Gender and Age Differences in Self-esteem Among Undergraduate Students in Tanzania: The Case of Dar es Salaam Universities

Ndelwa Adrick & Chris Mauki[§]*

Abstract

This paper presents the findings of an investigation into gender and age differences in self-esteem among university students in Tanzania. The study employed a quantitative research approach and involved a correlation research design with a sample of 379 respondents. A structured questionnaire was employed to gather data that were analysed descriptively and inferentially using SPSS, version 24. The t-test results revealed statistically significant gender differences in self-esteem, with t (377) = 9.754, p = .001. It was found that male students had higher self-esteem than female students. Furthermore, ANOVA results revealed a statistically significant age differences in respondents' self-esteem (df = 2, F = 75.591, p =.001). Overall, the findings indicated that male students exhibited higher levels of self-esteem compared to their female counterparts. Moreover, first-year female students were found to have low self-esteem compared to their counterpart male students of the same year of study. Additionally, the study revealed a positive correlation between age and self-esteem, suggesting that self-esteem tends to increase as students grow older. However, the extent to which this is so depends on the social interaction of a particular society, which influences the development of self-esteem. Given these results, it is recommended that universities and education stakeholders implement a tailored self-esteem enhancement program to support female students in developing their self-esteem. Furthermore, guidance and counselling efforts should prioritize younger students to foster healthy self-esteem development from an early age.

Introduction

A scientific study of gender and age differences and similarities is essential to understanding human behaviour (Malik & Saida, 2013). In Tanzania, there are evident variations in the lives of males and females of different ages. Tanzania's society is composed of both men and women; and while there may be biological differences between the sexes, many of the psychological traits and behaviours associated with gender are shaped by the socialization process. Socialization refers to the lifelong process through which individuals learn and internalize the values, norms, beliefs, and behaviours of their culture or society (Seema & Henrica, 2018). This process starts from a young age and continues throughout life, influencing how individuals perceive and express their gender identity; and it impacts the future development of gender (Dominic & Lanre, 2017).

[*] Freelance psychologist: ndelwadrick@gmail.com
[§] School of Education, University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania: chrismauki57@gmail.com

Socialization significantly influences gender differences in self-esteem among university students. The social learning theory highlights how observation, imitation, and reinforcement of gender-related behaviours impact self-esteem; while symbolic interactionism emphasizes the role of shared meanings and societal expectations in shaping self-perception and self-worth. Self-esteem is an important psychological factor that influences human intelligence activities and intellectual growth (Abdel-Khalek, 2017). Male and female university students have distinct goals, expectations, roles, and perhaps even distinct training to achieve their individual life goals (Gaurav & Abhishek, 2014). There has been a growing concern about the poor self-esteem of university students in Tanzania, which has hindered students' psychosocial and academic achievements (Joshua, 2014; Lukwekwe, 2015; Namara, 2018). Examining gender differences in self-esteem among university students in Tanzania is of utmost importance due to its significant impact on their emotional, psychological, and academic development. Self-esteem plays a pivotal role in shaping an individual's confidence, motivation, and overall well-being. Hence, understanding how university socialization influence the gender differences in self-esteem can shed light on potential challenges faced by male and female students, thereupon enabling the development of targeted interventions to support their personal growth and success.

University socialization is a critical factor in shaping gender differences in self-esteem among students. As young adults transition from high school to university, they encounter a new social environment that reinforces, and sometimes challenges, existing gender norms. Various aspects of university life—such as academic achievements, leadership opportunities, extracurricular activities, and social interactions—can influence how students perceive themselves and their self-worth based on their gender identity.

During this crucial phase of life, university students are exposed to diverse experiences and role models, which can impact their self-esteem. For example, male students may receive positive reinforcement and societal approval for being assertive, confident, and academically successful: all leading to higher self-esteem. On the other hand, female students might encounter stereotypes or societal pressures that emphasize traditional roles and limit their self-expression; potentially affecting their self-esteem negatively. Moreover, the socialization process within universities can perpetuate or challenge existing gender norms, thus influencing self-esteem. The way educational institutions handle gender equality, provide support systems, and encourage inclusion can significantly impact the self-esteem of male and female students.

Self-esteem is a sensitive psychological correlate with everyone's development, especially in young adults; and it piques the interest of mental health professionals (Gaurav & Abhishek, 2014). Several previous theories of personality regard it as a psychological requirement for humans. Maslow includes self-esteem or esteem needs in his hierarchy of needs. According to him, esteem requirements comprise two types

of esteem: receiving respect from others, and respecting oneself (self-esteem) (Maslow, 1987). As per Maslow, individuals cannot reach self-actualization in life until they satisfy their esteem requirements, which are lower in the hierarchy than self-actualization. Accordingly, one will be obliged to fulfil one's lower demands before seeking out one's higher needs (ibid.).

For a young adult, self-esteem promotes self-love and self-worth; and a sense of worth, affection, and acceptance of others. It defines what a person desires from life, and what one believes that s/he is capable of doing. It provides confidence, skills, aptitude, and the required drive to accomplish the same because an individual believes s/he deserves it, and that whatever needs to be done to get there, where one believes s/he belongs, must be done (Gaurav & Abhishek, 2014). Self-esteem relates to a person's views about his/her own values, and is frequently accompanied by powerful emotions. One aspect of self-esteem is its level, which can range from higher to lower. High self-esteem comprises positive feelings, which indicate that an individual completely accepts, appreciates and is satisfied with oneself and feels deserving of respect; whilst low self-esteem entails the negative affect (Azizi et al., 2019). A young adult with a negative attitude towards oneself, or poor self-esteem, does not value oneself, does not approve of one's own characteristics, has a bad impression of oneself, and so on (Rosenberg, 1965). An individual with high self-esteem shows self-respect and considers oneself worthy, but is not egoistic (Rosenberg, 1965). Self-esteem supplies individuals with the ability to cope effectively with challenges, accept happy moments, improve their strengths, and engage in close relationships (Sagaran, 2017; Azizi et al., 2019). Individuals with low self-esteem show self-dissatisfaction, self-rejection, and self-contempt (Ferradás et al., 2020).

In today's generation, most first-year university students are in their late adolescent years. The onset of adolescence is the age of transition between childhood and adulthood, which is generally characterised by substantial and often unpleasant changes in a young person's life. During this period, both boys and girls experience several challenges and issues. It is essential for their self-esteem to be at its best to confront the challenges of adolescence (Mitra, 2019). Personal development and self-esteem in adolescents are influenced by biological, cognitive, social, and environmental factors. According to research, adolescent females have poorer self-esteem and more unfavourable perceptions of their physical traits and intellectual ability than boys (Kearney-Cooke, 1999). This may explain why girls have a far greater rate of suicide attempts, depression, and eating disorders. A more in-depth examination of the ways to improve oneself may aid in the reduction of negative feelings in adolescent girls, as well as the problems that result from them.

If appropriate care is not provided, poor self-esteem will progressively lead to various physical and mental disorders. The positive and negative events of life create a sense of being desirable or undesirable. These impressions later become more permanent, and take the form of diverse complexes (Olsen et al., 2008). Numerous different experiences, such as student performance, teachers' attitudes, cultural beliefs,

personality traits, the transition from secondary education to university level, age, socioeconomic factors, family, peer attachment (Hj & Nurafiqah, 2010; Bultler, 1998), rejection or appreciation from the opposite gender, gender role expectations, social comparison, popularity or friendship with people of the opposite gender: all these actually play a significant part in the growth of self-esteem.

Students acquire a sense of identity, self-concept, and self-esteem during their university years: this is the period when they discover what they want to do with their lives; and they strive to make many friends, and to be 'accepted' by their peers (Moyano et al., 2020). This is the moment when some of them are going through an identity crisis, rejection, a lot of stress, or a storm. If they are unable to regulate and address the critical issues and situations, they will likely develop poor self-esteem (Mitra, 2019). Young adulthood is a period in which individuals are assigned new duties and responsibilities in society—such as a job, marriage, or parenting—and are expected to fulfil these duties, and adjust to these changes entirely on their own. A conflict scenario may emerge here: one may be unable to fulfil the given tasks and obligations; or may resist seeking guidance from elders because of avoiding being seen as immature. This is the stage of life where young adults assess themselves using their inner awareness, and the outside world that assists them in developing self-esteem (Nupur & Mahapatro, 2016).

Students with high self-esteem can be found to be more willing to speak up in a group, and they can openly criticise the approach of a group. The problem with low self-esteem students is that they underestimate themselves and feel undeservedly successful (Damota et al., 2020). Low self-esteem also has a significant effect on individual relationships with others. When there is a problem in liking themselves, it becomes difficult for them to like others; and to share their views with others. People can love others only when they love themselves. When there is difficulty in self-love, the acceptance of love and affection from others will be difficult (Guven, 2019).

Naderi et al. (2009) have documented the significant role of high self-esteem in achieving academic results, and in developing social and personal responsibility. Perceived competence is the belief that one possesses capabilities in a specific field (e.g., maths, spelling, peer relationships). Students must have high self-esteem and perceived competence to take chances in their learning, and recover quickly after failure or misfortune. Students who lack self-esteem or confidence underestimate their potential to achieve, making them unwilling to engage in learning or take acceptable academic growth risks (Erol & Orth, 2011).

