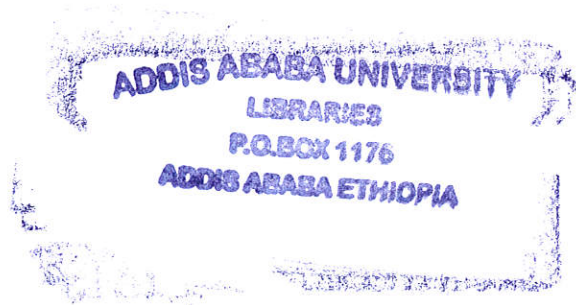


**STUDENTS AND TEACHERS' CAUSAL ATTRIBUTION OF
PROBLEM BEHAVIORS IN BAHIR DAR
GENERAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

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

BY: ASNAKEW TAGELE



June 2005

**STUDENTS AND TEACHERS' CAUSAL ATTRIBUTION OF
PROBLEM BEHAVIORS IN BAHIR DAR
GENERAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

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



BY: ASNAKEW TAGELE

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Art in Educational Psychology**

June 2005

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRAGUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

STUDENTS' AND TEACHERS' CAUSAL ATTRIBUTION OF
PROBLEM BEHAVIORS IN BAHIR DAR
GENERAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

BY: ASNAKEW TAGELE

Approval of Board Examiners

Camiruie Andualem

Chairperson, Department
Graduate Committee

Dargc Wole

Advisor (Name)

Ayele Meshesha

Internal Examiner

Tsife Gebremeskel

External Examiner

[Signature]

Signature

[Signature]

Signature

[Signature]

Signature

[Signature]

Signature

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my gratitude to my advisor, Professor Darge Wole, for his constructive comments and suggestions. I am grateful and appreciative of his considerateness.

My sincere thank also goes to Ato Tamire Andualem (assistant professor) and Ato Abebaw Minaye for their unreserved help throughout the research process.

List of Tables

Table1: The Prevalence of Smoking and Khat Chewing.....	35
Table2: Students and Teachers in the Three Schools and the Respective Samples.....	50
Table3: Means and Rankings of Importance Attributed to by Students and Teachers.....	55
Table4: Multivariate Tests for the Effect of Sex on Students' Attribution of Problem Behaviors.....	56
Table5: Multivariate Tests for the Difference between the Judgments of Students and Teachers for Their Attributions of Problem Behaviors.....	57
Table6: Test of Between-Group Effect for Risky Sexual Behavior.....	57
Table7: Test of Between-Groups Effect for Aggression.....	58
Table8: Test of Between-Group Effect for Substance abuse.....	59
Table9: Summary of the Repeated Measures ANOVA for the Students' Attributions.....	60
Table10: Summary of the Repeated Measures ANOVA for the Teachers' Attributions.....	63

Table of Contents

Pages

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	i
LIST OF TABLES.....	ii
CHAPTER ONE	
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Background of the Study.....	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem.....	7
1.3. Purpose of the Study.....	7
1.4. Significance of the Study.....	8
1.5. Definition of Terms.....	10
CHAPTER TWO	
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	12
2.1. An Overview of the Attribution Theory.....	12
2.1.1 Attributional Dimensions.....	15
2.1.2 Attributional Biases.....	16
2.1.3 Gender and Attribution.....	20
2.2. Problem Behavior and Its Development.....	21
2.2.1 Risky Sexual Behavior.....	25
2.2.1.1 The Prevalence of Risky Sexual Behavior.....	26
2.2.1.2 Factors Related to Risky Sexual Behavior.....	28
2.2.2. Substance Abuse.....	32
2.2.2.1. The Prevalence of Substance Abuse.....	34
2.2.2.2. Factors Related to Substance Abuse.....	35
2.2.3. Aggression: Its Nature, Prevalence and Causes.....	37
2.2.3.1. The Prevalence of Aggression.....	39
2.2.3.2. Causes of Aggression.....	42
CHAPTER THREE	
METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY.....	49
3.1. Populations, Samples and Sampling Techniques.....	49
3.2. Data Collection Tools.....	50

3.3. Procedure.....	52
3.4. Methods of Data Analysis.....	53

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS.....	54
4.1 Comparison between the Attributions of Students and Teachers for Students' Problem Behaviors.....	56
4.1.1 Risky Sexual Behavior.....	57
4.1.2 Substance Abuse.....	58
4.1.3 Aggression.....	58
4.2 Comparison among the Levels of Importance Attributed to the Reasons.....	59
4.2.1 Analysis of the Students' Data.....	59
4.2.2 Analysis of the Teachers' Data.....	62

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION.....	66
5.1 Students' Attributions.....	66
5.2 Teachers' Attributions.....	72
5.3 The Difference between the Attributions of Students and Teachers.....	73
5.4 The Effect of Sex on Students' Attributions.....	76

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION.....	78
6.1 Summary.....	78
6.2 Conclusion.....	82
6.3 Recommendation.....	82
REFERENCES.....	84

APPENDICES

- Appendix A. Questionnaires (in English and in Amharic)
- Appendix B. Attributional Dimensions
- Appendix C. Post Hoc Comparison Tests
- Appendix D. The Results of the Pilot Tests

ABSTRACT

A study regarding students' and teachers' causal attributions for problem behaviors (risky sexual behavior, substances abuse and aggressive behavior) was conducted in Bahir Dar general secondary schools. The study involved randomly selected 304 students and 78 teachers from Tana Haiq, Ghion and Fasilo schools. The instruments for data collection included items regarding risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression. The subjects were asked to rate the importance of each item in a list of causal attributions compiled from previous answers of students and teachers from the same population. Multivariate analysis of variance was used to compare the attributions of male and female students and those of students and teachers. A repeated measure analysis of variance followed by post hoc comparison tests was used to compare the importance attributed to a reason by individuals within each group (students and teachers). The major reasons for students' problem behaviors were found to be lack of family advice and follow up, family divorce, lack of family control, the presences of "tella Bet" and khat shop around the school, bad examples at home and the educational policy which stipulates possible termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10. No significant difference was found between the attributions of boys and girls for problem behaviors. However, significant difference was identified between the attributions of students and teachers for some perceived causes of problem behaviors. Students tend to attribute their problem behaviors to family-related causes (e.g. lack of family advice and follow up) and to situational factors (e.g. the presence of "tella Bet" and khat shop around the school). Although students attributed prime importance to family-related and situational factors, they have also taken some responsibility for their problem behaviors. Like students, teachers assign the responsibility for students' problem behaviors to families and to students. Moreover, both students and teachers gave relatively less weight to the influence of teacher-related factors for problem behaviors. Discussions and conclusions are made on the bases of these results, and some recommendations are indicated for possible interventions and further study.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Poverty, underemployment, and HIV/AIDS are the most pressing problems throughout the world. Moreover, crime, substance abuse, homelessness and risky sexual behavior are the concerns of most countries including the developed ones (Kornblum and Julian, 1994). A number of people engage in behaviors which represent a departure from the norms and expectations of the larger society. Surprisingly they persist in indulging in these patterns of behavior, which they know to be hazardous to their lives and health (Alock, *et al.*, 1988). Such behaviors, which have harmful effects and social disapprovals to the individual, are included in the categories of problem behavior. Broadly conceived, problem behaviors refer to behaviors which can compromise the ordinary trajectory of development and often elicit some kind of social control response from others. Risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression are among these categories.

There is a general consensus among educators in that high proportions of problem behaviors are observed during the period of adolescence (Laurence cited in Fekadu, 2000). During this period, adolescents become to be rebellious, emotionally unstable and reject parental authority (Hayes, 1998). According to Fekadu (2000), substance abuse, truancy, school dropout, failure in academic performance, sexual abuse, unplanned pregnancy, aggressiveness, withdrawal and depression are among the adolescents' problem behaviors that are manifested in high schools at varying degree. He further explained that due to their problem behaviors which originate from themselves and from the general socio-economic context surrounding them, the majority of these secondary

school students leave school before graduation, get involved in criminal behavior, bear children out of wedlock, and have difficulty in finding work.

According to Yalew (2004), who has undertaken a comprehensive research among grade 10 and 12 students of Tana Haiq high school (by that time the school was serving as both general secondary and preparatory senior secondary school) in Bahir Dar, nowadays, student absenteeism, substance abuse, poor motivation, lack of discipline, vandalism, rape, violence, precocious sexual activity, school failure and dropout, etc, have turned schools into troubled social institutions. He was concerned to investigate the prevalence of aggression and its predictors (specifically individual, family and school related factors). However, his study has also revealed the severe problem of alcohol use and khat chewing among high school students in Bahir Dar. He gathered information from teachers (including those from another school), the school personnel, the school psychologist and the chairman of student council- all evidenced the severity of the problem. There is also evidence that at times, the school administrator has applied to the local council to force people around the school not to sell local beer and khat for students. Finally he suggested that increasingly teachers are faced with diverse problem behaviors that necessitate intervention.

However, if educators and other concerned individuals are going to get involved into students' problem behaviors, they should first understand the causes of students' engagement in such problem behaviors. But as far as behavior is the interactional effect of heredity and environment, identifying the causes for problem behavior requires understanding of the context or environment in which the behavior occurs, of personality or individual differences and development that initiate and sustain the behavior in

question-clearly a big challenge. Though it is difficult to investigate the actual causes, however, we can develop attributions to describe the causes of our behaviors. This is because the type of attribution we make can have a direct effect on behavior (Hayes, 1998). Moreover, Burger and Hemans (1980) have pointed out that people engage in attribution process to obtain or maintain a sense of control over the causal factors. Although attributions do not reflect actual causes, Klien (1982) has suggested that as long as people believe that they do, they represent the basis for the explanation, which governs their behavior. For these reasons, studying the attributional styles of students and teachers for students' problem behaviors is mandatory to develop proper intervention programs.

Researchers have studied students' attribution of academic achievement behavior-the reasons students give for their levels of achievement (Ames and Felker, 1979; Medway, 1979; Arkin and Maruyama, 1979; Darge, 1988; Tamire, 1995; Yalaw, 1996; Tamire, 1997). These researchers were based on the theoretical framework of Weiner's theory of attribution. According to Weiner (1979), people attribute success or failure in a cognitive task to one of four general causes: ability, effort, difficulty of task and luck. According to Weiner's model, each of these four general causes can be thought along three dimensions: locus of control (internal vs. external), stability (stable vs. unstable), and controllability (controllable vs. uncontrollable). Thus, for instance, effort is internal, stable and controllable type of cause and luck represents external, unstable and uncontrollable type.

Researchers have also attempted to apply the attribution theory to other behaviors in general and to problem behavior in particular (Quay and Quay, 1965; Medway, 1979; Brophy and Rohrkemper, 1981; Guttman, 1982; Hayes, 1998). Based on his review of

literature. Guttman (1982) concluded that the development and persistence of problem behavior is determined by interpersonal interactions, and among the variables determining the quality of interpersonal interactions are the reasons the involved people give for the behavior. He posited that the attributions one person gives for another's problem behavior will affect his/ her own attitude and behavior towards that person. Particularly, as Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) suggested, the likelihood that teachers will help students with problem behavior depends on the teachers' attributions concerning the locus of causality of the students' problem and the control they have over their plight. It also depends on the teachers' perception of their own roles in causing the problem behavior and their abilities to effect change.

Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) come to believe that if teachers see students to be responsible for their problem, that is, if teachers attribute student's problems to internal causes and see them as able to control their problem behavior, they withhold help. Supporting this, Medway (1979) has indicated that problem students perceived as lacking motivation were criticized more often by their teachers. Hence, for example, if teachers think that students engage in khat chewing because of laziness, then they blame the students and may not consider themselves to be responsible for the students' problem behavior. On the other hand, if teachers believe that this is due to lack of appropriate disciplinary measures at school, then they will attempt more discipline.

Guttman (1982) has also suggested that the interpersonal interactions are affected by the degree of congruence between the reasons given for the problem behavior. That is, the interaction between teachers and students will be more positive if congruence occurs. Thus, for instance, if both teachers and students agree that bullying in

school is a need for attention, then this mutual agreement will lead them to a more positive interaction and consequently facilitates a discussion on the right way to the solution. As such it was important to know the students' and teachers' causal attribution of problem behaviors. However, as far as the previous local researches are concerned, they have exclusively dealt on the attribution of academic achievement behaviors. None of them has attempted to study the perceived causes of problem behaviors. Therefore, this investigation deals on this matter, that is, it attempts to study the perceived causes for students' problem behaviors, and the attributional patterns of students' and teachers.

Previous studies (Flabo and Beck, 1979; Zuckerman, 1979; Medway, 1979; Rejeski and Lowe, 1980; Arkin, et al., 1980; Alock, *et al.*, 1988; Hayes, 1998) show that in explaining their own behavior, people tend to exaggerate the influence of environmental factors, whereas in explaining others behavior, they tend to use dispositional attributions and underestimate the influence of the situation. Moreover there is also evidence (Safran and Safran, 1985; Juvone, 1988) for the tendency of people to attribute their success to internal factors and their failure to external factors. According to Juvone (1988), there is disagreement between teachers and students especially in their causal attributions of failure. Students attribute their failures more to external causes. On the other hand, Safran and Safran (1985) reported that teachers held student factors more responsible than teacher factors for classroom problems, especially the target child is held to be responsible for the classroom misbehavior. In short, both students and teachers take credit for success but not for failure. Based on these findings, it is possible to hypothesize that students will blame others and do not take responsibility for their problem behaviors.

On the other hand teachers are expected to defend themselves and attribute to students' dispositional traits or to situational factors other than themselves.

Findings on gender differences in causal attributions are inconsistent. Some researchers report differences while others argue that there is no significant difference in the attributional styles of girls and boys (Zuckerman, 1979; Sine, *et al.*, 1979; Guttman, 1982; Darge, 1988; Tamire, 1995; Yalew, 1996). Those who reported that there is difference revealed that girls attribute to external factors for success and boys internalize it. Moreover, boys and girls are different in problem ownership. More boys than girls are aggressive, khat chewers, drunkards and smokers (Andualem, 2002; Marsh, *et al.*, 2001; Fekadu, *et al.*, 1994; Zein, *et al.*, 1984). Hence it is possible to hypothesize that there will be difference in the attributional styles of girls and boys.

Different researchers have addressed different problem behaviors in their study (Quay and Quay, 1965; Medway, 1979; Brophy and Rohrkemper, 1981; Guttman, 1982). Some of them focused on academic problem behaviors while others on nonacademic problem behaviors. Even in each one of these two categories, there is also difference in the choice of the specific problem behaviors treated. This is because their studies were based on students' and/or teachers' reports of problem behaviors, which exist in their schools, and the prevalence of problems revealed in different school situations may not be the same.

As already mentioned at the very beginning, there are many problems that are the concern of our society. However, previous studies show the prevalence of risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression among the problem behaviors (Kidane and

Bereket, 1995; Fisseha, 1996; Shabbir, *et al.*, 1997; Eshetu, 1998; Dagne, 1999; Yigzaw, 2002; Yalew, 2004).

Although all the above research evidences show the prevalence of risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression among high school students, as pointed in the preceding paragraphs, no attempt has made to study the attribution of the causes of these problem behaviors. Knowing the prevalence of a problem behavior alone doesn't help to develop protection, intervention and treatment plans, though it is the first step in the process. Hence, studying the perceived causes of these problem behaviors has a paramount importance to develop efficient prevention, protection and treatment programs, which involve both students and teachers.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Based on the above background information, the following questions were raise.

1. To what causes do students attribute their problem behaviors?
2. Is there a difference between boys and girls in their attribution of problem behaviors?
3. To what causes do teachers attribute students' problem behaviors?
4. Is there congruence in the causes of problem behaviors perceived by students and teachers?

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify students' and teachers' perceived causes of problem behaviors in schools. However, since there was no a local measuring instrument for the required variables, the researcher was also concerned to develop appropriate scales. These being the main objectives, the following specific purposes were also the concern of this research project.

- To find out, if any, the difference between boys and girls in their attribution of problem behaviors.
- To compare if there is congruence in the causes of problem behaviors perceived by students and teachers.

1. 4. Significance of the Study

We hope to bring development by means of education. However, if problem behaviors (such as risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression) are prevalent among high school students, our hope becomes no more than a fantasy. This is because students who are engaged in such behaviors will not attend to their learning as expected. Moreover, the consequence will affect others. As such, there is a need to develop proper prevention, intervention and treatment programs. Hence, understanding the reasons students explain about their problem behaviors helps for policy makers, school administrators, counselors and teachers to develop the desired efficient and effective programs, which involve both students and teachers.

According to Alock, *et al.* (1988), whether students love or hate their classmates, whether they attempt to help or harm, how they interact and communicate-all these reactions depend on how students perceive other students, their actions that they observe, and the situation. So the findings of this study will help to alter the focus of students' attributions and to develop correct ones so that to enhance positive out looks about one another.

Teachers' attributions about the motivation and causal factors underling students' problem behaviors affect their expectations about what can be done to improve the situation, and this in turn affects the objectives that teachers set and the strategies they

employ in attempting to realize these objectives. The findings of this research project, therefore, can help to change the attribution of teachers about students with problem behaviors so that they will provide support and encourage them to modify their problem behaviors.

Until fairly recently, Ethiopians' attitude towards sexual behavior was traditional. Premarital intercourse was not allowed in the main culture, although it was not totally condemned and prohibited. Today, sexual matters are discussed openly and a variety of sexual behaviors are portrayed (at least at illegal video shows). However, as a result of HIV/AIDS epidemic and other sexually transmitted diseases as well as the problem of adolescent pregnancy, the role of traditional values has become pronounced. There is a movement to discourage sexuality among teenagers. Public health workers are discouraging premarital intercourse and they are preaching individuals to undergo testing for the presence of HIV virus before marriage. As such, finding out the perceived causes of adolescents' engagement in risky sexual behavior helps to facilitate the achievement of this goal (to reduce behaviors which lead to HIV risk). Similarly, knowing students' explanations about substance abuse helps to reduce such behavior and consequently to protect the health, safety and quality of life for all.

To minimize aggression and consequently to make the school situation safe there is a need to investigate the perceived causes of the problem behavior in question. So the findings of this study will be used as a prologue to design behavior modification programs and to make the teaching-learning process harmonious.

The significance of the findings of this study specifically to the target population, that is, for students and teachers of Bahir Dar high schools, can be deduced from the preceding justification as follows:

- To make students and teachers aware of each other's attributions and hence help them to discuss their views of each other.
- To provide the schools' psychologists with information about students' perceived causes of their problem behaviors so that to facilitate behavior therapy services.
- To reduce students engagement in risky sexual behavior and substance abuse so that they will attend schooling being free from the effects of such problem behaviors.
- To reduce aggression and make the school environment safe.
- The study also helps to initiate others for further research on attributions of problem behaviors. Moreover, the scales will also be used in future research.

1.5. Definition of Terms

Attribution- The reasons or explanations students and teachers give for students' engagement in risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression.

Problem behavior-Behavior which represent a departure from the norms and expectations of the larger society that can compromise the ordinary trajectory of development, and often elicit some kind of social control response from others. In this research it refers to risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression.

Aggression-Act, whether physical or verbal, direct, indirect, or passive, with the intention to hurt, irritate, punish, frustrate others, to destroy property, to provoke conflict.

or to increase competitive advantage. In this research, aggression is used to refer to getting into physical fights, offending or threatening others to hurt, snatching or damaging others properties, or forcing girls for sex.

