have an impact on young people's quality of life, sense of self, and academic success, as well as that of adults (Joshi & Srivastava, 2009). In urban impoverished settings, the environment has a relative impact on self-esteem and, as a result, academic achievement (Rhodes et al., 2004; Nworgu & Nworgu, 2013). Evidence on the link between self-esteem and academic performance, though, is scarce in urban disadvantaged populations. Whereas most authors speak to self-esteem and academic performance, this study focuses on pertinent factors in gender responsive practices that influence self-esteem.

2.2.6 The Meaning of Gender

The usage of the term gender has become common in contemporary social science literature. The term has synonymously been used for the aspects of human life that are social rather than biological. To work effectively on gender issues, it is imperative that a concept like sex is clarified since gender is widely used and misunderstood for sex. Maintenance of a clear conceptual distinction between the two concepts is particularly helpful for the holistic understanding of issues pertaining to gender (Nyalunga, 2007). Sex is the biological difference between men and women. It is biological and inherited from birth, we are born either with X or Y chromosome. Genetic differences are innate

and remain untainted. A commonly held myth is that gender and sex are exchangeable terms. These two terms are not the same and carry different meanings. But gender as a concept has been widely explained as a socially constructed role of males and females.

According to the World Health Organization WHO (2018), gender refers to the characteristics of women, men, girls and boys that are socially constructed. This definition includes norms, behaviours and roles associated with being a woman, man, girl or boy, as well as relationships with each other. For Philips (2005), it is the roles and expectations attributed to men and women in a given society, roles which change over time, place, and life stage. Gender is a social, rather than a biological construct, and varies with the roles, norms and values of a given society or era. Being able to bear a child is, fundamentally, a function of biology, while expectations about the imperative to bear children, the nature of parenting, or the status associated with being a mother are more closely linked to gender roles and expectations. Gender basically can be explained as the socially constructed roles assigned to people based on their biological makeup.

2.2.7 The Concept of Gender Differences in terms of Social Roles, Classroom, Academic and Cognitive in School

The concept of gender difference has been viewed by different writers in the aspects of social roles, classroom activities, academic and cognitive in school have shared by variant writers (Maccoby, 2003; Byrnes, 1996; Tannen, 2001; Agyemang, 2020; Smith, Sinclair, & Chapman, 2002; Davies, 2005; Bahrami & Bhrami, 2015).

2.2.7.1 Differences in Social Gender Roles

When relaxing socially, males more often gravitate to large groups. Whether on the playground, in a school hallway, or on the street, males' social groups tend literally to

fill up a lot of space, and often include significant amounts of roughhousing as well as organized and semi-organized competitive games or sports (Maccoby, 2003). Females, on the other hand, are more inclined to seek out and keep one or two close friends with whom they can discuss more private thoughts and feelings. Insofar as these gender differences exist, they may make women less obvious or noticeable than men, at least in casual play circumstances when kids and teenagers can choose their friends at will. But remember that not all guys and females engage differently in social situations, just as there are disparities in our physical appearance. Contrary to the overall trend, there are males who have close pals, and there are girls who prefer to play in huge groups. Even in the classroom, different social interaction styles exist. Males, on average, are more likely to speak up during a class discussion sometimes even if not called on, or even if they do not know as much about the topic as others in the class (Byrnes, 1996). When working on a project in a small co-ed group, furthermore they tend to ignore females' comments and contributions to the group. In this respect co-ed student groups parallel interaction patterns in many parts of society, where men also tend to ignore women comments and contributions (Tannen, 2001).

2.2.7.2 Differences in Gender in the Classroom

Gender roles are the patterns of behaviours, attitudes, and expectations associated with a particular sex-with being either male or female. For clarity, psychologists sometimes distinguish gender differences, which are related to social roles, from sex differences, which are in line with physiology and anatomy (Agyemang, 2020). Using this concept, gender matters more than sex in teaching, with the goal of shaping pupils' self-esteem. Despite many exceptions, males and females differ on average in ways that correspond to traditional gender stereotypes and influence how the sexes act at school and in class. The variations relate to physical behaviours, social interaction patterns, and academic

motivations, behaviours, and decisions they wish to take. Parents, peers, and the media are their main sources of information and motivation. Agyemang (2020) asserted that teachers are certainly not the primary cause of gender role differences, but sometimes teachers influence them by their responses to and choices made on behalf of students.

Males tend to be physically more active than girls, and as a result, they get restless if they have to sit still for a long time. Smith, Sinclair, and Chapman (2002) also indicated that males are more prone than females to rely on physical aggression if they are frustrated. Both traits, goes a long way, to counter the normal expectations of classroom life and increase the likelihood that school will be challenging and frustrating for males, even for those who never actually get in trouble for being agitated or violent. Males and girls acquire their gross motor abilities at approximately the same average rate during the first two or three years of elementary school. Although there are obviously hugely significant variations between individuals of both sexes, both sexes can run, leap, toss a ball, and perform other similar activities with roughly comparable ease as a group. Braddock, Sokol-Katz, Greene, and Basinger-Fleischman (2005) believes that toward the end of elementary school, however, males pull ahead of females at these skills even though neither sex has begun yet to experience puberty.

The most plausible explanation for why men participate in informal sports more actively than women is due to social pressure from parents, peers, and society. At some point, puberty strengthens this advantage by making males, on average, taller and stronger than females and, therefore, better equipped, at least for sports requiring height and strength. It is important to note that there are many unique exceptions when considering these variations and that they refer to typical tendencies. Every teacher is aware of specific females who are particularly fidgety in class or specific males who

are not particularly athletic. The individual disparities make it difficult to justify giving guys in sports, athletics, or physical education different levels of support or resources than girls, among other reasons. However, the discrepancies also imply that certain children who defy gender norms about physical prowess might gain from emotional support or affirmation from teachers, merely because they might be less likely than normal to receive such affirmation from other sources.

2.2.7.3 Gender Differences in Academic and Cognitive in School

Mostly during elementary school, ladies are typically more motivated than males to do well in school but the same cannot be said as they proceed on the academic ladder. By the time females reach high school, however, some may try to down play their own academic ability in order make themselves more likeable by both sexes (Davies, 2005). Even if this occurs, though, it does not affect their grades: from kindergarten through twelfth grade, females earn slightly higher average grades than males (Bahrami & Bhrami, 2015). However, this fact does not translate into comparable accomplishment since as students enter high school, they prefer to select electives or disciplines that are often associated with their gender, with math and science being particularly popular among men and literature and the arts being popular among women. By the end of high school, the choice of courses has a quantifiable impact on how well boys and females perform academically in these areas. But once more, remember my warning against stereotyping: there are people of both sexes whose actions and preferences go outside the norm.

Generally speaking, variances within each gender group are far greater than disparities between the groupings. The disparity between men's and women's cognitive abilities is a good illustration. Numerous studies have found zero. Others have discovered modest

variations, with men slightly performing better in arithmetic and women slightly performing better in reading and literature. Still other studies have found the differences not only are small, but have been getting smaller in recent years compared to earlier studies (Agyemang, 2020). Collectively, the findings regarding cognitive capacities are essentially non-findings, thus it is important to consider why gender differences have been the subject of much research and discussion for such a long time. How do educators affect gender roles?

Teachers typically try to interact with both sexes equally and succeed in doing so a lot of the time. However, research has shown that they occasionally react differently to males and females, possibly without being aware of it. Two kinds of differences have been noticed in the literature in terms of how teachers interact with male and female students in school. The first observation was on how teachers attend to males and females; and the second was how teachers offer praises and or criticise males and females in schools.

2.2.8 How Teachers Attend to Males and Females in School

Interaction between teachers and students seem to be more powerful during teaching and learning. However, literature revealed that teachers interact with males more often than with females by a margin of 10 to 30 percent, depending on the grade or level of the students and the personality of the teacher (Measor & Sykes, 1992). The greater aggressiveness and assertiveness of men, which I already mentioned, is one possible explanation for the disparity; if guys are speaking up more frequently in talks or at other times, a teacher may be forced to pay more attention to them. Another possibility is that some teachers may feel that males are especially prone to getting into mischief, so they may interact with them more frequently to keep them focused on the task at hand (Erden

& Wolfgang, 2004). Another assumption is that there are simply more possibilities to communicate with men since they interact in a wider variety of ways and contexts than women do. Another gender difference in classroom interaction, the proportion of public vs private conversation, lends some credence to this last assumption.

Regarding how teachers talk to students, they tend to talk to males from a greater physical distance than when they talk to females (Wilkinson & Marrett, 1985). The difference may be both a cause and an effect of general gender expectations, expressive nurturing is expected more often of females and women, and a business-like task orientation is expected more often of males and men, particularly in mixed-sex groups (Basow & Rubinfeld, 2003; Myaskovsky, Unikel, & Dew, 2005). Whatever the cause, the result is increased public disclosure of contacts with men. Fewer people can overhear a conversation between two people when they are elbow to elbow as opposed to when they are speaking across the room.

2.2.9 How Teachers Offer Praise and or Criticise Males and Females in School

It turns out that sometimes professors treat masculine and female students differently when giving praise and criticism, despite the fact that most teachers want to be fair to all students. The tendency is to praise males more than females for displaying knowledge correctly, but to criticize females more than males for displaying knowledge incorrectly (Golombok & Fivush, 1994; Delamont, 1996). Another way to express this difference is by looking at what teachers typically overlook: with males, they typically overlook incorrect responses, whereas with females, they typically neglect correct responses. The outcome, which was certainly unintended is a propensity to elevate male knowledge and elevate guys as competent individuals. The propensity for women's knowledge to be less obvious and for women to perceive themselves as less competent

is a second outcome that is the opposite side of this coin.

Gender differences also occur in the realm of classroom behaviour. Teachers tend to praise females for pleasant behaviour, regardless of its relevance to content or to the lesson at hand, and tend to criticize males for unpleasant or inappropriate behaviour (Golombok & Fivush, 1994). This difference can also be expressed in terms of what teachers tend to overlook: with females, they frequently overlook inappropriate behaviour, but with males, they frequently miss excellent behaviour. The net result in this case is to make females seem better than they may really be, and also to make their goodness seem more important than their academic competence (Agyemang, 2020). The teacher's response patterns also provide the impression that men are worse than they actually are.

According to Agyemang (2020), at first glance, the gender differences in interaction can seem discouraging and critical of teachers because they imply that teachers as a group are biased about gender. But for a few reasons, this conclusion is overly general. One is that interaction patterns, like any differences between groups, are trends, and as such they conceal a lot of variety within them. The second is that the patterns suggest what frequently tends to actually occur rather than what can actually occur if a teacher deliberately sets out to avoid interaction patterns like those I have just described. Fortunately for all of us, teaching does not have to be mindless; even in a busy classroom, we have decisions to make.

2.2.10 Gender Responsive Practices

Gender issues have become topical as such measures need to be put in place to enhance its existence. There is therefore the need to implement gender responsiveness. Gender responsiveness is a means of considering and addressing the different needs and aspirations,

capacities and contributions of men/boys and women/girls via policies and initiatives. According to Nelson (2015), gender responsiveness refers to outcomes that reflect an understanding of gender roles and inequalities and which make an effort to encourage equal participation and equal and fair distribution of benefits. In support of Nelson's assertion, UNESCO (2003) also defines gender responsiveness as programmes and project objectives that are non-discriminatory and equally beneficial to women and men and aim at correcting gender imbalances. This implies that certain programmes need to be put in place to ensure equitable participation of males and females.

Wide gap between males and females have existed over the years and the United Nations have put in place certain gender responsive strategies to address the menace (Nyalunga, 2007). Some of these strategies include declaration of a decade for women, which culminated in the Beijing conference of 1985, Education for All, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) etc (UN 2000; UNDP 2001). According to Nyalunga (2007), some of the gender responsive strategies outlined by the United Nations include; affirmative action to accelerate de facto equality between men and women, in the field of education. State parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the same conditions for career and vocational guidance, access to studies and earning of diplomas; access to the same curricula, teaching staff and standards; the elimination of stereotyped concepts of the role of women and men", the same opportunities for scholarships, the same access to continuing education, sports and physical education. One of the challenges of contemporary society and the educational system is to address the gender inequality in the social systems. Thus, schools and teachers at all levels have a key role to play in developing a gender-sensitive future generation. Gender responsiveness is accomplished through gender analysis and gender inclusiveness.

The idea that certain roles are for men or women should also be addressed. Roles can be differentiated by sex or age and it is one of the factors used to determine individual's status within the family and society. One may be the family head because he is a man and another person a family cook because she is a woman. Males are mainly made political heads in the Ghanaian society and this scenario has raised its head in the college setting. For instance, most Students' Representative Council boards in the mixed (males and females) colleges have been and are still mostly headed by males. St Josephs' and Berekum Colleges of Education for instance have been in existence for more than 60 years but has never had a female SRC president. This has mainly been because most students feel expected roles of women and girls are different from those of men and boys.