Students with poor self-esteem may blame themselves for things that are not their fault, or are beyond their control; or they may try influencing the behaviour of other students to escape their sense of powerlessness. Such students may make self-deprecating remarks such as 'I am stupid', 'I cannot do this', 'I always do everything incorrectly', and 'No one likes me'. Or they may do really well for a

time before suddenly underperforming (Arshad et al., 2015). Also, they may be hesitant to attempt new activities, or may be unable to tolerate their usual levels of frustration. Too, they may pretend not to care, fool about, or be confrontational to hide their lack of confidence; or worse, be concerned that their achievements were a fluke, or that others' expectations have risen unexpectedly (Ferradás et al., 2020).

Abdel-Khalek (2017) found self-esteem as a key predictor of emotional well-being, mental health, and love of life, life satisfaction, happiness and hope. In the same vein, it is associated with enthusiasm for learning and academic success (Arshad et al., 2015; Gaurav & Abhishek, 2014). This implies that if a student's self-esteem is negatively affected, many aspects of her/his life will also be affected. High self-esteem, for example, influences a student's initiative, motivation, and success in academic and professional pursuits. According to Aydin and Sari (2011), if students have low self-esteem and do not feel good about themselves, this may affect their academic activities. Hasani and Tiwali (2018) advance that such students will also be uninterested in initiating, organising, and managing group activities. Studies have also shown that students with low self-esteem are more prone to engaging in drinking, drug addiction, sexual risk behaviours, suicidal attempts, family conflicts, problems with adaptation to social systems, and immersion into the life of party to cover their low self-esteem. Some would also mostly be angry and stay isolated, and show their mood out on others (Arshad et al., 2015; Hasani & Tiwali, 2018; Moyano et al., 2020; Paudel, 2020).

Literature Review
Theoretical framework
This paper employs a symbolic interactionism theory, which emerged as a prominent theoretical framework in the early 20th century through the works of sociologists George Herbert Mead and Herbert Blumer. Symbolic interactionism posits that individuals live in both a natural environment (tangible and physical aspects), and a symbolic environment (meanings and interpretations assigned to objects and actions through social interactions) (Smith, 2017). Symbolic interactionism highlights the importance of social interactions in the formation of self-esteem. For instance, if female or male students encounter situations where their opinions are discounted or they face gender-based stereotypes, it can impact their self-perception and self-esteem (Johnson, 2019). On the other hand, positive and affirming interactions can foster a sense of confidence and self-worth. In this study, the theory can help elucidate how gender roles and expectations, as interpreted and negotiated within the university setting, influence self-esteem among male and female students (Lee, 2020).

In the university context, students' self-esteem and identity development are significantly influenced by the symbolic interactions they encounter. As young adults transitioning from high school to university, they face new social environments with diverse peers, faculty, and staff. These interactions shape their perceptions of themselves and others, influencing their self-esteem and how they navigate their gender identity and roles (Brown, 2016; Martinez, 2018).

For example, in academic settings, certain fields of study might be associated with specific genders, leading to potential biases and stereotypes. For instance, male students might receive more positive reinforcement and praise when they excel in traditionally 'masculine' subjects like mathematics or engineering. The society might perpetuate the notion that males are naturally more skilled in these areas, leading to increased recognition and validation for their achievements (Adams, 2019). As a result, male students might experience a boost in their self-esteem when they excel in these subjects. On the other hand, female students might face stereotypes that suggest they are better suited for 'feminine' subjects like humanities or social sciences (White, 2021). This gender bias might lead to less recognition and validation for their achievements in traditionally 'masculine' fields. Consequently, female students may perceive their academic accomplishments differently; and may not receive the same level of self-esteem boost as their male counterparts when they excel in such subjects (Johnson, 2019; Lee, 2020). In this example, the symbolic meanings attached to academic achievements based on gender norms influence how students perceive themselves and their academic capabilities. Such symbolic interactions can have significant effects on the self-esteem of male and female students, potentially impacting their academic choices, confidence in their abilities, and overall well-being in the university setting.

Moreover, age differences in self-esteem may also be influenced by the repeated interactions and socialization processes in the university context. As students progress through their academic journey, they encounter different challenges, opportunities, and social dynamics that contribute to the development of their self-esteem. Symbolic interactionism highlights how these ongoing interactions shape their self-identity, and how they perceive themselves in relation to their gender (Brown, 2016; Lee, 2020). Symbolic interactionism also emphasizes the interpretation of actions and the subjectivity of gender-related behaviours. Gendered behaviours and expressions are subject to interpretation by others, influencing individuals' self-perception, and how they are perceived in terms of gender roles (Martinez, 2018). For example, male students may receive praise and recognition for displaying assertiveness and leadership qualities, leading to a bolstering of their self-esteem. In contrast, female students might face challenges if they express assertiveness or ambition, potentially affecting their self-esteem due to societal norms about gender-appropriate behaviour.

Symbolic interactionism further posits that meanings are not fixed and can evolve through ongoing social interactions. As university students interact with peers, faculty, and staff, their self-esteem and identity can be influenced by the interpretations and values they exchange (Brown, 2016; Martinez, 2018). In the university context, social rejection, negative comments on social media, and social comparisons can significantly impact students' self-esteem and overall well-being. These experiences are examples of symbolic interactions that shape how students perceive themselves and their place in the social environment (Lee, 2020). For

instance, if a student is consistently excluded from study groups or social gatherings, s/he might interpret this exclusion as a sign of not being valued or accepted by one's peers. This can negatively affect her/his self-esteem, and may lead to the questioning of one's social skills and worthiness as a friend or a team member (Hernandez, 2020).

In the age of social media, students are exposed to a wide range of interactions, including negative comments and cyberbullying. Negative comments, whether directed at an individual or witnessed in online interactions, can hurt and damage self-esteem (Turner, 2018). For example, if a student receives derogatory comments or personal attacks on one's social media posts, this can lead to feelings of inadequacy and insecurity. Such comments might make such students question their self-worth and value as an individual, and they may internalize the negativity, affecting their self-esteem and overall emotional well-being (Johnson, 2019; Lee, 2020).

In the university context, students often engage in social comparisons regarding academic performance, appearance, social status, and achievements. Comparing oneself unfavourably to others can lead to feelings of inadequacy and diminished self-esteem (White, 2021). For instance, if students constantly compare their academic achievements to those of their peers and perceives themselves as falling short, it can lead to self-doubt and reduced confidence in their academic abilities. Engaging in social comparisons with others on social media platforms, whether pertaining to one's social life or physical appearance, has been identified in research, specifically by Brown (2016), as a potential trigger for experiences of inferiority and a consequential negative influence on self-esteem.

Symbolic interactionism provides a powerful framework to comprehend the significance of social interactions, gender roles, and the construction of self-esteem among university students. The examples presented here highlight the impact of symbolic interactions on how students perceive themselves, their gender roles, and how it influences their self-esteem. Employing a symbolic interactionist lens allows us to develop strategies that promote an inclusive and supportive university environment, where all students can develop a positive self-image, and enhance their self-esteem regardless of their gender or age (Martinez, 2018).

Reasons for the Emergence of Low Self-esteem
Low self-esteem is triggered by unfavourable experiences such as being criticised, humiliated, assaulted sexually or emotionally, or taunted (Hasan & Tiwari, 2018). It is essential to recognize that both boys and girls can experience vulnerability and challenges related to their self-esteem (Smith, 2018; Johnson & Anderson, 2019). Society's expectations and gender norms can indeed create a perception that boys or men are not vulnerable, but this perception is a social construct rather than a reflection of reality (Brown, 2020). Just as girls and women can face unwanted attention and comments that undermine their self-esteem, boys and men may also encounter similar experiences that impact their emotional well-being (Robinson et al., 2021).

The impact of sociocultural pressures, particularly concerning body image, on students' self-esteem has been well-documented. Thompson and Rogers (2017) indicates that females, in particular, face significant body image concerns due to societal beauty standards perpetuated through media and peer comparisons. This constant comparison can lead to body dissatisfaction and low self-esteem among female students. Similarly, males may experience low self-esteem due to societal expectations related to muscularity and physical appearance (Cafri et al., 2016).

Research in the United States has discovered no significant differences in the self-esteem trajectory of men and women (Erol & Orth, 2011). Another major conclusion of the same study was that self-esteem develops over time, and might differ at different stages of development. The findings revealed a significant difference in self-esteem between male and female students, with men reporting higher self-esteem than females. In addition, a study by Wen (2011) offered intriguing findings that students from two-parent families reported having higher self-esteem than students from single-parent families. According to Gaurav and Abhishek (2014), significant gender disparities were perfectly consistent with gender stereotypes. Since the university period is a challenging period in which students transition from adolescence to adulthood, and make important life decisions, numerous psychological difficulties may emerge during this time (Arshad et al., 2015; Ferradás et al., 2020). In this circumstance, it is critical to understand the gender and age differences in the level of self-esteem among students to prevent the development of psychological problems among them.

Fostering an environment that encourages open discussions about self-esteem and vulnerability for all genders can contribute to breaking down gender stereotypes and promoting a more equitable society. Recognizing that boys and girls can experience similar emotional challenges and vulnerabilities allows for a holistic approach to support young men and women in building their self-esteem, and navigating the complexities of their social environment. This will ultimately foster empathy and understanding between genders, and can lead to a more supportive and nurturing community for everyone (Mwakanyamale & Yizhen, 2019).

The Impact of Gender-related Socialization on Gender Differences in Self-esteem
The study by Paudel (2020) reported that gender had the most powerful and unique impact on students' self-esteem. Gender impacts various aspects of adolescents' lives, and can also affect changes in self-esteem during the adolescent years (White, 2021; Hernandez, 2020; Naderi et al., 2009). Research has shown that gender-related socialization and expectations can impact self-esteem differently for boys and girls. Societal norms and stereotypes often attribute certain traits or behaviours to each gender, and individuals may internalize these expectations, influencing their self-perception and self-esteem. For example, studies have found that girls may face specific challenges related to body image, appearance, and societal pressure to conform to unrealistic standards of beauty. These factors can contribute to lower self-esteem among girls compared to boys during adolescence (Brown, 2016; Martinez, 2018).