Risky sexual behavior- Committing sexual intercourse without physical, mental and psychological preparation of individuals which expose them to health and other social problems. Individuals are also at risk, if they commit unsafe sexual intercourse (without the use of condoms and other contraceptives) which may result in unwanted pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases including the epidemic HIV/AIDS.

Substance abuse-Use of unacceptable substances and/or the excessive or inappropriate use of acceptable substances in ways which can lead to physical, psychological, or social harm. Here, the term substance is used to refer to alcohol, tobacco and khat. In this study, substance abuse specifically refers to coming to school after drinking or khat chewing, skipping from school to have a drink or to chew, or smoking in schools.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. An Overview of the Attribution Theory

The term "attribution" seems to have two definitions, although not clearly and fully expressed. On one hand, it is conceived as the process or as an effort through which people identify the causes of behavior. On the other hand, it is understood as the perceived causes of behavior. The first conception of the term is concerned with how people use information to reach conclusion or how inference is made, while the latter is concerned with the reasons or explanations people give for behavior. Although, in this research, the interest is on the explanations or reasons students and teachers provide for students' problem behaviors, both concepts of the term are implicitly used in the discussions below.

Accurate knowledge of others' moods or feelings can be useful in many ways. Yet, in addition to this knowledge, we usually want to know more to understand others' lasting traits and the causes behind their behavior. In other words, not only do we want to know how others have acted but we want also to understand why they have done so. The process through which we seek such information is known as attribution. More formally, attribution refers to our efforts to understand the causes behind others' behavior (Baron and Byrne, 1997).

Similarly, according to Alock and his colleagues (1988), attribution refers to the causal interpretation of behavior, and attribution theory deals with causes that people infer from outcomes that have occurred. This theory is also concerned with the general principles, which govern how people select and use information to arrive at causal explanations for behavior.

Heider (1958), who initially outlined the attribution theory, proposed that people have a need to anticipate and control what will happen to themselves and others. He maintained that people are always motivated to understand the social world-why individuals behave the way they do. According to Fiske and Taylor (1984), constructing the causal analysis of the social world is the basis for understanding behavior, other cognitions and feelings. Moreover, Jones (1982) has suggested that if we understand how people perceive the causal structure of their social world, then we can better predict their response to the world. All these consolidate Heider's argument that attribution is the central point in our understanding of others and ourselves.

According to Ferrante (1992), people assign a cause for behavior to make sense of it. Moreover, there is a research evidence that people are also motivated to engage in the attribution process as a result of their desire to maintain a sense of control over the event. Supporting the control motivation explanation for why people engage in the attribution process, Burger and Hemans (1980) have found that subjects high in a general desire for control were engaged in attribution process more than subjects who were low in their desire to control. Based on their findings, they concluded that it is difficult to maintain a sense of control over one's environment if an individual has little idea about why things happen.

In short, people use attribution as a result of their desire to understand, predict and/or control behavior. However, how do people reach at an attribution? In other words, how do people process information to reach at an attribution? Or how do people infer that an act is intentional or not? Different scholars have tried to answer these fundamental questions.

Jones and Davis (cited in Fiske and Taylor, 1984) were concerned with how an individual makes attributions about the causes of other people's behavior. They assumed that people search for meaningful explanations for others' behavior that are both stable and informative. Fiske and Taylor (1984) argue that there are five cues that enable an individual to structure information in a causally relevant manner and to form reliable causal attributions: analysis of noncommon effects, choice, social desirability, social role and prior expectations.

Jones and Davis (cited in Hayes, 1998) argued that attributing intention is the first stage in working out reasons for why something happens. Once an act has been judged to be deliberate, they suggested, we then look for personal dispositions, which produced that person's intention. Fiske and Taylor (1984) suggest that to infer whether an act is based on the individual's intention requires the analysis of noncommon effects, that is, when more than one choice is available and if negative effects are incorporated into the chosen alternative, relative to the unchosen ones, then a conclusion can be reached about an individual's disposition. For instance, consider a smoker who has the alternative to smoke or not to smoke. If the individual is expected to know the adverse consequences of smoking, then his smoking behavior is going to be inferred to be due to the individual's internal preference.

On the other hand, if an act is freely chosen without coercion, if its social desirability is low, if this act is consistent with the individual's prior expectations (or behavior) and if it is not consistent with the individual's role, then the behavior is inferred to be due the underlying dispositions.

Kelley (cited in Hayes, 1998) proposed that people reach at causal inference based on three aspects of the situation: consistency, consensus and distinctiveness. This principle works when an individual has access to multiple instances of the same or similar events. If an act is consistent with what an individual has done in the past, if this act is different from what others acted in the same circumstance and if this individual acts in this way only in similar circumstances, then the act is considered to be deliberate. That is high consistency and distinctiveness as well as low consensus in information leads to internal attribution.

2.1.1. Attributional Dimensions

Weiner (1979) has suggested that creating taxonomy of causes helps to delineate similarities and differences, and to identify the underlying properties of causes. Three dimensions have been identified: locus, stability and controllability (Weiner, 1983; Fiske and Taylor, 1984; Alock, *et al.*, 1988). At first, Heider (1958) has proposed the locus (internal vs. external) dimension of attribution that is whether a cause is intentionally generated by the individual or by the influence of the situation. In other words, an event may occur due to the individual's needs or due to other people's influence. Locus reflects whether the cause for problem behavior is something about the person with the problem or something about the external (situation). In short, locus refers to the location of the cause-internal or external to the person.

As Weiner (1983) stated, stability refers to the temporal nature of causes: causes may be temporary and fluctuating (that change from situation to situation or from moment to moment) or relatively enduring (stable). As the locus dimension, the stability dimension was first suggested by Heider (1958). Although he didn't discuss it in detail, it

was clear from his explanation about the human tendency to look for stable causes for why things happen. Heider argued that our wish to make sense out of what is happening in our environment means that we prefer stable causes for things. This is because, as he indicated, a stable cause is one which is likely to occur next time.

According to Weiner (1983), controllability refers to the degree of influence that can be exerted over a cause. As stated in the preceding sections, people make causal attributions not only to understand why something happened but also to gain a sense of control over future events. Thus, the third dimension, controllability, is also important to understand the implications of causal analysis.

Weiner has suggested that each attributional dimension is uniquely associated with a number of psychological consequences: the locus dimension affects self-esteem, the stability dimension relates to changes in expectancy, and the controllability dimension relates to sentiments and evaluation of others. As he indicated, in achievement behavior for example, attributing success to internal factors increases self-worth, whereas self-ascription for failure decreases self-esteem. Attribution of failure for a stable cause leads to high certainty.

2.1.2. Attributional Biases

In attribution theory, human beings are considered to be rational. That is, people are believed to assemble relevant information, sift it in a logical and correct manner, and combine it to reach at good and accurate conclusions (Klein, 1982). However, Fiske and Taylor (1984) argued that people may fall short of the idea of rationality. That is, people may systematically distort correct procedures. Supporting this view, Alock, *et al.* (1988) stated that the ways in which people actually attribute causes to events can be biased and

different from the logical process suggested/assumed by the attribution theory. There are three types of biases which can have a pronounced effect on the process of attribution: the fundamental attribution error, the actor-observer effect and the self-serving bias (Alock, *et al.*, 1988; Fiske and Taylor, 1984).

According to Fiske and Taylor (1984), fundamental attribution error refers to the tendency of people to attribute others' behavior to their own dispositional qualities. People tend to underestimate the influence of situational factors and overestimate the influence of dispositional factors when they assess the behavior of others.

Instead of seeing that there are situational forces such as social norms or roles that lead to particular behavior, people generally see behavior as freely chosen by an individual and furthermore as representing the person's stable qualities (p. 73).

Alock and his colleagues (1988) stated that it is called "fundamental error" because it is so widespread. Dworetzky (1982) justified the tendency of people to exaggerate the influence of dispositional factors for others' behavior because they are often curious about the personality and motivations of other people. As discussed in the previous sections, Heider (1958) has argued that we look for stable traits and underlying motives as a way of understanding others' behavior. Medway (1979) conducted a study to investigate teachers' attribution for students' academic and behavioral problems in schools. He reported that teachers perceive the causes of serious academic and behavioral problems to be due to students themselves than teaching environment variables. Teachers attributed student problems more to intelligence, motivation and personality than to

educational background, teaching and home situations. This finding supports the fundamental attribution error hypothesis.

The actor-observer effect refers to the tendency of people to attribute others' behavior to dispositional factors and their own behavior to situational factors (Fiske and Taylor, 1984). As such it is a natural extension of the fundamental attribution error. People tend to see their own behavior as more variable from situation to situation. They perceive the behavior of others as more stable and, as Fiske and Taylor suggested, hence give more extreme (positive or negative) ratings to friends than to themselves. Alock, *et al.* (1988) pointed out that in addition to the fundamental attributional error, people also are more likely to interpret their own behavior rather than the behavior of others to situational causes.

Supporting the actor-observer effect, Wober (cited in Kleinke, *et al.*, 1983) reported that smokers give external attributions for smoking, while nonsmokers give relatively internal attributions for smoking. Nonsmokers (observers) than smokers responded that people smoke because smoking is addictive and stimulating. He also showed that the actual smoking behavior was predictable by addiction and affective smoking motive.

Self-serving bias describes the tendency of individuals to attribute behavior that results in a good outcome to internal factors and to attribute behavior that results in a bad outcome to environmental (situational) factors. In other words, people tend to take credit/responsibility for good results and avoid blame for bad results/failure (Alock, *et al.*, 1988; Fiske and Taylor, 1984; Dworetzky, 1982). According to Dworetzky (1982), self-serving bias may be a form of rationalization through which people deny that there

are internal factors (dispositions) that lead them to behave in ways that they don't like or that they can't control.

There are research findings which are consistent with the self-serving bias hypothesis.

Guttman (1982) has studied the causal attributions of elementary school teachers and students (4th, 5th and 6th graders) for problem behavior at school. Using MANOVA and repeated measures ANOVA followed by pair wise post hoc analysis, he found difference between students and teachers in their attributions to problem behaviors. Students blame others for the cause of their problem behaviors (teachers attitude towards students, bad examples at home and being misunderstood) while teachers attribute to reasons that relate problem behavior directly to the students (desire to get status, psychological problems and need for attention). However, the results of the multivariate analysis of variance showed no sex difference.

Weiner (1979) reported that successful college students perceived internal factors as more important causes and unsuccessful students perceived external factors as more important causes of their own performance. Similarly, Arkin and Maruyama's (1979) finding that the teachers' tendency to attribute school difficulties to students rather than to teaching causes is also consistent with the self-serving bias notions. To sum up, these research findings show that people tend to attribute success to dispositional causes and failure to situational ones. Hayes (1998) explained this tendency as the need of people to create favorable impressions to others.

2.1.3. Gender and Attribution

As it has been presented in the first chapter, some studies pointed to differences in the perceived causes of male and female performance, while some others showed that there is no significant difference. Based on a review of research literature, Alock, *et al.* (1988) concluded that in many tasks, success is expected of males but not of females; and thus attributions tend to be internal and stable for male success, but external and unstable (luck or unusual effort) for females. They also suggested that stereotypes profoundly influence our interpretations of social reality. Supporting this, Fiske and Taylor (1984: 53) suggested that “stereotypically, men are active, independent, competitive, and ambitious, while women are passive, dependent, intuitive, and uncompetitive.” Moreover, they have suggested that men are expected to succeed more at tasks than women.

This influence had made individuals internalize the explanation as their own behavior. That is, males have accepted their better ability than females and they explain their success as due to ability while females have considered themselves as inferior and thus they attribute their equivalent performance to luck. Regarding this, Feather (cited in Deaus and Farris, 1977) found that females are lower in their initial expectations of success than are males. Moreover women tend to explain both success and failure by luck in preference to ability. Similarly Nichollas (cited in Deaus and Farris, 1977) reported that while boys attribute success more to ability, and failure to bad luck, lack of ability was more responsible for girls' poor performance. Eron (1961) has reported similar findings. In his study, females attributed success more to the unstable causes of effort and luck while males make higher attributions to the stable causes of ability and task ease.

Hence, in the present study, males and females were expected to be different in their attributions.

2.2. Problem Behavior and Its Development

As Fekadu (2000) indicated, different societies and different school systems have different expectations of adolescent students. If the adolescents' behavior is out of this expectation, it is considered to be a problem. In other words a behavior is considered to be a problem if it is assumed to have harmful effects on the individual and/or others, and if it creates social disapprovals (if it is out of the socially accepted norms and expectations, and if others consider it as troublesome). There are different specific problem behaviors and underlying dimensions (Phillips, 1968). Thus, different researchers have focused on different problem behaviors such as risky sexual behavior, substance abuse (including Khat, alcohol and cigarette), and aggression; conduct problems, delinquency and personality disorder (Fekadu, 2000; Dagne, 1999; Kidane and Bereket, 1995; Allene, 1992; Lindholm, *et al.*, 1977; Phillips, 1968; Quay and Quay, 1965).

As it is true for the development of 'normal' behavior, there are biological and social environmental factors, which contribute for the development of problem behaviors (Waska, cited in Fekadu, 2000). According to Waska, the biological factors include brain dysfunction and certain temperamental characteristics like a high sensitivity of emotional responding and poor adaptability to new situations, while the social environmental factors include poor care by families (caregivers) and society, peer influence and other school related factors. Supporting the biological influence, Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber (1998) have suggested that there are physiological factors such as hormones and neurotransmitters which influence the development of problem behavior.

Needless to say, types of families differ greatly depending on cultural values, social and economic status, family size and maternal employment. There are one-parent families, older families, nuclear families, etc. Some parents are drunkards, smokers and/or khat chewers, while others are fundamentalists in religion. All these create difference on their child rearing practice and on their modeling influence. Hence, families are the basis for adolescents' behavior development.

The society has its own influence on the development of adolescents' problem behavior. Regarding this, Hirschi (cited in Sampson and Laub, 1994) suggested that the probability of problem behavior increases when an individual's bond to society is weak or broken. Unquestionably peers have influence for the development of problem behavior. In support of this, Alock, *et al.* (1988) have suggested that peer group may influence the adolescent to begin smoking or may facilitate smoking at a given time.

According to Kauffman (cited in Fekadu, 2000), students' problem behavior originates from three sources: from the adolescents themselves, from the school and from the society at large. Similarly Jessor and Jessor (cited in Alock, *et al.*, 1988) have suggested that the adolescents' problem behavior originates from their own personality and behavioral characteristics, and from the societal environment. Alock, *et al.* (1988: 563) has explained this as follows.

In problem behavior theory, personality variables include low expectancies for success in school, high values for independence, and reduced constraints, represented by low religiosity and tolerant attitudes towards deviant behavior.

In the social environment, predisposition for problem

behavior include the perception that rewards for socially accepted behaviors are lacking, opportunities for problem behavior are present, and that the influence of peer groups, particularly with respect to behaviors such as heavy drinking, is greater than that of the parents. Problem drinking also tends to be part of more general pattern of behavior including... drug use... and precocious sexual involvement, along with less participation in conventional activities in school and church.

Similarly, Weiner (1989) has suggested that failure in academic achievement and social affection might cause deviant behaviors such as substance abuse. In addition, Jessor, Carman and Grossman (cited in Weiner, 1989) have indicated that individuals with low expectancy of success reported that drinking gives a physical relief and was an escape from personal shortcomings.

However, research suggests that parenting influence is the basic determinant of the development of problem behavior. On one hand, parents serve as models; on the other hand, their family management practices (monitoring, discipline, problem solving and reinforcement) influence how children behave. "Parents who frequently use alcohol... and who smoke cigarettes are much likely to have teenagers who [drink], smoke cigarettes and [use] other illicit drugs" (Alock, *et al.*, 1988: 564). These authors have also suggested that adolescents whose parents drink heavily tend to have friends who drink heavily, and begin to drink in the same manner as their parents do.

According to Forehand (1986), both academic performance and problem behavior in school are predictable from the parent-adolescent relationship at home. That is, poor family relationship predicts adolescents' problem behavior at school. Supporting this Dishion, *et al.* (1991) reported that the educational level and occupation of parents, their monitoring and discipline practices significantly predict adolescents' involvement in antisocial behavior. This is consistent with Hoffman's finding. Hoffman (1960) found that parents' use of unqualified power assertion (such as direct commands, threats, deprivation and physical force) was positively related to the child's hostility towards other children and teachers in school. On the other hand Hart, *et al.* (1992) have found that children of more inductive parents (i.e., less power assertive) exhibited less disruptive behaviors. They rather showed more prosocial behavior.

Parents of children with problem behavior are poor in family management techniques: monitoring the child's whereabouts, using effective discipline for problem behavior, employing effective problem solving skills, and reinforcing the development of prosocial skill. They use low monitoring, administer erratic, threatening and harsh discipline; and they have weak relationship with their children. Such child management practices are positively related to children's problem behavior (Patterson and Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984; Fekadu, 2000). To sum up, several research findings are consistent and permit firm conclusions about the relationship between parents' child management practices (monitoring, discipline, problem solving and reinforcement) and adolescents' problem behavior. In the present study, since the focus is on risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression, brief explanations about the nature, prevalence and possible causes of such behaviors are presented as follows.

2.2.1. Risky Sexual Behavior

“Association between girls and boys [was] discouraged in Ethiopian culture, especially during the period of adolescence” (Cox, 1967: 50). However, today, the sexual norms are changing. Contrary to the patterns of past generations, present-day adolescent girls and boys are interested in one another at their early ages. For instance, Dagne (1999) has reported that among the sexually active high school students, the majority have had their first sexual meeting before the age of sixteen. And this decrease on the age of sexual onset is a global phenomenon (Coley and Chase-Lansdale, 1998). Jeppesson (as cited in Dagne, 1999) stated that adolescents’ sexual maturity precedes their physical, social and psychological development. As a result, he explained that adolescents who engage in sexual activity at their early age end up with many social and psychological problems.

In addition to their early sexual onset, today’s adolescents have multiple sexual partners and they also commit intercourse without the use of condoms and other contraceptive techniques. In other words, they engage themselves in risky sexual behavior, which exposes them to unwanted pregnancy and to sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) including HIV/AIDS. As a result, unwanted pregnancy leads to school drop out, separation from family, unsafe abortion and its complications (health problems, future infertility, and death), and to other social and psychological problems. On the other hand, if the unwanted pregnancy ends up with birth, the society doesn’t tolerate such out of wedlock birth, and teenage mothers will be blamed and face problems even in their future marriage lives. Needless to say, the sexually transmitted diseases, especially the HIV/AIDS, have more severe consequences in their every aspects of life. This draw a special attention for research on adolescent sexuality, for other wise sexuality is a normal and important aspect of human behavior since it enables the human race to perpetuate.

For practical reasons, due to the rapid dissemination of HIV, most researchers have focused on examining the prevalence of risky sexual behavior and on the use of condoms during intercourse, rather than on understanding of adolescents' sexual experiences. As such our knowledge of adolescent sexuality is limited, and improving our understanding about adolescent sexuality promises to increase the progress toward meeting our objectives-to prevent unwanted pregnancy and STDs including the deadly HIV/AIDS. That is why the perceived causes for adolescents' engagement in risky sexual behavior is one of the foci for the present study.

