

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

**CAUSAL ATTRIBUTIONS FOR POVERTY**

**AMONG ADULTS IN NEKEMTE TOWN,**

**OROMIA REGION**

A Thesis Presented to the School of Graduate Studies in Partial  
Fulfillments of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts  
in Social Psychology

By  
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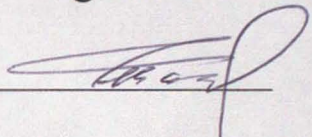

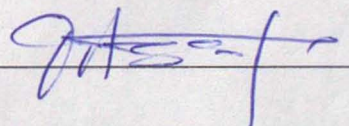



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Addis Ababa University  
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Causal Attributions for Poverty among Adults  
In Nekemte Town, Oromia Region

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## Acronyms

ANOVA- Analysis of Variance

MANOVA- Multiple Analyses of Variance

NGO-Non-Governmental Organization

SD-Standard Deviation

SPSS- Statistical Package for Social Science

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## ABSTRACT

The study of causal attributions for poverty did not get much attention from psychological point of view. The purpose of this study is to investigate causal attributions for poverty among adults in *Nekemte* town. To accomplish this purpose, questionnaire was distributed to 410 participants out of whom the 400 questionnaires were found to be usable and analyzed.

To see the relative importance of the dimensions of causal attributions for poverty, the means of scores of responses were computed for each dimension. Accordingly, the means of individualistic, structuralistic and fatalistic attribution was 1.98, 3.91 and 2.91 respectively. This implies that the adults generally attributed poverty to structuralistic than to individualistic and fatalistic dimensions.

The analysis of t-test revealed that there is no significant difference between males and females in making causal attributions for poverty on the three dimensions.

While there are no significant differences among the adults from three age groups and four religious affiliations in making causal attributions for poverty, One-way ANOVA showed that adults with bachelor degree and above attributed poverty to individualistic than their counterparts did ( $F(5,394)=10.55, p<.05$ ). In this study, while individuals with high professional and administrative occupational statuses attributed poverty to individualistic dimension, the lower occupational statuses gave more structuralistic explanation for poverty. The open-ended question analysis generally showed that the adults made structuralistic attribution for poverty; especially unemployment of youth. On the basis of the finding, the researcher recommends that there is a need to encourage the adults to take responsibility in trying to reduce poverty through their active participation and hard working. Moreover, government and NGOs dealing with poverty alleviation should arrange informal education program that encourage and help them have internal locus of control.

# CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background of the Study

The question of causal attributions for poverty among adults came to the mind of this paper's writer two years ago, when he was teaching at Nekemte College of Teachers' Education. When he was teaching at the college, he asked the students the reasons behind poverty. The students gave him different reasons including lack of effort, chance, the curse of God, the inefficiency of government policy and so on. Therefore, starting from that day the writer of this paper determined not to be confounded with common sense instead to analyze, refine, and enlarge the problem.

Almost as long as there has been poverty in the world, there have been attempts to explain it. Since the late 1960s and early 1970s, sociologists and psychologists have joined the dispute offering not only their own explanations but also attempting to conceptualize the explanations given by ordinary people (Carr, 2001 cited in Chalachew, 2007).

Concern about issues of poverty is increasing at the international level. It has been also the focus of Ethiopian government as the most important social problem undermining the progress of the country is poverty. While economists have attempted to understand and suggest methods to tackle it, psychologists largely have kept away from this problem (Shanmugam, 1988). Similarly, Carr (2001, cited in Chalachew, 2007) stated that although poverty is a global issue profoundly affecting millions of human beings, the psychology literature rarely focuses on this problem. Supporting the idea of Carr, Niemela (2008) in his recently research on perception of the causes of poverty in Finland stated that psychology literature has given little attention to causal attribution for poverty. In addition, although Ethiopian government and policy makers have been concerned with poverty and its eradication for many years, remarkably little is known about the causal attributions for poverty among adults in the country in general and in Oromia in particular.

A number of Ethiopian researchers (Demaelash (2005), Darge, 1988; Tamirie 1995; Yalew, 1996; Deribie, 1998; and Tiruwork, 2004) and foreigner educationists and psychologists (Weiner, 1985; Lewis, 1966) have dealt with various aspects of attribution

to identify causes of achievement and the effect of attribution on the teaching -learning process. However, though the study of the above-mentioned researchers is about causal attribution, it is not related to poverty. Few foreigner psychologists have done poverty related researches and some of them are discussed below.