Boys may face unique challenges related to societal expectations of masculinity, such as the pressure to be strong, independent, and successful. These expectations can also impact their self-esteem, particularly if they feel they are falling short of these ideals. Studies by Hernandez and Kim (2018) suggest that female students, in particular, may face lower self-esteem when considering leadership roles due to societal perceptions and expectations about gender roles. These stereotypes can limit their belief in their capabilities and potential, resulting in lower self-esteem.

Bandura's social learning theory suggests that gender-specific socialization, reinforcement of certain behaviours based on societal expectations, and exposure to media representations: all influence the development of self-esteem in girls and boys differently. In the context of self-esteem development, girls might witness societal expectations and stereotypes that associate certain behaviours and traits with femininity. For example, girls may observe that they are praised or rewarded for being compliant, nurturing, and socially accommodating. On the other hand, assertiveness and ambition, traits often associated with masculinity, might be discouraged or not reinforced. Brown and Johnson (2019) explored the influence of cultural factors on self-esteem and revealed that societal expectations and gender norms often contribute to the gender differences in self-esteem levels. As a result of these observations and the reinforcement of gender-specific behaviours, girls may internalize the notion that being assertive or taking leadership roles is not expected or valued for them. Consequently, they might suppress or downplay such traits, leading to a decrease in self-esteem, as they perceive themselves as lacking in areas that are socially praised. On the contrary, boys may experience an increase or stable self-esteem during the same period because they are more likely to receive positive reinforcement for demonstrating assertive and dominant behaviours, which are often associated with traditional masculinity. This reinforcement bolsters their self-esteem and encourages them to continue displaying these traits (Lee & Martinez, 2018).

The socialization process involves key institutions like family, education, religion, and media; all of which contribute to the development of individuals' self-concept and understanding of gender roles. Family provides early socialization experiences, shaping beliefs about gender roles and expectations. Education reinforces societal norms, and can perpetuate gender stereotypes through curricula and teaching practices. On its part, depending on its interpretation, religion may contribute to gender inequality by reinforcing traditional gender roles and expectations (Hernandez, 2020).

The media, as one of the most influential institutions in modern society, has a profound impact on how individuals perceive themselves and others. Media messages can shape attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours related to gender roles, perpetuating inequality and influencing self-esteem. In many instances, women are portrayed as inferior, submissive, and primarily valued for their appearance; while men are often depicted as dominant, strong, and successful (Lee & Martinez, 2018). The constant exposure to these gender-biased representations in the media can

influence individuals' self-concept and self-esteem, particularly among young people who are in the process of developing their identities. When women are consistently depicted in subordinate roles, it can lead to internalized beliefs about their own capabilities and worth; impacting their self-esteem negatively. Similarly, men who are exposed to media representations of hyper-masculinity may feel pressure to conform to unrealistic standards, affecting their self-esteem as well.

Additionally, media representations and societal norms can reinforce gender-specific roles and expectations, further shaping self-esteem. If girls are consistently exposed to media that portrays women as passive or limited to certain roles, it can contribute to a negative self-perception and reduced self-esteem. The impact of sociocultural pressures, particularly concerning body image, on students' self-esteem has been well-documented. Thompson and Rogers (2017) indicate that females, in particular, face significant body image concerns due to societal beauty standards perpetuated through media and peer comparisons. This constant comparison can lead to body dissatisfaction and low self-esteem among female students. Similarly, males may experience low self-esteem due to societal expectations related to muscularity and physical appearance (Cafri et al., 2016).

Academic performance is often linked to students' self-esteem. Studies by Johnson et al. (2020) and Lee and Martinez (2018) suggest that academic struggles and perceived academic incompetence can contribute to low self-esteem in both male and female students. The pressure to meet academic expectations, coupled with the fear of failure, can negatively impact students' self-perception and self-worth. Nyamhanga and Mtunde (2020) conducted research on the mental health of university students in Tanzania, including Dar es Salaam. Their findings revealed that low self-esteem was a common issue among students, particularly those facing academic and social pressures.

Furthermore, Bleidorn et al. (2015) revealed that men exhibited higher levels of self-esteem than women across all countries, and both genders showed age-graded increases from late adolescence to middle adulthood. In addition, gender differences in self-esteem seem to be based on the sociocultural emphasis on the physical appearance of women. Males and females who thought they were physically attractive reported higher self-esteem; though girls' attitudes towards their appearance became more negative during puberty (Habibollah et al., 2009; Pollastri et al., 2010; Tamini & Valibeygi, 2011; Cai et al., 2014). In a similar vein, Ingólfsdóttir (2017) discovered that girls who spend more time on social media have lower self-esteem than boys. A study by Hj and Nurafiqah (2010) discovered no significant gender differences in self-esteem among young Malaysian students. Similarly, Rosli et al. (2011) indicated no significant difference in self-esteem between male and female students. Moreover, a study by Sagaran (2017) revealed that there was no statistically significant relationship between gender and self-esteem. It was discovered that the degree of self-esteem was indifferent to gender.

Age and Self-esteem Among Students

Plenty of studies have identified age as a factor that determines the levels of self-esteem (Abdel-Khalek, 2017; Mauki & Marandu, 2020). Bandura's social learning theory (1977) emphasizes the influential role of socialization in shaping individuals' behaviours, attitudes, and self-concepts. During childhood and adolescence, students undergo a process of socialization that involves interactions with family, peers, teachers, and the media. Through these interactions, they internalize societal messages and expectations related to self-worth, competence, and identity.

In early childhood, the family serves as the primary agent of socialization. Parents' nurturing behaviours, support, and encouragement play a vital role in fostering children's self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1986). Studies by Leary and Baumeister (2000) have shown that children who receive positive feedback and praise from their parents tend to have higher self-esteem. As students transition into adolescence, peers become significant agents of socialization. Peer acceptance and social belongingness influence adolescents' self-esteem (Hernandez, 2020). Adolescents may compare themselves to their peers and internalize societal standards, impacting their self-perception. Peer rejection or bullying experiences can lead to lower self-esteem (Mauki & Marandu, 2020). During young adulthood, university environments and interactions with professors and peers can influence self-esteem. Crocker and Knight (2005) has shown that positive social interactions and a sense of belonging in the academic setting contribute to higher self-esteem among university students.

In a cross-sectional study by Johnson et al. (2017), participants from different age-groups—ranging from adolescence to early adulthood—were assessed for their self-esteem levels. The findings revealed that self-esteem tends to decrease during adolescence and early adulthood, with a subsequent increase observed in later stages of adulthood. This U-shaped pattern suggests that self-esteem undergoes fluctuations as individuals navigate through different life transitions. The socialization process plays a critical role in shaping individuals' self-esteem across various age-groups. During early childhood, parents, caregivers, and teachers act as primary agents of socialization, imparting societal values and norms onto children. As children internalize gender roles and societal expectations, their self-concept and self-esteem may be influenced. The social learning theory by Bandura (1986) proposes that individuals learn through observation and imitation, which includes learning about gender-appropriate behaviour. This theory is relevant to understanding how socialization impacts self-esteem, as children learn what is socially acceptable and valued in terms of self-worth.

In a longitudinal study, Davis et al. (2020) explored the role of family and peer socialization on self-esteem development from adolescence to early adulthood. The study found that positive family relationships and peer support during adolescence were associated with higher self-esteem in early adulthood. These findings

underscore the significance of positive socialization experiences in nurturing healthy self-esteem levels. Study findings obtained by Ogihara and Kusumi (2020) revealed that self-esteem was low in adolescence for both self-competence and self-liking, but increased throughout adulthood to old age. Similarly, Fernández and Castro (2003) found that there were variations in self-esteem based on age. Students between the ages of 19 and 24 showed lower self-esteem than those between the ages of 25 and 28.

Furthermore, a study by Orth et al. (2010) proclaimed that self-esteem levels were higher in childhood, decreased in adolescence, increased steadily during adulthood, before dropping dramatically in old age. In a similar vein, Bleidorn et al. (2016) revealed that the degree of self-esteem increases with age, from late adolescence to middle adulthood. In contrast to these findings, Tamini and Valibeygi (2011) revealed no significant differences in self-esteem and its dimensions concerning different age ranges.

Methodology

Description of the Study Area

The study was conducted in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. The selection of Dar es Salaam universities as the study area is justified due to the prevalence of psychological problems, including low self-esteem, reported among university students in this region (Mtenga et al., 2019; Kiage et al., 2018; Mwakanyamale & Yizhen, 2019; Dominic & Lanre, 2017; Seema & Henrica, 2018; Mwakibugi, 2019). Moreover, the region has many fully-fledged universities, accounting for nine fully-fledged universities compared to other regions in Tanzania (TCU, 2020). Furthermore, Dar es Salaam universities attract a diverse student population from various regions of Tanzania and beyond. Studying gender differences in self-esteem in this context allows for a broader representation of students with diverse cultural backgrounds, beliefs, and experiences; making the findings more applicable to a wider range of university settings. The aforementioned reasons were fertile factors that developed the researcher's interest in selecting the Dar es Salaam region as the study area. From the Dar es Salaam region, two universities were randomly selected as representatives of other universities: the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) and Ardhi University (ARU). The rationale was to fill the existing gap and understand which gender, and at what age, self-esteem tends to be low; which will assist in deciding when effective preventative measures are more essential and allow for prompt interventions and responses.