2.2.1.1. The Prevalence of Risky Sexual Behavior

There are no enough hospitals and other health centers in Ethiopia. Moreover, HIV/AIDS is aggravating the problem from time to time. Millions of people are believed to be living with HIV. The AIDS scourge also left thousands of children orphaned. It is becoming a national threat for the existence of the generation. A federal budget is allocated for the anti HIV/ AIDS campaign. The media preaches different protective techniques like condom use and abstinence of sex. Change in behavior is a slogan for the media campaign. However, there is no significant change in behavior, although it may not be possible to say there is no change at all. The whole effort resulted no as expected. In other words, though public awareness of HIV/AIDS is on increase, so too are new infections.

Not only the commercial sex workers, but also high school and college students commit sex with more than one partner. In previous studies, adolescents have also revealed that they sometimes or never use condoms although they commit sex with multiple partners. Solomon (1990) has conducted a study in one of the Addis Ababa high

schools with the objective to investigate the knowledge of high school students about HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases. In his study, a substantial number of students reported that they get information about HIV and other STDs through mass media and from health professionals. However, among the 37.9 percent sexually active respondents, the majority (60.2%) have had intercourse with two to five partners. Moreover, most of them (92.9% of the girls and 76.7% of the boys) admitted that they never or rarely use condoms for the protection of HIV and other STDs. Based on his findings, he finally suggested that these students are most likely to be vulnerable to HIV infections.

A study by Beyene, *et al.* (1997) on six colleges in Addis Ababa showed that most of the students (88.7% of the study subjects) know that AIDS is a terrible disease, which must be feared. Most of them have the knowledge about the preventive measures against AIDS (such as having only a single sexual partner and condom use). However, among the sexually active respondents, 66% of them reported that they didn't use condoms at all. Not only HIV/AIDS but also a research report on college students who were better informed about the disease and its preventive techniques is also terrible.

A survey on Gondar College of Medical Science students by Kidane and Bereket (1995) has indicated that 53% of the sexually active respondents had contacts with commercial sex workers. 38.6% had more than one partners, and 12% had caught sexually transmitted diseases. Fisseha, *et al.* (1997), in a similar study on ten high schools of Addis Ababa, reported that only 42.2% of the sexually active students used condoms on their first sexual contact and only 27.7% used condoms continuously on their subsequent sexual intercourse.

Hailegnaw and Tefera (1996) have indicated that the majority of high school students had their first sex before the age of 16 years and most of them had never used condoms.

A cross sectional study among secondary school students in Kolla Diba town of North Gondar Zone by Shabbir, *et al.* (1997) revealed 31.9% of the respondents were sexually active and on average they have two sexual partners. Among these sexually active students, 9.3 % had sex with commercial sex workers and 11.5% had contracted sexually transmitted diseases (STDs). Surprisingly, 91% of the subjects have heard about AIDS of which 85.1% believe in its existence and half of the sexually active female students were pregnant at least once. Using the same method, to determine the sexual behavior, associated problems and risk factors among Jiren Senior Secondary School students in Jimma, Dagne (1999) has reported the following findings.

64.6% of the students were sexually active.

46% of the subjects did not use any protection against HIV/AIDS or other STDs.

15.5% of the respondents had various forms of STDs.

38.8% of the female students had encountered unwanted pregnancy.

The majority of his subjects have reported that they get information about sexual matters from mass media and health professionals, and hence they have an adequate awareness about AIDS. Despite this fact, the above figures show that they were engaging in risky sexual behavior.

2.2.1.2. Factors Related to Risky Sexual Behavior

Until such time as vaccines and cures for infection with HIV are a practical reality, prevention of infections must rely upon individuals' protective behavior.

However, specific sexual behaviors that reduce risk of infection-such as abstinence of premarital intercourse and using condoms-are influenced both by personal factors, knowledge, attitude, and ability, and by factors characterizing the context in which the adolescents' behaviors are carried out. Supporting this, Whitaker, *et al.* (2000) have suggested that risky sexual behavior is determined by multiple factors: individual, peer, familiar and institutional (such as school and church).

Similarly, Dagne (1999), based on a review of past research findings, suggested that decrease in family control, low education quality, poor socioeconomic status, peer group influence, and consumption of stimulants expose adolescents to sexual activity, unwanted pregnancy and STDs. Again, Coley and Chase-Hansdale (1998) have presented an overview of research on factors related to female adolescent sexual activity, pregnancy and parenthood. They summarized that numerous individual, family and neighborhood characteristics predispose girls to become young single mothers.

The knowledge, attitudes and beliefs adolescents have about STDs including HIV and about protective techniques affect their engagement in risky sexual behavior. Some adolescents may not be aware about the consequences of unsafe sex others may have negative attitudes towards the use of condoms still some others may not have the access to use (get) condoms. Pötsänen and Kontula (1999) have conducted a survey research on grade nine students with the purpose to assess the attitude of adolescents towards condoms. Some adolescents reported that they feel that condom diminishes pleasure while others feel embarrassed to buy and carry condoms. Even though some adolescents regarded themselves to be responsible enough for taking care of their contraceptive needs and buying condoms, disapproving glances at pharmacies and shops embarrassed them.

These researchers have also indicated that although women have more positive attitude towards using condoms, lack of power and male dominance influenced their use. Moreover, they were afraid that if they carry condoms, their partner might think they were promiscuous.

On the other hand, adolescents become indifferent to use condoms when they use alcohol and other drugs. There are also educational and psychological variables which influence them not to use condoms and other contraceptive methods. Coley and Chase-Lansdale (1998) have indicated that female adolescents with low educational aspirations are more likely to become teenage mothers than their high achieving peers. Similarly, Whitaker, *et al.* (2000) have suggested that in addition to the use of alcohol and other drugs, psychological factors such as self-esteem, perceived control, future outlook, and hopelessness are related to adolescents' involvement in unprotective sex. They have also suggested that adolescents' less involvement in school and church activities predict their risk behavior.

Family income and poverty status, and parental education are the determinants of the behavior development of children (Duncan, *et al.*, 1994). Not only the economic levels of families but also the economic status of neighbors is important. In this regard, Steinberg (1987) suggested that since a poor neighborhood is likely to be characterized by substantial numbers of peers who are using drugs, having early unprotected intercourse, and dropping out of school, the proportion of poor neighbors may well influence adolescent outcomes. Isiugo-Abanihe and Oxediran (2004) have conducted a research to determine the relationship between household socioeconomic status and

sexual behavior among Nigerian female youth (age 15-24). Their results do not support the previous findings that the high level of sexual activity is a function of household poverty. They reported that those who have access to the media and those of high socioeconomic status are more sexually exposed than their counterparts who do not have access to media or have less household facilities. Exposure to premarital sex increases with access to newspapers, radio and television.

‘Poor’ parenting (e.g., less parental monitoring) also contributes for adolescents’ risk behavior (Whitaker, *et al.*, 2000). Moreover Whitaker and his colleagues suggested that adolescents’ sexual experience is related to their peers’ behavior. Those who commit unsafe sex have peers who have previous sex experience and permissive sexual attitudes.

Adolescents who are raised in poor families, especially by single parents and by parents with low educational attainment, are also prone to unprotected sexual intercourse. Teenagers who rose in communities with high rates of poverty, welfare use, and single-mother households are also at high risk (Coley and Chase-Lansdale, 1998).

The other reason for risky sexual behavior is exposure to pornography. Pornographic films motivate adolescents to sexual activities (Myers, 1986). Exposure to pornographic films has also other antisocial effects (Linz cited in Wood and Wood, 1996). The trivialization of rape, the acceptance of promiscuity and male sexual dominance are among the effects of pornography. Women exposed to sexually explicit films offered increased estimates of the normality of marital unfaithfulness and group sex (Zillmann, cited in Myers, 1986). Zillmann has also indicated that exposure to pornography increases the acceptance of premarital and extramarital sexual behavior, and women’s submission to men.

2.2.2. Substance Abuse

According to Halgin and Whitbourne (2000: 392-393):

A substance is a chemical that alters a person's mood or behavior when it is... drunk, inhaled, or [ingested]. [and] substance abuse is defined as the maladaptive pattern of substance use... that leads to significant impairment or distress evidenced by one or more of the following: (1) failure to meet obligations, (2) use of substances in physically hazardous situations, (3) legal problems, or (4) interpersonal problems.

Students who abuse substances neglect their obligations at school and their commitment to education. It puts them into positions in which they violate the rules and regulations of the school. They jump over the fence and escape from school during regular learning hours. They confront against guards and other concerned individuals. As a result, they may face charges of misconduct or assaultive behavior. They may also face interpersonal problems as they become quarrelsome and possibly violent when intoxicated. Previous studies have also showed that to support their drug habits, addicts commit crimes to obtain money. Based on research summaries, Korblum and Julian (1994) indicated that in New York, 40-50 percent of the addicts' income for drug purchases was gained by shoplifting, burglary and prostitution.

Alcohol, khat, and cigarette are legal in our society. Drinking, chewing and smoking are common among adults and adolescents including both high school and college students (Zein, *et al.*, 1984; Fekadu, *et al.*, 1994; Eshetu, 1998; Dagne, 1999;

Andualem, 2002; Yigzaw, 2002). Consequently, substance abuse and its related problems are becoming to be society's most pervasive health and social problems.

As indicated by Halgin and Whitbourne (2000), drinking much amounts of alcohol may lead the drinker to feel more outgoing, self-confident, and uninhibited. Komblum and Julian (1994) have suggested that problems created by alcohol abuse include traffic and industrial accidents, poor social function, broken marriages, and aggravation of existing poverty, mental and physical illness and crime. Moreover, long-term alcoholics results in Korsakoff's syndrome which is one of the most common sources of inability to store new information called anterograde amnesia (Hayes, 1998).

According to Andualem (2002), khat contains cathinone, which is a psychoactive substance that stimulates the central nervous system. He suggested that khat is widely abused in east Africa and particularly in Ethiopia for various reasons. Supporting this, Allene (1992) has indicated that quarrels, neglect of education, waste of family resources, encouragement of prostitution, the spread of corruption, theft, loss of working hours, and extremely painful withdrawal effects are among the consequences of khat chewing in high schools.

Cigarette has also negative consequences. The health, economical and social impacts of smoking is apparent and everyone admits that its bad result exceeds than the supposed advantages. Myers (1986) supported this view by stating that there is much less debate about the effects of alcohol and cigarette consumption. According to Yigzaw (2002:9) "cigarette smoking causes lung cancer, atherosclerotic cardiovascular diseases, intrauterine growth retardations, spontaneous abortion, antepartum hemorrhage, female

infertility, peoptic ulcer disease, chronic obstructive lung disease, sexual dysfunctions in men and many other diseases.”

2.2.2.1. The Prevalence of Substance Abuse

Review of previous studies on senior secondary schools of Addis Ababa show that students come to class drunk, use addictive drugs and smoke in schools (Habtamu, 1998).

Although Allene (1992) has indicated that in earlier days khat was used by old men in connection with Muslim religious rites, the recent tradition is different in that khat is consumed by people of all religion, and social group. Supporting this, Eshetu (1998) has reported that there is also a dramatic increase in alcohol and tobacco consumption. Furthermore he has suggested that the need for money to support the habit on the part of the substance abusers may lead them to criminal activities.

Fekadu, *et al.*, (1994), using a cross sectional study, has determined the prevalence of khat chewing among high school students (from grade 9 to 12) in Agaro. Sixty five per cent of his respondents reported that they were using khat during the research process. Most of these khat users were between the ages of 15 to 22 years. He concluded that this finding is an evidence for the risk taking behavior of adolescents. In a similar study, with an additional purpose to determine the sociodemographic profile of khat use in Jimma town, Andualem (2002) reported that the prevalence rate was 30.6% of which 18.3% was accounted for by students. Among these chewers, 32.4% were also smokers and 27.8% were taking alcohol after chewing.

According to Zein, *et al.* (1984), the prevalence of regular smoking among medical and paramedical students in Gondar Medical Science College was 25%. Moreover, Yigzaw (2002) has conducted a comprehensive assessment on the prevalence of smoking and khat

chewing taking a sample of 1103 college students (from Bahir Dar University, Gondar College of Medical science and Gondar college of Teacher Education) and has reported the following findings.

Table 1: The prevalence of Smoking and Khat Chewing

Smoking/chewing status	Percent
Life time smoker	13.1
Life time chewer	26.7
Both life time smoker & chewer	10.9
Current smoker	8.1
Current chewer	17.5
Both current smoker & chewer	6.8

Life time smoker/chewer-One who smoked /chewed at least once in his life time.

Current smoker/chewer-One who smokes/chews at the time of the study.

Moreover, his study revealed that 31.7% of the life time smokers and 45.6% of the life time khat chewers started while they were senior secondary school students. Similarly, Dagne (1999) has reported that among the sexually active respondents 24.5% of them have used alcohol and khat separately or in combination with sexual episodes.

2.2.2.2. Factors Related to Substance Abuse

Factors, which promote substance abuse, can be divided into two: hereditary and environmental. Supporting this Halgin and Whitbourne (2000) have indicated that alcohol dependence is either inheritable from alcohol dependent parents or due to the influence of environmental factors. That is, factors related to the family, community and/or culture combined with genetic vulnerability lead the individual to develop alcohol dependence. They have also suggested that childhood antisocial behavior, rebelliousness, low achievement in school, and truancy are predictors of alcohol dependence. Supporting

the genetic influence view of substance abuse, Stein, *et al.* (1993) have confirmed that the offsprings of alcoholics are also alcoholics.

Supporting the environmental influence of drug use, Kornblum and Julian (1994) have stated that low socioeconomic levels, culture and religion are linked with excessive drinking. Some cultures and religions promote drinking and, khat use. For example, compared to Jews, Anglicans promote more alcohol use (Eastman, 1991). Hamlin (1991) has suggested that drug use is higher among young people who live in areas of social deprivation and with few prospects of advancement.

Hamlin has also suggested that personality and the attitude of the individual together with availability of the substance influence substance use. Supporting this, Allene (1992) has indicated that positive attitude towards khat promotes its use. Moreover, he found that getting concentration to facilitate rote memory and for relaxation purposes are the reasons students attribute for khat chewing. Similarly, Kleinke, and his colleagues (1983) have reported that smokers attribute their smoking to relaxation purposes. Robbins, *et al.* (cited in Yalaw, 2004:29) have listed the reasons adolescents give for why they abuse substances.

The reasons include easing physical discomfort, peer pressure, getting relief from stress, increasing energy, getting relaxed, relieving from pain, escaping from reality, feeling more self-esteem, lessening depression, relieving insomnia, increasing sociability, heightening sexual pleasure, satisfying curiosity, and expanding consciousness.

Hamlin (1991) has categorized the reasons young people give for taking drugs under four headings: peer pressure, coping problems, boredom and loneliness. He has explained these as follows.

If other members of the peer group take drugs, the individual simply begins using it out of curiosity or simply to be part of the group. Those young people with low self-esteem find it difficult to resist peer influence. Some adolescents have families, which have marital problems, divorce or alcohol abuse. These adolescents who have trouble coping with such problems and changes in their lives may use drugs in an attempt to escape. Some adolescents see little value in school or have success to few activities. These individuals have some times poor relationships with teachers and other significant adults. Such adolescents are highly vulnerable to substance abuse. The last reason is loneliness. Some adolescents have poor relationships with their parents and there is lack of cohesiveness among the family. When problems arise, these adolescents feel that they have no one to turn to. As a result they take drugs as the only answer.

Supporting Hamlin's suggestion, Myers (1986) has added that smoking is common among those whose friends and parents are smokers. Generally it is possible to conclude that the personality and attitude of the individual, the family and the peer group are the sources of influence for substance abuse.

2.2.3. Aggression: Its Nature, Prevalence and Causes

Klein (1982) defined aggression as a behavior motivated by the intent to harm another creature. Similarly, Alock, *et al.* (1988) defined aggression as behavior intended to inflict harm or damage another individual. Thus any behavior, which has malicious intent, is considered to be aggressive. The terms violence and bullying

basically refer to aggressive behavior, the difference is a matter of degree and frequency. Violence meant extreme, severe, or brutal behavior. On the other hand, bullying refers to an aggressive behavior, which occurs repeatedly over time to create an ongoing pattern of harassment and abuse.

Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber (1998) defined violence as aggressive acts causing serious harm such as aggravated assault, rape, robbery, and homicide. Moreover, Staub (1989) has used the term violence to refer to genocide and mass killing. Genocide refers to an aggressive behavior performed by a group and its members to eliminate another group, usually a subgroup of society. On the other hand, mass killing refers to an aggressive behavior performed by individuals against to other individuals. That is in mass killing the attempt is to eliminate a certain tribe or clan. Before proceeding to the description of bullying, a brief explanation of rape is important. This is because it is a form of violence, which is prevalent in schools.

Rape, which is violence against women, has become to be a major health and human rights concern. Elliot (1996) defined rape as one of the most experienced form of violence against women which includes all unwanted or nonconsensual sexual act, touching or exploitation that are achieved through force, threat or intimidation and/or coercion. In short, it is an act to have sexual intercourse without the will of the individual. Nowadays, people have started to charge rape perpetrators and hence court sentences are commonly reported through mass media. However, the subject of sexual violence is taboo in many cultures and as a result it remains under reported. It is mostly under reported because women feel shameful to disclose it. The difficulty to provide eyewitnesses or medical proof of intercourse also makes rape under reported crime.

If so much is said about violence what is bullying in clear terms? For Olweus (cited in Yalaw, 2004), bullying is a less severe form of aggression which occurs repeatedly over time to create an ongoing pattern of harassment and abuse. For Sharp and Smith (1994:1), "bullying is a form of aggressive behavior which is usually harmful and deliberate; it is often persistent, sometimes continuing for weeks, months or even years and it is difficult for those being bullied to defend themselves." Sharp and Smith have also suggested that bullying takes three forms:

- Physical-hitting, kicking, threatening, taking or damaging belongings;
- Verbal-name-calling, insulting, repeated teasing, taunting;
- Indirect- spreading nasty rumors, enforcing social exclusion.

To reach consensus, the three terms aggression, violence and bullying overlap in meaning. Although some scholars have tried to differentiate them, as Yalaw (2004) indicated, it is a matter of degree and frequency only, for otherwise all of them show the infliction of physiological harm on others.

Hence, in this study the terms are used as a synonym, though it has been indicated that to be a problem the aggressive behavior should be observed over time from the actor.

2.2.3.1. The Prevalence of Aggression

Aggression is one of the pressing social problems of most countries in the world today. The increased incidence of terrorism, wars between countries, conflicts between and among ethnic groups, political parties, families, and individuals, are the common headings of newspapers. Murder, rape and kidnapping are also the usual reports of mass communications. In short, aggression (deliberately harming others or having the intention to harm and/or using force to take someone's property) is a worldwide incidence and is

increasing overtime. "In work places, schools, homes, and in other social settings it is a day-to-day phenomenon to observe aggressive behavior" (Yalew, 2004:5).

It is a widespread problem in schools, which damages the school climate, adversely affects students' academic learning and emotional development. Supporting this Sharp and Smith (1994:2) stated that:

Bullying behavior can affect pupils in a number of ways.

When pupils are bullied their life's are made miserable.

They may suffer injury. They may be unhappy about

coming to school over time, they are likely to lose self-

confidence and self-esteem, blaming themselves for

'inviting' the bullying behavior. This unhappiness is likely

to affect their concentration and leaning. Some children

may experience stress related symptoms: stomachaches and

headaches, nightmares, or anxiety attacks. Some children

will avoid being bullied by not going school.