In his studies of beliefs about the causes of poverty in the United States, Feagin (1972) cited in Guimond, Begin and Palmer (1989) developed two conceptual dimensions of external causal explanations for poverty: "structural explanations" and "fatalistic explanations".

In "structural explanations", poverty is attributed to social and economic forces such as lack of education and low wages. In "fatalistic explanations", poverty is blamed on such variables as illness and bad luck. In addition, internal explanations were labeled "Individualistic"

(the poor people themselves are responsible for their poverty because of such traits as lack of economy and effort, loose morals, or drunkenness).

Morçöl (1997) examined the external and internal causal attributions for poverty in Turkey in an exploratory survey. The subjects of his study gave three explanations for poverty: structural, fatalistic, and individualistic. According to him, income, gender, age, and education were important determinants of explanations for poverty. All income groups favored structural (external) explanations. Poor persons preferred tangible structural explanations, and non-poor persons gave abstract structural explanations. Poor persons also favored fatalistic (external) explanations more than higher income groups did. Women and older people offered individualistic and fatalistic explanations more than others did. Men and people with higher levels of education preferred abstract structural explanations to others.

Hayati and Karami (2005), studied how Iranian farmers attribute the causes of poverty, to provide a typology of attribution of causes of poverty as perceived by Iranian farmers and to compare socio-economic characteristics and contextual conditions of farmers based on their causal attribution of poverty type. His findings revealed that 50% of respondents had structural explanation; almost 10% had individualistic, and about 20% hold fatalistic attitudes towards the causes of poverty.

The concept of attribution is discussed in different psychology books and journals. This indicates that studying the attribution process has been of primary concern to a number of social psychologists since 1970's (Franzoi, 2000; Lindgren, 1981; Breakwell et al., 1988; Krupat, 1982). All of these psychologists agree that Fritz Heider (1958) was the first social psychologist to analyze formally and to bring the concept of attribution to the attention of social psychologists.

Franzoi (2000) defined attribution as the process by which people use information to make inferences about the causes of behavior or events. He added that in making attributions we attempt to determine what characteristics in each person explain their behavior and cause them to act the way they do. Similarly, Krupat (1982) noted that attribution is concerned with the question of how we use information to make causal inference.

According to Lindgren (1981), attribution lies at the core of person's experience as social organisms. He further asserted that attribution is the way in which we explain, account for or assign causes for personal, interpersonal and intrapersonal events. This is to mean that attribution is the central process in our understanding of others and us. Hence, we come to know our own attitudes, emotions and other internal states.

While Lindgren considers attribution as way of explanation, Breakwell (1988) and his colleagues consider attribution as kinds of explanations that people offer for events.

Attribution theory deals with how people explain social behavior - their causal attributions or common-sense explanations (Hewstone, 1989). It is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behavior. Although Heider (1958) was the first to propose a psychological theory of attribution, other psychologists (e.g., Jones and Davis, 1965; Kelley, 1967; Weiner, 1985) developed a theoretical framework that has become a major research paradigm of social psychology (Franzoi, 2000).

According to Breakwell (1988) and his colleagues, attribution theory is a theory dealing with how the layman arrives at attributions and what the consequences of these attributions are, rather than a theory about whether or not these inferences are accurate.

They further explained that causal attribution is concerned with causal explanation. Similarly, Weiner (1985) argued that the first question of attribution theorists is the perceived cause of events. This implies that attribution theorists have been particularly concerned with how causal attributions are reached. Heider (1958) as cited in Weiner (1985) contends that attributions are reached according to the following rule: "that condition will be held responsible for an effect which is present when the effect is present and which is absent when the effect is absent."

According to Nasser and Abouchedid (2001), research on the beliefs about the causes of poverty has been influenced by the causal attribution theory and by personality style paradigm. They further explained that both theories emphasize the internality/externality of outcomes. "Internals" are those who see outcomes as function of what they themselves do, whereas "externals" see outcomes a function of forces beyond their control.

Feagin (1972) cited in Nasser and Abouchedid (2001), mapped out internality and externality of the causes of poverty along three dimensions: fatalistic (poverty is blamed on such variables as bad luck and illness); structuralistic (poverty is attributed to situational factors such as lack of education and low wages); and individualistic dimension (lack of education, lack of motivation, lack of abilities, and loose morals among the poor).

For Morçöl (1997), income, gender, age, and education were important determinants of explanations for poverty. On the other hand, Guimond and his colleagues considered professional training and socialization as very important. They argued that people learn certain ways of explaining social events as a by-product of their professional training. These attributions, then, are not simply errors or biases common to the psychology of all individuals; rather they represent what people have learned, through their own particular experiences, to see as the "truth" (Guimond et al., 1989).