Research Design, Sampling Procedures and Sample Size

The study employed a quantitative research approach and a cross-sectional research design to achieve the intended specific objective. To ensure the representativeness of the population, the study employed a sample size of 379 respondents drawn from a total population of 28,778, calculated using the following Cochran's formula:

$$n = \frac{n0}{1 + (n0 - 1)/N}$$

Where;
$n = $ The sample size for a finite population
$n_0 = $ The constant sample size of 384 was calculated using Cochran's formula for infinite population
$N = $ Population size.

Therefore, for the population size of 28778, the sample size was calculated as follows:

$$n = \frac{384}{1 + (384 - 1)/28778} = 379$$

$$n = 379$$

The University of Dar es Salaam contributed 84.1% of the overall population, which equates to 319 respondents; 160 of whom were females, and 159 were males. The Ardhi University, on the other hand, contributed 15.9% of the overall population, or 60 respondents; with 30 females and 30 males. The sample size was distributed based on the proportion that each university contributes to the overall population.

The study used a structured questionnaire that was self-administered to respondents in the study areas. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, established by Morris Rosenberg in 1965, was adopted. Simple random sampling and stratified sampling techniques were used to sample universities and respondents. A simple random sample is a subset of a statistical population in which each member has an equal possibility of being chosen, and it intends to offer a fair and unbiased representation of a population (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Stratified sampling permitted the researchers to identify sub-groups within the population and create a sample that mirrored these sub-groups by randomly choosing subjects from each stratum. In this study, the population consisted of males and females in a specified proportion, and the researchers wanted to make sure the sample precisely reflected that proportion.

Data Analysis
Each set of questionnaires was pre-coded according to the number of respondents before administering them. The generated data were analysed both descriptively and inferentially with the assistance of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 24. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and cross-tabulation were used to determine the respondents' demographic characteristics and their levels of self-esteem. The scoring of the tests was as follows: SA = 3, A = 2, D = 1, and SD = 0. Items with an asterisk were reverse-scored, i.e., SA = 0, A = 1, D = 2, and SD = 3. The scale ranged from 1 to 4; the higher the score, the higher the self-esteem. The interpretation of the score was as follows: low self-esteem (1–2.5),

moderate self-esteem (2.6–3.5), and high self-esteem (3.6–4). An independent t-test was used to determine gender differences in self-esteem. As per Cronk (2018: 70) "… independent-samples t-test compares the means of two independent samples to obtain scores that are normally distributed." Also, according to Cronk (ibid: 78) a '…one-way ANOVA compares the means of two or more groups of participants that vary on a single independent variable." This study employed a one-way ANOVA to determine the age differences in self-esteem.

Results and Discussion
Respondents' Demographic Characteristics
This study involved undergraduate university students. The respondents' demographic information was gathered from students in both selected universities, i.e., the UDSM and ARU. The demographic information included age, gender, university name, marital status, and place of residence. The respondents' demographic information was essential since it assisted in mastering the population that participated in the study. Table 1 summarises the respondent's demographic characteristics.

Table 1: Respondent's Demographic Characteristics

Items		*Male*	*Female*	Total
		Gender		
Name of University	UDSM	159(49.8%)	160(50.2%)	319(100.0%)
	ARU	30(50.0%)	30(50.0%)	60(100.0%)
Place of residence	On campus	86(54.1%)	73(45.9%)	159(100.0%)
	Off campus	103(46.8%)	117(53.2%)	220(100.0%)
Marital status	Single	132(46.2%)	154(53.8%)	286(100.0%)
	Married	42(55.3%)	34(44.7%)	76(100.0%)
	Divorced/separated	15(88.2%)	2(11.8%)	17(100.0%)
Year of study	1st year	56(42.1%)	77(57.9%)	133(100.0%)
	2nd year	52(55.9%)	41(44.1%)	93(100.0%)
	3rd year	81(52.9%)	72(47.1%)	153(100.0%)
Age	20-23	71(34.3%)	136(65.7%)	207(100.0%)
	24-27	103(66.9%)	51(33.1%)	154(100.0%)
	28-31	15(83.3%)	3(16.7%)	18(100.0%)
Total		**189(49.9%)**	**190(50.1%)**	**379(100.0%)**

The data in Table 1 reveals an overall balanced gender distribution, with 49.9% male and 50.1% female participants among the total sample of 379 individuals. Looking at the participants' affiliation with different universities, the study encompassed 319 individuals from the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), and 60 individuals from the Ardhi University (ARU). Within the UDSM group, there were 159 male participants (49.8%), and 160 female participants (50.2%); highlighting near parity in gender representation. Similarly, the ARU group comprised 30 male participants (50.0%) and 30 female participants (50.0%), indicating a well-balanced gender distribution.

Regarding the participants' place of residence, the study categorized them into on-campus and off-campus residents. Out of the total 159 on-campus participants, 86 (54.1%) were male, and 73 (45.9%) were female. In contrast, among the 220 off-campus participants, there were 103 male participants (46.8%) and 117 female participants (53.2%). This reveals a slightly higher proportion of female participants residing off-campus compared to male participants. The observed differences in the place of residence between male and female participants may have various implications. Factors such as safety, convenience, and cost-effectiveness might influence students' decisions to reside on or off-campus. The university's proximity to off-campus housing options and the availability of affordable accommodations may influence female students' preference for living off-campus. Conversely, the presence of on-campus amenities, access to academic facilities, and a supportive community might contribute to a higher proportion of male students opting to stay on campus.

Marital status was another important demographic characteristic examined in the study. The study included three categories: single, married, and divorced/ separated. Among the total 286 single participants, 132 (46.2%) were male, and 154 (53.8%) were female. In the married category, there were 42 male participants (55.3%) and 34 female participants (44.7%); indicating a higher representation of males in this category. The smallest group (divorced/separated) consisted of 17 participants, with 15 males (88.2%) and 2 females (11.8%); suggesting a significant gender disparity in this specific category.

The analysis also explored the distribution of participants across different academic years. The participants' year of study was analysed across three stages: 1st year, 2nd year, and 3rd year. Among the 133 1st-year participants, 56 (42.1%) were male, and 77 (57.9%) were female. In the 2nd year, there were 52 male participants (55.9%) and 41 female participants (44.1%), out of the total of 93 participants. For the 3rd year, 81 male participants (52.9%) and 72 female participants (47.1%) were present among the total 153 participants, showcasing a relatively balanced representation of both genders across the academic years.

Regarding the age of participants, the study grouped them into three categories: 20–23, 24–27, and 28–31. Among the 207 participants aged 20–23, there were 71 males (34.3%), and 136 females (65.7%). In the 24–27 age-group, the gender distribution showed 103 male participants (66.9%), and 51 female participants (33.1%), out of the total of 154 participants. The smallest age-group, 28–31, had 18 participants, with 15 males (83.3%) and 3 females (16.7%); indicating a significantly higher proportion of males in this age category.

The study exhibited a balanced representation of male and female participants, while revealing certain categories with notable gender disparities. These findings underscore the importance of considering gender dynamics in research studies, and can guide future investigations for a more inclusive and equitable understanding of various phenomena.

Levels of Self-esteem Among Undergraduate University Students

Levels of self-esteem were measured using Rosenberg's self-esteem scale. Table 2 summarises the respondents' frequencies on the self-esteem scale per scale item.

Table 2: Respondents' Frequencies and Percentages on the Self-esteem Scale

	Self-esteem items	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	88	23.2	78	20.6	72	19	141	37.2
2	*At times I think I am no good at all	163	43	140	36.9	30	7.9	46	12.1
3	I feel that I have a number of good qualities	66	17.4	82	21.6	62	16.4	169	44.6
4	I am able to do things as well as most other people	69	18.2	63	16.6	106	28	141	37.2
5	*I feel I do not have much to be proud of	151	39.8	120	31.7	42	11.1	66	17.4
6	*I certainly feel useless at times	116	30.6	152	40.1	50	13.2	61	16.1
7	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others	66	17.4	95	25.1	104	27.4	114	30.1
8	*I wish I could have more respect for myself	165	43.5	107	28.2	60	15.8	47	12.4
9	*All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure	72	19.0	128	33.8	105	27.7	74	19.5
10	I take a positive attitude towards myself	86	22.7	70	18.5	110	29.0	113	29.8
	Total	**379**	**100.0**	**379**	**100.0**	**379**	**100.0**	**379**	**100.0**

Key * = An asterisk that has been reverse-scored

The results in Table 2 present two levels of feelings: positive and negative. As far as the positive feelings were concerned, 141 (37.2%) students were not satisfied with themselves; 169 (44.6%) claimed that they felt they did not have a number of good qualities; 141 (37.2%) responded that they could not do things as well as most other people; 114 (30.1%) felt that they were not people of worth and were not on an equal plane with others; and 113 (29.8%) responded that they had no positive attitude towards themselves. However, 163 (43.1%) thought they were not good at all; 151 (39.8%) thought they had nothing to be proud of; and 116 (30.6) said they felt useless at times. Some 165 (43.5%) students wished that they could have more respect for themselves; and 128 (33.8%) were inclined to feel that they were a group of failures.