The case may not be different in Ethiopia. As Habtamu (1998) pointed out, Ethiopia, dominated by authoritarian child rearing families, is suffering from the abuse of human rights such as physical punishment in homes and schools, and violent behaviors among students. "Violence, bullying and various abusive behaviors exist in Ethiopian society at large and in schools in particular" (Habtamu, 1998). He further said that "violent behaviors, whether we call them bullying, aggression, antisocial behaviors or delinquent behaviors, are prevalent in the Ethiopian high schools" (Habtamu, 1998:51). He has also suggested that the following violent behaviors are observed in high schools.

- Hitting, slapping, kicking and biting.
- Snatching, breaking, tearing or damaging others properties.
- Individual or group fighting.
- Pushing or bumping someone.
- Offending, intimidating or threatening to hurt.
- Forcing others to kiss or for sex.
- Trying to get some one into trouble.

According to Yalew (2004), violence is a major problem among high school students in Bahir Dar town. His respondents have listed the specific violent behaviors that are manifested in the school compound or its vicinity. Fighting in groups, forcing girls for sexual relations, insulting and intimidating teachers, and deliberate acts to disturb the teaching learning process are among their listings of aggressive acts that are prominent in their school.

Dagne (1999) has revealed that among the sexually active students in Jiren high school of Jimma town, 22.7% of the respondents have reported rape in their first sexual intercourse. Similarly, Yohannes (2003) has investigated the extent of sexual violence against female adolescents in Jimma town and found that the majority of girls were victims of rape. Although the magnitude was not reported, a study by Emebet (2003) showed that female students in Addis Ababa high schools encounter harassment on their way to and from school and in the school compounds. This violent behavior is also a problem in Bahir Dar high schools. Regarding this Yalew (2004:98) reported that “most of the time the girls were forced to have sexual relations ... and when they resisted they faced physical attacks and mostly got threatening messages.”

In one form or another (rape or violence), aggression is prevalent among high school students. However, if there is group or individual fighting among students, if girls are victims of rape, and if teachers are tensioned from aggressive students (if they are intimidated and threatened), then the school environment becomes unsafe and individuals give a prime concern for security rather than for the educational process.

2.2.3.2. Causes of Aggression

Many theories have been developed over the years, suggesting that there could be many different causes of aggression. Each theory has its supports and its criticisms but there is no unanimously accepted explanation. Perhaps the best way to view aggression may be to see it as having a mixture of different causes in different situations, and that all of the theories play a part to some extent in explaining the build-up and exhibition of aggression. Hence, the different theories of the causes of aggression and the available supporting evidences will be discussed as follows.

Hereditary and environmental factors have been theorized to predispose aggressive behavior although nowadays research has stressed on environmental factors. To Freudians, aggression is the displacement of one's own death wish due to the blockage of the death instinct by the life instinct. In other words, there is unlearned and fixed death instinct (Thanatos) for aggressive behavior. This internal drive of aggression, which is an inherited urge, demands the individual for satisfaction and can be satisfied through war, antisocial behavior or self-destructive acts. Thus, aggression is considered to be human nature (Weiner, 1989). As far as human beings are driven by Thanatos, Freudians believe that society needs to sublimate aggressive impulses in acceptable ways such as sports.

Unlike the Freudian view of destructive urge, ethologists (those scholars who study organisms in their natural habitat) consider aggression as an adaptive behavior, which promotes survival. According to this view, most aggressive organisms have the greatest likelihood of propagating their species (for getting one's genes into the next generation), which in turn leads to the perpetuation of aggressive disposition among organisms (Alock, *et al.*, 1988; Baron and Byrne, 1997).

Both Freudians and the ethologists justify their view by reasoning that aggression is a common form of behavior and hence must stem from universal built-in urges. To support this (the existence of aggressive instincts), they provide the high incidence of aggression as evidence. However, this is a circular approach and hence social psychologists disregarded it (Baron and Byrne, 1997). Although social psychologists reject the instinct view of aggression, Baron and Byrne have indicated that, they (social psychologists) have recognized the importance of biological factors, which predispose some individuals toward aggression. "Our behavior is never completely free of the influence of physiology, and it is clear that there are many factors-neural, hormonal, genetic-which influence our behavior"(Alock, *et al.*, 1988:286). Despite this, social psychologists are more interested on the powerful influence of leaning upon human behavior.

Another view for the roots of aggression is the drive theory, the view that aggression steams mainly from an extremely elicited drive to harm others. This theory is based on the frustration-aggression hypothesis, which states that aggression is a natural reaction to frustration (Baron and Byrne, 1997). Supporting this, i.e., aggression as a natural consequence of frustration-any interference with or blocking of a goal directed

behavior: Jegard and Walters (1960) have showed that frustration is positively correlated with aggression. They observed that when frustrated by adults, children displace aggression to playthings in the playgrounds. Because this theory suggests that external conditions are crucial for the occurrence of aggression, it promises to offer hope about the possibility of preventing aggressive behavior. However, in the competitive world, frustration is a common experience of everyday life and hence drive theory leaves human beings facing unavoidable sources of aggression. Moreover, Alock and his colleagues (1988: 283) suggested that frustration-aggression hypothesis is untenable for two reasons: (1) "while frustration may lead to aggression, it may lead to other behaviors as well (e.g., passive withdrawal)", and (2) "aggression is not always preceded by frustration."

The last theory to be discussed is the social learning theory of aggression, pointed in the above paragraphs. According to this theory, people learn to be aggressive by witnessing aggression, such as family arguments and violent television programs. If an aggressor is rewarded or at least not punished, individuals tend to imitate such behavior when they find themselves in a similar situation.

Social leaning theory was first developed by Albert Bandura (Alock, *et al.*, 1988). It emphasizes the importance of observing and modeling the behaviors, attitudes and emotional reactions of others. Bandura (cited in Alock, *et al.*, 1988) believes that most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for actions. According to this perspective, whether an individual will aggress in a given situation depends on "that person's past experience, the current reinforcements (rewards) associated with aggression and many variables that

shape the person's thoughts and perceptions concerning the appropriateness and potential effects of such behavior" (Baron & Byrne, 1997: 397). This idea that experience and reinforcement as a determinant whether a person grows up to be aggressive or not shows that parents play a critical role. Because parents are models for their children and moreover they may reinforce or punish children for aggression. Parents may also serve as a source of frustration since they may mistreat or abuse children.

Interaction between and among parents and siblings often provide opportunities for children to acquire or inhibit aggressive behavior patterns. Moreover, parental conflict and aggression or a rivalry atmosphere in the home is related to offspring's violent crimes (Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber, 1998). Parents take measures to curb the development of aggression by punishing or threatening children, so that they will inhibit or channel aggression into socially accepted forms. However, the result is different for two reasons: punishment for aggression is related to the frequency of aggression and the punisher is used as a role model for aggressive behavior. Supporting this, Eron and his colleagues (1961) reported that increased punishment for aggression by socializing agents is related to increased aggression on the part of children and moreover fathers served as a role model for aggressive behavior. Similarly, Eron, *et al.*, (1961) have studied the aggressive behavior of children from different socioeconomic background to find the relationship between aggression, social class and punishment habits of parents. They reported that the more severely punished children for aggression at home, the more aggressive in school as rated by their peers. Moreover, fathers who have higher status jobs are punitive than who have low status jobs and consequently children of high status fathers obtained higher aggression scores than children of fathers with low status jobs.

Staub (1989) has done a comprehensive review with the intention to show the role of cultural characteristics and social conditions including the way they generate and shape psychological processes and actions that contribute to violence. Based on his review, he has concluded that poverty is the strongest predictor of violence. It reduces the parents' capacity for consistent, supportive parenting and it leads parents to harsher behavior towards children. This conclusion contradicts the findings of Eron and his colleagues above. However, Staub's conclusion is plausible and consistent with other findings discussed. If parents are poor, they fail to fulfill the basic needs of their children. This is likely to create conflict among the family. In addition to poor conditions, the socialization practice of parents is also a predictor for aggression. Poor socialization practice and negative experience in the home such as lack of nurturance (lack of affectionate care taking), neglect, rejection, and harsh treatment (frequent physical punishment and verbal abuse) generate negative orientation to people, feelings of hostility and the desire to harm people.

Yalew (2004) indicated that family-related factors like economic deprivation, harsh and inconsistent discipline, family conflict, poor parental supervision, parental drug abuse, low parent-child attachment, low parent-school relationships and favorable parental attitudes towards deviant behavior were factors that increased the likelihood of aggression.

The other source of aggression is exposure to violent mass media programs. For Freudians, exposure to aggressive films helps to sublimate aggression. However, there are substantial research findings that witness the promotion effect of violent television programs for aggressive behavior. Kuhn, *et al.* (1967) reported that children who

portrayed an aggressive film displayed more aggressive behavior than the control group (who didn't attend violent films). Thomas (1982) allowed college students to observe aggressive and non-aggressive films for 15 minutes. In his experiment those who observed the aggressive film responded more aggressively to the confederate than those who were exposed to non-aggressive film. Similarly, Malamuth and Check (1981) reported that exposure to violent sexuality through mass media has increased males' acceptance of interpersonal violence against women.

Aggressive behavior also develops from risk factors that are related to individuals and schools. "Impulsivity, inability to regulate one's emotions, exposure to violence and abuse, low general aptitude or intelligence, association with deviant peers, unhealthy self-evaluation, [and] the need for attention" are some of the risk factors associated to the individual (Yalew, 2004: 101). Some individuals are extremely competitive, always in a hurry, and specially irritable and aggressive. Individuals who show such behavior characteristics tend to be more aggressive (Baron and Byrne, 1997). Moreover, Dill (1997) suggested that individuals who have aggressive personality-trait irritability, physical and verbal aggressiveness, anger and hostility have hostile expectations and perceptions of ambiguously aggressive story stems.

School related factors that significantly predicted aggression includes "previous academic performance, educational values, academic motivation and job aspiration." (Yalew, 2004: 102). He found that poor academic performance was the predominant influencing factor that directly affected aggression. Yalew has also suggested that in addition to students' poor academic performance, their low educational values, academic motivation and job aspiration, the inability of teachers to control conduct disorder or

other forms of negative behavior has intensified the problem. To sum up the social environmental factors that contribute to the development of aggression are multiple and complex. However, as that of risky sexual behavior and substance abuse, the family has a big share for the development of aggression.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

3.1. Populations, Samples and Sampling Techniques

In Bahir Dar town, there are three general secondary schools (Tana Haiq, Ghion and Fasilo). In these schools at the beginning of the 2004/5 academic year there were 6060 students, 9th and 10th graders (3400 boys and 2660 girls) and 99 teachers. Krejcie and Margan (1970) have recommended to take a sample size of 80 from a population of 100 and 364 from a population of 7000 that is, 80% and 5.2% respectively. Eighty per cent of 99 is 80 and 5.2% of 6060 is 315. Hence, 315 students (177 boys and 138 girls) and 80 teachers were selected as the representative sample of the students and teachers, respectively.

The 315 students and 80 teachers were selected by using stratified random sampling technique as follows.

- i. Students were stratified on the basis of their schools, grades (9th and 10th), sections and sex. Class attendances were used to facilitate this. On the other hand, teachers were stratified on the basis of their schools.
- ii. A proportional number of students and teachers, 5.2% and 80% respectively, from each distinct stratum were determined for selection.
- iii. Finally a systematic random sampling technique was used to select the required students from each stratum and a simple random procedure was employed to select the required teachers.

The total number of students and teachers of the three schools, and the samples taken from each are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Students and Teachers in the Three Schools and the Respective Samples

Schools	Grades	Number of Students				Number of Teachers	
		Males		Females		Males	
		T	S	T	S	T	S
Tana Haiq	9	826	43	647	34	42	34
	10	531	28	493	26		
	S.T	1357	71	1140	60	42	34
Fasilo	9	393	20	350	18	25	20
	10	339	18	313	16		
	S.T	732	38	663	34	25	20
Ghion	9	693	36	446	23	32	26
	10	618	32	411	21		
	S.T	1311	68	857	44	32	26
G.T		3400	177	2660	138	99	80

T=Total, S=Sample, S.T=Subtotal, G.T=Grand Total

Although the scales were distributed to 315 students and 80 teachers, two teachers didn't return the scales and 11 students didn't complete the scales. Hence, the final analysis was done on the data gathered from 304 students and 78 teachers.

3.2. Data Collecting Tools

To gather the necessary data, initially, the investigator developed a questionnaire. A reasonable questionnaire should be based on concepts taken from the study population. Since it is the attributer's conceptions that matter, the questionnaire allowed students and teachers to make whatever attributions that seem appropriate for them. Thus, to cover a wide range of frequently attributed causes of problem behaviors, the following few preliminary steps have been taken.

First, an open-ended questionnaire with three questions, one for each problem behavior (risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression) was developed. These three questions asked students and teachers to list the reasons for why students engage in such problem behaviors. This questionnaire was administered to 50 students and 15

teachers randomly selected from the target population. What these students and teachers stated as perceived causes yielded a total pool of 169 explanations (55, 55 and 69 reasons for substance abuse and aggression respectively).

The pool of explanations of the problem behaviors considered were categorized and presented to seven graduate students and five psychology instructors of the Department of psychology, Addis Ababa University, for the purpose of avoiding redundancies and to assess the importance of the items to be accepted as explanations for problem behaviors of adolescents. As a result, the total number of items were reduced to 116 (32, 41 and 43 for risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression respectively). These items were structured into a five-point scale (5 = very important, 4 = important 3 = somehow important, 2 = minimally important and 1= not important) for each problem behavior.

Next the scales were administered to 100 students randomly selected from the same population as pilot subjects. However, 9 students didn't complete the scales and hence the data gained from the 91 students were used for analysis. To improve the psychometric qualities of the scales item analysis (the correlation of each item with the total item scores). Cronbach α and factor analysis were computed.

Items which did not significantly correlate with the total item scores were dropped. As a result, 103 items were left. That is, 28 items for risky sexual behavior, 37 for substance abuse and 38 for aggression have significant correlation coefficients with the total item scores. To see the internal consistency of the items, Cronbach α was computed for each scale. Thus, the values of α were 0.66, 0.79 and 0.77 for risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression scales, respectively.

To validate the items of each scale, a principal component analysis with varimax rotation was computed. Based on the results of this analysis, items which cross loaded on different components have been deleted. Finally 20, 20, and 21 items for risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression have been taken as a reliable and valid measure of each of the problem behaviors under consideration.

3.3. Procedure

First, the researcher contacted each of the schools principals and discussed with them the purpose of the research. In that first contact, the researcher explained the stages of the research process at which data will be gathered and what will be required from them at each of these stages. Unless they allow the researcher to get the class attendances and the teachers' lists, it was difficult to select the subjects of study as required. Hence, the principals were convinced that for the successful accomplishment of the research project, it requires their full cooperation. Thus, based on the lists that the principals provided, the following activities were carried out.

- 1 The sample subjects were selected using the techniques mentioned at section one of this chapter.
- 2 The selected students in each school came together in one class and orientation was given about the objectives of the study-in addition to what is stated on the open-ended questionnaire.
- 3 Then, these students were asked to list down all the reasons that they think of. Any confusion was made clear throughout the process. The students were also advised to be considerate, patient, and tolerant so as to devote their time to list the felt reasons.

Similarly, in the try-out stage, in each school, students came together in one class and rated the already constructed scales. The same is true for the final data gathering

stage. For teachers, the questionnaire and the scales were distributed and collected through the help of the principals and unit leaders.

3.4. Methods of Data Analysis

To see if there is a significant difference between the judgments of boys and girls a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used. Since there was no significant difference, the data for all the students were combined into one group and the results reported for two groups: students and teachers. First the result of the comparison between students and teachers are reported and then the results for each of the groups. The comparison between students and teachers was done using multivariate analysis of variance.

In order to compare the importance attributed to a reason by the individuals within each group, a repeated measure one-way analysis of variance was performed. Since the results of the repeated measures analysis showed significant difference in the levels of importance attributed by each of the groups to the various reasons, pair-wise comparisons among the means of the items (explanations) were carried out using Tukey's formula for post-hoc pair-wise analysis.

To investigate the attributional styles (the dimensions to which each group attributed), the perceived causes were classified into the three dimensions (internal vs. external, stable vs. unstable and controllable vs. uncontrollable) by six psychology instructors and four graduate students (see Appendix B). The perceived causes to which students and teachers attributed more importance have been qualitatively discussed in terms of the dimensions to which they belong as classified by the mentioned individuals.

The criteria for reporting the statistical significance was $\alpha=0.05$ for the overall F tests and for the post hoc comparisons.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The statistical analysis of the data collected in this investigation was carried out in the following sequence.

1. Determination of means and rankings of the degree of importance assigned to each of the reasons are presented.
2. Comparison between boys and girls for their attributions of problem behaviors.
3. Comparison between students and teachers for their attribution of students' problem behaviors.
4. Comparison among the levels of importance attributed to each of the reasons by individuals within each group.

Compared to teachers, students have given high ratings to most of the reasons. From students' judgments only two of the reasons have mean values less than the expected mean value (2.50). From the teachers' judgments, however, seven items have mean values less than the expected mean value. The means and rankings of the degrees of importance assigned to each of the reasons are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Means and Rankings of Importance Attributed to by Students and Teachers

Behavior	Attributors	Items																					
		Reason	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
Risky Sexual Behavior	Teachers	Mean	3.88	4.18	4.01	4.15	3.72	3.00	2.73	2.59	2.73	3.49	3.05	2.92	2.60	3.10	3.76	2.72	3.74	3.03	2.56	1.60	
		Rank	4	1	3	2	7	12	14	18	14	8	10	10	13	17	9	5	16	6	11	19	20
	Students	Mean	3.87	4.13	4.11	4.25	3.63	2.92	3.11	3.66	2.75	3.45	3.49	3.10	2.54	2.71	3.13	3.01	3.37	3.02	2.45	3.03	
		Rank	4	2	3	1	6	16	11	5	17	8	7	12	19	18	10	15	9	14	20	13	
Substance Abuse	Teachers	Reason	21	22	23	24	25	26"	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	
		Mean	3.38	3.97	2.76	2.83	3.14	3.53	3.14	3.13	2.97	3.12	3.53	4.00	2.37	1.94	2.18	1.72	1.81	2.50	3.03	3.71	
	Students	Rank	6	2	14	13	7	4	4	7	9	12	10	4	1	16	18	17	20	19	15	11	3
		Mean	3.59	3.78	3.14	2.84	2.74	3.30	2.74	2.77	2.90	3.01	3.08	3.35	2.59	2.38	2.70	2.50	2.50	2.77	3.16	3.97	
Aggression	Teachers	Rank	3	2	7	11	14	5	14	12	10	9	8	4	17	20	16	18	18	12	6	1	
		Reason	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61
	Students	Mean	4.17	3.65	3.83	3.45	3.29	3.83	3.54	3.65	3.00	2.74	2.78	3.83	3.47	3.03	2.67	3.17	3.79	2.49	2.85	4.15	3.31
		Rank	1	7	3	11	13	3	9	7	6	19	18	3	10	15	20	14	6	21	17	2	12
Aggression	Students	Mean	3.78	3.08	3.82	3.27	3.03	3.93	3.64	3.45	4.40	3.22	3.28	3.17	3.29	2.78	2.95	2.62	3.23	2.61	3.06	4.14	3.0
		Rank	5	14	4	10	16	3	6	7	1	12	9	13	8	19	18	20	11	21	15	2	17

To compare the judgments of boys and girls, a multivariate analysis of variance was computed. In this statistical analysis, sex was used as independent variable and the reasons for each problem behaviors were taken as dependent variables. As presented in Table 4, no significant difference was found in the overall multivariate analysis of variance between the judgments of boys and girls. As a result, the data for all the students are combined for the next statistical analysis.