In their study, Guimond and his colleagues asserted that university students in the social sciences were found to attribute more importance to situational factors and less importance to dispositional factors than did social science students at earlier levels of education and students in other areas at all levels. Do the findings of these researchers

true in Ethiopia as perhaps no research is done except that of Chalachew (2007) who took university and high school students in Bahr Dar town as participants of his study? This is the question to be answered in this study.

## **1.2. Statement of the Problem**

Starting from many years ago, in Ethiopia, the hot issue has been about the eradication of poverty. Today, the mass media in the country is becoming busy of talking about the means of eradicating poverty especially through participation of adults. The study of causal attributions of poverty among adults would contribute its own share in the process of eradicating poverty. Weiner, 1985 and Roberts, 1982 (as cited in Demelash, 2005) suggested that attribution theory is related to a person's actions, feelings, confidence and motivation. Adults are the productive power or the labor forces of the country that can play great role in alleviating poverty so that the research focuses on those who are in positions to effect change rather than ordinary members of the public. The study would tell police makers, social workers who deal with adults and different organization participating in poverty alleviation (anti-poverty campaigners) about perception of adults regarding poverty. In addition, researches done so far by different researchers (e.g. Aklilu, and Desalegn R., 2000; Yohannes K, 1994) in Ethiopia in relation to poverty are not related to psychology. But they are related to economy. They ignore the thinking patterns of people.

According to Hayati and Karami (2005), Causal attributions are important mediators of future behavior because once a cause is assigned; an appropriate action can be taken. Although many people in Ethiopia have done research regarding causal attribution of academic achievement, perhaps no research has been done regarding causal attribution of poverty among adults in Ethiopia in general and in Oromia in particular. These reasons indicate that the study is an important problem area.

This study, therefore, tries to answer the following questions.

1. What causal attributions do adults in Nekemte town give for poverty?
2. Is there any significant difference in respondents on the basis of their sex, age, and religious affiliation? If any difference exists, in which dimension of attribution of poverty it will exist?
3. Do socioeconomic statuses (education, occupation, self-declared income level) have significant effects on dimensions of attribution of poverty?

### **1.3. Objectives of the Study**

#### **1.3.1. General Objectives**

The general objectives of this study are to investigate the perceived attribution of poverty among adults in Nekemte and their causal attribution patterns of poverty as well as to examine whether adults' attributions of poverty are person blame, system blame or nature blame.

#### **1.3.2. Specific Objectives**

The specific objectives of this study are to:

- 1 identify the perceived causes of attribution for poverty among adults in *Nekemte* town.
- 2 test whether there is significant difference among adults in making causal attribution for poverty on the basis of their sex, age, and religious affiliation.
- 3 see the relationship between socioeconomic status of adults ( education, occupational statuses, self-declared income level ) and dimensions of attribution of poverty.

#### **1.4. Significance of the Study**

The extent of mass media coverage and dream about poverty cannot bring about its eradication in a country. However, quality education and research focusing on poverty can do it.

The focus of the research on adults is very important, as adults are vital productive forces of the society. In addition, the study should deserve special attention because of different reasons. Causal attribution is giving answer to the question of "why" which indicates the cognition or thought of the adults. On the other hand, cognition is one aspect of attitude. Therefore, in order to bring about attitudinal change in adults it is necessary first to know the attitude of the adults. Understanding attribution of the adults also helps us to understand the motivation of the adults. This research, therefore, can serve as a starting point to design and introduce appropriate interventions that was enable social practitioners and policy makers to have contextually appropriate poverty reduction interventions.

The brief ideas that were written in the literature reviews with the findings serve as basis to enhance the future researchers' sense of perceptions about the causes of poverty and promote their participation in poverty reduction programs by doing similar research.

Moreover, examining whether sex, age, educational level, religious affiliation and socioeconomic status have effects on the dimensions of attributions of poverty is worthwhile for policy makers, social practitioners, curriculum designers and NGOs to develop individual/ community- based poverty reduction intervention strategies and /or in combination accordingly.