2.2.11 Practices of Gender Responsiveness in the College of Education

The colleges of education (CoE) in Ghana have practices that make their activities, event, programmes and facilities gender responsive (T-Tel, 2017). Among these are:

- i. All members of the CoE have received gender training
- ii. Classroom practice is gender responsive
- iii. Tutors challenge traditional gender roles during lessons
- iv. CoE practices, activities and protocols are gender responsive
- v. CoE infrastructure is gender responsive
- vi. CoE teaching practice is gender responsive
- vii. The CoE has a sexual harassment policy that is fully implemented
- viii. CoE policies are developed and/or amended to be gender responsive
- ix. CoE tutor recruitment is gender responsive
- x. CoE staff procedures are gender responsive

- xi. CoE data is collected and analysed in a gender responsive way of planning is gender responsive
- xii. CoE budgeting is gender responsive

2.2.12 Conceptual Framework

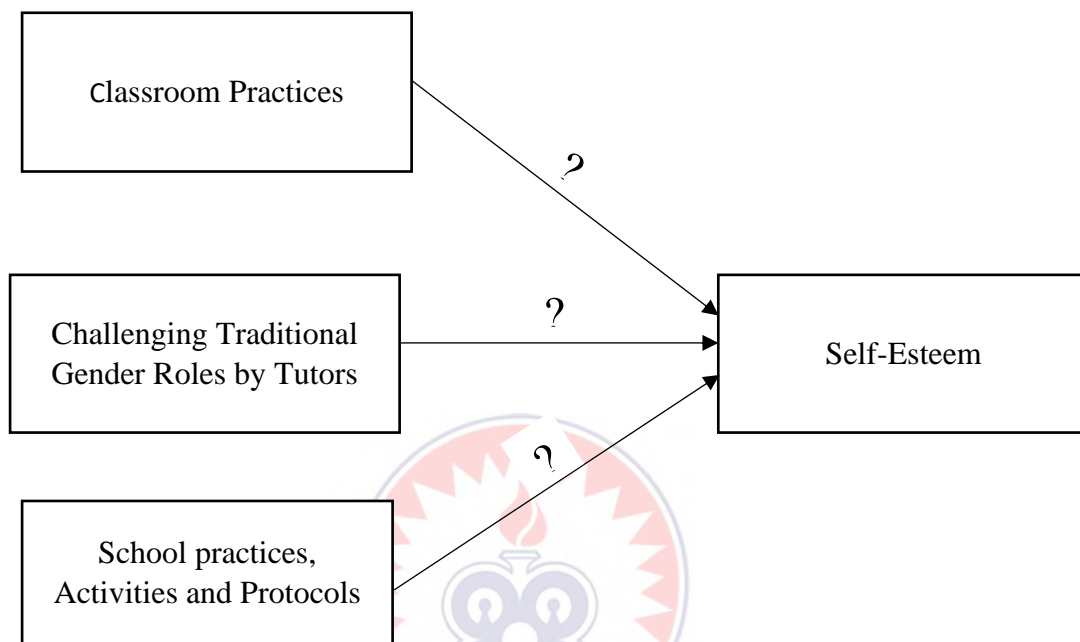


Figure 1: Gender responsive practices (classroom practices, challenging traditional gender roles by tutors and school practices, activities and protocols) Predicting Self-Esteem of CoE Students

Source: Author's Own Model (2022)

Figure 1 presents the hypothesised relationship among the independent variables (i.e., classroom practices, challenging traditional gender roles by tutors and school practices, activities and protocols) and the dependent variable (i.e., self-esteem). The Figure portrays that classroom practices, challenging traditional gender roles by tutors and school practices, activities and protocols have direct influence on self-esteem of students in the colleges of education. Based on these work-related variables, my intent in this study was to measure self-esteem as a product of classroom practices,

challenging traditional gender roles by tutors and school practices, activities and protocols of students in the colleges.

2.2.13 Assumption

With the aim of investigating issue of self-esteem of College of Education students, it is assumed that classroom practices, challenging traditional gender roles by tutors and school practices, activities and protocols of the students are significant predictors of their self-esteem but will not predict equally.

2.3 Empirical review

This aspect of the literature represents the third thematic review area in this study. It captures review on levels of self-esteem, gender differences and levels of self-esteem among students, influence of classroom practices on self-esteem, the effect of challenging traditional gender roles by teachers on self-esteem of students and the effect of college practices, activities and protocols on self-esteem.

2.3.1 Gender Differences and Levels of Self-esteem among Students

Several studies on gender and self-esteem among students have given divergent evidence of males and females self-esteem. Agyeman (2020) conducted a study to investigate the level of self-esteem among St. Monica's College of Education and Mampong Technical College of Education students in Ashanti region. A sample size of 400 level 200 students was random selected for the study. Means and standard deviation and independent sample t-test were employed to analysed the data. The result was that, both males and female students had high level of self-esteem and no significant difference existed between gender and self-esteem.

In addition, Emil (2003) examined the frequency of university students' level of self-esteem. The population of the study was Middle East Technical University students totalling 3,500. Out of the 3,500 students, 341 were selected with 36% being females and 64% being males. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was used to collect data on students' self-esteem. The analysis of the data was performed using frequencies and percentages, means and standard deviation and t-test. The analysis discovered that out of 341 participants, 302 representing 88.6% had high score on self-esteem scale whereas 39 representing 11.45% had lower score on the self-esteem scale. To determine whether or not differences exist between males and females in terms self-esteem, t-test analysis was performed and resulted that there was no significant difference between males and females with regard to self-esteem. Similarly, Jain and Dixit (2014) investigated gender-based comparison and the causal factors reducing it among college students in Indian. The aim of the study was to assess gender difference in self-esteem among the students. To fulfil the aim of the study, 150 college students were sampled for the study. Out of the 150 students, 77 of them were females whereas 73 were males. They employed mixed method approach for the study. For quantitative data collection, Coopersmith self-esteem inventory was administered to measure the levels of self-esteem among the participants. Further, critical incident technique was employed to collect the qualitative data by using 40% of the sample size. With the help of t - test for independent means, the findings revealed that there was no significant difference between males and females regarding their self-esteem level.

On the contrary, a study has revealed no significant different but low self-esteem among students. This evidenced in a study conducted by Cudjoe and Sarfo (2019) to explore the self-esteem levels of Junior High School students in Ghana. The purpose of their study was to improve self-esteem levels among Ghanaian students after male and

female students' self-esteem level is known. The statistical tool they used for the data analysis was independent t-test. The findings revealed that the students, both males and females' self-esteem were low. Further, the analysis showed that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of both males and females on self-esteem.

Furthermore, Ashard et al (2015) explored the level of self-esteem among students in the University of Faisalabad. The aim of their study was to find out the level of students' self-esteem and differences between self-esteem and gender. Purposive sampling technique was adopted to sample 40 male and 40 female students. Like Emil (2003), Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was administered to measure the self-esteem levels of the students. The data obtained was analysed with independent sample t-test and means and standard deviation. The study revealed a significant difference between male and female students on self-esteem scores. Further, the male students had higher scores on self-esteem as compared to female students. Bleidorn et al. (2016) explored cross-cultural examination of gender and age differences in self-esteem. They used a large Internet sample of 985,937 students across 48 nations. To do the analysis, random coefficient regression model was employed to analyse the data on the research question. Like Ashard et al (2015), their study found a small but significant gender difference suggesting that across all the nations, males scored on average 1.85 t-score points higher on self-esteem than their female's counterpart. A study conducted by Ravindranadan and Tom (2016) to understand the gender difference on self-esteem among undergraduate students in Ernakulum District, Kerala. They were also interested to find out if there would be mean difference between male and female students. They sampled 120 students, involving 60 males and 60 females, equally of 2nd year and 3rd years. Rosenberg's self-esteem scale (RSES) was used to obtain data. To analyse the data,

they adopted independent sample t -test for the analysis. The finding from their study revealed a statistically significant difference between the male (mean=18.13, SD.=4.413, n=120) and (mean=20.23, SD.=4.455 female undergraduate students with females having higher self-esteem than females.

In addition, Robison-Awana et al (2001) examined adolescent self-esteem, gender-role perception, gender-role orientation, and attributional style as a function of academic achievement. The unit of analysis were 10th, 11th, and 12th grade students who responded to a self-esteem inventory under 2 sets of instructions. The purpose of the study was to investigate whether academically, especially female students would make more positive attributions, have a masculine or androgynous gender-roles orientation and exhibit higher self-esteem under standard and specific circumstances. The results of the study revealed a significant difference of self-esteem with males having high self-esteem. Under opposite-gender instructions, academically below average and average females ascribed significantly higher levels of self-esteem to males. Males at all academic levels ascribed significantly lower levels of self-esteem to females. However, females in the above average academic group constituted an exception in that they attributed significantly lower self-esteem to males.

Ondicho, Kombo and Njuguna (2019) examined the level of self-esteem of students in selected Kenyan secondary schools. Rosenberg self-esteem scale was used to collected data students' self-esteem. Frequencies and percentages were adopted to analyse the data. The findings were that, out of the 401 students, 166 representing 41.4% students scored high on the self-esteem scale whereas 235 indicating 58.6% scored low. The information suggest that majority of the students had low self-esteem.

Partey and Yidana (2018) investigated self-esteem and academic performance of economic students in selected senior high schools in the Ashanti region of Ghana. Through multistage sampling approach, they sampled 1,055 economic students from 40 senior high schools in Ashanti region. One of the aims of their study was to determine the level of self-esteem among the students under low, normal and high self-esteem; and to find out if differences exist between males and females' self-esteem. Out of the 1,055 students, 171(16.2%) were on high self-esteem, 786(74.5%) were on normal self-esteem whilst 98(9.3%) had low self-esteem. With regard to gender differences on self-esteem, the study showed that out of the 786 students with normal self-esteem, 461(58.7%) were males whereas 325(41.3%) were females and for those with high self-esteem, 89(52%) were males while 82(48%) were females. From the results of Partey and Yidana, it can be concluded that differences exist between gender and self-esteem of students with males having high self-esteem than females.

In sum the findings of the studies reviewed showed overlap in terms of gender and self-esteem levels of students, where males at a point had higher level and vice versa or no differences at all. It appears there is no clarity on students' levels of self-esteem. Based on this, I aimed to find out the level of students' self-esteem in the recent times.

2.3.2 Influence of Classroom Practices on Students' Self-Esteem

Self-esteem of students has been investigated using a number of variables such as motivation, school environment (Blanton, Short, & Short, 1994; Nelson, 1984). According to Blanton et al (1994) and Nelson (1984), classroom management practices of teachers have an effect on student behaviour, motivation, and self-esteem. Effective classroom management skills not only utilize effective learning environment, it promotes student self-esteem (Nelson, 1984).

In similar vein, Demirdag (2015) conducted a study to examine the relationship between middle school teachers' classroom management practices and self-esteem of middle school students. He used a total of eight middle school teachers and 60 middle school students from urban middle school in western United States. Findings from the study using Pearson correlation revealed statistically significant relationship between teachers' classroom management self-assessment and students' self-esteem.

As part of classroom practices, some teacher group students according to their academic abilities and this is likely to have impact on the students' self-esteem. In situation like this, teachers are likely to have different expectancies towards the high and low achieving students. Prihadi and Chua (2012) investigated self-esteem of students at school with the aim of finding out the influence of teachers' perception towards ability grouping of students in classroom. The study showed that, for high achieving students, teachers tend to be academically supportive, while towards low-achieving students, they tend to control students' behaviour in order to avoid disciplinary problems. In turn, the findings further showed that students observe their teachers' classroom behaviours and develop different perception towards themselves. Eventually, self-esteem of the students is affected by their perceived teachers' expectancy, where the effect is not always positive.

Teachers' classroom practices also influence students with disabilities. Deku, Amponsah, and Opoku (2013) investigated the influence of teacher classroom practices on self-concept of children with disabilities in upper primary schools in the Tano North District. They used questionnaire and observation guide for teacher classroom practices and a structured interview guide to measure the self-concept of pupils with disabilities. A total of 98 respondents were used. The results from their study showed that teachers'

classroom practices have a moderate relationship with the self-concept of children with disability.

2.3.3 Challenging Traditional Gender Roles by Teachers and Students' Self-Esteem

Students' self-esteem appears not to be affected by classroom practices like assessment and grouping of students according to their academic abilities only, but also, how teachers challenge traditional gender roles in classroom. Generally, it appears that inequality exists in how teachers engage males and females' students in the classroom. Various researchers and writers have written on gender issues in the classroom. Dickman (1993), for instance posited that discriminatory teacher behaviour does not begin in the college classroom but rather with the advent of schooling which has influence on self-esteem. Frawley (2005), citing the American Association of University Women Educational Foundation, also states that gender bias persists in many elementary classrooms. This explains that gender discriminatory attitude is not limited to one level in the educational system but found at all levels. According to Fennema and Peterson (as cited in Dickman, 1993) research has demonstrated that, from preschool onwards, the activities chosen for classes appeal to boys' interests and the presentation formats selected are those with which boys excel or they are encouraged more than are girls (Fennema & Peterson as cited in Dickman, 1993). The quality of teacher contacts varies between the genders. Boys receive more teacher reactions of praise, criticism and remediation than girls (Sadker & Sadker as cited in Dickman, 1993). Baker (1986) reported that in secondary science classrooms, more precise teacher comments were rendered to males than to females in terms of both scholarship and conduct.

According to the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences Teaching Centre of Colombia University (n.d), a large body of research shows teachers: Call on male students more frequently than female students; are more likely to use male students' names when calling upon students and in attributing ideas advanced in discussion; ask male students more abstract questions but female students more factual questions; are less likely to elaborate upon points made by female students; ask female students easy questions; asking male students more difficult questions that require higher-order thinking (Hall & Sandler as cited in Dickman, 1993); look at male students to answer questions before females (or males) even can raise their hands (Hall & Sandler as cited in Dickman, 1993); Refer only to male contributions (Hall & Sandler as cited in Dickman, 1993).