Table 4: Multivariate Tests for the Effect of Sex on Students' Attribution of Problem Behaviors.

Problem Behavior	Test Statistics	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	P
Risky Sexual Behavior	Pillai's Trace	0.08	1.26	20	283	0.20
	Wilks' Lambda	0.92	1.26	20	283	0.20
	Hotelling's Trace	0.09	1.26	20	283	0.20
	Roy's Largest Root	0.09	1.26	20	283	0.20
Substance Abuse	Pillai's Trace	0.04	0.64	20	282	0.88
	Wilks' Lambda	0.96	0.64	20	282	0.88
	Hotelling's Trace	0.05	0.64	20	282	0.88
	Roy's Largest Root	0.05	0.64	20	282	0.88
Aggression	Pillai's Trace	0.08	1.22	21	277	0.23
	Wilks' Lambda	0.92	1.22	21	277	0.23
	Hotelling's Trace	0.09	1.22	21	277	0.23
	Roy's Largest Root	0.09	1.22	21	277	0.23

4.1. Comparison Between the Attributions of Students and Teachers for Students' Problem Behaviors

The comparison between students and teachers for their attributions of students' problem behaviors is again performed using multivariate analysis of variance. In this analysis, each of the reasons (perceived causes) of problem behaviors was used as a dependent variable. The results are presented in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Summary of Multivariate Tests for the Difference Between the Judgments of Students and Teachers for Their Attributions of Problem Behaviors.

Problem Behavior	Test Statistics	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	P
Risky Sexual Behavior	Pillai's Trace	0.26	6.32	20	361	0.00
	Wilks' Lambda	0.74	6.32	20	361	0.00
	Hotelling's Trace	0.35	6.32	20	361	0.00
	Roy's Largest Root	0.35	6.32	20	361	0.00
Substance Abuse	Pillai's Trace	0.19	4.30	20	360	0.00
	Wilks' Lambda	0.81	4.30	20	360	0.00
	Hotelling's Trace	0.24	4.30	20	360	0.00
	Roy's Largest Root	0.24	4.30	20	360	0.00
Aggression	Pillai's Trace	0.35	9.08	21	355	0.00
	Wilks' Lambda	0.65	9.08	21	355	0.00
	Hotelling's Trace	0.54	9.08	21	355	0.00
	Roy's Largest Root	0.54	9.08	21	355	0.00

As presented in Table 5 above, a significant difference was found in the overall analysis of variance between the judgments of students and teachers. The tests of the between subjects effect, which automatically follow the omnibus F test, sorted out the reasons on which the two groups (students and teachers) disagree. The results are presented below.

4.1.1 Risky Sexual Behavior

Table 6: Test of Between-Group Effect for Risky Sexual Behavior.

Reason	SS	df	MS	F	P
Low awareness about HIV	70.82	1	70.82	37.84	0.00
Peer pressure	23.98	1	23.98	14.02	0.00
Being prohibited not to enter the school if students come late	126.41	1	126.41	55.38	0.00

Note: In the tables 6-10 only significant values are reported.

As presented in the Table 6 above, students and teachers disagree on three of the reasons for risky sexual behavior. Compared to teachers, students attribute risky sexual behavior more to being prohibited not to enter the school if students come late and low

awareness to HIV. On the other hand, teachers attribute risky sexual behavior more to peer pressure.

4.1.2. Substance Abuse

The results of the tests of between-groups effect for substance abuse showed that, compared to teachers, students attributed substance abuse more to conflict between students and teachers and because teachers miss their periods. On the other hand, teachers attribute substance abuse more to peer pressure. The MANOVA results for the tests of between-groups effect are presented in Table 7 below.

Table 7: Test of Between-Group Effect for Substance abuse.

Reason	SS	df	MS	F	P
Peer pressure	26.22	1	26.22	17.05	0.00
Absence of teachers from class	37.78	1	37.78	18.37	0.00
Conflict between students and teachers	29.59	1	29.59	15.28	0.00

4.1.3. Aggression

As presented in Table 8 below, compared to teachers, students attribute aggression more to resignation in the educational policy which stipulates the possible termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10, absence of moral education in schools and lack of control in schools. However, teachers attribute aggression more significantly to poor administration of the school system, limited or no religious influence and lack of government control.

Table 8: Test of Between-Groups Effect for Aggression.

Reason	SS	df	MS	F	P
Resignation in the educational policy which stipulates the possible termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10	121.48	1	121.48	77.76	0.00
Because there is no moral education in schools	13.89	1	13.89	7.04	0.01
Absence of control and advice in schools	15.19	1	15.19	8.05	0.00
Poor administration of the school system	27.45	1	27.45	14.33	0.00
low or no religious influence	18.35	1	18.35	7.37	0.01
Lack of governmental control	19.69	1	19.69	9.16	0.00

4.2. Comparisons Among the Levels of Importance Attributed to the Reasons

The MANOVA results above have shown that there is difference in the attributions of students and teachers. Hence, the data for students and teachers have been treated as separate groups for comparisons among the levels of importance attributed to the reasons. First the analysis for students' data will be presented and then that of the teachers.

4.2.1. Analysis of the Students' Data

In order to compare the importance attributed to a reason by the individuals within each group, a repeated measures analysis of variance was performed. The results showed significant divergence in the levels of importance attributed by students to the various reasons of each of the problem behaviors. The results are presented in the Table 9.

Table 9: Summary of the Repeated Measures ANOVA for the Students' Attributions.

Problem Behavior	Source	Test Statistics	SS	df	MS	F	P
Risky Sexual Behavior	ITEMS	Sphericity Assumed	1608.06	19.00	84.63	47.58	0.00
		Greenhouse-Geisser	1608.06	16.05	100.21	47.58	0.00
		Huynh-Feldt	1608.06	16.99	94.63	47.58	0.00
		Lower-bound	1608.06	1.00	1608.06	47.58	0.00
	Error	Sphericity Assumed	10239.94	5757.00	1.78		
		Greenhouse-Geisser	10239.94	4862.31	2.11		
		Huynh-Feldt	10239.94	5149.06	1.99		
		Lower-bound	10239.94	303	33.80		
Substance Abuse	ITEMS	Sphericity Assumed	1082.91	19	57.00	31.42	0.00
		Greenhouse-Geisser	1082.91	15.14	71.52	31.42	0.00
		Huynh-Feldt	1082.91	15.99	67.74	31.42	0.00
		Lower-bound	1082.91	1	1082.91	31.42	0.00
	Error	Sphericity Assumed	10407.74	5738	1.81		
		Greenhouse-Geisser	10407.74	4572.78	2.28		
		Huynh-Feldt	10407.74	4827.99	2.16		
		Lower-bound	10407.74	302	34.46		
Aggression	ITEMS	Sphericity Assumed	1363.32	20	68.17	40.53	0.00
		Greenhouse-Geisser	1363.32	16.8477979	80.92	40.53	0.00
		Huynh-Feldt	1363.32	17.9101979	76.12	40.53	0.00
		Lower-bound	1363.32	1	1363.32	40.53	0.00
	Error	Sphericity Assumed	10024.87	5960.00	1.68		
		Greenhouse-Geisser	10024.87	5020.64	2.00		
		Huynh-Feldt	10024.87	5337.24	1.88		
		Lower-bound	10024.87	298.00	33.64		

Note: Item refers to perceived cause (reason)

Using Tukey's formula for pair-wise analysis and the mean square error term of the repeated measures analysis, comparisons among the means of each of the problem behaviors were carried out.

Accordingly, using alcohol, khat and other substances, lack of family advice and follow up, family divorce and lack of family control have been rated as "very important" while low awareness about HIV, lack of control over their adolescent emotions, desperation of raped females, ignoring family advice and exposure to sex films and posters have been rated as "important" causes for risky sexual behavior.

In case of substance abuse, the presence of "tella Bet" and khat shop around the school, family divorce and bad models at home have been rated as "very important", while peer pressure, influence of adolescent emotions, lack of vision to be an important person in the future, anger due to several reasons, imitating whites on video films and lack of interest in learning have been rated as "important" causes.

Regarding aggression, resignation in the educational policy which stipulates the possible termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10 and lack of family advice and follow up have been rated as "very important", while ignoring family advice, being frustrated in many things (specially in education), absence of free discussion with their families, and to get money for drinking and for khat chewing have been rated as "important" causes.

From the four reasons for engaging in risky sexual behavior that are "very important" to students, three (lack of family advice and follow up, family divorce and lack of family control) had been judged external, unstable and uncontrollable. Only using alcohol, khat and other substances had been judged as internal, unstable and controllable. However, from the five reasons considered "important" by students only exposure to sex films and posters had been judged external, unstable and controllable. All the rest had been judged internal, unstable and uncontrollable.

All the three reasons of substance abuse that were "very important" to students had been judged external, unstable and uncontrollable. The reasons students rated "important" were complex to group into attributional dimensions. They fall into different categories.

Of the two reasons for aggressive behavior that were “very important” to students, namely resignation in the educational policy which stipulates the possible termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10 had been judged external, stable and uncontrollable. The other reason was judged to be external, unstable and uncontrollable. From the four reasons considered “important” by students, ignoring family advice had been judged internal, unstable and controllable; being frustrated in many things (especially in education) had been judged internal, unstable and uncontrollable. The rest two had been judged external, unstable and uncontrollable.

4.2.2. Analysis of the Teachers’ Data

The significance of the repeated measures analysis of variance carried out on the teachers data showed that the teachers attributed diverging degrees of importance to the various reasons. The results are presented in Table 10 below.

Table 10: Repeated Measures ANOVA for the Teachers' Data.

Problem Behavior	Source	Test Statistics	SS	df	MS	F	P
Risky Sexual Behavior	ITEMS	Sphericity Assumed	661.63	19	34.82	33.91	0.00
		Greenhouse-Geisser	661.63	12	53.71	33.91	0.00
		Huynh-Feldt	661.63	15	44.63	33.91	0.00
		Lower-bound	661.63	1	661.63	33.91	0.00
	Error	Sphericity Assumed	1502.52	1463	1.03		
		Greenhouse-Geisser	1502.52	948	1.58		
		Huynh-Feldt	1502.52	1141	1.32		
		Lower-bound	1502.52	77	19.51		
Substance Abuse	ITEMS	Sphericity Assumed	681.84	19	35.89	36.07	0.00
		Greenhouse-Geisser	681.84	11	59.30	36.07	0.00
		Huynh-Feldt	681.84	14	49.91	36.07	0.00
		Lower-bound	681.84	1	681.84	36.07	0.00
	Error	Sphericity Assumed	1455.56	1463	0.99		
		Greenhouse-Geisser	1455.56	885	1.64		
		Huynh-Feldt	1455.56	1052	1.38		
		Lower-bound	1455.56	77	18.90		
Aggression	ITEMS	Sphericity Assumed	379.81	20	18.99	16.05	0.00
		Greenhouse-Geisser	379.81	13	29.88	16.05	0.00
		Huynh-Feldt	379.81	15	24.67	16.05	0.00
		Lower-bound	379.81	1	379.81	16.05	0.00
	Error	Sphericity Assumed	1822.09	1540	1.18		
		Greenhouse-Geisser	1822.09	979	1.86		
		Huynh-Feldt	1822.09	1185	1.54		
		Lower-bound	1822.09	77	23.66		

Tukey's pair-wise analysis with the repeated error term showed that in explaining students' sexual behavior, teachers have rated lack of family advice and follow up, using alcohol, khat, and other substances, family divorce, peer pressure, exposure to sex films and posters and lack of control over their emotions as "very important", while ignoring family advice, thinking it as modernization, desperation of raped females, lack of sex education in school, lack of self confidence, feelings of embarrassment to buy and carry condoms, poor educational background from lower grades and due to psychological problems have been rated as "important" causes.

With regard to substance abuse, peer pressure, family divorce, the presence of beer house and khat shop around the school, influence of adolescent emotions, imitating whites on video films and bad models at home have been rated as "very important", while search for relief from stress, desire not to be seen as inferior to their friends, seeking enjoyment during adolescent life, lack of interest in learning, because they don't have the vision of being an important person in the future, lack of self confidence, desire to be relaxed and keep awake, anger due to several reasons and poor quality of education have been rated as "important" causes.

Teachers have rated absence of free discussion with their families, lack of family advice and follow up, poor administration of the school system, being desperated in many things (specially in education), ignoring family advice, lack of governmental control, resigning in their future life, watching aggressive films, to get money for drinking and khat chewing, lack of counseling services in schools and difficulty of the adolescent period as "very important". On the other hand, students have rated lack of interest in learning, lack of self confidence, low or no influence of religion, imitating from their neighbours, resignation in the educational policy which stipulates the possible termination of schooling at grades 8& 10, desire to get money from children of rich families, absence of control and advice in schools, lack of moral education in schools and because they are considered as rude in homes and schools as "important" causes for aggression.

From the seven reasons for risky sexual behavior that were "very important" to teachers, two (using alcohol, khat and other substances, and lack of control over their emotions) were judged to be internal, unstable and controllable; one (exposure to sex films and posters) were judged to be external unstable and controllable. The rest four

were judged to be external unstable and uncontrollable. From the eight reasons that were "important" to teachers, lack of sex education in schools was judged to be external, unstable and controllable; poor educational background from lower grades was judged to be internal, stable and uncontrollable. The rest six causes were judged to be internal stable and controllable.

For substance abuse, from six reasons that were "very important" for teachers, only influence of adolescent emotions was judged to be internal, unstable and controllable; all the rest five were judged to be external, unstable and uncontrollable. Of the nine reasons that were "important" to teachers two (lack of interest in learning and lack of self-confidence) were judged to be internal, unstable and uncontrollable; one (poor quality of education) was judged to be external, unstable and uncontrollable; and the rest six had been judged internal, unstable and uncontrollable.

Of the eleven reasons of aggression that were "very important" to teachers, three (being frustrated in many things (especially in education), resigning in their future life and since adolescence is a difficult period) were judged to be internal, unstable and uncontrollable; one (ignoring family advice) had been judged internal, unstable and controllable. Another one (watching aggressive films) was judged to be external, unstable and controllable; the rest six were judged to be external, unstable and uncontrollable. From the nine "important" reasons for aggression, two (lack of interest to learning and lack of self-confidence) had been judged internal, unstable and controllable, one (resigning in the educational policy which stipulates the possible termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10) had been external, stable and controllable, and the rest were judged to be internal, unstable and controllable.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

One main objective was set for the present study. It was to investigate students' and teachers' attributions for students' problem behaviors in Bahir Dar general secondary schools. It was also within the researcher's interest to compare the perceived causes of boys with those of girls and the perceived causes of students with those of teachers. Thus, the findings of the study have been discussed as follows.

5.1. Students' Attributions

Most of the "very important" causes of problem behaviors to students were judged external, unstable and uncontrollable. Moreover, these reasons (lack of family advice and follow up, family divorce, lack of family control and bad models at home) are family-related factors for problem behaviors. Hence, students tend to attribute a great deal of importance to reasons which are related to their families. This finding is partially consistent with Guttman's (1982) report which indicated that students project the responsibility onto parents, peers and teachers. In the present research, however, students attributed more importance to reasons which are related to their families and to some situational factor (the presence of "tella Bet" around the school and resigning in the educational policy which stipulates the possibility of terminating schooling at grades 8 and 10).

From the development of behavior perspective, these reasons have gained much literature support as causes of problem behaviors. Family-related factors are the basic determinants of behavioral development. In other words, poor family relationship predicts adolescents' problem behaviors at school (Forehand, 1986).

Parents of children with problem behaviors are poor in family management practices: monitoring the adolescents' whereabouts, using effective discipline for problem behavior, employing effective problem solving skills and reinforcing the development of prosocial skills. They use low monitoring, administer threatening and harsh discipline; and they have weak relationship with their children. Such child rearing styles are positively related to adolescents' problem behaviors (Patterson and Southerner-Loeber, 1984; Fekadu, 2000).

Although family-related causes have received much literature support, problem behaviors might also be due to their low expectancy to future success or to avoid prior failure (Weiner, 1989; Alock, *et al.*, 1988). For instance, students might drink alcohol or chew khat to avoid past failure or due to their low expectancy of future success.

Students perceived using alcohol, khat and other substances as "very important" cause for risky sexual behavior. Regarding this, Whitaker (2000) has reported that using alcohol and other drugs are related to adolescents' involvement in unprotective sex. Moreover, Dagne (1999) has suggested that taking stimulants expose adolescents to sexual activities, which result in sexually transmitted diseases and to unwanted pregnancy. In short, substance abuse influences adolescents to engage in risky sexual behavior. But, why they abuse substances? Again students attribute substance abuse to the above family-related causes. Hence, students give emphasis to the family-related factors as determinant of their behaviors.

One "very important" reason for substance abuse is the presence of "tella Bet" (literally house of tella-local beer) and khat shop around the school. Concerning this,

issue Yalew (2004) explained that the administrator of Tana Haiq High School has appealed to the surrounding residents not to sell local beer (tella) and “areke” for students. The ease of accessibility may, of course, increase students’ use of substances. Regarding this, Alock, *et al.* (1988) suggested that the perception that the opportunities for problem behavior present predisposes the development of problem behavior. Therefore, students’ explanation seems to be understandable.

Students perceived despair concerning the educational policy which involves termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10 as a “very important” cause for aggression. This policy may be an issue of everyday discussion especially for low achieving students. Grade 10 students (in particular low achievers and those with low self-confidence) may feel that education ends up there. The case may not be different for grade 9 students as they are the immediate successor of the fate. Hence, students may become hopeless and frustrated. As a result they may aggress on others. This is one possible explanation for this result.

Most of the reasons considered “important” by students have been judged to be internal, unstable and controllable. Moreover, reasons such as low awareness about HIV, lack of control over their adolescent emotions, ignoring family advice, lack of vision to be an important person in the future, anger due to several reasons and being frustrated in many things are directly related to students themselves.

In other words, although students gave a prime concern for family-related causes, they have also taken responsibility for their problem behaviors. This result is inconsistent with Guttman’s (1982) finding. In his study, students protected themselves and attributed only to external sources. One possible explanation for this inconsistency may

be the difference in maturation between the study subjects (students). His study subjects were elementary school students. Since elementary school children are very young, they may depend on others. Hence, they may perceive parents, teachers and peers as determinants of their problem behaviors. However, as individuals mature, they become independent of others and start to take responsibility for their behaviors. Moreover, as individuals mature, they try to be logical in explaining things. Reasons that are "important" to students have been discussed as follows.

Low Awareness About HIV. The knowledge, attitudes and beliefs students have about HIV and its protective techniques may affect their engagement in risky sexual behavior. However, among high school students who reported getting information about HIV through mass media and from health professionals, the majority have had intercourse with two to five partners (Solomon, 1990). Moreover, college students have reported that they didn't use condoms at all although they know that AIDS is a terrible disease (Beyene, *et al.*, 1997). Therefore, the explanation that low awareness about HIV as an "important" cause of risky sexual behavior, although logical, may not be a sufficient reason. Today, the problem is not only lack of awareness about HIV. The serious issue seems how to bring behavioral change. Unless, people bring change in their attitudes and behaviors, only creating awareness doesn't serve more.

Lack of Control over Their Adolescent Emotion. This is an "important" cause to students for risky sexual behavior and substance abuse. Educators agree that high proportions of problem behaviors are manifested during adolescence (Laurence, cited in Fekadu, 2000). During this period, adolescents become emotionally unstable (Hayes, 1998). Thus, adolescents may need only to satisfy their emotional curiosity without

analyzing its adverse consequences. Hence, the students' perception seems to be acceptable.