To determine the level of self-esteem, frequencies were run for all 10 items of self-esteem. The scale ranged from 1 to 4. The interpretation of the score was as follows: scores between 1 and 2.5 are within low self-esteem, scores between 2.6 and 3.5 are within moderate self-esteem, and scores between 3.6 and 4 are within high self-esteem. Figure 1 presents the levels of self-esteem among the university students.
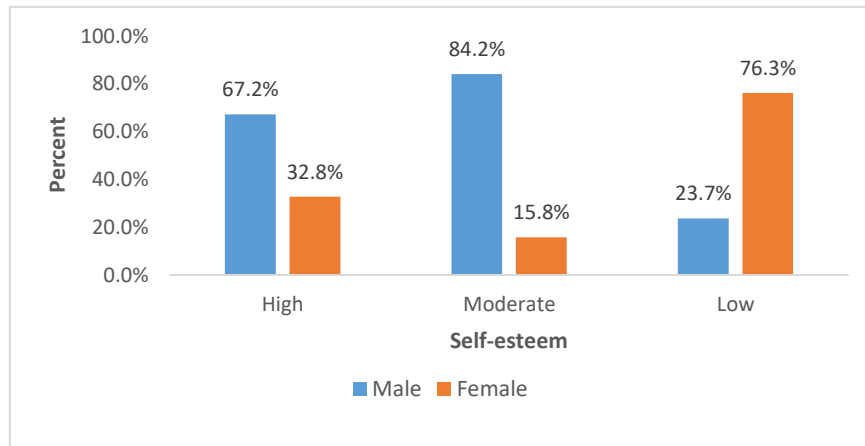
Figure 1: The Level of Self-esteem Among Undergraduate University Students

From the results in Figure 1, it is evident that a higher percentage of male students (67.2%) reported 'high' self-esteem, compared to only 32.8% of the female students. This indicates that a significant gender difference exists in terms of self-esteem levels, with male students being more likely to report higher levels of self-esteem than their female counterparts.

In the 'moderate' self-esteem category, 84.2% of the male students and 15.8% of the female students were represented. This finding further accentuates the pronounced gender difference, as the majority of male students reported moderate self-esteem, while a small proportion of female students fell into this category.

Conversely, in the 'low' self-esteem category, the data demonstrates a contrasting pattern. A higher proportion of female students, at 76.3%, reported experiencing low self-esteem; whereas only 23.7% of the male students were categorized into this group. This substantial difference in the distribution of low self-esteem levels indicates that female students are more susceptible to reporting lower self-esteem compared to male students.

These findings highlight the importance of addressing gender-specific factors that may influence self-esteem among university students. They underscores the need to address potential underlying factors contributing to gender disparities in self-esteem levels, and for targeted interventions and support systems to promote positive self-esteem among female students. The significant gender differences in self-esteem levels suggest that there might be underlying factors contributing to these variations, such as social norms, societal expectations, and gender roles. Understanding the factors influencing self-esteem differences between genders is essential for developing targeted interventions and support mechanisms to enhance students' psychological well-being and academic success.

These results are comparable to the findings of Maheswari and Maheswari (2016), which revealed that over half of respondents (52.5%) in their study had low self-esteem, whereas (47.5%) reported high self-esteem. In addition, they reported that low self-esteem was caused by poor socioeconomic conditions, place of residence, being the first graduate in the family, environmental factors, the lack of exposure and motivation, the lack of family support, and the use of alcohol (ibid.). In the same vein, Gidi et al. (2021) asserted that low self-esteem was connected with the lack of social support and poor subjective academic achievement. This result is consistent with the meta-analytic study by Twenge et al., which discovered that students with better socioeconomic status had higher self-esteem. Students with low self-esteem may have a lower desire to be considered competent in their training, whereas those with strong self-esteem may maintain a positive attitude and demonstrate perseverance despite failure (Ogihara & Kasumi, 2020).

Furthermore, Mustafa et al. (2015) revealed that most university students had a low level of self-esteem. Additionally, Mustafa et al. (ibid.) reported that self-esteem levels differed from one country to another; e.g., self-esteem among Albanian and Kosovar students seemed much lower than levels in other nations in the area. In that regard, it is argued that cultural variations can account for the disparities in self-esteem levels across different countries (Ogihara & Kasumi, 2020). The findings of the current study contradict those of the study by Ingólfsdóttir (2017), which investigated gender differences in self-esteem and the effects of parental support. As a sample, 209 university students were involved. The results revealed that a greater proportion of respondents had higher self-esteem. In a similar vein, Sagaran (2017) undertook a cross-sectional study on the relationship between Facebook usage and self-esteem among 100 management and science university students. The results revealed that 80 percent of the respondents had a moderate level of self-esteem. Meanwhile, 18% had high self-esteem, while 2% had low self-esteem.

Environmental factors, social support, economic factors, sociocultural factors, and personal traits may influence discrepancies in self-esteem levels among undergraduate students (Ogihara & Kasumi, 2020; Maheswari & Maheswari, 2016). Within that context, Hj and Nurafiqah (2010) found that all personality and social support variables correlated with self-esteem levels. Extraversion, openness to new experiences, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and the overall quantity of social support were found to predict self-esteem. In the same tone, Maheswari and Maheswari (2016) provided that low self-esteem was caused by poor socioeconomic conditions, place of residence, environmental factors, the lack of exposure and motivation, the lack of family support, and the use of alcohol. On that account, a study by Ogihara and Kasumi (2020) affirmed that the developmental pathway of self-esteem may differ across cultures.

Gender Differences in Self-esteem Among Undergraduate University Students
An independent sample t-test was used to determine the gender differences in the levels of the students' self-esteem. The data were drawn from the Rosenberg Self-

Esteem Scale . The interpretation of the score was a low level of self-esteem (1–2.5), a moderate level of self-esteem (2.6–3.5), and a high level of self-esteem (3.6–4). The mean scores of the self-esteem scale results were compared by gender. The interpretation of the data was that the higher the mean score, the higher the self-esteem; and the lower the mean score, the lower the self-esteem. The data in Table 3 show the results.

Table 3: The mean score for gender differences in self-esteem

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Self-esteem scores	Male	189	2.4799	.58747	.04273
	Female	190	1.8742	.62082	.04504

The findings in Table 3 reveal that self-esteem differed significantly by gender among respondents. Male students had higher mean scores for self-esteem (*M* = 2.4799, *SD*= .58747) than female students (*M* = 1.8742, *SD*= .62082).

To determine whether the gender differences in self-esteem were statistically significant, an independent sample t-test was performed. The results are as in Table 4.

Table 4: Independent Samples t-test on Gender Differences Among Respondents' Self-esteem

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		T	*Df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	*Upper*
Self-esteem levels	Equal variances assumed	9.754	377	.000	.60568	.06209	.48359	.72778
	Equal variances not assumed	9.756	376.065	.000	.60568	.06209	.48361	.72776

Table 4 demonstrates that there were statistically significant gender differences in self-esteem levels among the respondents, with *t* (377) = 9.754, *p* =. 001. These findings imply that male undergraduate university students had higher self-esteem than their female counterparts. In addition, the results affirm that gender is among the significant demographic characteristics that determine levels of self-esteem.

These findings are in accordance with the results in the study by Dakota et al. (2020), who reported that male students had higher self-esteem than female students. In another survey, Malik and Saida (2013) revealed that gender impacted the development, expression, and demonstration of self-esteem; and that there were statistically significant gender differences in self-esteem among university students, with male students exhibiting a higher level of self-esteem than female students.

In another study, Wen (2011) revealed a significant difference in self-esteem between male and female students, with men reporting higher self-esteem than females. In addition, the study offered an intriguing finding: that students from two-parent families reported having higher self-esteem than students from single-parent families. These results suggest that having two intact parents is associated with greater self-esteem due to parental support from both parents; while being raised in a single-parent home is associated with lower self-esteem because of the lack of one parent's support.

Furthermore, Naderi et al. (2009) proclaimed that gender had the most powerful and unique impact on students' self-esteem, and the results revealed that there was a significant gender difference in self-esteem; and that female had higher self-esteem than males. In the same vein, Hasan and Tiwari's (2018) findings revealed that self-esteem differed significantly by gender, with females having higher self-esteem than their male counterparts.

In contrast to the findings of the current study, previous research has found no significant difference in self-esteem between male and female university students. For instance, Hj and Nurafiqah (2010) found no statistically significant differences between gender and self-esteem. It was also shown that personality characteristics—such as extraversion, openness, emotional stability, and conscientiousness—were correlated with high levels of self-esteem. Having more friends and being satisfied with social support were related to higher levels of self-esteem. Similarly, Rosli (2012) indicated no significant difference in self-esteem between males and females. In the same vein, Sagaran (2017) revealed that there was no statistically significant relationship between gender and self-esteem: that self-esteem levels did not differ between genders.

Persisting gender differences in self-esteem has sparked much debate regarding the underlying causes of these tendencies. Cultural inequalities in socioeconomic, socio-demographic, gender equality, ecological factors, and biological, cognitive, and cultural value indicators may account for this difference; and affect the way females and males perceive their self-worth (Bleidorn et al., 2015; Kearney-Cooke, 1999; Gaurav & Abhishek, 2014). In this regard, Bleidorn et al. (2015) stressed that gender differences in self-esteem were based on the sociocultural emphasis on the physical appearance of females. Males and females who thought they were physically attractive reported higher self-esteem, though females' attitudes towards their appearance became more negative during puberty, which increased the risk of them developing low self-esteem.