The Graduate School of Arts & Sciences Teaching Centre of Colombia University (n.d., p. 2) has it that classrooms contain certain hidden biases; to the extent that we want students who actively participate in discussion and tend to value a verbal style that is confident, assertive, and forceful. These biases make some students including females feel inadequate and come to doubt their own abilities and skills. Meanwhile, classroom dynamics vary markedly depending on the instructor's sex, the class's sex ratio, class size, and the gender relevance of the course. Male and female students tend to have different speaking styles in the classroom. Male and female students tend to have different attitudes toward their own abilities and different ways of dealing with failure. Furthermore, Saskatchewan Education (1991) offered that in terms of discipline, males are disciplined more frequently and more harshly by teachers than are females even when both genders misbehave in identical ways. In addition, they claimed that some teachers have different expectations concerning behaviour for females than they do for males. Females receive more encouragement to be quiet and passive than do males.

Empirically, some writers (Prihadi & Chua, 2012; Isiktekin, et al., 2016) have investigated how gender issue influence students' self-esteem. For example, Prihadi and Chua (2012) examined adolescent self-esteem, gender-role perception, gender-role orientation, and attributional style as a function of academic achievement. The unit of analysis were 10th, 11th, and 12th grade students who responded to a self-esteem inventory under 2 sets of instructions. The purpose of their study was to investigate whether academically-competent students, especially females would make more positive attributions, have a masculine or androgynous gender-roles orientation and exhibit higher self-esteem under standard and specific circumstances. Furthermore, they were interested in finding out how gender-role perception and gender-role orientation affect self-esteem of the students. The results of the study revealed a significant difference of students' self-esteem in favour of males. This explains that the perception of gender roles and the kind of gender-role orientation have affected the students differently which has led to the differences in students' self-esteem. Similarly, Isiktekin, et al. (2016) aimed to evaluate attitudes attitude on gender roles and how to determine the correlations between attitude towards gender and self-esteem among high school students in the city of West turkey. They adopted cross-sectional design and used Spearman Brown correlation as statistical tool for the analysis. From the study, the results showed a positive but weak relationship between gender -roles attitudes and students' self-esteem. Moreover, the pedagogy teachers adopt in terms of gender responsive practices during lesson facilitations may have influence on self-esteem of students. This notion is supported by the results of Abraha, Dagneu and Seifu (2019) who were interested to examine the general secondary school science teachers' gender responsive pedagogy implementation status in Ethiopia. Descriptive design was employed for the study. The findings from the study indicated that teachers in the

secondary schools of North Wollo Zone of Ethiopia fairly facilitated lessons with gender responsive pedagogy ranging from language usage, classroom setup, classroom interaction, and addressing sexual harassment issues. This explains that since teachers facilitate lessons with equal pedagogy, self-esteem among the students was justly affected.

Ertl, Luttenberger and Paechter (2017) conducted a study to investigate the impact of gender stereotypes on the self-concept of female students in STEM subjects. The focus of their study was on the extent by which family factors, school-related factors, and individual stereotypes may influence a woman's academic self-concept. A sample size of 296 German university students offering STEM program was used for the study. The findings of the study revealed that gender stereotypes were negatively related to students' STEM-specific self-concept in the selected sample. This study further revealed negative family-related influences that lower a woman's self-concept. Positive predictors on the other hand included school aspects that are found in the students' favourite subjects at school.

2.3.4 Effect of School practices, Activities and Protocols on Students' Self-Esteem

Research indicates a persistent relationship between various aspects of self-perception and a variety of school-related variables including perceived social status among peers, pro-social behaviour, and overall school achievement (Wylie, 1979). As a school-related variable, the impact of school personnel and the behaviours and values they model cannot be ignored. A review of how these three groups affect students' self-esteem follows.

With respect to school administrators, it is feasible that the vision upon which a school administrator decides in turn sparks the development of the "identity" or climate that a

school develops. And it is under the umbrella of this school climate that not only its goals and objectives but also its written and unwritten rules are likely subsumed. Thus, the impact that most school administrators have on student self-esteem is, in all likelihood, indirect and attitudinal, emanating from their visionary values Scott et al (1996). This kind of impact can be especially powerful because of its potent trickle-down effect throughout the entire system. They further maintain that when the vision of the superintendent translates into a custodial school climate, its impact on student self-esteem, and on the system in general, can be negative. And if the vision is antithetical to or incongruous with the belief systems of other school personnel. The result can be great confusion in the system, which is detrimental to the continuity of message delivery.

On the issue of effect of school counsellors' behaviour on students' self-esteem, when middle school children were asked to identify significant others in their decisions about self-esteem, they rarely mentioned school counsellors (Beane, 1986). Although school counsellors may have a direct impact on the students with whom they interact, their impact is generally more indirect, channelled through consultation with teachers and administrators. Bean (1986) cited four major areas in which school counsellors can be most effective: a) engaging in continuous efforts to raise the consciousness of other educators in the area of self-esteem; b) helping teachers develop skills related to enhancing student' self-esteem; c) using their expertise in the area of self-esteem in curriculum planning; and d) developing and coordinating student support networks in the school to enhance academic achievement (e.g., peer tutoring) and provide support in the areas of self-esteem.

Concerning the impact of teachers' behaviours on student self-esteem, extensive research has been conducted with indication that teacher support and encouragement of student autonomy are associated with higher student self-esteem. For instance, a study conducted by Nelson (1984) using grades seven and eight found that several teacher variables (i.e., amount of teacher involvement and support, the degree to which teachers stressed order and organization, and innovation) were positively associated with overall student self-esteem. Conversely, their study further revealed that an amount of teacher control over students was inversely associated with students' academic self-esteem. Further, in a study of students in grades four to six in New York State, Ryan and Grolnick (1986) found that there was a significant relationship between students' Self-worth and their perceptions of whether their teachers allowed them autonomy. In a study that examines the educationally dysfunctional role of teacher-pupil personality conflicts, Bhasin (1987) notes that both aggressive misbehaviour and shy withdrawal are viewed as symptoms of teacher-reinforced low self-esteem.

The school experience also appears to be a significant determinant of a students' sense of self. It affects self-concept, values, and subsequent self-esteem. Therefore, it is essential that school have a sound understanding of both self-concept and self-esteem, and how these function in school-aged youth. Further, an understanding of the relationship between self-esteem and values as well as the potential positive and negative impact that school personnel might have on each student's sense of self is necessary. Self-esteem must be a major concern to those responsible for planning and implementing curriculum, not only within the confines of the classroom but also within the total school environment (Beane, Lipka, & Ludewig, 1980). However, little is known about both the conceptual knowledge that school personnel have about self-esteem, or the attitudes and beliefs they espouse regarding student self-esteem.

Even so, the concept of building self-esteem has become popular and important in the education system. Although school personnel have some understanding that the genesis of self-esteem is internal, generated from a genuine sense of achievement and unconditional worth, the actual outcome of the self-esteem movement has largely been an explosion of awards, gold stars, happy face stickers, and canned curriculum on self-esteem (Newsweek, 1992), the value of which is questionable. For instance, Eldridge, Witmer, Bareikowski, and Bauer (1977) reported a study on the use of a group guidance program titled Developing of Self and Others (DUSO) that included 211 educable developmentally disabled 8-to-12-year-old children in 20 randomly selected intermediate-level special education classes. Two treatment groups were used, one of which experienced 85 sessions of DUSO, and the other encouraged individual teachers to use a personal approach to self-esteem improvement. Although an improvement in self-esteem scores was found, no significant differences were found between the two treatment groups. It therefore appeared that the curriculum package DUSO was no more effective than the individual approaches selected by the teachers.

Self-esteem is seldom examined at a conceptual level in the schools, and very few school personnel have an accurate understanding of their impact on student self-esteem. This is unfortunate, because in order for school personnel to make an enduring difference in students' self-esteem they must construct a consistent and ongoing series of specific situations in which students can receive both positive and constructive feedback. It is from this process that they will be able to better clarify their concepts of self and the values upon which judgments about self-esteem are made (Raths, 1972).

Previous researches have tackled self-esteem from the perspective of its effect on students' achievement. However, school practices, perception of school administrators,

counsellors, and teachers as well as activities and protocols in the school among others seem to have impact on students' self-esteem. Scott, Murray, Mertens and Dustin (1996) conducted a study with the aim of examining the differences in the perception of school administrators, counsellors, and teachers about students' self-esteem. Stratified sampling technique was used to sample 346 participants from school administrators, counsellors and teachers. The results from their study showed that although school administrators, counsellors and teachers have different perception towards students' self-esteem, they indicated statistically significant on students' self-esteem. Furthermore, Nizeyimana *et al* (2022) investigated gender responsiveness of the Upper primary Social Studies curriculum in Rwanda. The findings from study indicated that teachers are normally gender sensitive in their teaching practices. Furthermore, the study showed that while some teachers endorsed that gender has a significant impact on students' self-esteem their education, others felt that it is no longer an important issue.

Several authors (e.g., Palavan, 2017; Asimidou, Lenakakis, & Tsiaras, 2021; Hefferon, 2000; Reese, 1997) have also researched into school activities and practices such as drama, sports, writers' and debaters' club, school services among others that enhance students' self-esteem. For example, Palavan (2017) investigated the influence of drama on self-esteem among students. He sampled 34 college students Zirve university in Turkey through experimental pretest-posttest single group design. Analysis of the collected data showed that student's self-esteem has improved after being introduced to drama activities in the school.

Similarly, Asimidou, Lenakakis, and Tsiaras (2021) conducted a study with the aim of enhancing self-esteem of students via drama. Forty-two senior high students of Music

school of Piraeus in Greece were selected. The researcher employed mixed method by collecting quantitative and qualitative data. Results from the quantitative analysis was that the domain of self-confidence among the students were improved. These were social interaction, mood, physical appearance, personal relations, public exposure, school competence as we general self-confidence. Furthermore, the participants responses demonstrated improvement in their self-esteem not only regarding their peer relations but also their relations with their family members: some of the participants response include: 'I had no difficulties in making friends but I feel that the friendships I made in the program will last forever,' 'The relationship with my mother was improved because I can now be in her position and I feel I understand her better'.

Hefferon (2000) also studied the effect of process drama on self-esteem of primary school earners. The sample size for the study was 44. *P*-value of the self-esteem results was .03 which means drama had significant effect on self-esteem of the students.

With respect to determining the effect of students' participation in debaters club on self-esteem, Noonan (2011) investigated on how students' involvement in school debates can influence their self-esteem. A sample size of 12 students were sampled from Milwaukee Urban school interview was the main data collection instrument. Some of the participant's responses were:

Well, um, I've been wanting to be a lawyer for a long time now and I was just kind of looking for extracurricular that would help me like develop skills that would help me throughout high school and college and I thought that debate would be a good thing to join so I chose to participate in it.

I guess just knowing that it's going to help me in the long run, like, knowing that debate can help me, help me get to where I want to be so that was like my one motivational factor, like, this is going to help me in the future, stick with it, it's

something you're, you're going to look back and say, "Oh, I'm glad I joined debate (p.111).

The finding indicated that engagement of students in school activities such as debate positively relate to self-esteem. Reese (1997) explored the effect of school-based community service on self-esteem. Data was collected from a sample size was 79 students. The survey was designed to be administered in pre-and post-test format to two groups (i.e., students who participated in community service and students who did not participate in community service). ANCOVA was used to test if differences existed between students who participated in the community service program and those who did not participate in the community service program. community service was the independent variable and self-esteem scores was the dependent variable. Pre-test scores served as the covariate, the groups were the independent variable, and post-test scores were the dependent variable. An analysis of covariance was conducted for the total self-esteem score. The result indicated that covariate effect was significant. However, no significant mean differences were found for total pre-test self-esteem score and total post-test score for self-esteem score. As a result of these findings, Reese concluded that no significant differences in self-esteem were found between students who participated in community service program and students who did not participate in community service program.

2.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed literature on gender differences and levels of self-esteem among students, gender responsive practices (i.e., classroom practices; challenging traditional gender roles; and CoE practices, activities and protocols) and self-esteem. It emerged from the literature that females and males can have varied levels of self-esteem. From the review, males were found to have high level of self-esteem against their females'

counterparts. The literature again made it clear that the difference of students' self-esteem in favour of males was as a result of specific gender roles for males and females. This explains that the perception of gender roles and the kind of gender-role orientation have affected the students differently which has led to the differences in students' self-esteem. With regard to the review on the aspects of gender responsive practices, literature presented that teachers' classroom management self-assessment was significantly related to students' self-esteem.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This study looked into how gender responsive practices influence and self-esteem among College of Education students in Ghana. This chapter presents procedure adopted for the study. Specifically, the chapter discusses the research paradigm and approaches adopted for this study. Furthermore, research design adopted for the study, population, sample and sampling procedure, research instrument, and ethical consideration have been presented in this chapter. Also, procedures that were employed to collect, processed and analysed data have been presented in this chapter.

3.1 Research Philosophy

The philosophy employed to underpin this study was positivism which is based on the idea that science is the only means of knowing the truth (Dudovsky, 2016). The main tenet of positivist is based on observation and measurement about phenomenon (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Razvich, 2006). The researcher aligns with positivist's idea in knowing for the sake of being independent and objective in dealing with responses from respondents. Furthermore, the researcher employed positivism philosophy because this study considered the traditional scientific method which involves objective data gathering and hypothesis testing to arrive at findings that are systematic, generalisable and open to replication by other investigators (Ary et al, 2006). The positivist's idea helps to appreciate this study as value-free that posed this investigation and its findings to scientific explanation.