Desperation of Raped Females. It is difficult to explain rape as a cause for risky sexual behavior because raped females may see males in general as fierce animals and withdraw from any sexual activity with them. However, Muehlenhard and Lawrence (2005) have indicated that raped females may become indiscriminate in sexual engagement. Victims may become sexually permissive perhaps because they may feel as if they have nothing left to protect. On the other hand, since they are highly vulnerable to HIV infection, they may want to revenge males. Hence, empirical research is needed to accept or reject the reason as logical explanation of the behavior.

Ignoring Family Advice. This is an "important" cause to students for risky sexual behavior and aggression. Above all, students explained lack of family advice and follow up as a "very important" reason. They have also ascribed aggression to lack of free discussion among families. These explanations seem to contradict with the present one (ignoring family advice). If there is no family advice, what do students accept? However, when students rated the scale, they may leave aside the existing reality and think that suppose parents give advice, do adolescents accept them? In other words, they may try to be logical taking certain assumptions into consideration. Hayes (1998) suggested that adolescents reject parental authority. They may want to be independent of their parents and thus ignore their advice. Therefore, their ascription seems to be plausible.

Exposure to Sex Films and Posters. This factor was perceived as an "important" cause for risky sexual behavior. Imitating from whites on video films has been ascribed for substance abuse. The effect of exposure to sex films and posters shows the influence of

mass media and provide support for the existing literature about social learning theory. Most of human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others one forms an idea of how new behavior is performed, on latter occasions this prearranged information serves as a guide for actions (Bandura, cited in Alock, *et al.*, 1988). Moreover, Myers (1986) has indicated that watching pornographic films influences an individual to engage in sexual activities. Similarly, Linz (cited in Wood & Wood, 1996) suggested that exposure to pornographic films has resulted in antisocial behavior. Individuals who were exposed to pornography became more accepting not only premarital and extramarital sexual behavior but also female's sexual submission to males (Zillmann, cited in Myers, 1986).

To Get Money for Drinking and Khat Chewing. This is an "important" reason ascribed for aggression. Adolescents who abuse substances may threaten and receive money from less powerful classmates and others. Thus, this explanation is plausible since addicts commit crime to get money for supporting their habits (Korblum and Julian, 1994).

Peer pressure. Although students perceived peer pressure as an "important" reason only for substance abuse, previous studies showed that it is also a cause for risky sexual behavior. Steinberg (1987) indicated that peers who are using drugs and who have early unprotected sexual intercourse influence the adolescents' behavior. Moreover, Hamlin (1991) suggested that if other members of the peer group take drugs, the individual simply begins using it out of curiosity or simply to be part of the peer group. Thus, this reason seems to be an acceptable explanation for problem behaviors.

5.2. Teachers' Attributions

Except one reason for aggression, all the reasons considered "very important" by students are also "very important" to teachers. Students felt resignation due to the educational policy which involves termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10 as a "very important" reason for aggression, while teachers perceived it as an "important" reason. Teachers have also perceived all reasons regarded to be "important" by students as "very important" or "important" causes. Moreover, compared to students, teachers have rated additional reasons to be "important" causes for the problem behaviors under discussion.

Most of the "very important" and some of the "important" reasons to teachers have been judged external, unstable and uncontrollable. On the other hand, some of the "very important" and most of the "important" reasons had been judged internal, unstable and controllable. Among the external, unstable and uncontrollable reasons, lack of family advice and follow up, family divorce, lack of family control, bad models at home and lack of free discussion with their families are family-related explanations. With the exception of peer pressure, lack of sex education in schools, the presence of "Tella Bet" and khat shop around the school, due to poor quality of education, poor administration of the school system, lack of governmental control and lack of counseling services in schools, all the other reasons are related to students.

This finding is partially consistent with the previous findings (Guttman, 1982; Medway, 1979). In Guttman's study teachers attributed a great deal of importance to reasons that relate problem behavior directly to the students (psychological problems, failure in studies, need for attention and to let off steam). Secondly, they projected the responsibility for problem behavior onto parents (bad examples at home and parents' level of education). Comparatively, family-related reasons were less important than

student-related reasons. In Medway's study, teachers attributed students' problem behavior only to students themselves. In the current study, however, teachers attributed problem behavior both to family and child related reasons, and family-related reasons were relatively more important to them than student-related ones. Although there is a difference, students and teachers have agreed on most of the reasons and they used the same attributional styles.

Difference in child rearing practices may account for the inconsistencies between the present and previous studies. Most probably a large number of Ethiopian parents do not employ proper parental control; they may not advise and monitor children. Free and open discussions are uncommon among families in our society. Although the contemporary trend is changing, children were not allowed even to talk and play with elders. Moreover, due to economical problems, in most cases it is difficult to satisfy their basic needs, let alone to control and monitor the children's whereabouts. On the other hand, the inconsistency may be due to cultural variations. In individualistic western cultures, where the self is more independent, there may be a greater possibility that attributions will be made to dispositional factors. In the traditional culture of Ethiopia, like any other group-oriented (collectivist) cultures, much may be expected of others (particularly from parents). The agreement between students and teachers in ascribing a prime responsibility to parents may be due to their high expectations from parents.

5.3. The Difference Between the Attributions of Students and Teachers

There is agreement between students and teachers on most of the reasons for problem behaviors. In other words, most of the reasons that are considered "very important" or "important" by students were also considered as "very important" or

“important” by teachers. Moreover, most of the reasons, which have low mean values in the students’ ratings have also low mean values in the teachers’ ratings.

However, there was a statistically significant difference between the ratings of students and teachers on twelve reasons. From these twelve reasons for problem behaviors, six (prohibiting from entering to the school if students come late, conflict between students and teachers, teachers’ absence from class, lack of control and advice in schools, absence of moral education and limited influence of religion on students) were least important both to students and teachers.

Compared to teachers, however, students have offered high ratings to the first five reasons. Teachers, on the other hand, offered a high rating to the last reason. As such, students tend to project the responsibility for problem behaviors onto teachers and school related factors, while teachers tend to project it onto religious sects.

Students perceived the prohibition to enter school if they come late and low awareness about HIV to be “very important” and “important” causes of aggression and risky sexual behavior respectively. Nevertheless, these two reasons are least important to teachers.

Prohibiting students not to enter school if they come late may allow them to loiter around the school compound. They may not go back to home or to other reading libraries. Instead, they may tend to go together to somewhere else (to places where they think is safest for them). If they proceed in this way, the situation may invite them to engage in problem behaviors (particularly in risky sexual behavior and substance abuse). However, students should come to school on time. If they come late for whatever reasons, they should take responsibility for coming so. If they come late for tangible reasons, why they

shouldn't go back home or to other reading places and compensate for their learning. Hence, in their ascription, it seems that students have systematically introduced bias by projecting the responsibility for problem behavior onto the rules and regulations of the school. Teachers, on the other hand, may be defensive since they are directly or indirectly involved in preventing students to stay out of the school compound.

In addition to the above explanation, in explaining their own behavior students may exaggerate the influence of the environmental factors (the rules and regulation of the school), whereas in explaining students' behavior, teachers may underestimate the influence of the situation and tend to use dispositional attributions (Alock, *et al.*, 1988; Hayes, 1994; Medway, 1979).

Low awareness about HIV is an "important" reason for risky sexual behavior to students but not to teachers. As explained in the preceding discussions, even those adolescents who were informed about HIV and its preventive techniques have engaged in risky sexual behavior. Although all individuals may not be aware of HIV, the big challenge today is not lack of awareness, but how to bring change in behavior. Thus, teachers may feel that the students' engagement in risky sexual behavior is not due to lack of knowledge. This is one possible explanation as to why teachers underestimated this reason.

Teachers but not students perceived peer pressure as an "important" reason for risky sexual behavior and substance abuse. As we have seen in the previous discussions, during adolescence, peer pressure is highly pronounced (Hayes, 1998; Steinbery, 1987; Hamlin, 1991). High school teachers are expected to take at least an introductory course

in psychology. Hence, teachers may have an idea of peer influence and their experience also accounts for their higher ratings of this reason.

Watching aggressive films, poor administration of the school system and lack of governmental control are among the “very important” reasons for aggression to teachers. However, these reasons are least important to students. In the discussion about exposure to sex films and posters (page, 70), the influence of pornography on sexual behavior has been explained. Similarly, observing violent films results in aggressive behavior (Bandura, cited in Alock, *et al.*, 1988). Although students perceived the influence of mass media on risky sexual behavior and substances abuse, they underestimated its influences on the development of aggressive behavior. This may be because, compared to pornography and the abuse of substances, violent films may not be common in Bahir Dar. Teachers, on the other hand, may attribute students’ problem behavior based on their theoretical knowledge about the influence of aggressive films.

Some years ago, the rules and regulations of schools were strict and student discipline was pronounced. However today, due to governmental influence to “democratize” the student-teacher relation, the rules and regulations of schools have become lenient. School administrators including teachers tend to adopt laissez-faire approach. It is the researcher’s experience as a teacher in that school disciplinary problems are deteriorating from time to time. Hence, it is not surprising if teachers consider poor administration of the school system and lack of governmental control as determinant reasons for students’ aggressive behavior.

5.4. The Effect of Sex on Students’ Attributions

Previous studies showed that compared to girls, boys are more aggressive, khat chewers, drunkards and smokers (Andualem, 2002; Marsh, *et al.*, 2001; Fekadu, 1994;

Zein, *et al.*, 1984). Based on this, it was hypothesized that there is a difference in the attributions of boys and girls. The result, however, was not as expected. In the present study, there is no difference in the attributions of boys and girls for problem behaviors.

In the past inconsistent findings for the effects of sex on attributions were reported. Some researchers reported that sex has an effect on attributions (Zuckerman, 1979; Sine, *et al.*, 1979; Tamire, 1995; Yalew, 1996). On the other hand, Darge (1988) and Guttman (1982) have showed that there is no sex difference in attributions. Hence, the present finding is consistent with the findings of these two researchers.

Those researchers who reported the existence of sex difference on attributions were based on academic achievement behavior. Academic achievement, however, is a competitive behavior in which individuals feel either success or failure. Females compare their academic achievement with that of males. Moreover, traditionally males are perceived as active, competitive and ambitious, while females are perceived as passive, uncompetitive and intuitive (Fiske and Taylor, 1984). Since this influence had made boys and girls internalize the explanation as their own behavior, they may differ in their attributions of academic success or failure. However, in case of problem behavior, since males and females never compare themselves with one another, their perception for the causes may not be different. This is one possible explanation for the present finding.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

6.1. Summary

The main purpose of this research was to identify students' and teachers' perceived causes of problem behaviors in Bahir Dar town general secondary schools. Three problem areas were considered in the study, namely risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression. With this objectives in view, the following research questions were raised.

1. To what causes do students attribute their problem behaviors?
2. Is there difference between boys and girls in their attributions of problem behaviors?
3. To what causes do teachers attribute students' problem behaviors?
4. Is there congruence in the causes of problem behaviors perceived by students and teachers?

To conduct this research, 80 teachers and 315 students were selected using stratified random sampling technique. Students were stratified based on their schools, grade levels, sections and sex, while teachers were stratified based on the schools in which they teach. Among the respondents, eleven students didn't complete the scales, while two teachers didn't return the scales. Hence, the final analysis was done on the data gathered from 304 students and 78 teachers.

The instruments used in this study were scales. These scales were developed which contained items about risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression. Initially open-ended questionnaires were administered to 50 students and 15 teachers randomly selected from the target population. These students and teachers were asked to

list down the perceived causes of problem behaviors (risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression). The pools of causes (explanations) were compiled and redundancies were avoided. The acceptance of these explanations (reasons) by adolescents was also assessed. Then, the refined items (perceived causes) were structured into a five-point scale.

The final scales were administered to 100 randomly selected students from the study population. However, nine students didn't complete the scales properly. The reliability indices (Cronbach α) for the three scales were: 0.66, 0.79 and 0.77 for risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression respectively. Finally, the items of each scale were validated through factor analysis.

Regarding the final data analysis, both multivariate and univariate analysis of variance were used. The effect of sex on students' causal explanations, and the difference between the attributions of students and teachers were analyzed using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The level of importance attributed to each of the reasons by individuals within each group was performed using repeated measures of analysis of variance followed by pair-wise post hoc comparison tests. Thus, the following results were found.

In the findings, the effect of sex on the attributions of students was not significant. That is, the difference between the ascriptions of boys and girls for risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression was not statistically significant. However, a statistically significant difference was found between the attribution of students and teachers for some of the reasons of problem behaviors. Students have disagreed with teachers on twelve reasons (causes) of the three problem behaviors (risky sexual behavior, substance abuse

and aggression). However, both students and teachers have perceived six of these twelve reasons to be least important. In other words, the six reasons on which students and teachers disagreed have small mean values and low rank in the ratings by students and teachers.

From the remaining six reasons, two, that is, resigning in the educational policy which stipulates possible termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10, and low awareness about HIV have been perceived by students as "very important" and "important" causes for aggression and risky sexual behavior, respectively. These two reasons are least important to teachers. On the other hand, watching aggressive films, poor administration of the school system and lack of governmental control have been rated by teachers as "very important" reasons for aggression. Students, however, considered these three reasons to be least important.

Although students perceived peer pressure to be an "important" reason for substance abuse, they did not consider it a reason for risky sexual behavior. Teachers, on the other hand, have accepted peer pressure as an "important" reason for both substance abuse and risky sexual behavior.

Students perceived four reasons as "very important" and five reasons as "important" causes of risky sexual behavior. These reasons, in their order of importance, are: using alcohol, khat and other substances, lack of family advice and follow up, family divorce, lack of family control, low awareness about HIV, lack of control over their adolescent emotions, desperation of raped females, ignoring family advice and exposure to sex films and posters

Students perceived three reasons as "very important" and six reasons as "important" causes of substance abuse. These reasons, in their order of importance, are: the presence of "tella Bet" and khat shop around the school, family divorce, bad examples at home, peer pressure, influence of adolescent emotions, lack of vision of being an important person in the future, anger, imitation from whites on video films and lack of interest in learning.

Regarding aggression, students rated the educational policy which stipulates termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10, and lack of family advice and follow up as "very important" causes. They also perceived ignoring family advice, being frustrated in many things (especially in education), lack of free discussion with their families and to get money for drinking and khat chewing as "important" causes.

Except low awareness about HIV and the problem in the educational policy cited above, all the other reasons that were "very important" or "important" to students were also "very important" or "important" to teachers. Teachers, however, have perceived additional reasons as "important" cause of problem behaviors.

Lack of sex education in schools, lack of self-confidence, feelings of embarrassment to buy and carry condoms, poor educational background from lower grades, due to psychological problems and misconception about loose sexual practice (which is regarded by some students as a sign of modernization) are the additional "important" reasons given by teachers for risky sexual behavior.

According to teachers, important reasons for substance abuse include: fear of being seen as inferior to their friends, getting relief from stress, need for enjoyment during adolescent life, lack of self-confidence, desire for relaxation and wakefulness

during study, and poor quality of education as “important” reason for substance abuse. In the case of aggression, most of the reasons that were identified as “very important” or “important” to teachers have been directly or indirectly explained in the above paragraphs

6.2. Conclusion

Based on the findings, the following conclusions are drawn.

1. Students tend to attribute their problem behaviors to family-related causes. However, they have also perceived some other situational factors as “very important” causes. Although students gave prime importance to family-related and some other situational factors, they have also taken responsibility for their problem behavior by attributing to reasons which are related to themselves.
2. Like students, teachers assign the responsibility for problem behavior to families and secondly to students. Moreover, both students and teachers discounted the influence of teacher-related causes for risky sexual behavior, substance abuse and aggression.
3. It is not enough to get views of one group (students, or teachers).
4. The causes for problem behaviors are community based (family, school, national policy, etc).
5. The causes for problem behaviors can differ depending the type (e.g. substance abuse, aggression)

6.3. Recommendation

Both students and teachers have perceived family-related reasons (lack of family control, family divorce, lack of family advice and follow up, bad examples at home and lack of free discussion in the family) as “very important” causes for risky sexual behavior, substance abuse or aggression. Hence, the administration and counselors of the schools should create favourable conditions for all concerned to discuss the issue and find

ways of tackling them. Moreover, the mass media should play a role by informing parents about proper child rearing practice and family management systems

Students have also perceived the educational policy, which assumes termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10 as a “very important” cause for aggression. Therefore, policy makers should assess the relevant parts of the education and training policy.

Although students have taken some responsibility for their problem behaviors, they have given more importance to external reasons (particularly to family-related causes). However, to bring behavioral change, adolescents should accept responsibility for their problem behaviors. Taking responsibility for their problem behaviors helps them to have real power over their behaviors. Therefore, the school counselors and other concerned individuals should teach students about self-responsibility and self-reliance.

Both students and teachers have perceived many causes of problem behaviors that are related to students (e.g. low awareness about HIV, lack of control over their adolescent emotions) as “important” reasons for students’ problem behaviors. The school personnel, in particular the counselors should advise students so as to change their attributions and consequently to reduce their engagement in the problem behaviors.

Previous attributional studies have focused on academic achievement behaviors. To the researcher’s knowledge, no local research has been carried out on the attributions of adolescents for their problem behaviors. Thus, further research should be conducted in this area.

References

- Allene Tessema. (1992). *Research Tools Development Emperical Validation and Drug use Survey among the Ethiopian Tertiary Level Students with Particular Reference to Chat Use*. Unpublished MA Thesis. Addis Ababa University.
- Alock, J.E., et al. (1988). *A text book of social psychology*. Scarborough: Prentice-Hall.
- Ames, Carole & Felker, Donald. (1979). Effects of self-concept on children's causal attributions and self-reinforcement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71,613-619.
- Andualem Mossie. (2002). The prevalence and socio-demographics of khat chewing in Jimma town, South Western Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Science*, 12,69-80.
- Arkin, R.M. & Maruyama, G.M. (1979). Attribution, affect, and college exam performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71, 85-93.
- Arkin, R.M., et al. (1980). A statistical review of the literature concerning the self-serving attribution bias in interpersonal influence situations. *Journal of Personality*, 48, 435-448.
- Baron, R.A & Byrne, D. (1997). *Social psychology* (8th ed.). New Delhi: Printice-hall of India.
- Beyene Petoros. et al. (1997). AIDS and college students in Addis Ababa: A study of knowledge, attitude and behavior. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development*, 11,115-123.
- Brophy, J.E. & Rohrkemper, M.M. (1981). The influence of problem ownership on teachers' perceptions of and strategies for coping with problem students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73, 295-311.
- Burger, J.M. & Hemans, L.J. (1980). Desire for control and use of attribution process. *Journal of Personality*, 56,531-546.
- Coley, R.L. & Chase-Landale, P.L. (1998). Adolescent pregnancy and parenthood. *American Psychologist*, 53, 152-166.