There are numerous reasons for this to happen in Tanzania. The significant differences between males and females in self-esteem can be attributed to the unequal opportunities that males and females have; which restrict females from reaching their personal goals, developing their talents, working on their physical appearances, and so on. This results in different behaviours, experiences, and attitudes towards oneself and the world (Dominic & Lanre, 2017; Seema & Henrica, 2018). A study conducted in Tanzania by

Mwakanyamale and Yizhen (2019) found that childhood psychological abuse is common; and is connected with psychological distress and low self-esteem throughout adolescence, particularly among females. According to Nhandi (2017), the birth order of siblings, as well as social and familial relationships, influence students' self-esteem, and school and university social lives. Students' self-esteem growth was significant when it was related to their social upbringing during childhood. In this regard, parents, schools, and the general social surroundings should not be overlooked when growing adolescents with strong self-esteem.

Gender role expectations may impact the development of male and female specific abilities to discover multiple sources of self-esteem. Males and females hold different self-esteem evaluation criteria (Gaurav & Abhishek, 2014). Women are happier when they excel in emotional, personal, and domestic spheres; whereas men are more contented when they excel in business, work, and social interactions. In Tanzania, a girl who cannot perform well, is untalented, or lacks particular social skills is also unaccepted. In this society, a woman is expected to provide emotional care for her husband and children, to be skilled in domestic spheres, and to be humble and modest: only then can she be respected and valued (Seema & Henrica, 2018). If a woman lacks these attributes and is criticised by society, she is more likely to develop low self-esteem.

Women are also vulnerable to social comparison, whereby their emotional and social competence, physical strength, financial decision-making, and various other aspects are compared to males, where they trail a little bit. This comparison is performed not only by male family members but also by female family members. Slowly but steadily, most young women begin accepting it, even if they protest; and when they are raising daughters or little sisters, they make the same comparison. This collective societal stigma that women share leads them to assume that they are truly lagging behind males. And, notwithstanding their loud declarations of equality, they are continually 'catching up' with males (Bleidorn et al., 2016).

Persistent threats to personal security have also been linked to poor self-esteem in women. Young females do not feel secure. The current parabolic rise in kidnapping, rape, and killing of women have heightened this terrible feeling of terror in the hearts of women (Gaurav & Abhishek 2014; Kumar, 1993). Since ancient times, women have been victims of sexual violence and rape. During the colonial partition, about 100,000 women were kidnapped and raped (Butalia, Dobhal, 2011); and there have been similar instances worldwide. Several direct and indirect sexual assaults on women are widespread in every society, but as long as the law punishes them, women can feel generally protected (Gaurav & Abhishek 2014). However, this has been changed. Women nowadays are always worried about their safety and dignity. Often, society denies them this sense of security; and instead asks them to keep within their 'limits' if they are to avoid this. Even family members are considered powerless, and do everything they can to deny their daughters and young women the right to independence and security. In doing so, they compound women's anxieties and insecurities, increasing their likelihood of developing low self-esteem.

Gender Differences in Self-Esteem Across University Years
The study also aimed to investigate gender variations in self-esteem among university students, and identify which gender experienced lower self-esteem in specific academic years. Figure 2 provides a comprehensive overview of the results.
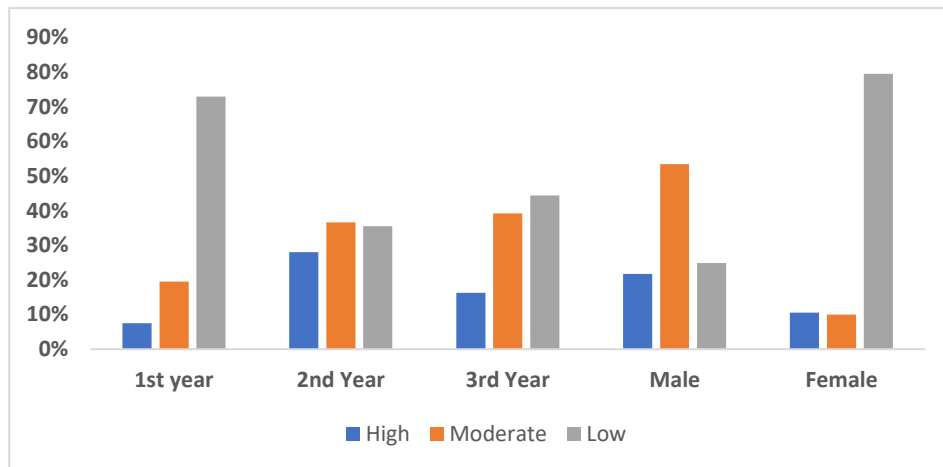

Figure 2: Gender Differences in Self-Esteem across University Years

The findings in Figure 2 indicate differences in self-esteem levels based on the year of study and gender among university students. The study results revealed that self-esteem levels vary significantly across different years of study; and between male and female students. Regarding self-esteem differences based on the year of study, the highest percentage of students with 'low' self-esteem is found in the 1st year of study, comprising 73% of the students in this category.

In the 2nd year, the distribution of self-esteem levels shows a more balanced pattern, with 36% of students reporting 'low' self-esteem. This indicates that as students' progress into their second year of study, they may experience an improvement in self-esteem compared to the 1st year, but a considerable portion still faces challenges in this aspect. In the 3rd year, the percentage of students with 'low' self-esteem remains relatively high at 44%. This finding suggests that even in the later stages of their university journey, some students continue to struggle with maintaining healthy levels of self-esteem.

Examining the gender differences in self-esteem within each year of study, we observe that male students generally report higher levels of self-esteem compared to their female counterparts in all three years. For instance, in the 1st year, 22% of male students report 'low' self-esteem, whereas 79% of female students fall into this category. This indicates a significant gender difference in self-esteem during the initial year of study, with a higher proportion of female students experiencing low self-esteem.

In the 2nd year, the gender difference in self-esteem persists, with 25% of male students reporting 'low' self-esteem, compared to 79% of female students. Similarly, in the 3rd year, 25% of male students have 'low' self-esteem, while 79% of female students are in this category. These findings suggest a consistent pattern of gender differences in self-esteem throughout the university journey, with female students experiencing lower self-esteem levels compared to male students. These findings are consistent with previous research conducted by Smith et al. (2017), who reported that university students experience higher levels of stress and anxiety during their initial year of study, leading to a decline in self-esteem. For instance, a longitudinal study by Anderson et al. (2018) found that students in their 1st year of university reported increased stress and feelings of inadequacy compared to their final year counterparts. This increase in stress was associated with a decrease in self-esteem over time.

Contrary to the 1st year, the 2nd year shows a more balanced distribution of self-esteem levels, with a lower percentage of students reporting 'low' self-esteem compared to the 1st year. This finding aligns with a longitudinal study by Johnson and colleagues (2018), which found that as students become more accustomed to the university environment and establish social networks, they experience an improvement in their self-esteem levels. The support systems and coping mechanisms developed during the 1st year may contribute to this positive change in self-esteem during the 2nd year.

However, the 3rd year of study presents a notable challenge, with 44% of students reporting 'low' self-esteem. This result is in contrast to the findings of a study by Martin et al. (2019), which reported a steady increase in self-esteem levels over the university years. The discrepancy in findings may be attributed to differences in the study samples or cultural contexts. The 3rd year of study often comes with increased academic demands and the pressure to make important career decisions, leading to higher stress levels and potential impacts on self-esteem.

Regarding gender differences in self-esteem, the data consistently shows that male students report higher self-esteem levels compared to female students across all three years of study. This finding aligns with various studies conducted in different cultural contexts (Rahmani & Hosseinian, 2020; Chen et al., 2018), which indicate that gender disparities in self-esteem are a common phenomenon. One possible explanation for this difference is the influence of societal gender norms and expectations, where males are often encouraged to display more assertive and confident behaviours; while females are expected to conform to traditional gender roles, which can affect their self-esteem. Additionally, a cross-sectional study by Lopez and colleagues (2019) explored gender differences in self-esteem among university students and found that male students reported higher levels of self-esteem related to academic and social domains compared to female students. The researchers attributed these differences to societal gender norms and expectations, which may influence how individuals perceive and evaluate their own self-worth.

Age Differences in Self-esteem Among Undergraduate University Students
A one-way ANOVA group analysis of variance was used to determine the age differences in levels of self-esteem, as measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale . Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics scores for each age-group.

Table 5: Respondents' Self-esteem Scores Based on Age

Age-group (years)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min.	Max.
					Lower Bound	*Upper Bound*		
20–23	207	1.8623	.52587	.03655	1.7903	1.9344	1.10	3.70
24–27	154	2.4987	.63903	.05149	2.3970	2.6004	1.20	3.80
28–31	18	3.0278	.45865	.10810	2.7997	3.2559	2.20	3.50
Total	**379**	**2.1763**	**.67551**	**.03470**	**2.1080**	**2.2445**	**1.10**	**3.80**

The descriptive results in Table 5 show that students aged 20–23 had lower mean scores ($M = 1.8623$, $SD = .52587$) than students aged 24–27 ($M = 2.4987$, $SD = .63903$); whereas students aged 28–31 had higher mean scores ($M = 3.0278$, $SD = .45865$) than the other remaining groups. An ANOVA test was then run to detect whether there were any statistically significant differences in the respondents' levels of self-esteem based on their ages. Table 6 summarises the results.

Table 6: A One-way ANOVA Test on Age Differences Among Respondents' Self-esteem

	Sum of Squares	*Df*	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	49.464	2	24.732	75.591	.000
Within Groups	123.022	376	.327		
Total	**172.486**	**378**			

The results in Table 6 reveal that there were statistically significant differences in the overall score of self-esteem for the three age-groups. The data provide statistically significant evidence that mean levels of self-esteem are not the same for all age-groups; with $df = 2$, F = 75.591, and $p = .001$.