3.2 Research Approach

The instrument used for data collection and research design employed for this study lend themselves to quantitative approach. This study made use of quantitative approach in that it allowed for transformation of responses into numerical form for objective data analysis (Gray, 2013). Also, the quantitative approach allows for the use of large sample size to make generalisation of findings over the population. Further, the study made use of quantitative approach because it involved testing of hypotheses through rigorous statistical data analysis and interpretation.

3.3 Research Design

The research design adopted for the study was a descriptive cross-sectional survey design, which allows the researcher to present issues and activities as they exist on the ground (Ary et al., 2006). Also, descriptive research design was used to obtain statistical information based on the responses from the students to enable me to deduce the appropriate results for the stated research questions and hypotheses after data analysis.

3.4 Population

The target population for the study comprised all the levels 100, 200 and 300 students in the eight public Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. Because, Ashanti region among other regions has the largest number of Colleges of Education in Ghana. The level 400 students were not part because they were not on campus as the time of the study. However, the accessible population within which the sample was drawn from was made of four (4) sampled College of Education (i.e., Akrokerri College of Education, Wesley College of Education, St. Louis College of Education and Mampong Technical College of Education) in Ashanti Region with 5,314 students since if all members of the target group are not accessible then it will be expedient to define the

accessible group in addition to the population of study (Ary et al., 2006). Table 1 shows the accessible population of the four selected CoE in Ashanti Region as at the time of the study according to levels and gender.

Table 1: Accessible Population in the Selected Colleges of Education

S/N	Name of Colleges	Male			Female			Total
		Level			Level			
		100	200	300	100	200	300	
1	Mampong Technical College of Education	477	395	375	-	-	-	1,247
2	St. Louis College of Education	-	-	-	600	450	450	1,500
3	Wesley College of Education	225	210	209	230	200	200	1,274
4	Akrokerri College of Education	215	210	215	228	220	205	1,293
TOTAL								5,314

Source: Field data, (2021)

3.5 Sample and Sampling Procedure

The sample size used for the study was 360. This was obtained with guide of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size determination Table. The Table has a sample size to a given population. However, the Table does not have sample size for a population of 5,314 (i.e., the accessible population). The Table has a sample size for a population of 6,000 and 5,000 as 361 and 357 respectively. As a result, 361 students were used as sample size for the study because 5,314 was the nearest population to 6,000. Based on

the sample size of 361, the researcher then calculated for the proportional quota of participants to be sampled from each College. For instance, to get the participants from MTCOE, the population of Mampong Tech. College of Education (MTCOE) (i.e., 1,247) was divided by the total population of the four Colleges (i.e., 5314) and multiplied by the sampled size (361), that is, $1,247 / 5,314 \times 361 = 84.713$ (i.e., 85 students were sampled after rounding it up). Because the results of all the calculated quota involved decimals, the rounding up and down of the decimals reduced the 361 to 360. Therefore, the actual sample size for the study was 360 College of Education students.

Having identified the number of participants to be sampled from each college, the researcher used stratified sampling technique and calculated for sample representatives to be selected from levels 100, 200 and 300 in all the Colleges. Thus, although 85 respondents must be sampled from Mampong Tech. College of Education (MTCOE), the question is, how many students should be sampled from first year, second year and third year? This was done by calculating a proportional sample size based on each College's population. For instance, to obtain the number of respondents from MTCOE's first year students, the researcher divided the number of first year students (i.e., 477) by the total number of students in all the levels (i.e., 1,247) and multiplied it by the total sample size (i.e., 360) to be taken from MTCOE, that is, $477/1247 \times 360 = 32.514$, the 32.514 was rounded to get 32. The same process was used to calculate representative sample from all the strata (Levels 100, 200 and 300) in the all Colleges. Stratified sampling techniques was used because it allowed for identifying and grouping of students into homogeneous sub-groups (i.e., level 100, 200 and 300) so that sampling could be made from each stratum for fair representation (Kuranchie, 2021).

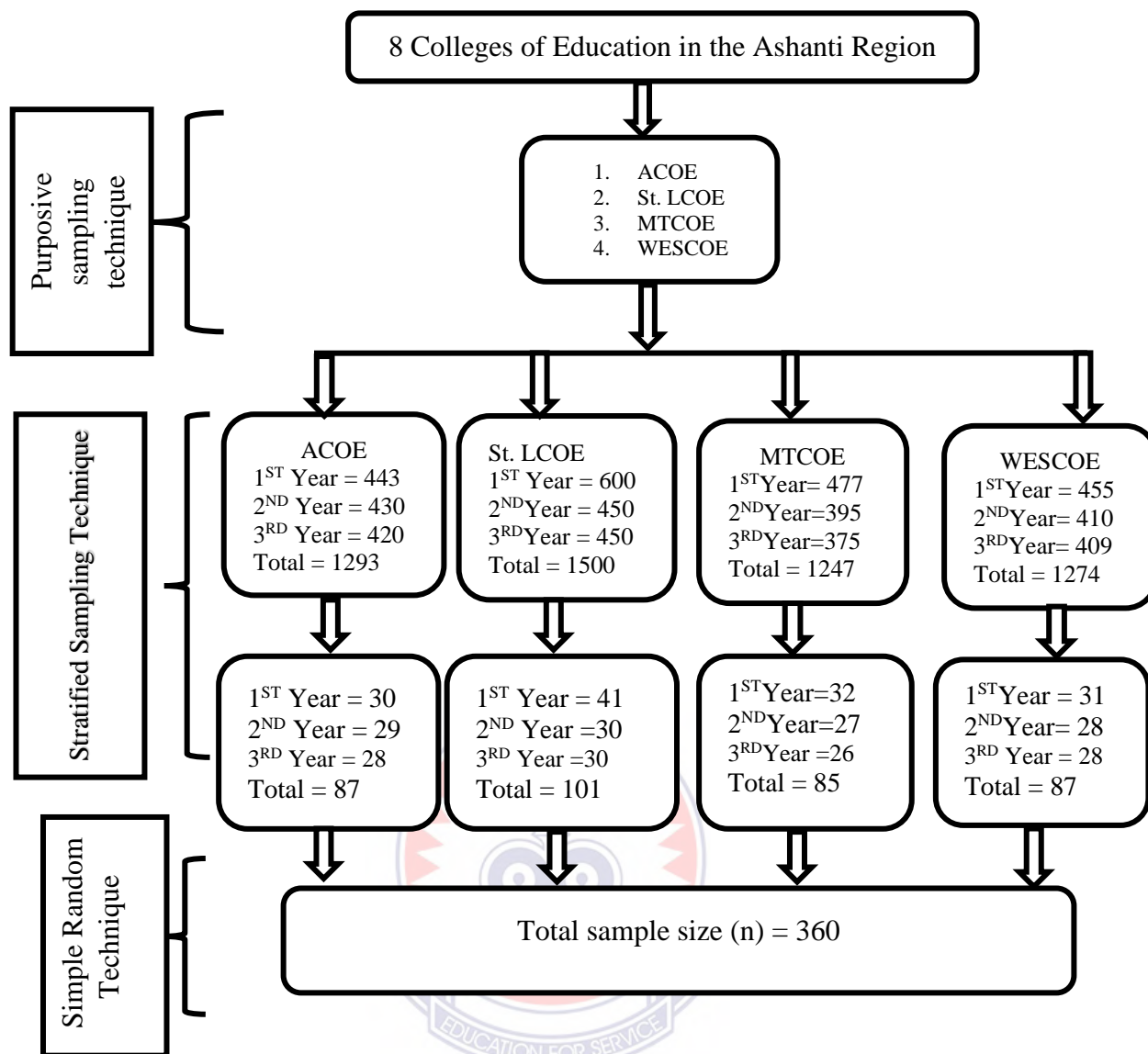


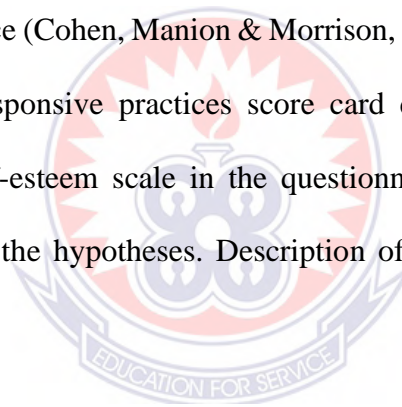
Figure 2: Multi-Stage Sampling Procedure

Source: Field data, (2021)

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

Questionnaire was the main instrument used to solicit data for the study. The questionnaire was adapted from two measuring scales to solicit for data on the two different constructs: gender responsive practices and self-esteem. Pallant (2005) maintained that prior to the usage of original instrument, established mistakes or daunting aspects of the instrument can be dealt with because they have been used before. Pallant (2005) further argued that the immediate availability of the tools makes

it possible to evaluate the tools to assess whether or not they would be beneficial in the specific research context. Finally, the researcher is liberated from time-consuming and costly test creation through access to a ready-made instrument. The questionnaire was adapted in such a manner that could yield the requisite information on the subject matter. Despite the drawbacks of the questionnaire, such as the use of language, the duration it will take when responding, the ability of the respondents to read, the availability of resources to complete the survey, and attitudes towards the importance of the study, it was still considered acceptable to use it. The choice of the questionnaire was based on the assertion that it is commonly used as well as a valuable tool for gathering information that are numerically structured and can be administered without the researcher's presence (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). Accordingly, the adapted items from gender responsive practices score card designed by T-Tel (2017) and Rosenberg (1965) self-esteem scale in the questionnaire were modified to suit the research question and the hypotheses. Description of each adapted instrument is as follow.



3.7 Gender Responsive Practices

To measure students' experience in gender responsive practices, the score card designed by T-Tel (2017) to measure gender responsive practices in the Colleges of Education was modified to measure the students' experience in gender responsive practices. The gender responsive practices according to T-Tel consisted of 13 gender responsive competencies. Out of the 13 gender responsive competencies, three of them (i.e., Classroom practice, Tutors challenge traditional gender roles during lessons and CoE practices, activities and protocols) were applicable to measure students' experience in gender responsive practices in the colleges. Classroom practice has five items, tutors challenge traditional gender roles during lessons also has five items

whereas CoE practices, activities and protocols has six items, making a total of 16 items. For the sake of this study, some of the items were modified. For instance, classroom practice items such as: All tutors undergo appraisals/lesson observations for gender responsive pedagogy on a regular basis was modified as “My tutors undergo lesson observations for gender responsive pedagogy on a regular basis”; All tutors make sure females and males to participate equally in activities during class was also modified as “My tutors make sure females and males participate equally in activities during class”. Furthermore, items measuring how tutors challenge traditional gender roles during lessons such as ‘all tutors use teaching materials that do not show or reinforce traditional gender roles’ was modified as “My tutors use teaching materials that do not show or reinforce traditional gender roles”; All tutors identify and discusses traditional gender roles that appear in books/materials and discuss how these limit what females think they can achieve in their education and lives was also modified as “My tutors identify and discusses traditional gender roles that appear in books and discuss how these limits what females think they can achieve in their education and lives”.

Items measuring CoE practices, activities and protocols such as: Class prefect roles are equally assigned to female and male students was modified as: “Course representative’s roles are equally assigned to female and male”. The score for the original items were on 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 as Not achieved 1, Partially achieved 2, Half achieved 3, Fully achieved 4 and Not Applicable 5. For the sake of this study, the Five-point Likert scale was altered to Four-point Likert scale as Strongly agree =5; Agree =4; Neutral =3, Disagree =2; and Strongly disagree =1. The instrument to measure gender responsive practices is presented in section B on the questionnaire.

3.8 Self-esteem

To measure students' esteem level, the original scale of estimating self-esteem level by Rosenberg (1965) was adapted and used. The scale is unidimensional and has been used by Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger and Vohs (2003); Ciarrochi, Heaven, Fiona (2007); and Gray-Little, Williams and Hancock (1997). The scale has 10 items with reliability of .91. The items have 4-point Likert scale as Disagree = 1, Strongly Disagree = 2, Agree = 3, and Strongly Agree = 4. Items 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9 are reverse items. Rosenberg interprets scores from this scale by summing up scores for all ten items and keep them on a continuous scale. Higher scores indicate higher self-esteem. For the sake of this work, items "I am able to do things as well as most other people" and "I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others" were modified as 'I am able to do things as well as my mates' and 'I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane my mate's respectively. These items have been placed in Section C on the questionnaire. In all, the questionnaire was made with 30 items (See Appendix A).

3.9 Validity and Reliability of Instrument

Stangor (2004) opined that content validity is one of the most powerful techniques available to the researcher through which data gathering instrument like questionnaire can be validated. The instrument went through several steps to validate and to ensure high reliability. First, the items were examined, shaped and modified by the researcher's supervisor for his expert judgement to affirm that the instrument covered the intended content and was therefore valid for use.

Second, to determine the reliability of the instrument, it was pre-tested at Offinso College of Education also in Ashanti Region. The choice of Offinso College of Education was based on the fact that they shared similar characteristics such as

geographical area with the target population. The questionnaires to be pre-tested were administered to 50 students. The pre-test afforded the researcher the opportunity to correct the instrument for the main study, and to determine the internal consistency of the instrument. The aim of the pre-testing was to improve the validity and reliability of the instruments. The Cronbach's Co-efficient Alpha measure of internal consistency was then used to determine the reliability of the tried-out instrument since it is the most widely reliability test tool applied by social researchers (Sekaran, 2006). Description of the psychometric properties are as follows starting with gender responsive practices.