- Cox, David. (1967). The adolescent in Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Education*, 1, 50-55.
- Dagne Admasu. (1999). *Sexual behavior, associated problems and risk factors among high school students in Jimma*. Unpublished MA Thesis. Addis Ababa University.
- Darge Wole. (1988). Attributional responsibilities for academic outcomes among elementary and high school students in Menlik ii school. *Ethiopian Journal of Development Research*, 10,31-57.
- Deaus, Kay & Farris, Elizabeth. (1977). Attributing causes of one's performance: The effects of sex, norms, and outcome, *Journal of Research in Personality*, 11, 59-72.
- Derlega, V.J. & Janda, L.H. (1986). *Personal adjustment: The psychology of everyday life* (3rd ed.). London: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Dill, K.E. *et al.* (1997). Effects of affective personality on social expectations and social perceptions. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 31,272-292.
- Dishion, T.J., *et al.* (1991). Family, school, and behavioral antecedents to early adolescent involvement with antisocial peers. *Developmental Psychology*, 27, 172-180.
- Duncan, G.J., *et al.* (1994). Economic deprivation and early childhood *Development*. *Child Development*, 65, 296-318.
- Dworetzky, J.P. (1982). *Psychology* (3rd ed.). New York West Publishing Company.
- Eastman, Clive. (1991). Alcohol abuse: The ins and outs. In Cochrane, Raymond and Carroll, Douglas (eds.). *Psychological and Social Issues: A Tutorial Text*. London: The Falmer Press
- Elliot, R. (1996). *Gender, family and society*. London: Macmillan.
- Emebet Mulugeta. (2003). Problems encountered and coping strategies employed by female students in Addis Ababa high schools. *Ethiopian Journal of Education*, 23, 27-61.

- Eron, Leonard, *et al.* (1961). Comparison of data obtained from mothers and fathers on childrearing practice and their relation to child aggression. *Child Development*, 32, 457-472.
- Eshetu Alemu. (1998). *Some Correlates of Poly-Drug Use Behavior Among Street Children: The Case of Four Urban Centers*. Unpublished MA Thesis. Addis Ababa University.
- Fekadu Adugna, *et al.* (1994). Khat chewing among Agaro secondary school students. Agaro, southwestern Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Medical Journal*, 32, 161-166.
- Fekadu Wakjira. (2000). *An Investigation of Behavioral Problems in Secondary School Adolescents: Types, Contributing Factors, and School Treatment Practices*. Unpublished MA Thesis. Addis Ababa University.
- Ferrante, Joan. (1992). *Sociology: A global perspective*. Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Fiske, Susan & Taylor, Shelley. (1984). *Social cognition*. New York: Random House.
- Fisseha Eshetu, *et al.* (1997). The attitude of students, parents and teachers towards the promotion and provision of condoms for adolescents in Addis Ababa. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development*, 11, 7-16.
- Flabo, Toni & Beck, R.C. (1979). Naïve psychology and the attributional model of achievement. *Journal of Personality*, 47, 185-195.
- Forehand, Rex. (1986). Home predictors of young adolescents' school behavior and academic performance. *Health Development*, 57, 1528-1533.
- Guttman, Joseph. (1982). Pupils', teachers', and parents' causal attributions for problem behavior at school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76, 14-21.
- Habtamu Wondimu. (1998). Interpersonal violence in Addis Ababa secondary school: An iceberg of challenges to the democratization of education in Ethiopia. In Amare Asgedom, *et al.* (Eds) *Proceedings of National Conference Held in Awassa College of Teacher Education, 12-18 July* (pp. 41-53). Addis Ababa: IER. AAU.
- Hailegnaw Eshete & Tefera Sahlu. (1996). The progression of HIV/AIDS in Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development*, 10, 179-190.

- Halgin, R.P & Whitbourne, S.K. (2000). *Abnormal psychology: Clinical perspectives on psychological disorders* (3rd ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Hamlin, Moiva. (1991). Drug use. In Cochrane, Raymond and Carroll, Douglas (eds.). *Psychological and Social Issues: A tutorial text*. London: The Falmer Press
- Hart, Craig, *et al.* (1992). Maternal and paternal disciplinary styles: Relations with preschoolers' playground behavioral orientations and peer status. *Child Development*, 63, 879-892.
- Hayes, Nicky. (1998). *Foundations of psychology: An introductory text* (2ⁿ ed.). London: Nelson.
- Heider, Fritz. (1958). *The Psychology of interpersonal relations*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Association, Publishers.
- Hoffman, Martin. (1960). Power assertion by the parent and its impact on the child. *Child Development*, 31, 129-143.
- Isiugo-abanihe, Uche C. & Oyediran, Kola' A. (2004). Household socioeconomic status and sexual behavior among Nigerian female youth. *African Population Studies*, 19,81-98. Web cite: <http://www.adobe.com/products/acrobat/>.
- Jones, E.E. (1982). How do people perceive the causes of behavior? In Krupat, Edward (ed.). *Psychology is social* (2nd ed.). Dallas: Scott.
- Jegard, Suzanne & Walters, Richard. (1960). A study of determinants of aggression in young children. *Child Development*, 31, 739-747.
- Juvone, Jaana. (1988). Outcome and attribution disagreements between students and their teachers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80, 330-336.
- Kidane Gebrekidan & Bereket Azeze. (1995). Survey of condom use among college students. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development*, 9, 7-11.
- Klein, L.B. (1982). *Motivation: Bisocial Approach*. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Kleinke, Chris. *et al.* (1983). Attribution for smoking behavior: Comparing smokers with nonsmokers and predicting smokers' cigarette consumption. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 17, 242-255.

- Korblum, William & Julian, Joseph. (1994). *Social problems* (3rd ed.). New York: Marin, Jhon. Lower. Manbattan.
- Krejeic, Robert & Morgan, Darye. (1970). Detemining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607-610
- Kuhn, D., *et al.* (1967). Effects of exposure to an aggressive model and "frustration" on children's aggressive behavior. *Child Development*, 38, 739-745.
- Lindholm, B.W., *et al.* (1977). A canonical correlation analysis of behavior problems and school achievement for different grades, sexes and races. *Journal of Educational Research*, 70, 340-342.
- Loeber, Rolf & Stouthamer- Loeber, Magda. (1998). Development of juvenile aggression and violence: some common misconceptions and controversies. *American Psychologist*, 53, 242-259.
- Malamuth, N.M. & Check, V.P. (1981). The effects of mass media exposure on acceptance of violence against women: A field experiment. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 15, 436-446.
- Marsh, H.W., *et al.* (2001). Aggressive school troublemakers and victims: A longitudinal model examining the pivotal role of self-concept. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93, 411-419.
- Medway, F.J. (1979). Causal attributions for school-related problems: Teacher perceptions and teacher feedback. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71, 809-818.
- Muehlenhard, Charlene & Lawrence, Kansas. (2005). Sexual science annual review of sex research. *Journal of Sex Research*. Web cite:
<http://www.worldcatlibraries.org/wcpa/8a834f590a2e7c44.html>
- Myers, D.G. (1986). *Psychology*. New York: Worth Publishers, Inc.
- Patterson, Gerald & Stouthamer-Loeber, Magda. (1984). The correlation of family management practices and delinquency. *Child Development*, 55, 1299-1307.

- Phillips, B.N. (1968). Problem behavior in the elementary school. *Child Development*, 39, 895-902.
- Pötsönen, R. & Kontula, O. (1999). How are attitudes towards condom related to gender and sexual experiences among adolescents in Finland? *Health Promotion International*, 14, 211-220. <http://heapro.oupjournals.org/cgi/content/full/14/3/211>.
- Quay, H.C. & Quay, L.C (1965). Behavioral problems in early adolescence. *Child Development*, 36, 215-220
- Rejeski, Walter & Lowe, Charles. (1980). The role of ability and effort in attributions for sport achievement. *Journal of Personality*, 48, 233-244.
- Safran, S. P. & Safran, Joans. (1985). Classroom context and teachers' perceptions of problem behaviors. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77, 20-28.
- Sampson, R. J. & Laub, J.H. (1994). Urban poverty and the family context of delinquency: A new look at structure and process in a classic study. *Child Development*, 65, 523-540.
- Shabbir Ismail, et al. (1997). High risk sexual behavior for STD/HIV, pregnancies and contraception among high school students in a rural town, North Western Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development*, 11, 29-36.
- Sharp, Sonia & Smith, P.K. (1994). *Tackling bullying in your school: a practical handbook for teachers*. London: Rutledge.
- Sine, S.V., et al. (1979). Sex differences in feelings attributed to a woman in situations involving coercion and sexual advances. *Journal of Personality*, 47, 420-431.
- Solomon Gebre. (1990). Sexual behavior and knowledge of ADIS and other STDs: A survey of senior high school students. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development*, 4, 123-129.
- Staub, Ervin. (1989). Cultural-social roots of violence: The examples of genocidal violence and of contemporary youth violence in the United States. *American Psychologist*, 51, 117-132.

- Stein, J.A., *et al.* (1993). Differential effects of parent and grandparent drug use on behavior problems of male and female children. *Developmental Psychology*, 29, 31-34.
- Steinberg, K.J., *et al.* (1987). Effects of domestic violence on children's behavior problems and depression. *Developmental Psychology*, 23, 44-45.
- Tamire Andualem. (1995). *Attributions of Students to Their Academic Outcomes in Addis Ababa University*. Unpublished MA Thesis. Addis Ababa University.
- Tamire Andualem. (1997). Attributions and academic achievement of education, medicine and polytechnic freshman students in Bahir Dar. *The Ethiopian Journal of Education*, 28, 63-78.
- Thomas, M.H. (1982). Physiological arousal, exposure to a relatively lengthy aggressive film, and aggressive behavior. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 16, 72-81.
- Weiner, Bernard. (1979). A Theory of motivation for some classroom experiences. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71, 3-25.
- Weiner, Bernard. (1983). Some methodological pitfalls in attributional research. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 75, 530-543.
- Weiner, Bernard. (1989). *Human motivation*. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Whitaker, D.J. *et al.* (2000). Recognizing adolescent sexual behavior: Beyond did they or didn't they? *Family Planning Perspectives*, 32, 111-117. Web cite: <http://www.agi.usa.org/pubs/sournals/3211100.html>.
- Wood, Samuel & Wood, Ellen. (1996). *The world of psychology* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Yalew Endawoke. (1996). Gender differences in causal attributions for success and failure, and academic self-efficacy among high school students. *The Ethiopian Journal of Education*, 24, 50-74.
- Yalew Endawoke. (2004). *Psycho-Educational and Family Factors That Contribute to Aggression in Schools*. Unpublished Doctorial Dissertation. Leipzig University.

- Yigzaw Kebede. (2002). Cigarette smoking and khat chewing among college students in North West Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development*, 16, 9-17.
- Yohannes Dibaba. (2003). *Sexual Violence against Female Adolescents in Jimma Town: Prevalence, Patterns and Consequences*. Unpublished M.Sc Thesis. Addis Ababa University.
- Zein Ahmed, *et al.* (1984). Patterns of cigarette smoking among Ethiopian medical and paramedical students. *Ethiopian Medical Journal*, 12, 69-80.
- Zuckerman, Miron. (1979). Attribution of success and failure revisited, or: The motivational bias is alive and well in attribution theory. *Journal of Personality*, 47, 245-285.

Appendix A. Questionnaires (in English and in Amharic)

Addis Ababa University

College of Education

Department of Psychology

A scale to be completed by grade 9 and 10 students.

Dear students: The researcher thanks you in advance for your cooperation in providing accurate information. The purpose of this scale is to collect data which helps to identify the perceived causes of some problem behaviors in schools.

A. Risky Sexual Intercourse

Some students commit sexual intercourse without physical mental and psychological preparations which may expose them to health and other social problems. Moreover, they don't use condoms and other contraceptive methods. They also have multiple sexual partners. The reasons for this risky sexual behavior are listed below and you are asked to rate each reason as very important, important, moderately important, minimally important or not important. Please show your choice by a tick mark "x" in the appropriate spaces.

No	Reason cause	Not important	Minimally important	Moderately important	Important	Very important
1	Lack of family control					
2	Lack of family advice and follow up					
3	Family divorce					
4	Using alcohol, khat and other substances					
5	Lack of control over their adolescent emotion					
6	Lack of self- confidence					
7	Due to psychological problems					
8	Low awareness about HIV					
9	Poor educational background from lower grades					
10	Ignoring family advice					
11	Desperation of raped females					
12	Feelings of embarrassment to buy and carry condoms					
13	To enjoy their school life					
14	Thinking it as modernization					
15	Peer pressure					
16	Desire of children of rich families to boast with their families properties					
17	Exposure to sex films and posters					
18	Lack of sex education in schools					
19	Imitating the surrounding society					
20	Being prohibited not enter to the school if students come late					

B. Substance Abuse

There are students who come to school after drinking alcohol or after chewing khat. They also escape from school to drink alcohol or to chew khat. There are also students who smoke cigarettes and who take other drugs. The reasons for this behavior are listed below and you are asked to rate each reason whether it is very important, important, moderately important, minimally important or not important, please show your choice by a tick mark "X" in the appropriate spaces.

No	Reason/cause	Not important	Minimally important	Moderately important	Important	Very important
21	Bad models at home					
22	Family divorce					
23	When they get angry due to several reasons					
24	To be relaxed and keep awake					
25	Not to be seen as inferior to their friends					
26	Being influenced by their adolescent emotions					
27	To get relief from their stress					
28	Thinking that they have to enjoy their adolescent life					
29	Lack of self-confidence					
30	Lack of interest to learning					
31	Imitating whites on video films					
32	Peer pressure					
33	Lack of control and punishment by teachers					
34	Learning from teachers bad behavior					
35	Teachers' condemnation instead of advisement					
36	Absence of teacher from class?					
37	Conflict between students and teachers					
38	Poor quality of education					
39	Lack of vision of being an important person in the future					
40	The presence of "tella Bet" and khat shop around the school					

C. Aggression

There are students who are not obedient to the rules and regulations of schools. They get into physical fights, offend or threaten others to hurt, snatch or damage others' properties. They scold, intimidate and spread gossips on others including teachers. Some male students force girls to be their girl friends and to have sexual intercourse with them. The reasons for this aggressive behavior are listed below and you are asked to rate each reason as very important, important, moderately important, minimally important or not important, please show your choice by a tick mark "x" in the appropriate spaces.

No	Reason/cause	Not important	Minimally important	Moderately important	important	Very important
41	Absence of free discussion with their families					
42	Watching aggressive films					
43	Being frustrated in many things (specially in education)					
44	Since adolescence is a difficult period					
45	Lack of self-confidence					
46	Ignoring family advice					
47	To get money for drinking and khat chewing					
48	Resigning in their future life					
49	Resigning in the educational policy which stipulates the possible termination of schooling at grades 8 and 10					
50	Lack of moral education in schools					
51	Absence of control and advice in schools					
52	Poor administration of the school system					
53	Lack of counseling services in schools					
54	Imitating their neighbours					
55	Because they are considered as rude in homes and schools					
56	Low or no religious influence					
57	Lack of governmental control					
58	Because high achieving students forbid them not to cheat during exams					
59	To get many from children of rich families					
60	Lack of family advice and follow up					
61	Lack of interest in learning					

Amharic Version of the Questionnaire.

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ
የሥነ ትምህርት ኮሌጅ
ሳይክሎሎጂ ትምህርት ክፍል

በፃፍና በ10ኛ ክፍል ተማሪዎች የሚሞላ መጠይቅ

የዚህ ጥናት አላማ የአንዳንድ የተለዩ ባህሪዎች ምክንያት ወይም መንስኤ ሊሆኑ የሚችሉትን ነገሮች ለመለየት ነው።

የተወደዳችሁ ተማሪዎች፡- ጊዜአችሁን ሠውታችሁ ትክክለኛና እውነተኛ መረጃ በመስጠት ለምታደርጉልኝ ትብብር በትድሚያ አመሠግናለሁ።

ሀ. ጥንቃቄና ኃላፊነት የሳይክሎሎጂ የግብረ-ሥጋ ግንኙነት (Risky Sexual behavior) ተማሪዎች በዕድሜ፣ በእኩልነት፣ በሥነ-ልቦናና በኢኮኖሚ ዝግጁ ሳይሆኑና ራሳቸውን ሳይችሉ ወሲብ ይፈጸማሉ። ኮንዶም ወይም ሌላ የወሊድ መቆጣጠሪያ የማይጠቀሙና ከብዙ ሰዎች ጋር የወሲብ ግንኙነት የሚያደርጉም አሉ። ለነዚህ ሰተላይዎች ለሚያጋልጥ ጥንቃቄና ኃላፊነት ለሳይክሎሎጂ የግብረ ሥጋ ግንኙነት መንስኤ ናቸው ተብለው የሚገመቱ ምክንያቶች ከዚህ በታች ተዘርዝረዋል። ለአንዳንዱ ምክንያትም ከአንድ (1) እስከ አምስት (5) በቁጥር ተመዝግቦ በአማራጭ መልክ ተሰጥቷል። እናንተ ከተሰጠው አማራጭ የምትስማሙበትን በ«✓» ምልክት አሳዩ።

የአማራጭ ቁጥሮች መግለጫ

- 1 . ምክንያት አይደለም
- 2 . በትንሽ ምክንያት ነው
- 3 . መጠነኛ ምክንያት ነው
- 4 . ወሳኝ (ዋና) ምክንያት ነው
- 5 . በጣም ወሳኝ ምክንያት ነው

ተ.ቁ	ምክንያት	1	2	3	4	5
1.	የቤተሰብ ተገቢ ቁጥጥር አለመኖር					
2.	የቤተሰብ ምክርና ቁጥጥር ማነስ					
3.	የቤተሰብ መብተኝ					
4.	አልኮሎል፣ ጫትና ሌሎችንም ዕዳች መጠቀም					
5.	የወጣትነት ስሜትን አለመቆጣጠር					
6.	ምራስ አለመተማመን					
7.	የስነልቦና ችግር					
8.	ለኤች.አይ.ቪ ያላቸው ግንዛቤ ማነስ					
9.	ከታች ክፍል የትምህርት መሰረት ስለሌላቸው					
10.	የወላጅን ምክር ስለማይሰሙ					
11.	ኔቶች ተገደው ከተደፈሩ ተስፋ ስለሚቆርጡ					
12.	ኮንዶም ለመግዛትና ለመያዝ ስለሚያፍሩ					
13.	የት/ቤት ህይወታቸውን እንጠቀምበት በማለት					
14.	ዘመናዊነት ነው በሚል አስተሳሰብ					
15.	የጓደኛ ግፊት					
16.	የሐብታም ልጆች በወላጆቻቸው ሀብት በመመካት ለጎራ					
17.	የወሲብ ፊልሞችን ና ፓስተሮችን ማየት					
18.	በት/ቤት ስለግብረሰጋ ግንኙነት ጥቅምና ጉዳት ትምህርት አለመስጠት					
19.	ከአካባቢው ህብረተሰብ በማየት					
20.	ተማሪዎች ሲያረፍዱ ት/ቤት እንዳይገቡ መደረጉ					

ለ. ሱስ የሚያስይዙ ዕዳችን መጠቀም (Substance abuse)

የአልኮል መጠጥ ጠጥተው ወይም ጫት ቅመው ት/ቤት የሚመጡት ወይም ለመጠጣትና ጫት ለመቃም ብለው ከት/ቤት ፎርፈው የሚሉዱ ብዙ ተማሪዎች አሉ። ሲጋራ የሚያጨሱት እንደ አሽሽና ሌሎችንም አደንዛዥ ዕዳች የሚወስዱም አሉ። ለዚህ ምክንያት ናቸው የተባሉት መንስኤዎች ከዚህ በታች ተዘርዘረዋል። ለአደንዳንዱ ምክንያትም ከአንድ (1) እስከ አምስት (5) በቁጥር ተመዝገሮ በአማራጭ መልክ ተሰጥቷል። እናንተ ከተሰጠው አማራጭ የምትስማሙበትን በ«✓» ምልክት ያሳዩ።