The one-way ANOVA test presented in Table 6 serves to ascertain whether there are statistically significant differences among groups. To determine whether there were significant differences in levels of self-esteem among age-groups, it was imperative to conduct the Tukey Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test. This statistical analysis involved a pairwise comparison of each age-group to ascertain the significance of their differences. The findings of the Tukey HSD test are succinctly presented in Table 7.

The findings in Table 7 reveal that there are statistically significant age differences in levels of self-esteem, and each age-group differed significantly from the other, with a $p < 0.5$ in every pair of comparisons. These results imply that students aged

Table 7: Tukey HSD for Age Differences in Self-esteem Among Respondents

(I) Age-group	(J) Age-group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	*Upper Bound*
20–23	24–27	-.63638*	.06087	.000	-.7796	-.4932
	28–31	-1.16546*	.14056	.000	-1.4962	-.8347
24–27	20–23	.63638*	.06087	.000	.4932	.7796
	28–31	-.52908*	.14248	.001	-.8643	-.1938
28–31	20–23	1.16546*	.14056	.000	.8347	1.4962
	24–27	.52908*	.14248	.001	.1938	.8643

Note: *. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

20–23 had lower self-esteem compared with the remaining two groups, whereas students aged 24–27 had lower self-esteem compared to students aged 28–31. This can be explained by the fact that students aged 28–31 had reasonably higher self-esteem than the other two remaining groups. These results show that self-esteem is low among students aged 20–24, but then it continues to increase as age increases. The results of this study indicate that age can be a significant factor that determines the level of self-esteem among university students.

The findings of the current study are analogous to those obtained by Ogihara and Kusumi (2020), who investigated age disparities in global self-esteem in Japan from adolescence to old age. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was used to assess self-esteem in a sample of (N = 6,113). The findings revealed that self-esteem was low in adolescence for both self-competence and self-liking, but increased throughout adulthood to old age. In a similar vein, Fernández and Castro (2003) discovered that students between ages 19 –24 showed lower self-esteem than those between ages 25–28.

Furthermore, a study by Orth et al. (2010) indicated that self-esteem levels were higher in childhood, decreased in adolescence, and increased steadily during adulthood before they dramatically dropped in old age. In a similar vein, Bleidorn et al. (2016) conducted a study across 48 nations to investigate cross-cultural differences in gender and age in self-esteem. A large internet sample was used in this investigation (N = 985,937). The results revealed that the degree of self-esteem increases with age: from late adolescence to middle adulthood.

Previous studies have claimed that the explanation for the fall in self-esteem after middle age in Europe and the United States is that older individuals come to accept their shortcomings and flaws, resulting in a more honest, modest, and balanced perception of themselves (Ogihara & Kusumi, 2020; Robins et al., 2002), although evidence indicates that the developmental pathway of self-esteem may differ between cultures (Bleidorn et al., 2016). This might explain the drop in self-esteem among the young adults in this study. Other elements that may cause low self-esteem among early adults are cultural practices, including the seniority system

and the culture of age-respect. In Tanzania, elders are more respected just because of their age, and the society believes that they deserve to be acknowledged as individuals with wisdom and significant authority compared to the youth; in this regard, this promotes a sense of self-worth among elders.

Studies have provided the reasons for low self-esteem among adolescents and young adults. Some of the reasons have been associated with the challenges of adolescence, which are generally characterised by substantial and often unpleasant changes in a young person's life. During this period, both boys and girls experience several challenges and issues. Failure to handle these challenges may result in low self-esteem. It is critical that their self-esteem be at its peak to face the challenges of adolescence (Mitra, 2019). Low self-esteem has also been linked to university life experience. Various experiences, such as academic performance, teachers' attitudes, cultural beliefs, personality traits, the transition from secondary to university level, socioeconomic factors, family, peer attachment (Hj & Nurafiqah, 2010; Bultler, 1998), rejection or appreciation from the opposite gender, gender role expectations, social comparison, popularity, or friendship with people of the opposite gender: all these play a significant role in the growth of self-esteem.

According to Lynch's (2019) research, the feedback students received, particularly from their lecturers, has a significant role in developing their self-esteem. A negative and unproductive feedback can really be extremely unpleasant for students, resulting in poor self-esteem; whereas good feedback leads to high self-esteem. What young people hear about themselves and their skills has a major impact on their thought processes and sense of self-worth. Young adulthood is a period of freedom, independence, and rapid growth; along with physical and psychological adjustments and advancements. Young adults face numerous challenges during this period, including peer pressure, academic challenges, sexual frustration, mood swings, the development of sexual feelings, physical confrontations, emotional vulnerability, mental problems, a unique need to identify themselves, and various other issues that may affect their self-esteem. To remain healthy, these major changes and new emotions need a lot of support from families. Young people are more likely to develop poor self-esteem if they lack assistance.

In contrast to the current study, Tamini and Valibeygi (2011) investigated 'the impact of gender, age, and academic branch on self-esteem and its dimensions among students. This study's sample size was 206 university students (101 females and 105 males) drawn at random from the Sistan and Baluchestan Universities. The findings revealed no significant age differences in self-esteem and its dimensions. This discrepancy can be explained by social-cultural differences, social-economical differences, and methodological differences (Aljandali, 2019).

Conclusion

In Tanzania, there are clear differences in the lives of men and women of all ages. Although Tanzania's society is made up of both men and women, each gender has its own unique set of psychological characteristics. The findings of the current

investigation show that the majority (52.2%) of undergraduate university students had reasonably low self-esteem. Furthermore, the study results affirm that gender and age are among the significant demographic characteristics that determine the levels of self-esteem, and that male and female undergraduate university students differ in their self-esteem. Male undergraduate university students had a higher level of self-esteem than their female counterparts.

This study provides valuable insights into the self-esteem levels of university students based on their year of study and gender. The findings reveal that self-esteem varies significantly across different academic years, with the 1st year showing the highest proportion of students experiencing 'low' self-esteem. As students' progress into their 2nd year, there is a notable improvement in self-esteem. However, even in the 3rd year, students still face challenges in maintaining healthy self-esteem levels. The study also highlights pronounced gender differences in self-esteem among university students. Female students consistently report lower self-esteem levels compared to male students across all three years of study. The gender difference is particularly significant in the 1st year, with a vast majority of female students experiencing 'low' self-esteem compared to male students.

Additionally, significant age differences in levels of self-esteem were found, and each age-group differed significantly from the others, with a $p<0.5$ in every pair of comparisons. These results imply that students aged 20–23 had lower self-esteem compared with the remaining two groups; whereas students aged 24–27 had lower self-esteem compared to students aged 28–31. This can be explained by the fact that students aged 28–31 had reasonably higher self-esteem than the other two remaining groups. These results show that self-esteem is low among students aged 20–24, but then it continues to increase as age increases.

Recommendations
Universities can take proactive steps to promote self-esteem and confidence among all students, regardless of their gender, by implementing gender-inclusive programs. For example, organizing workshops or seminars that focus on self-awareness, self-acceptance, and self-empowerment can empower students to develop positive self-images. Moreover, universities can establish mentorship programs that connect students with positive role models from diverse backgrounds. For instance, pairing students with mentors who have experienced and overcome similar gender-specific challenges can provide valuable guidance and support, boosting their self-esteem.

To foster a more inclusive and respectful campus community, universities can actively address and challenge gender stereotypes and biases. Conducting awareness campaigns, workshops, and training sessions can promote equitable interactions among students. Additionally, creating safe spaces on campus, where students feel comfortable discussing their experiences and concerns related to self-esteem and gender, can provide a sense of belonging and emotional support.

Moreover, reviewing and revising the curriculum to include diverse perspectives and representation of gender roles and identities can challenge traditional norms and promote a more inclusive learning environment. By offering supportive counselling services that address gender-related issues, universities can further assist students dealing with self-esteem challenges. Trained counsellors can provide personalized support and guidance tailored to individual needs.

Incorporating a gender training program during the first-year orientation is a proactive and effective measure to address the reported low self-esteem among female students. The first year of university life can be overwhelming for students as they navigate new academic and social challenges, and this training program can be designed to specifically address gender-related issues that may impact self-esteem. Lastly, implementing and enforcing gender-equal policies within the university is crucial in creating a fair and inclusive environment. This may involve ensuring equal opportunities for leadership roles, providing academic support to all students, and promptly addressing any incidents of gender-based discrimination that may undermine students' self-esteem. By adopting these recommendations, universities can play an instrumental role in nurturing a positive and supportive environment, fostering healthy self-esteem, and empowering all students to thrive academically and personally.

References

Abdel-Khalek, A. M. (2017). *Introduction to the Psychology of Self-esteem.* Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Aljandali, A. M. (2016). *Quantitative Analysis and IBM SPSS Statistics: A Guide for Business and Finance*. Springer International Publishing.

Arshad, M., Zaidi, S. M. I. H. & Mahmood, K. (2015). Self-esteem, Academic Performance Among University Students. *Journal of Educational Practice,* 6: 156–162.

Aydin, B. & Sari, S. (2011). Internet Addiction Among Adolescents: The Role of Self-esteem. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences,* 15: 3500–3505.

Azizi, S. M., Soroush, A. & Khatony, A. (2019). The Relationship Between Social Networking Addiction and Academic Performance in Iranian Students of Medical Sciences: A Cross-Sectional Study. *BMC Psychology*, 7(28): 2–8.

Baron, R. A. & Branscombe, N. R. (2012). *Social psychology*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.

Butler, R. (1998). Age Trends in the Use of Social and Temporal Comparison for Self-Evaluation: Examination of a Novel Developmental Hypothesis. *Child Development,* 69(4): 1054–1073.