As I have already described gender responsive practices as composite scale under the data collection instrument, the Cronbach alpha yielded .83 as internal consistency reliability for classroom practices, .81 for tutors challenging traditional gender roles during lessons, and .71 for CoE practices, activities and protocols. Furthermore, the Corrected Item-Total Correlation values which indicate the degree to which each item was correlated with the total score was more than .3. This meets the threshold Pallant (2005) suggesting that a good value should not be less than .3. By implication, the results of the Cronbach alpha and Corrected Item-Total Correlation warrant the accuracy of the instrument to measure the experience of gender responsive practices of the students.

With respect to the self-esteem scale, it was unidimensional. The Cronbach alpha yielded internal consistency reliability of .70. All the Corrected Item-Total Correlation values were above the threshold of .3 which according to Pallant (2005) represent a good stand of the items. The use of co-efficient alpha is on the assertion that it can provide a reliability estimate for a measure composed of items of varying point values such as essays or attitude scales that provide responses such as strongly agree and

strongly disagree with intermediate response options (Cronbach as cited in Ebel & Frisbie, 1991). See Appendix B for the psychometric properties of the instruments.

3.10 Data Collection Procedures

I went for introductory letter from the Department of Social Studies Education. This document enabled me to obtain the population of the students from the various colleges. Based on the population, I determined the exact number of respondents (i.e., students) to be sampled from the selected colleges. After that, I then requested the admission list of the first, second-, and third-year students and their e-mail address or telephone numbers to be used as sampling frame. The reason for collecting their e-mail or phone numbers was to pre inform them and to reach out to them when sending the questionnaire. Before I sent the questionnaire to the respondents, I called to inform them that upon permission granted by their institutions, they have been selected to participate in a study on gender responsive practices and self-esteem. After they had shown acceptance of participating, I took the chance to explain the purpose of the study to them so that they could understand what was expected of them.

Upon acceptance, the questionnaire was administered to the respondents through their e-mail and or WhatsApp numbers on June 20th, 2022 by sending the link to the questionnaire to them. I used four weeks to collect the data from the respondents (students) through the use of questionnaires. The first two-weeks were used to collect data from the first- and second-year students whereas the remaining two-weeks were used to collect data from the third-year students. The respondents delayed in responding to the questionnaire and this added additional four weeks making a total of two months for the data collection. I added my telephone number to the preamble of the questionnaire so that the respondents could call if they encountered any change

concerning responding to the questionnaire. Follow up calls and messages were made as a reminder to ensure effective return rate.

3.11 Data Processing and Analysis

After data have been gathered in social research, the data have to be processed and managed by coding and editing where appropriate and entering the data into the SPSS software to clean the data to remove any forms of errors that may have gone unnoticed for analysis to generate results (Ofosu-Asiamah, 2013). Therefore, responses to the questionnaires were first edited, coded and scored. The editing procedure was to check whether respondents had followed directions correctly and whether all the items were responded to. Section A was on demographic data of the respondents. These responses were analysed using means and standard deviation. Numbers were given to the questionnaires to make easy identification and to avoid double entry of the same questionnaire. The data obtained were analysed using both descriptive (means and standard deviation) and inferential (multiple regression and independent samples t-test) statistics.

Descriptive statistics (i.e., frequencies and percentages) were used to analyse the bio-data. Factor analysis and frequencies and percentages were used to analyse the research questions that guided the study respectively. With the inferential statistics, logistic regression was used in testing hypothesis 1, whereas independent samples t-test was used in testing hypothesis 2. According to Hassan (1998), the t-test statistical tool as a parametric test is often used to compare the means of two independent group as in this case. The gender sizes were not the same, however, sample sizes can be considered equal if the larger group is not more than one-half ($1\frac{1}{2}$) times larger than the smaller group (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner & Barrett, 2004).

Research Question One

What is the level of self-esteem among students in the selected CoE in Ghana?

The responses made by respondents to the items on Section C (21 to 30) represent experience in gender responsive practices among Colleges of Education students. The responses on these items were analysed using Means and Standard Deviation confirmatory factor analysis to determine self-esteem among students.

Research Question Two

What types of gender responsive practices exist in the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana? To address this question, data on research question two was analysed with frequencies and percentages.

3.12 Testing of Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis one

H₀: Gender responsive practices [(a) classroom practices, (b) challenging traditional gender roles, and (c) CoE practices, activities and protocols] will not predict self-esteem of the students.

H₁: Gender responsive practices [(a) classroom practices, (b) challenging traditional gender roles, and (c) CoE practices, activities and protocols] will predict self-esteem of the students.

Data on hypothesis two was analysed using logistics regression. The reason for using logistic regression was to determine the gender responsive practices variables (i.e., classroom practice; tutors challenge traditional gender roles during lessons; CoE practices, activities and protocols;) that influence students' self-esteem. The logistic regression was to help describe the strength and relationship between the variable and inde helps researchers to describe the degree to which variables (components of gender

responsive practices) and independent variable(self-esteem). Furthermore, the regression analysis helped to find out the contribution of each variable in predicting self-esteem among colleges of education students.

Hypothesis two

H₀: There is no statistically significant difference between gender and self-esteem among Colleges of Education students in Ghana.

H₁: There is statistically significant difference between gender and self-esteem among Colleges of Education students in Ghana.

Independent samples t-test was used to analyse the gender difference in self- esteem level among Colleges of Education students.

3.13 Ethical Consideration

Introductory letter was taken from the Department of Social Studies Education to all the Colleges of Education involved in this study to obtain the students' population (See Appendix C). Permission to obtain data from the students in the four Colleges of Education was sought from the principals of the four Colleges in the Ashanti Region. This was done after giving out the "Ethical Clearance of the Research" which briefed them about the purpose and importance of the study, the possible uses and the need for students' participation. It was clearly stated in the questionnaire and also told the participants that confidentiality of information supplied by them would prevail at all times. In addition, the participants were informed that they could give their informed consent freely and voluntarily, and that they had full right to refuse to participate or to withdraw from participation in the study at any stage.

Following this, informed consent form was attached to the questionnaire that was sent to participants. The form explained the purpose of the study, the need for their

participation, anonymity as well as confidentiality of respondents' responses. Again, all secondary data and ideas of other researchers included in the study were appropriately acknowledged and cited to avoid the issue of plagiarism. After establishing the necessary contact with the principals of the Colleges, permission was sought for the administration of the instrument.

3.14 Limitations

The results of this study must be viewed within the context of several limitations. First, the analysis of study relied on only self-report information. Participants might either over-report or under-report their perceptions regarding the study variables. Secondly, the study population was restricted to Colleges of Education students in Ashanti Regions. Therefore, results of the study may not be generalisable to other populations (i.e., basic and second cycle school students, Colleges of Education students in the remaining nine Regions and other tertiary institutions whether public or private). The collection of data was a bit challenging, due to absent of the level 200 students on campus, as a result, the researcher collected the data via online. Despite the limitations, the study has implications for practitioners and also has contributed to knowledge.

3.15 Chapter Summary

The descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. A sample size of 360 students was used for the study using multistage sampling procedure. The study employed adapted questionnaire made from gender responsive practices score card by T-TEL and self-esteem inventory by Rosenberg (1965). The data collected were then analysed using the SPSS, version 22.0. Under the limitations, the analysis of study relied on only self-report information which could have also used interview. Also, the study population was restricted to Colleges of Education students in Ashanti Region.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This research investigated the influence of gender responsive practices on self-esteem of students in the Colleges of Education in Ghana. The study used descriptive survey on the bases that it presents exactly what happens on the ground. The sample size for the study was 360 respondents and they were obtained using multi-stage sampling procedure. This chapter presents the results of the analyses and discussion of the findings of the study. It begins with presentation and description of the demographic characteristics of the study sample. This is followed by the results of the preliminary analysis pertaining to the study variables. This study investigated the relationship between gender-responsive practices within the College of Education and students' self-esteem. Gender-responsive practices were conceptualized as the independent variable, given the expectation among institutional stakeholders that such practices foster equitable participation and positively influence the broader college community. In contrast, students' self-esteem was operationalized as the dependent variable, reflecting the anticipated outcomes of exposure to inclusive and supportive educational practices. By establishing these variables structure, the study precisely focused on the following research objectives; identify the levels of self-esteem among students in the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana; identify the types of gender responsive practices that exist in the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana; examine the effect of each component of gender responsive practices [(a) classroom practices, (b) challenging traditional gender roles, and (c) CoE practices, activities and protocols] have on self-esteem of COE students in Ghana; and determine gender difference in self-esteem among CoE students in Ghana. The chapter also covered the results and discussion of

the study. Data for the research question one was analysed using factor analysis whereas frequencies and percentages were used to analyse data on research question two. Logistic regression and independent sample t-test were used to test the hypotheses one and two respectively. The analyses are followed by the discussions of the findings relative to relevant literature. The whole of chapter four has been divided into two sections, (A and B). Section A presents analysis of demographic data of respondents and analysis of data for the main study while section B presents discussion of findings in relation to the research questions and hypotheses which were formulated to guide the study.

4.1 Analysis on Demographic data

The first section of the questionnaire was designed to obtain personal information of the participants used for the study. This includes gender, level, and college of the respondents. The background information was analysed using frequencies and percentages. Table 2 presents the results of the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

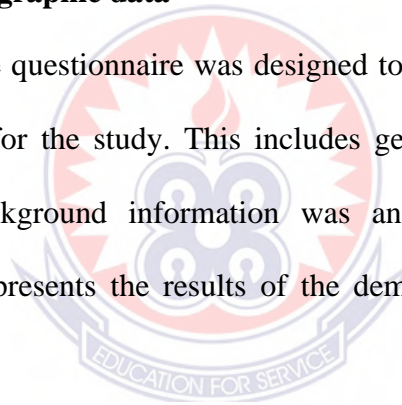


Table 2: Demographic Characteristics of Students

Variable	Sub-Scale	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	181	50.3
	Female	179	49.7
	Total	360	100.00
Age	18-22	131	36.4
	23-27	200	55.6
	28-32	24	6.7
	33-38	3	.8
	39-44	2	.6
	Above 44	0	0.0
	Total	360	100.00
Level of Student	100	134	37.2
	200	114	31.7
	300	112	31.1
	Total	360	100.00
College	ACOE	87	24.2
	ST. LOUIS	101	28.1
	MAMTECH	85	23.6
	WESCOE	87	24.2
	Total	360	100.00

Source: Field survey (2022)

Table 2 presented the demographic characteristics of the respondents. From the Table, the males 181 (50.3%) were more than the females 179 (49.7%). Out of the 360 respondents, majority 200 (55.6%) of them were within the age range of 23 to 27 years

whereas few 2 (.6%) fell within the age bracket of 39 to 44 years. None of them were above 44 years of age. With respect to the level distribution of the respondents, Table 2 showed that 134 participants indicating 37.2% were level 100 students, 114 participants representing 31.7% were in level 200 and 112 students indicating 31.1% were in level 300. The Table further showed that majority 101 (28.1%) of the respondents were St. Louis College of Education students.

4.2 Level of Self-Esteem among Students in the College of Education (CoE) in Ashanti Region

The research question one was aimed at establishing the level of self-esteem among College of Education students in Ashanti region of Ghana. To satisfy this factor analysis was employed to analyse the data. The respondents were asked to respond to 10 items which were factual statements about their self-esteem. Their responses were scored as Strongly Disagree =1, Disagree =2, Agree =3, and Strongly Agree =4.

The 10 items on the self-esteem subscale were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA). Before performing PCA, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .692, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix as shown in Table 4.

A confirmatory analysis using the Varimax Rotation Method was then conducted to explore the factor loadings of each item. The factor loading for items were more than .3, as a result all 10 items were retained after the analysis. Based on the results, the two factors were labelled as: High self-esteem and low self-esteem, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.692
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	826.576
	Df	45
	Sig.	.000

Source: Field survey (2022)

Table 4: Confirmatory Analysis

Factor Loading	Component	
	1	2
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	.770	
I am able to do things as well as my mates.	.755	
At times I think I am not good at all.	.696	
I wish I could have more respect for myself.	.577	
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	.494	
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	.470	
I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane my mates.		-.842
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.		.744
I take a positive attitude toward myself.		.732
I certainly feel useless at times.		.711

Source: Field survey (2022)

Additionally, the number of college students experiencing low and high self-esteem was analysed. This was done by using the individual item mean of 2.5 and multiplying it by the total number of items (10). Therefore, the overall criterion for this subscale

was 25; hence, a student with an overall score above 25 was categorized as having high self-esteem and vice versa as presented in Table . The rationale for the stratification approach used for self-esteem levels is that, while self-esteem can be measured continuously, researchers often stratify it into levels (e.g., low vs. high) to distinguish between individuals at risk of psychosocial difficulties and those demonstrating positive adjustment (Huang et al., 2022). They further rationalized that stratification allows for clearer comparisons across groups, particularly when using categorical outcome models.

Table 5: Self-Esteem among College of Education Students

	Frequency	Percentage
Low self-esteem	31	8.6
High self-esteem	329	91.4
Source: Field survey (2022)		n=360

As shown in Table 5, most students, 329 (91.4%), exhibited high self-esteem, while only 31 participants (8.6%) reported low self-esteem. This indicates that most individuals in the sample possessed a positive self-perception, with low self-esteem being relatively uncommon.