የአማራጭ ቁጥሮች መግለጫ

- 1 . ምክንያት አይደለም
- 2 . በትንሹ ምክንያት ነው
- 3 . መጠነኛ ምክንያት ነው
- 4 . ወሳኝ (ዋና) ምክንያት ነው
- 5 . በጣም ወሳኝ ምክንያት ነው

ተ.ቁ	ምክንያት	1	2	3	4	5
21	ወላጆች የሚጠጡት የሚቅሙና የሚያጨሱ ከሆነ ከነርሱ በመማር					
22	የቤተሰብ መበተን (መፍረስ)					
23	በተለያዩ ምክንያቶች በመናደድ					
24	ለመነቃቃትና ከእንቅልፍ ለመከላከል					
25	ከንደኛ ላለማነስ					
26	በወጣትነት ስሜት በመገፋፋት					
27	ጭንቀትን ለማራቅ					
28	የወጣትነት ጊዜአችን እንጠቀምበት አያሉ					
29	በራስ አለመተማመን					
30	ለትምህርት ፍላጎት አለመኖር					
31	በፊልም ከፈረንጆች በማየት					
32	በንደኛ በመገፋፋት					
33	የመምህራን አለመቆጣጠርና አለመቅጣት					
34	ከመምህራን መጥፎ ባህሪ የተነሳ					
35	መምህራን በመምከር ፈንታ እንደመጥፎ በመቁጠር ማባባስ					
36	የመምህራን በክፍለ ጊዜ አለመገኘት					
37	በተማሪና አስተማሪ መካከል ባለው አለመግባባት					
38	የትምህርት ጥራት ማነስ					
39	ወደፊት ትልቅ ሰው እንሆናለን ብለው ስለማያስቡ					
40	ት/ቤት አካባቢ ጠላ ቤቶችና ጫት ቤቶች መኖር					

ሐ. ግለሰቦችን ማስፈራራት፣ ጠብ ማንሳትና መደባደብ (Aggression)

ለትምህርት ቤት ስርዓትና ደንብ የማይገዙ፣ የሌሎችን የመማሪያ ቁሳቁስ ነጥተው የሚወስዱ፣ የሚሰባብሩና የሚቀዳድዱ አስቸጋሪ ተማሪዎች አሉ። ሌሎች ተማሪዎችንና መምህራንን ይላከፋሉ፣ ይሳደባሉ፣ ለመማታት ያንገራግራሉ፣ መጥፎ ወራንና ሐሜትን በማስራጨት ያሸማቅቃሉ። አንዳንድ ወንድ ተማሪዎች ደግሞ ሴቶችን አስገድደው ጓደኛ ያደርጋሉ፣ ያለፈቃዳቸውም ወሲብ ይፈፅማሉ። ለዚህ ምክንያት ናቸው የተባሉት መንስኤዎች ከዚህ በታች ተዘርዘረዋል። ለአያንዳንዱ ምክንያትም ከአንድ (1) እስከ አምስት (5) በቁጥር ተመንዘር በአማራጭ መልክ ተሰጥቷል። እናንተ ከተሰጠው አማራጭ የምትሰማሙበትን በ«✓» ምልክት ያሳዩ።

የአማራጭ ቁጥሮች መግለጫ

- 1 . ምክንያት አይደለም
- 2 . በትንሹ ምክንያት ነው
- 3 . መጠነኛ ምክንያት ነው
- 4 . ወሳኝ (ዋና) ምክንያት ነው
- 5 . በጣም ወሳኝ ምክንያት ነው

ተ.ቁ	ምክንያት	1	2	3	4	5
41	በቤተሰብ መካከል ግልፅ ውይይት አለመኖር					
42	የጠብ ፊልሞችን ለማየት					
43	በብዙ ነገሮች (በተለይ በትምህርት) ተስፋ መቁረጥ					
44	አስቸጋሪ የወጣትነት እድሜ ስለሆነ					
45	በራስ አለመተማመን					
46	የቤተሰብን ምክር ባለመቀበል (አለመስማት)					
47	ለመጠጫና ለመቃሚያ ገንዘብ ለመቀበል					
48	ስለወደፊት ኑሮአቸው ተስፋ በመቁረጥ					
49	8ኛና 10ኛ ክፍል አጠናቋል በሚለው ፓሊሲ ተስፋ በመቁረጥ					
50	የሰነ ምግባር ትምህርት አለመስጠት					
51	የት/ቤቶች ምክርና ቁጥጥር ማነስ					
52	የትምህርት ስርዓቱ መላላት					
53	የካውንስሊንግ አገልግሎት አለመኖር					
54	ከአካባቢያቸው ስለሚማሩት					
55	በቤትና በት/ቤት አንደ ባለጌ ስለሚቆጠሩ					
56	በሐይማኖት ስለአልታነፁ					
57	የመንግስት ቁጥጥር አለመኖር					
58	ጎበዝ ተማሪዎች በፈተና ጊዜ ለማያስቀዱ (ስለማያስኮርጁ)					
59	ከሀብታም ልጆች ገንዘብ ለመቀበል					
60	የቤተሰብ ምክርና ክትትል አለመኖር					
61	ትምህርት ስለማይወዱ ወይም ስለሚጠሉ					

Appendix B. Attributional Dimensions.

Addis Ababa University

College of Education

Department of Psychology

The classification of the perceived causes problem behaviors into the three dimensions (locus, stability and controllability).

Key: In=internal, Ex=external, St=stable, Uns=unstable, Con=controllable, Uncon=uncontrollable.

No	Reason cause	In	Ex	St	Uns	Con	Uncon
1	Lack of family control		√		√		√
2	Lack of family advice and follow up		√		√		√
3	Family divorce		√		√		√
4	Using alcohol, khat and other substances	√			√	√	
5	Lack of control over their adolescent emotion	√			√	√	
6	Lack of self confidence	√			√	√	
7	Due to psychological problem	√			√	√	
8	Low awareness about HIV	√			√	√	
9	Poor educational background from lower grades	√		√			√
10	Ignoring family advice	√			√	√	
11	Desperation of raped females	√			√	√	
12	Feelings of embarrassment to buy and carry condoms	√			√	√	
13	To enjoy their school life	√			√	√	
14	Thinking it as modernization	√			√	√	
15	Peer pressure		√		√		√
16	Since children of rich families want to boast with their families properties	√			√	√	
17	Exposure to sex films and posters		√		√	√	
18	Lack of sex education in schools		√		√	√	
19	Imitating from the surrounding society		√		√		√
20	Being prohibited not to enter to the school if students come late		√		√	√	
21	Bad models at home		√		√		√
22	Family divorce		√		√		√
23	When they get angry due to several reasons	√			√	√	
24	To be relaxed and keep awake	√			√	√	
25	Not to be seen as inferior to their friends	√			√	√	
26	Being influenced by their adolescent emotions	√			√	√	
27	To get relief from their stress	√			√	√	
28	Thinking that they have to enjoy their adolescent life	√			√	√	
29	Lake of self-confidence	√			√		√

No.	Reason cause	In	Ex	St	Uns	Con	Uncon
30	Lack of interest to learning	√			√		√
31	Imitating from whites on video films		√		√		√
32	Peer pressure		√		√		√
33	Because teachers don't control and punish student		√		√		√
34	Learning from teachers bad behavior		√		√	√	
35	Because teachers aggravate by condemning instead of advising students		√		√		√
36	Because teachers miss their periods		√		√		√
37	Conflict between students and teachers		√		√	√	
38	Due to poor quality of education		√		√		√
39	Because they don't have a vision of being an important person in the future	√			√	√	
40	The presence of "tella Bet" and khat shop around the school		√		√		√
41	Absence of free discussion with their families		√		√		√
42	Watching aggressive films		√		√	√	
43	Being frustrated in many things (specially in education)	√			√		√
44	Since adolescence is a difficult period	√			√		√
45	Lack of self-confidence	√			√	√	
46	Ignoring family advice	√			√	√	
47	To get money for drinking and khat chewing		√		√		√
48	Resignation in their future life	√			√		√
49	Resignation in the educational policy which states terminating schooling at grades 8 and 10		√	√			√
50	Because there is no moral education in schools		√		√		√
51	Absence of control and advice in schools		√		√		√
52	Poor administration of the school system		√		√		√
53	Lack of counseling services in schools		√		√		√
54	Imitating from their neighbours		√		√	√	
55	Because they are considered as rude in homes and schools		√		√		√
56	Because they are not shaped by religion		√		√		√
57	Lack of governmental control		√		√		√
58	Because high achieving students forbid them not to cheat during exams		√		√		√
59	To get many from children of rich families		√		√	√	
60	Lack of family advice and follow up		√		√		√
61	Lack of interest in learning	√			√	√	

❖ Substance Abuse

Items	Mean	Mean Difference																				
		2.38	2.50	2.50	2.59	2.70	2.74	2.74	2.77	2.77	2.84	2.90	3.01	3.08	3.14	3.16	3.30	3.35	3.59	3.78	3.97	
Item ₃₄	2.38																					
Item ₃₇	2.50																					
Item ₃₆	2.50																					
Item ₃₃	2.59																					
Item ₃₅	2.70																					
Item ₂₇	2.74																					
Item ₂₅	2.74																					
Item ₃₈	2.77	0.39																				
Item ₂₈	2.77	0.39																				
Item ₂₄	2.84	0.46																				
Item ₂₉	2.90	0.52	0.40	0.40																		
Item ₃₀	3.01	0.63	0.51	0.51	0.42																	
Item ₃₁	3.08	0.70	0.58	0.58	0.49																	
Item ₂₃	3.14	0.76	0.64	0.64	0.55	0.44	0.40	0.40														
Item ₃₉	3.16	0.77	0.66	0.66	0.57	0.46	0.42	0.42	0.39	0.39												
Item ₂₆	3.30	0.92	0.80	0.80	0.71	0.60	0.56	0.56	0.53	0.53	0.46	0.40										
Item ₃₂	3.35	0.97	0.85	0.85	0.76	0.65	0.61	0.61	0.58	0.58	0.51	0.45										
Item ₂₁	3.59	1.21	1.09	1.09	1.00	0.89	0.85	0.85	0.82	0.82	0.75	0.69	0.58	0.51	0.45							
Item ₂₂	3.78	1.40	1.28	1.28	1.19	1.08	1.04	1.04	1.01	1.01	0.94	0.88	0.77	0.70	0.64	0.62	0.48	0.43				
Item ₄₀	3.97	1.59	1.47	1.47	1.38	1.27	1.23	1.23	1.20	1.20	1.13	1.07	0.96	0.89	0.83	0.81	0.67	0.62				

❖ Aggression

Items	Mean	Mean Difference																				
		2.61	2.62	2.78	2.95	3.02	3.03	3.06	3.08	3.17	3.22	3.23	3.27	3.28	3.29	3.45	3.64	3.78	3.82	3.93	4.14	
Item ₅₈	2.61																					
Item ₅₆	2.62																					
Item ₅₄	2.78																					
Item ₅₅	2.95																					
Item ₆₁	3.02	0.41	0.40																			
Item ₄₅	3.03	0.42	0.41																			
Item ₅₉	3.06	0.45	0.44																			
Item ₄₂	3.08	0.47	0.46																			
Item ₅₂	3.17	0.56	0.55	0.39																		
Item ₅₀	3.22	0.61	0.60	0.44																		
Item ₅₇	3.23	0.62	0.61	0.45																		
Item ₄₄	3.27	0.66	0.65	0.49																		
Item ₅₁	3.28	0.67	2.62	0.50																		
Item ₅₃	3.29	0.68	0.67	0.51																		
Item ₄₈	3.45	0.84	0.83	0.67	0.50	0.43	0.42	0.39														
Item ₄₇	3.64	1.03	1.02	0.86	0.69	0.62	0.61	0.58	0.56	0.47	0.42	0.41										
Item ₄₁	3.78	1.17	1.16	1.00	0.83	0.76	0.75	0.72	0.70	0.61	0.56	0.55	0.51	0.50	0.49							
Item ₄₃	3.82	1.21	1.20	1.04	0.87	0.80	0.79	0.76	0.74	0.65	0.60	0.59	0.55	0.54	0.53							
Item ₄₆	3.93	1.32	1.31	1.15	0.98	0.91	0.90	0.87	0.85	0.76	0.71	0.70	0.66	0.65	0.64	0.48						
Item ₆₀	4.14	1.53	1.52	1.36	1.19	1.12	1.11	1.08	1.06	0.97	0.92	0.91	0.87	0.86	0.85	0.69	0.50	0.36				
Item ₄₉	4.40	1.79	1.78	1.62	1.45	1.38	1.37	1.34	1.32	1.23	1.18	1.17	1.13	1.12	1.11	0.95	0.76	0.62	0.58	0.47		

➤ Substance Abuse

Items	Mean	Mean Difference																				
		1.72	1.81	1.94	2.18	2.37	2.5	2.76	2.83	2.97	3.03	3.12	3.13	3.14	3.14	3.38	3.53	3.53	3.71	3.97	4.00	
Item ₃₆	1.72																					
Item ₃₇	1.81																					
Item ₃₄	1.94																					
Item ₃₅	2.18																					
Item ₃₃	2.37	0.65																				
Item ₃₈	2.50	0.78	0.69																			
Item ₂₃	2.76	1.04	0.95	0.82	0.58																	
Item ₂₄	2.83	1.11	1.02	0.89	0.65																	
Item ₂₉	2.97	1.25	1.16	1.03	0.79	0.60																
Item ₃₉	3.03	1.31	1.22	1.09	0.85	0.66																
Item ₃₀	3.12	1.40	1.31	1.18	0.94	0.75	0.62															
Item ₂₈	3.13	1.41	1.32	1.19	0.95	0.76	0.63															
Item ₂₅	3.14	1.42	1.33	1.20	0.96	0.77	0.64															
Item ₂₇	3.14	1.42	1.33	1.20	0.96	0.77	0.64															
Item ₂₁	3.38	1.66	1.57	1.44	1.20	1.01	0.88	0.62														
Item ₃₁	3.53	1.81	1.72	1.59	1.35	1.16	1.03	0.77	0.70													
Item ₂₆	3.53	1.81	1.72	1.59	1.35	1.16	1.03	0.77	0.70													
Item ₄₀	3.71	1.99	1.90	1.77	1.53	1.34	1.21	0.95	0.88	0.74	0.68	0.59	0.58									
Item ₂₂	3.97	2.25	2.16	2.03	1.79	1.60	1.47	1.21	1.14	1.00	0.94	0.85	0.84	0.83	0.83	0.59						
Item ₃₂	4.00	2.28	2.19	2.06	1.82	1.63	1.50	1.24	1.17	1.03	0.97	0.88	0.87	0.86	0.86	0.62						

C. Aggression

Items	Mean	Mean Difference																		
		2.49	2.67	2.74	2.78	2.85	3.00	3.03	3.17	3.29	3.36	3.45	3.47	3.54	3.65	3.79	3.83	3.83	4.15	4.17
Item ₅₈	2.49																			
Item ₅₅	2.67																			
Item ₅₀	2.74																			
Item ₅₁	2.78																			
Item ₅₉	2.85																			
Item ₄₉	3.00																			
Item ₅₄	3.03																			
Item ₅₆	3.17	0.68																		
Item ₄₅	3.29	0.80																		
Item ₆₁	3.36	0.87	0.69																	
Item ₄₄	3.45	0.96	0.78	0.71	0.67															
Item ₅₃	3.47	0.98	0.80	0.73	0.69															
Item ₄₇	3.54	1.05	0.87	0.80	0.76	0.69														
Item ₄₂	3.65	1.16	0.98	0.91	0.87	0.80	0.65													
Item ₄₈	3.65	1.16	0.98	0.91	0.87	0.80	0.65													
Item ₅₇	3.79	1.30	1.21	1.05	1.01	0.94	0.79	0.76												
Item ₄₆	3.83	1.34	1.16	1.09	1.05	0.98	0.83	0.80	0.66											
Item ₄₃	3.83	1.34	1.16	1.09	1.05	0.98	0.83	0.80	0.66											
Item ₅₂	3.83	1.34	1.16	1.09	1.05	0.98	0.83	0.80	0.66											
Item ₆₀	4.15	1.66	1.48	1.41	1.37	1.30	1.15	1.12	0.98	0.86	0.79	0.70	0.68							
Item ₄₁	4.17	1.68	1.50	1.43	1.39	1.32	1.17	1.14	1.00	0.88	0.81	0.72	0.72	0.63						

Appendix D. THE RESULTS OF THE PILOT TESTS

The correlation of items with the total item score.

Risky Sexual Behavior		Substance Abuse		Aggression	
Item	r	Item	r	Item	r
1	0.23	33	0.27	74	0.22
2	0.22	34	0.23	75	0.35
3	0.16*	35	0.35	76	0.43
4	0.37	36	0.4	77	0.25
5	0.33	37	0.26	78	0.27*
6	0.23	38	0.4	79	0.19
7	0.28*	39	0.32	80	0.38
8	0.19*	40	0.3	81	0.37
9	0.24	41	0.35	82	0.49
10	0.3	42	0.16*	83	0.34
11	0.34	43	0.24	84	0.38
12	0.39	44	0.38	85	0.48
13	0.49	45	0.39	86	0.26
14	0.24	46	0.26	87	0.33
15	0.37	47	0.33	88	0.36
16	0.36	48	0.44	89	0.3
17	0.27	49	0.26	90	0.3
18	0.36	50	0.4	91	0.48
19	0.51	51	0.36	92	0.26*
20	0.37	52	0.28	93	0.17
21	0.3	53	0.33	94	0.45
22	0.21	54	0.41	95	0.27
23	0.23	55	0.27	96	0.50*
24	0.37	56	0.34	97	0.38*
25	0.21	57	0.48	98	0.19
26	0.29	58	0.46	99	0.25
27	0.11	59	0.32	100	0.23
28	0.34	60	0.44	101	0.34
29	0.47	61	0.22	102	0.44
30	0.27	62	0.22	103	0.42
31	0.30*	63	0.37	104	0.37
32	0.3	64	0.47	105	0.27
		65	0.44	106	0.26*
		66	0.36	107	0.23
		67	0.37	108	0.17
		68	0.35	109	0.4
		69	0.4	110	0.31
		70	0.26	111	0.37
		71	0.11*	112	0.27
		72	0.18*	113	0.3
		73	0.14*	114	0.27
				115	0.31
				116	0.29

* = Correlation coefficients which are not significant

Rotated Component Matrix for Aggression

Item	Components												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
74				0.5			0.6						
75		0.4					0.3						
76	0.5												
77	0.3												
79				0.4							0.3		
80	0.5												
81	0.5		0.4										
82	0.6												
83	0.3							0.3					
84				0.4				0.5					
85	0.6												
86			0.3										
87													
88	0.30										0.4		
89			0.30							0.5	0.3		
90	0.4												
91	0.4	0.4											
93				0.5									
94	0.4							0.4					
95		0.3											
98		0.6	0.3									0.4	
99		0.4					0.4						
100					0.53								
101													
102	0.5								0.36				
103	0.4	0.4											
104	0.4												
105		0.3											
107				0.4									
108							0.3					0.4	
109		0.4	0.3									0.5	
110													
111	0.40									0.33			
112													
113					0.5					0.5			
114	0.4		0.3			0.4				0.3			
115	0.4												
116	0.4												

Note: In all the three above tables only significant factor loadings are given

DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of materials used for the thesis has been acknowledged.

Asnakew Tagele