Bleidorn, W., Arslan, R. C., Denissen, J. J., Rentfrow, P. J., Gebauer, J. E., Potter, J. & Gosling, S. D. (2016). Age and Gender Differences in the Self-esteem: A Cross-Cultural Window. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 111(3): 396–410.

Cai, H., Wu, M., Luo, Y. L., & Yang, J. (2014). Implicit Self-esteem Decreases in Adolescence: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Plos One*, 9(2): E89988.

Creswell, J. W. & Creswell, J. D. (2018*). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approach.* SAGE Publications, Inc.

Cronk, B. C. (2018). *How to Use SPSS®: A Step-By-Step Guide to Analysis and Interpretation*. Cross, S. E., Madson, L. (1997). Models of the Self: Self-Construals and Gender. *Psychological Bulletin,* 122(1): 5–37.

Damota, M. D., Ibrahim, E. H., Woldemariam, H. H. & Kifle, G. T. (2020). The Relationship Between Self-esteem and Academic Achievement Among Addis Ababa University Undergraduate Psychology Students. *Journal of Education and Practice,* 10(4): 26–33.

Dominic, A. & Lanre, A. (2017). Factors of Gender Inequality and Development Among Selected Low Human Development Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science.* 22. 01–07. 10.9790/0837–2202040107.

Erol, R. Y., Orth, U. (2011). Self-esteem Development from Age 14 to 30 Years: A Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 101(3): 607–619.

Ferradás, M., Freire, C., Núñez, J. C. & Regueiro, B. (2020). The Relationship Between Self-esteem and Achievement Goals in University Students: The Mediating and Moderating Role of Defensive Pessimism. *Sustainability,* 12(7531): 1–14.

Fernández, M. L. & Castro, Y. R. (2003). Age and Gender Differences in Self-esteem Among Spanish Adolescents. *Psychological Reports,* 93(3): 876–878.

Gaurav, A. & Abhishek, B. (2014). Gender Differences in Self-esteem Among College Students: A Comparative Study. *International Scientific Yoga Journal SENSE,* 4: 94–100.

Gallagher, S. M, (2017). The *Influence of Social Media on Teens' Self-esteem. Theses,* Department of Psychology, College of Science and Mathematics at Rowan University. 2438.

Gidi, N., Horesa, A., Jarso, H., Tesfaye, W., Tucho, G. T., Abera, M. & Abafita, J. (2021). Prevalence of Low Self-esteem and Mental Distress among Undergraduate Medical Students in Jimma University: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Sciences,* 31. 573–580.

Guven, A. (2019). *Relationship Between Social Media Use, Self-esteem and Satisfaction with Life.* Doctorate thesis, Department of Educational Studies in Psychology, Research Methodology and Counselling in the Graduate School, University of Alabama.

Habibollah, N., Rohani, A., Aizan, H. T., Jamaluddin, S. & Kumar, V. (2009). Self-esteem, Gender and Academic Achievement of Undergraduate Students. *American Journal of Scientific Research,* (3): 26–37.

Hasani, S. & Tiwali, P. S. N. (2018). A Study Between Social Media Usage and Self-esteem Among Youths. *Electronic Research Journal of Behavioural Sciences,* 1: 17–25.

Hj, T. & Nurafiqah, R. (2010). Self-esteem Amongst Young Adults: The Effect of Gender, Social Support and Personality. The *Malaysian Journal of Psychiatry,* 19: 7–10.

Ikachoi, D., Mberia, H. K. & Ndati, N. (2015). Self-esteem as a Mediator Between Social Media and Communication Skills: a Case Study of Undergraduate Students at St. Augustine University of Tanzania, Mwanza Campus. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications,* 5(8): 1–7.

Ingólfsdóttir, H. R. (2017). The Relationship Between Social Media Use and Self-esteem: Gender Difference and the Effects of Parental Support.

Joshua, J. M. (2014). Psychosocial Correlates of Academic Performance Among Primary School Pupils with and Without Hearing Impairment. *Journal of the Open University of Tanzania*, 17: 50–70.

Kearney-Cooke A. (1999). Gender Differences and Self-esteem. *Journal of Gender-Specific Medicine: The Official Journal of the Partnership for Women's Health at Columbia*, 2(3): 46–52.

Liu, Q. Q., Zhou, Z. K., Yang, X. J., Niu, G. F., Tian, Y. & Fan, C. Y. (2017). Upward Social Comparison on Social Network Sites and Depressive Symptoms: A Moderated Mediation Model of Self-esteem and Optimism. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 113: 223–228.

Lukwekwe, S. (2015) *Factors Affecting Students' Performance in 0pen and Distance Learning: A Case Study of Kinondoni Regional Centre.* Master thesis, Open University of Tanzania.

Lynch, M. (2019). How to Raise Your Students' Self-esteem. Retrieved at https://www. How to Raise Your Student' s Self-esteem - the Edvocate (theedadvocate.org).

Maheswari, R. & Maheswari, K. (2016). A Study on Self-esteem Among College Students. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS): (*21*)*10: 8–10.

Malik, S. & Saida. (2013). Gender Differences in Self-esteem and Happiness Among University Students. *International Journal of Development and Sustainability,* 2(1): 445–454.

Mauki, C. M. & Marandu, D. (2019). The Effect of Age and Sex on Self-esteem Among Adolescent Students in Secondary Schools in Tanzania, 37(2): 69–89.

Maslow, A. H. (1987). *Motivation and Personality (Third Ed.).* New York: Harper & Row. Mitra, S. (2019). Gender Differences and Self-esteem. *International Journal of Indian Psychology,* 7(4): 574–578. https://doi:10.25215/0704.066.

Moyano, N., Quílez-Robres, A. & Cortés Pascual, A. (2020). Self-esteem and Motivation for Learning in Academic Achievement: The Mediating Role of Reasoning and Verbal Fluidity. *Sustainability*, 12(14): 1–14. https://doi:10.3390/su12145768..

Mustafa, S., Melonashi, E., Shkembi, F., Besimi, K. & Fanaj, N. (2015). Anxiety and Self-esteem Among University Students: Comparison Between Albania and Kosovo. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences,* 205: 189–194.

Mwakanyamale, A. A. & Yizhen, Y. (2019). Psychological Maltreatment and Its Relationship with Self-esteem and Psychological Stress Among Adolescents in Tanzania: A Community Based, Cross-Sectional Study. *BMC Psychiatry,* 19(1): 176.

Naderi, H., Abdullah, R., Aizan, H. T., Sharir, J. & Kumar, V. (2009). Self-esteem, Gender and Academic Achievement of Undergraduate Students. *American Journal of Scientific Research*, 3(1): 26–37.

Namara, G. J. (2018) *Policies and Practices of Gender Equity in Higher Education in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.* [Master Dissertation], University of Dar es Salaam.

Nupur, C. & Mahapatro, M. (2016). Gender Differences in Self Esteem Among Young Adults of Raipur, Uttarpradesh, India. *Austin J Womens Health,* 3(1): 10–18.

Ogihara, Y. & Kusumi, T. (2020). The Developmental Trajectory of Self-esteem Across the Life Span in Japan: Age Differences in Scores on the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale from Adolescence to Old Age. *Frontiers in Public Health,* 8(132): 1–18. https://www. DOI:10. 3389/fpubh.2020.00132..

Olsen, J. M., Breckler, S. J. & Wiggins, E. C. (2008). *Social Psychology Alive (First Canadianed.).* Toronto: Thomson Nelson.

Orth, U., Trzesniewski, K. H. & Robins, R. W. (2010). Self-esteem Development from Young Adulthood to Old Age: A Cohort-Sequential Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 98: 645–658.

Paudel, S. (2020). Factors Associated with Self-esteem Among Undergraduate Students of Pokhara Metropolitan, Nepal: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Europasian Journal of Medical Sciences*, 2(2): 43–50. https://doi.org/10.46405/ejms.v2i2.189..

Pollastri, A. R., Cardemil, E.V. & O'Donell, E. H. (2010). Self-esteem in Pure Bullies and Bully/Victims: A Longitudinal Analysis. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence,* 25(8): 1489–1502. https://doi: 10.1177/0886260509354579.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the Adolescent Self-image*. Princeton University Press.

Rosli, Y., Othman, H., Ishak, I., Lubis, S. H., Mohd, N. Z. & Omar, B. (2012). Self-esteem and Academic Performance Relationship Amongst the Second-Year Undergraduate Students of Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur Campus. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 60: 582–589.

Sagaran, J. B. (2017). The *relationship Between Facebook Usage and Self-esteem Among Management and Science University (MSU) Students.* Masters thesis, School of Education and Social Sciences, Management and Science University.

Seema, V. & Henrica, J. (2018). Unequal Power Relations and Partner Violence Against Women in Tanzania: a Cross-Sectional Analysis. *BMC Women's Health.* 18. https://doi:10.1186/s12905–018–0675–0.

Sharma, S. & Agarwala, S. (2015). Self-esteem and Collective Self-esteem Among Adolescents: an Interventional Approach. *Psychological Thought*, 8: 105–113. 10.5964/Psyct. V8i1.121.

Tamini, B. K. & Valibeygi, R. (2011). The Impact of Gender, Age and Academic Branch on Self-esteem of Students. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research,* 1(9)1065–1069.

TCU. (2020). *List of Approved University Institutions in Tanzania as of 31st January 2020.* TCU.

Twenge, J. M, Campbell, W. K. (2002). Self-esteem and Socioeconomic Status: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review,* 6: 59–7.