4.3 Types of gender Responsive Practices that Exist in the College of Education (CoE) in Ashanti Region

The second research question sought to identify and explore the various gender-responsive practices currently implemented within the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana. To address the second research question, the data were analysed using frequencies and percentages as presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Gender Responsiveness Frequency Table with Percentages

Item	Freq.	%	Rank
Classroom practice is gender responsive	102	28.3	1
Tutors challenge traditional gender roles during lessons	95	26.4	2
CoE practices, activities and protocols are gender responsive	88	24.4	3
CoE teaching practice is gender responsive	21	5.8	4
CoE infrastructure is gender responsive	12	3.3	5
CoE staff procedures are gender responsive	12	3.3	6
The CoE has a sexual harassment policy that is fully implemented	9	2.5	7
CoE policies are developed and/or amended to be gender responsive	8	2.2	8
All members of the CoE have received gender training	5	1.4	9
CoE tutor recruitment is gender responsive	3	0.8	10
CoE data is collected and analysed in a gender responsive way of planning is gender responsive	3	0.8	11
CoE budgeting is gender responsive	2	0.6	12
	n = 360	100.0	

Source: Field survey (2022)

The Table 7 presents the frequency of gender-responsive practices across different domains of the CoE. The data reveals areas of strong and moderate gender responsiveness. The Table reveals classroom practice (102, 28.3%) and tutors challenging traditional gender roles during lessons (95, 26.4%) show the highest frequencies. This suggests that gender equity is actively promoted during teaching and learning interactions. CoE practices, activities, and protocols (88, 24.4 %) also scored

high indicating that gender considerations are embedded in the day-to-day operations and culture of the institution. Further, teaching practice (21, 5.8%) and infrastructure (12, .33%) show moderate responsiveness. Staff procedures (12, 3.3%) also reflect some progress, possibly in hiring, promotion, or workplace policies. Practices such as sexual harassment policy implementation (9, 2.5%) and policy development (8, 2.2%) are relatively low. gender training for members (5, 1.4%) is critically low. Tutor recruitment (3, .8%) and gender-responsive data use (3, .8%) shows minimal attention. Budgeting (2, .6%) is the lowest. Even though the gender responsive practices document by T-TEL expects management of every college to practice the twelve gender responsive practices their institutions, the results from the analysis indicates that majority of the students were aware of the first three practices (i.e., classroom practice, challenging traditional gender roles during lessons by tutors and CoE practices, activities, and protocols) in the colleges.

4.4 The effect of Gender Responsive Practices [(a) classroom practices, (b) challenging traditional gender roles, and (c) CoE practices, activities and protocols] on the self-esteem of College of Education students in Ashanti Region.

The hypothesis one was tested to identify the predictability of gender responsive practices' dimensions on self-esteem levels among the College of Education students in Ashanti region of Ghana. To do that, logistic regression was conducted. The predictors were classroom practices, challenging traditional gender roles, and CoE practices, activities and protocols. The criterion variable was self-esteem. The normal probability plot (P-P Plot) was used to check the normality assumption and the result is presented in Figure 4. Logistic regression was selected as the analytic technique because the dependent variable, students' self-esteem, was measured categorically. This method is appropriate for modelling the probability of categorical outcomes and

allows for the estimation of odds ratios, which provide interpretable measures of the influence of gender-responsive practices. Moreover, logistic regression is robust to violations of normality and linearity assumptions, making it suitable for educational data.

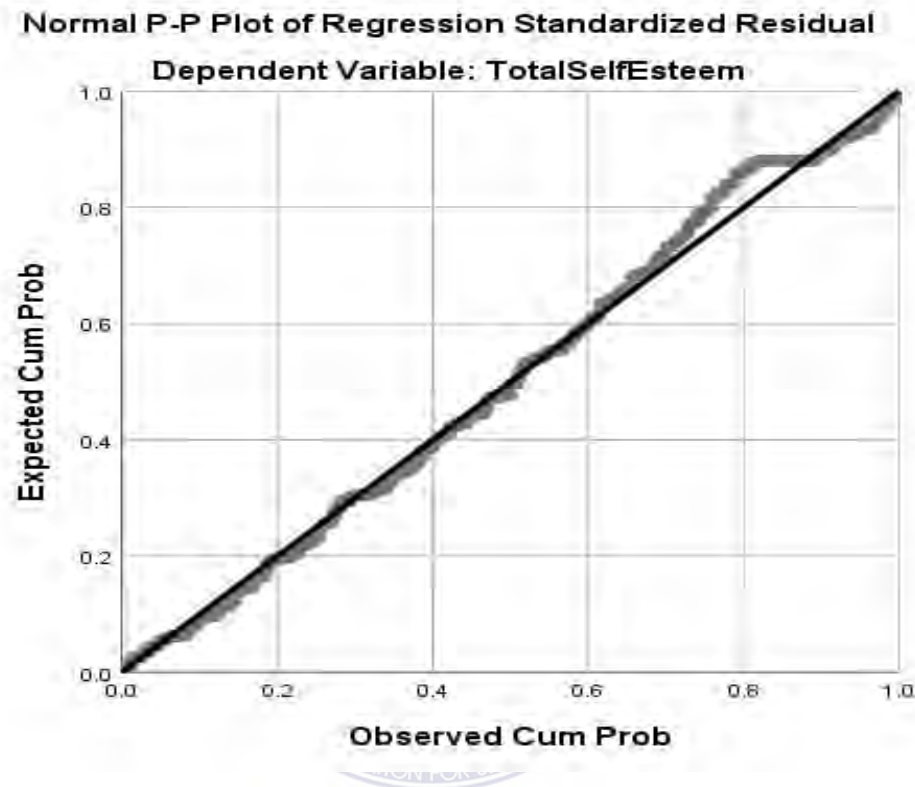


Figure 3: Normal P-P Plot of Self-esteem

The figure 4 showed data points that are closer to the regression line. This portrayed that the residuals for the self-esteem (dependent variable) were normally distributed; hence, the normality assumption was satisfied.

The binary logistic regression analysis with all predictors was statistically significant, $\chi^2(3, N = 346) = 23.14, p = .001$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between respondents with low and high self-esteem. The model explained between 6.5% (Cox and Snell R-squared) and 20.0% (Nagelkerke R-squared) of the variance in

self-esteem levels (This suggests that approximately 20% of the variability in self-esteem can be attributed (a) classroom practices, (b) challenging traditional gender roles, and (c) CoE practices, activities and protocols) and correctly classified 95.7% of cases (See Table 11). As shown in Table 12, only one of the independent variables made a unique, statistically significant contribution to the model (challenging traditional gender roles). The predictor challenging traditional gender role practices recorded an odds ratio of 1.143. This indicated that respondents who used this gender responsive approach were 1.4 times more likely to report having a high self-esteem level, controlling for other factors in the model.

Table 7: Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	112.461 ^a	.065	.200

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 7 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Table 8: Logistic Regression Predicting Components of Gender Responsive Practices on Self-Esteem

	B	S.E.	Wald	Df	P	Odd ratio	95% EXP(B) Lower	C.I.for Upper
Total Classroom Practices	.021	.077	.071	1	.790	1.021	.877	1.188
Total Tutors Challenging	.133	.061	4.847	1	.028	1.143	1.015	1.287
Total CoE Practice, Activities & Protocols	.121	.069	3.107	1	.078	1.129	.987	1.292
Constant	-2.685	1.280	4.401	1	.036	.068		

Source: Field survey (2022)

Table 8 presents detail contribution of gender responsive practices on the self-esteem levels of the college students. The Table shows that challenging traditional gender roles emerged as a statistically significant predictor ($B = 0.133$, $p = .028$), with an odds ratio of 1.143. This implies that increased tutor engagement in challenging students on traditional gender roles, is positively associated with higher self-esteem. Specifically, for every unit increase in this variable, the odds of reporting higher self-esteem increase by approximately 14.3%. Moreover, the Table reveals that CoE practices, activities and protocols showed a marginal effect ($B = 0.121$, $p = .078$), suggesting a potential positive relationship with self-esteem, though not statistically significant at the conventional 0.05 level. The odds ratio of 1.129 indicates a possible increase in self-esteem, but further investigation is warranted to confirm this effect. Further, total classroom practices did not significantly predict self-esteem ($B = 0.021$, $p = .790$), with an odds ratio close to 1 (1.021), indicating negligible influence. The constant term ($B = -2.685$, $p = .036$) was significant, reflecting a low baseline probability of high self-esteem when all predictors are held at zero.

4.5 The difference between gender and self-esteem among Colleges of Education students in Ashanti Region.

The purpose of hypothesis two was to find out whether differences exist between college of education students (i.e., males and females) in terms of their self-esteem. By means of achieving this purpose of the study, independent samples t-test was used to conduct the analysis. The normality assumption was checked before the analysis was done. The normality test was conducted using the Q-Q plots as presented in Figure 5. Levene's test was conducted to check for equality of variance and the result has been presented Table 9.

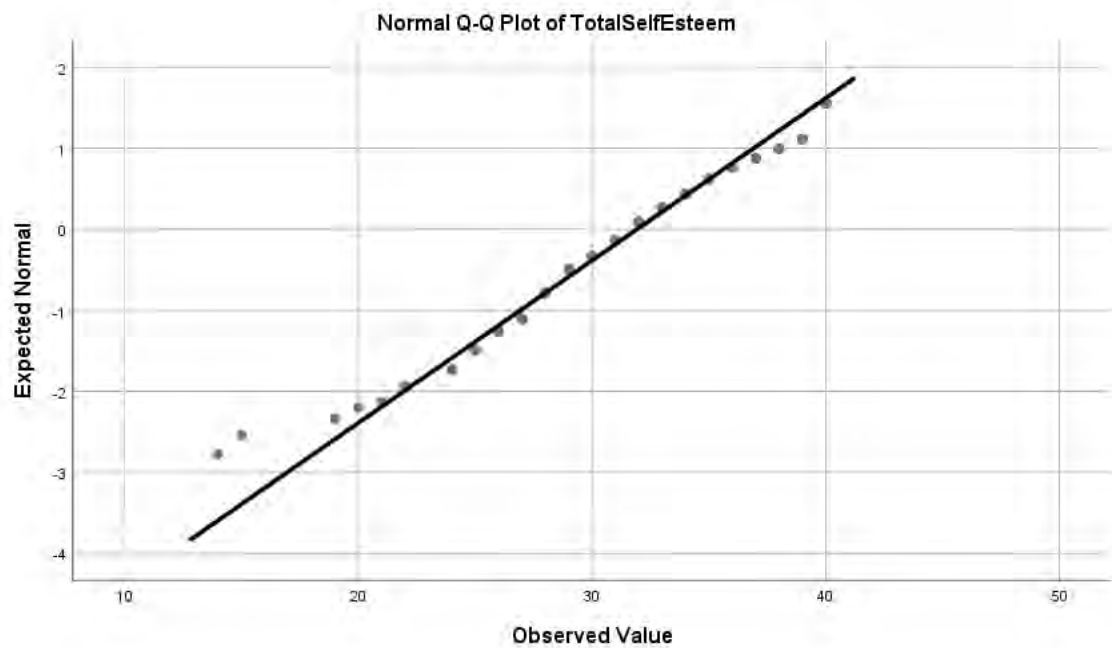


Figure 4: Normal Q-Q Plot of Self-esteem

The Q-Q plot showed in Figure 4 revealed that the data points are closer to the straight line. This depicted that the residuals for the Self-esteem (dependent variable) were normally distributed; hence, the normality assumption was satisfied. The analysis in Table 9 indicated the Levene's test results.

Table 9: Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

		F	Sig.	T	Df	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Self-Esteem	Equal variances assumed	1.181	.278	1.238	358	.52561	-.38281	1.68452
	Equal variances not assumed			1.238	357.876	.52552	-.38264	1.68435

Source: Field survey (2022)

Table 9 presented the information on the assumption that needs to be met before testing the Hypothesis two. From Table 12, the significant level for the Levene's test (.278) is greater than .05. This means that the assumption of equal variance has not been violated. This paved way for the analysis on hypothesis two. The result has been presented in Table 13.

Table 10: Independent t-test Results Comparing Males and Females on Self-Esteem

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig. (2-tailed)
Self Esteem	Male	181	32.2486	5.05954	.37607	2.16
	Female	179	31.5978	4.91103	.36707	

Source: Field survey (2022)

As presented in Table 13, the males were 181 students whereas the female were 179 students. Though the mean and standard deviation scores (M=32.2486; SD.=5.05954) of the males were greater than the female scores (M=31.5978; SD.= .36707), there was no statistically significant difference between males and females in terms of self-esteem since the sig. value (2.16) was greater than .05. This explains that the level of self-esteem among males and females in the College of Education is equal.

4.6 Discussion of Research Findings

This section discusses the findings of the research question and the hypotheses formulated to guide the study.

Level of Self-Esteem among Students in the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana

The concern of this research question was to find out the level of self-esteem among College of Education students in the Ashanti region of Ghana. In general, the results

from the field data reveal that the College of Education students' self-esteem level was high. Out of the 360 participants, responses analysed showed that 329 of them had high self-esteem with only a negligible 31 having low self-esteem. Apart from that, most of the individual items that were used to measure self-esteem of the students also confirmed the high level of students' self-esteem in the Colleges of Education in Ghana.

The high self-esteem of the students could be attributed to the fact that they feel proud of themselves because they could do things like their colleagues either individually or in groups. For instance, since the inception of the B.Ed. curriculum in the Colleges of Education, students have been encouraged to study in groups. This has helped most of the students to develop their self-confidence, and speaking skills among their mates and before their tutors. Others have also used the group discussions platforms to sharpen their leadership skills. This finding could also be explained that the students live their lives in a way that align with their values, qualities and respect they have for themselves. More so, the high level of students' self-esteem among the College of Education students could be that they are satisfied with their self-concept since the statement "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself" was high among the self-esteem items. The finding of this study is harmonious with that of Partey and Yidana (2018) who also discovered high level of self-esteem among students selected from senior high schools in the Ashanti region of Ghana. Furthermore, the results of the study give ample evidence to support the findings of Agyeman (2020) who found high levels of self-esteem for students of St. Monica's College of Education.

Given that the students' self-esteem was high, as presented in this study, the finding is quite clearly a reflection of the import of affective model in self-esteem theory. The model asserts that self-esteem develops in early life of an individual based on how the

person feel belonged as a result of social experience and mastery acquired. The finding of the current study supports the model in that the students interact with their mates in the classroom and the school community. This nurtures their confidence level, makes them feel belonged and also master classroom and school activities. Based on the theory, the students' self-esteem existed but through their social interaction in the school has caused the increase in their self-esteem level.

Considering the cognitive models of self-esteem, the level of self-esteem is dependent upon conscious value people attribute to themselves due to unique qualities they have. This suggests that the high self-esteem level among the students in the College of Education could be as a result of cognisant effort they exhibit.

The high level of self-esteem among the college students again aligns with the sociological models of self-esteem which believe that self-esteem is influenced by societal factors termed as “looking glass self”, meaning, people mirror themselves from how the society sees and value them (Cooley, 1902). So, if the students think they are highly regarded and valued by their classmates, tutors, administrators and the school at large, then they are likely to have high self-esteem. However, the high level of students' self-esteem found in this study does not confirm the finding of Ondicho, Kombo and Njuguna (2019) who found low level of self-esteem among Kenyan secondary school students. What might have accounted for the differences in the results could be attributed to the differences in the setting and levels of education. Because Kenya is different from Ghana in terms of geographical location, and in the Ghanaian society, prestige is attached to College of Education as a tertiary institution than second cycle institutions. Moreover, the present study conflicts with that of Cudjoe and Sarfo (2019)

who revealed that both males and females' self-esteem were low among Junior High School students in Ghana.

Types of Gender Responsive Practices that exist in the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana

The concern of this research question was to find out the types of gender responsive practices that exist in the College of Education (CoE) in Ghana. In general, the results from the field data revealed that even though more gender responsive practices exist in the college's classroom practices, tutors challenging traditional gender roles and activities and protocols was the dominant practices. This suggests that gender equity is actively promoted during teaching and learning interactions. Tutors are likely engaging students in critical discussions that question stereotypes and promote inclusive thinking. On the practices of college activities, and protocols it was also found to be one of the dominants gender responsive practices. This indicates that gender considerations were embedded in the day-to-day operations and culture of the institution. Further, Supported Teaching in Schools (STS) and infrastructure were found to be moderate. This suggest that teaching methods are evolving, but there's room for more consistent integration of gender-sensitive pedagogy whereas infrastructure may include facilities like gender-neutral restrooms or safe spaces, but improvements are still needed.

Staff Procedures also reflect some progress, possibly in hiring, promotion, or workplace policies. Sexual harassment policy implementation and development were relatively low since few students responded. This suggests that while policies may exist, full implementation and regular review are lacking. This may hinder students' awareness of this practice. gender training for members is critically low. Indicates a major gap in

capacity building, staff and faculty may not be adequately equipped to apply gender-responsive approaches. Tutor recruitment and gender-responsive data use show minimal attention. Recruitment processes may not prioritize gender diversity. Data-driven planning lacks a gender lens, which can hinder effective decision-making. Budgeting is the lowest. Gender-responsive budgeting is essential for equitable resource allocation, and its absence could undermine broader efforts.

To conclude, practices that yielded low response do not have direct influence on the student, hence, lack of students' awareness of their existence. For instance, institutional structures, especially training, policy enforcement, recruitment, and budgeting lagged behind. For a truly gender-responsive institution, these foundational areas must be strengthened to support and sustain the progress seen in teaching and learning.

Classroom Practices, Challenging Traditional Gender Roles, and College Practices, Activities and Protocols Predicting Self-Esteem among College of Education Students

Hypothesis one was formulated to guide this study by finding out whether or not College of Education students' experience in classroom practices, challenging traditional gender roles, and college practices, activities and protocols would predict self-esteem among the students differently. The findings indicated that all the variables have varied contributions to students' self-esteem. Among the variables, tutors' challenging traditional gender roles, and college practices, activities and protocols were significant predictors of the self-esteem among the college students whereas classroom practices did not.

In detail, predictive ability of each of the determinants of self-esteem were as follows; College practices, activities and protocols had a positive effect on students' self-esteem,

and it could be deduced that, the colleges were doing well by orienting the students to engage themselves in colleges' activities such as drama, sports, gender clubs, writers' and debaters' clubs, leadership position such as School Representatives Council (SRC) positions among others. Through these activities, the students can find and defined themselves. In this case, who they are in classroom is not necessarily who they want to be. Because, the students can freely express themselves in after school clubs and this empowers them to own who they are and fosters independence. It can again be deduced that these activities and protocols the students are engaged in improve how they socialise which in turn affects their self-esteem positively. Because, interaction with peers encourages positive behaviour and teamwork, both of which help build self-esteem. It also promotes sense of belonging with others who share and enjoy the same or similar interest without shy or fear of judged. Because drama involves both sexes, the male and female students will feel free to associate themselves even after the drama activities. This finding in support of Palavan (2017) who found positive relationship between school practices such as drama and self-esteem among Zirve University students in Turkey. Like drama, school activities and practices such as sports, writers' and debaters' club, school services among others have shown to relate and enhance students' self-esteem. For example, the current study finding confirms that of Noonan (2011) who found out that students of Milwaukee Urban school involvement in school debates enhanced their self-esteem. What might have accounted for the similarities in these findings could be that both the drama and the school debate motivate the students to interact with their peers and it is likely that the more students socialize with their peers, the more they dispel their shyness that hinder self-esteem development.

Apart from the activities like drama, sports, and school debates, college community system such as college counsellors and administrators' interaction with the students

also contribute to the enhancement of students' self-esteem. This makes the study's finding to corroborate with Bean (1986) who in his revealed that school children identify counsellors as significant others in their decisions about self-esteem. This is because, school counsellors may have a direct impact on the students with whom they interact, their impact is generally more indirect, channelled through consultation with teachers and administrators.

Like college practices, activities and protocols, the second sub-dimension of gender responsive practices known as; tutors challenging traditional gender roles also predicted highly on the students' self-esteem . This finding suggests that the idea that certain roles are for males and females has gradually reduced, if not eliminated. What might have accounted for the positive influence of tutors challenging traditional gender roles on students' self-esteem could be that, the tutors engage both males and females equally in and outside the classroom. Activities such as presentations, demonstration, distribution of questions, leadership position in groups and in class as well as assigning chores among others. The finding of this study contradicts that of Fennema and Peterson (as cited in Dickman, 1993) who asserted that from preschool onwards, the activities chosen for classes appeal to boys' interests and the presentation formats selected are those with which boys excel or they are encouraged more than are girls. Similarly, the finding of this study conflicts with Graduate School of Arts and Sciences Teaching Centre of Colombia University (n.d) on their submission that a large body of research shows that teachers call on male students more frequently than female students; teachers are more likely to use male students' names when calling upon students and in attributing ideas advanced in discussion; teachers ask male students more abstract questions but female students more factual questions; teachers are less likely to elaborate upon points made by female students; teachers ask female students

easy questions but ask+ male students more difficult questions that require higher-order thinking.

Empirically, the finding of the current study on how gender roles as used by tutors in classroom affect self-esteem is synonymous to the results of Isiktekin, et al. (2016) who reported a positive but weak relationship between gender-roles attitudes and students' self-esteem among high school students in West Turkey. Furthermore, the finding of this study is in line with Abraha, Dagnew and Seifu (2019) whose study revealed that teachers in the secondary schools of North Wollo Zone of Ethiopia fairly facilitated lessons with gender responsive pedagogy ranging from language usage, classroom setup, classroom interaction, and addressing issues related to sexual harassment justly affected self-esteem among the students.

As part of determining the factors that serve as predictors of self-esteem among the college students, classroom practices contributed to students' self-esteem but non-significant. The reason could be that the students have been experiencing classroom practices such as group work, and self-assessment from basic school and secondary school so it is likely such practices would have no significant effect on them with respect to their self-esteem. The current finding of this study disconfirms the findings of Demirdag (2015) whose study revealed statistically significant relationship between teachers' classroom management self-assessment and students' self-esteem. The difference in these findings is possible because, the participants in Demirdag's study were in the middle school whereas the participants in the current study were in tertiary.

Observed Model Based on Hypothesis One

Based on the findings gathered from the study, an observed model was developed to guide theory and practice. This is presented in Figure 6 in a pictorial form for better appreciation.

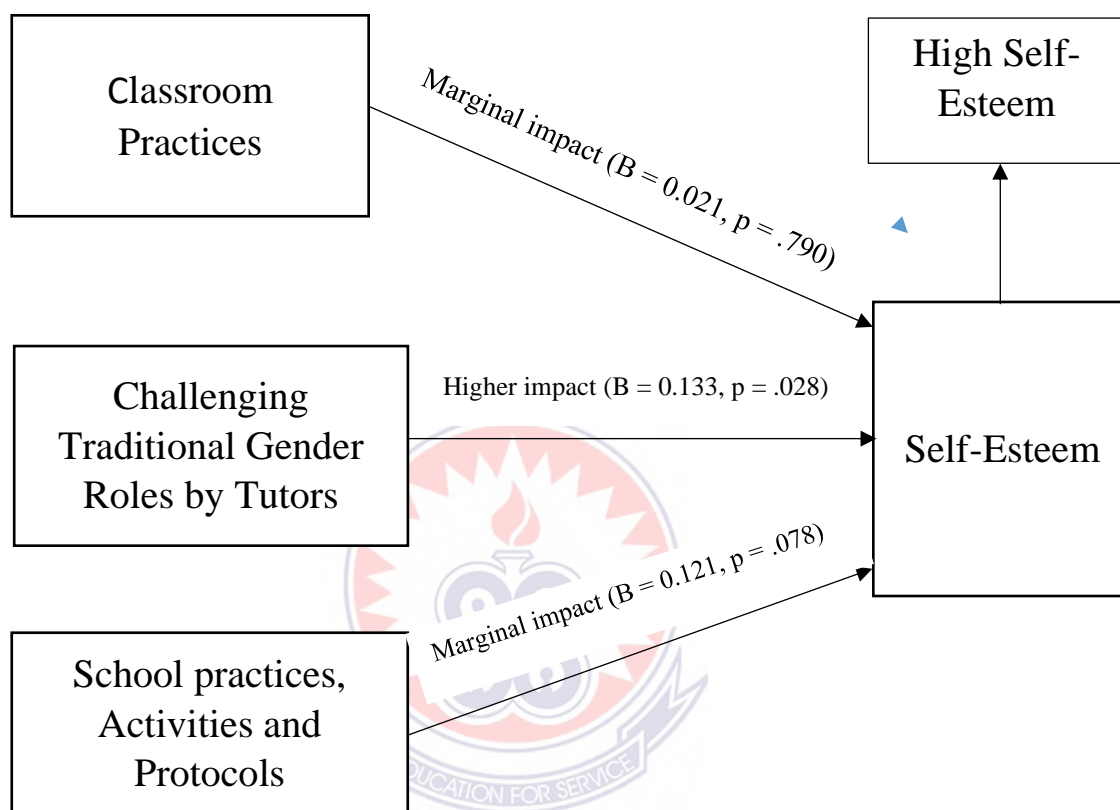


Figure 5: A Model of High Self-Esteem Predicted by Gender Responsive Practices

Figure 6 represents an observed model based on the findings of the study. The figure depicts that the high level of students' self-esteem was predicted by their experience of gender responsive practices in the colleges. The figure presents the contribution of each dimension of the gender responsive practices to the high level of self-esteem. From the observed model, it could be noticed that school practices, activities and protocols greatly predicted the college of education students' self-esteem. This was followed by challenging traditional gender roles by tutors. The least predictor were classroom practices.

Gender Difference and Self-Esteem among College of Education Students

One of the objectives in this study was to find out whether or not differences existed between males and females with regard to their self-esteem. To achieve this objective, I tested the hypothesis: there is no statistically significant difference between gender and self-esteem levels among College of Education students in Ashanti region of Ghana. The results from the study showed no significant difference between males and females' students in terms of their self-esteem. This result suggests that self-esteem levels of both males and females' students were the same, because both had high level of self-esteem. The reason could be as a result of the same or similar gender roles assigned to both males and females in the colleges and equal engagement of males and females in teaching and learning activities by their facilitators. The results give ample evidence to support the findings of Agyeman (2020) who found no significant different of self-esteem for both males and females students in St. Monica's College of Education in Ashanti region of Ghana. In addition, finding of the current study is harmonious to that of Cudjoe and Sarfo (2019) who reported that there was no significant difference between gender and self-esteem of Junior High School students in Ghana.

Similarly, the findings of this study confirmed the findings of Emil (2003) who revealed that there was no significant difference between males and females' students of Middle East Technical University with regard to their self-esteem. Jain and Dixit (2014) no significant difference between males and females regarding their self-esteem level of the college students in Indian. The similarities between the current findings and that of Jain and Dixit could be associated to similarities in age and level of education. For example, participants for the current study and that of Jain and Dixit were all college students and it likely to have the students within specific age bracket. Further, both genders, self-esteem is relatively high in childhood, drops during adolescence, rises

gradually throughout adulthood before it tends to decline in old age (Orth, Robins, & Trzesniewski, 2014).

Unlike Agyeman (2020), Cudjoe and Sarfo (2019) and Emil (2003) whose results were confirmed by the findings of the current study, the finding of Ashard et al (2015) was disconfirmed by the current study's finding since Ashard et al found a significant difference between male and female students on their self-esteem scores. Further analysis revealed high self-esteem scores among the male students as compared to their female counterparts. The finding of this study again contradicts that of Robison-Awana et al (2001) reported a significant difference of self-esteem with males having high self-esteem than females. The current finding conflicts the findings of Partey and Yidana (2018) between gender and self-esteem of students with males having high self-esteem than females. Bleidorn et al. (2016) also found a small but significant gender difference where the male students were higher on self-esteem scores than their females' counterpart. In addition, Ravindranadan and Tom (2016) from their study revealed a statistically significant difference between the male and female undergraduate students with females having higher self-esteem than females.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter showed an analysis of gender responsive practices (i.e., Classroom Practices, challenging traditional gender roles, and college practices, activities and protocols) of College of Education students in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The results of the study uncovered that there was no significant difference between high level of students' self-esteem. The analysis further revealed that among the gender responsive practices, challenging traditional gender roles, and college practices, activities and

protocols predicted College of Education students' self-esteem with college practices, activities and protocols been the greatest predictor.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Overview

This chapter presents a summary of the study, findings, conclusions and recommendations to inform policy direction. The findings revealed, among others, that students do not see themselves as inferior but as valued. Also, CoE practices, activities and protocols were found to be the most significant and highest predictors of self-esteem. Implications for teachers and suggestions for further research have been presented in this chapter as well. In this case, longitudinal studies can be conducted to examine the long-term effects of gender-responsive practices on student self-esteem and academic success.

5.1 Summary

This study sought to investigate the effect of gender responsive practices on College of Education students' self-esteem in Ashanti region of Ghana. This study adopted descriptive design through the use of quantitative approach with the questionnaire being the main instrument for data collection. The research questions dealt with the levels of students' self-esteem and types of gender responsive practices in the CoEs. There were two hypotheses. Hypothesis one had to do with how the components of gender responsive practices affect self esteem and two had to do with the difference between gender and self-esteem of the students.

Literature related to the study was reviewed. The review was done under three main sections which included the theoretical framework, conceptual review and the review of related empirical studies. Some of the studies carried out in the past which were related to the current study were also reviewed.

A sample size of 360 College of Education students were carefully selected through the use of multi-stage sampling procedure. An adapted version of Rosenberg's self-esteem and T-Tel (2017) gender responsive scales were used in data collection. A reliability co-efficient of .80 and .674 were yielded for the two scales respectively after the carrying out a pilot test.

Descriptive statistics (factor analysis and frequencies and percentages) was employed to analyse data on the research questions whereas inferential statistics (logistic regression and independent samples t-test) were used to test the hypotheses.

5.1.1 Findings

The study unravelled a number of findings based on the research questions and the hypotheses. Finding from research question one showed high level of self-esteem for the College of education students. This explains that self-esteem levels of the College of Education students was high.

Research question two revealed classroom practice, tutors challenging traditional gender roles and, activities and protocols as the common existing gender responsive practices in the colleges of education in Ghana.

Furthermore, in hypothesis one, the study revealed that tutors challenging traditional gender roles was the highest predictor among the dimensions of the gender responsive practices, College of Education practices, activities and protocols as well as classroom practices predicted less on students' self-esteem.

With respect to hypothesis two which sought to investigate whether differences exist between males and females regarding their self-esteem, the study revealed no

statistically significant difference between males and females in terms of their self-esteem levels.

5.2 Conclusions

In conclusion, this study provides compelling evidence that students within the colleges of education possess a strong sense of self-worth and do not perceive themselves as inferior. Furthermore, the significant positive correlation between gender-responsive practices and self-esteem underscores the importance of fostering inclusive educational environments. As students experience increased gender-responsive practices, their self-esteem demonstrably improves, highlighting the tangible benefits of such initiatives. Notably, tutors challenging traditional gender roles emerge as the most influential factor in predicting student self-esteem, emphasizing the critical role of institutional support in nurturing positive self-perception. Finally, the absence of a statistically significant gender difference in self-esteem suggests that both male and female students benefit equally from these positive influences, reinforcing the effectiveness of the college's overall approach. These findings collectively advocate for the continued implementation and enhancement of gender-responsive practices and institutional support structures to further cultivate and sustain high levels of self-esteem among all students.

5.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the findings of the study:

1. College actors should continue to introduce activities that will continue to increase the self-esteem students within the colleges (possess a strong sense of self-worth and do not perceive themselves as inferior).
2. College actors should sensitize students on all gender responsive practices

3. Tutors in the Colleges of Education should keep on intensify the integration of gender-responsive pedagogy so that classroom practices can have a high influence on students self esteem. gender ine. CoE management should support faculty by providing periodic training and monitoring of their understanding and use of gender responsive practices in and outside the classroom.
4. To maintain equality and avoid future disparity in gender difference, college tutors should continue to make gender responsive practices beneficial to both males and females.

5.4 Contributions of the Study

The study contributes to the scholarly works on students' level of self-esteem in terms of theory, literature and policy. The main contribution to theory as prompted by discussion in literature and findings of this study has highlighted the conceptualisation of affective model by Roger (1951); cognitive model by Epstein (1990) and sociological model Cooley (1902). The findings confirmed the philosophy of the 'looking glass self' as sociological model by Cooley (1902) suggesting that self-esteem is influenced by societal factors where people mirror themselves from how the society sees and value them so if we think we are highly regarded and valued by society at large, then we are likely to have high self-esteem and vice versa. This idea has been confirmed in this study where students mirrored themselves from the gender responsive practices. So far as I know, no study has been conducted to address the issue of self-esteem being influenced by gender responsive practices among College of Education students in Ghana. Therefore, the present study contributes to the scholarship of self-esteem, which is significantly predicted by gender responsive practices.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

The study suggests the following for future research:

1. The study focused solely on quantitative approach to investigate the influence of gender responsive practices on the students' self-esteem. I therefore suggest that a follow-up study through qualitative approach should be conducted to obtain in-depth information about gender responsive practices and self-esteem of college students.
2. The present study gave all the attention to Colleges of Education in Ashanti region of Ghana. It is, thus, suggested that the issue should be looked at across all the Colleges of Education under the five zones Ghana.



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APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION

Topic: GENDER RESPONSIVE PRACTICES AND SELF-ESTEEM AMONG
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDENTS IN GHANA

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this study is to find out the influence of gender responsive practices on self-esteem of students in the Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region. Kindly provide information on how your experience in gender responsive practices affect your self-esteem. Please respond to the statements as openly and honestly, based on your experience and knowledge. Be guaranteed that the information you are going to provide will be confidentially kept.

Thank you.

I consent to participate in this study: Yes No

DIRECTIONS: Please tick [√] where appropriate in the spaces provided.

Section A: Demographic Data of Respondent

1. What is your gender?

Male [] Female []

2. What is your age?

18-22 []

23-27 []

28-32 []

33-38 []

39-44 []

Above 44 []

3. Which level are you?

Level 100 []

Level 200 []

Level 300 []

4. Please tick your college.

AKROTCO []

WESCO []

ST. LOUIS []

MAMTECH []

SECTION B: GENDER RESPONSIVE PRACTICES

This section aims to ascertain the extent to which you experience gender responsive practices in your College. Please read each statement and show your response by ticking one box to indicate **YES or NO**

S/N	STATEMENT(S)	Y e s	N o
5	My tutors make sure females and males participate equally in activities during class.		
6	My tutors assign leadership roles equally to females and males in lesson activities.		

7	My tutors are patient with females and males who may be shy or afraid to speak.		
8	My tutors mix females and males to work together in groups.		
9	My tutors provide positive verbal feedback to both females and males in class.		
10	My tutors use teaching materials that do not show or reinforce traditional gender roles (e.g., women cooking/cleaning and men in professional roles).		
11	My tutors identify and discusses traditional gender roles that appear in books and discuss how these limits what females think they can achieve in their education and lives.		
12	My tutors actively use examples that challenge or reverse traditional gender roles (e.g., show men cleaning).		
13	My tutors use examples that make females and males feel confident to challenge traditional gender roles in general (e.g., boys should cook, girls should be doctors).		
14	My tutors support female students in studying and achieving in subjects like mathematics and science.		
15	College of Education cleaning and chores do not reflect or reinforce traditional gender roles (e.g., only female students run errands or clean up).		
16	Class prefect roles are equally assigned to female and male.		
17	There are specific clubs/extra-curricular activities designed to build female student confidence in specific subject areas.		

18	A gender club is organized in order to discuss gender equality and help females and males feel confident to challenge traditional gender.		
19	A guidance counsellor is in place to provide support and a safe space for all students.		
20	All forms of corporal punishment or intimidating disciplinary measures are banned from use by Tutors and staff.		
21	Classroom practice is gender responsive		
22	Tutors challenge traditional gender roles during lessons		
23	CoE practices, activities and protocols are gender responsive		
24	CoE teaching practice is gender responsive		
25	CoE infrastructure is gender responsive		
26	CoE staff procedures are gender responsive		
27	The CoE has a sexual harassment policy that is fully implemented		
28	CoE policies are developed and/or amended to be gender responsive		
29	All members of the CoE have received gender training		
30	CoE tutor recruitment is gender responsive		
32	CoE data is collected and analysed in a gender responsive way of planning is gender responsive		
33	CoE budgeting is gender responsive		

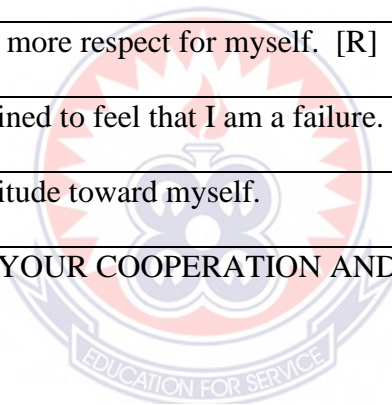
SECTION C: SELF-ESTEEM

This section aims to determine your esteem level. Please read each statement and show your response by ticking one box to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree as follows:

1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Agree (A); 4 = Strongly Agree (SA).

S/N	STATEMENT(S)	1	2	3	4
21	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.				
22	At times I think I am not good at all. [R]				
23	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.				
24	I am able to do things as well as my mates.				
25	I feel I do not have much to be proud of. [R]				
26	I certainly feel useless at times. [R]				
27	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane my mates.				
28	I wish I could have more respect for myself. [R]				
29	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. [R]				
30	I take a positive attitude toward myself.				

THANKS FOR YOUR COOPERATION AND PARTICIPATION



APPENDIX B**RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF THE SCALES**

S/N	GENDER RESPONSIVE PRACTICE	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha
	Classroom Practices Reliability		.83
5	My tutors make sure females and males participate equally in activities during class.	.577	
6	My tutors assign leadership roles equally to females and males in lesson activities.	.548	
7	My tutors are patient with females and males who may be shy or afraid to speak.	.522	
8	My tutors mix females and males to work together in groups.	.545	
9	My tutors provide positive verbal feedback to both females and males in class.	.622	
	Tutors challenge traditional gender roles during lessons		.81
10	My tutors use teaching materials that do not show or reinforce traditional gender roles (e.g., women cooking/cleaning and men in professional roles).	.559	
11	My tutors identify and discusses traditional gender roles that appear in books and discuss	.602	

	how these limits what females think they can achieve in their education and lives.		
12	My tutors actively use examples that challenge or reverse traditional gender roles (e.g., show men cleaning).	.582	
13	My tutors use examples that make females and males feel confident to challenge traditional gender roles in general (e.g., boys should cook, girls should be doctors).	.545	
14	My tutors support female students in studying and achieving in subjects like mathematics and science.	.584	
	CoE practices, activities and protocols		.71
15	College of Education cleaning and chores do not reflect or reinforce traditional gender roles (e.g., only female students run errands or clean up).	.384	
16	Class prefect roles are equally assigned to female and male.	.464	
17	There are specific clubs/extra-curricular activities designed to build female student confidence in specific subject areas.	.484	
18	A gender club is organized in order to discuss gender equality and help females and males feel confident to challenge traditional gender	.532	

19	A guidance counsellor is in place to provide support and a safe space for all students.	.553	
20	All forms of corporal punishment or intimidating disciplinary measures are banned from use by Tutors and staff.	.485	

Overall alpha = .88



S/N	SELF-ESTEEM	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha
21	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	.307	.662
22	At times I think I am not good at all.	.300	.674
23	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	.440	.627
24	I am able to do things as well as my mates.	.306	.671
25	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	.419	.670
26	I certainly feel useless at times.	.421	.633
27	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane my mates.	.511	.609
28	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	.300	.661

29	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	.309	.656
30	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	.457	.623

Overall alpha = .674=.70