#### **1.5. Delimitations of the Study**

The study is conducted among adults. Adults are deliberately considered. Firstly, this is stage where the experiences and beliefs they gained during adolescence and childhood years need to be reformed in preparation in the individual's new status and increasing participation in the society. Therefore, they would report their attributions of poverty meaningfully in accordance, with their cumulative experiences from their past life. Secondly, the researcher would directly perceive and report their income level and interpret poverty on the basis of information they have. On the other hand, this is to

mean that they would report their attributions based on their life - long experiences. Eventually, a kind of comparison on the variables was observed as to how differences on sex, age, educational level, religious affiliation and socioeconomic status influence attribution patterns of adults for poverty. Hence, examining other socio - demographic variables are not the focus of this study. It leaves these for other researchers to explore. The study was also conducted in *Nekemte* town only due to limited research budget and time.

### **1.6. Limitations of the Study**

The limitation of this research is related to incapability to treat the issue in detail due to lack of relevant research done in Ethiopia. This lack of relevant research forced the researcher not to consider attribution for prosperity as well. Besides, due to the same problem the researcher is forced to compare the findings with foreign researchers' findings. Other limitation is inability to see the interactive effects of variables using MANOVA due to inequality of the number of respondents in each group as the equality is assumption needed in using MANOVA.

### **1.7. Operational Definition of Terms**

**Adult**- refers to participants whose ages are 30-60 years and live in *Nekemte* town.

**Attribution** - is the explanation, interpretation and judgment of cause  
for an event (poverty).

**Causal**- factor(s) thought as reasons for poverty by the adults.

**Poverty** - is the state of being deprived of the essentials of well - being such as adequate housing, food, access to required social services and lack of resources across a wide range of circumstances.

## **CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

### **2.1. An Overview of Attribution**

Although not much related to causal attribution for poverty, the concept of attribution is discussed in different social psychology books and journals. This indicates that studying the attribution process has been of primary concern to a number of social psychologists since 1970's (Franzoi, 2000; Lindgren, 1981; Breakwell et al., 1988; Krupat, 1982). All of these psychologists agree that Fritz Heider (1958) was the first social psychologist to analyze formally and to bring the concept of attribution to the attention of social psychologists.

Different psychologists have explained and defined the concept of attribution in different ways. A social Psychologist, Franzoi (2000) defined attribution as the process by which people use information to make inferences about the causes of behavior or events. He added that in making attributions we attempt to determine what characteristics in each person explain their behavior and cause them to act the way they do. Similarly, Krupat (1982) noted that attribution is concerned with the question of how we use information to make causal inference.

Attribution involves human's efforts to develop a causal analysis of the social world. It centers on a person's attempt to comprehend why others and we act in certain ways (Baron and Byrne, 1984).

According to Lindgren (1981), attribution lies at the core of person's experience as social organisms. He further asserted that attribution is the way in which we explain, account for or assign causes for personal, interpersonal and intrapersonal events. This indicates that attribution is the central process in our understanding of others and us. Hence, we come to know attitudes, emotions and other internal states of not only others but also our own.

While Lindgren considers attribution as way of explanation, Breakwell (1988) and his colleagues consider attribution as kinds of explanations that people offer for events such as poverty.

A three-stage process underlies an attribution: (1) The person must perceive or observe the behavior, (2) the person must believe that the behavior was intentionally performed and (3) the person must determine if he/she believes the other person was forced to perform the behavior or not.

If the person was forced to perform the behavior, the cause is attributed to the situation. If the person was not forced to perform the behavior, the cause is attributed to the other person.

### **2.1.1 Attribution Theories**

Colman (2001) described that attribution theories are theories designed to explain how people perceive, infer, or ascribe causes to their own and other people's behavior. According to these theories, we tend to explain our own behavior and the behavior of others by assigning attributes to these behaviors. An attribute is an inference about the cause of a behavior.

Beebe et al. (1999) related attribution theory to the third stage of perception process—interpreting. Interpretation on the other hand requires understanding. Therefore, attribution theories were developed to help us better understand how causal attributions are made. Although Heider (1958) was the first to propose a psychological theory of attribution, other psychologists (e.g., Jones & Davis, 1965; Kelley, 1967; Weiner, 1985) developed a theoretical framework that has become a major research paradigm of social psychology (cf. Franzoi, 2000).

Attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1973) suggests that behaviors (e.g., poverty) can be attributed to internal causes (e.g., lack of ability, lack of intelligence) or external causes (e.g., institutional discrimination). This idea is in line with what Jones and Davis, (1965) cited in Baron and Byrne (1984) assumed as two basic kinds of attributions: internal (dispositional) and external (situational).

Attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do, i.e., attribute causes to behavior. A person seeking to understand why another person did something may attribute one or more causes to that behavior.

Attribution theory deals with how people explain social behavior - their causal attributions or common-sense explanations (Hewstone, 1989). It is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behavior. Interpretation is the third stage of perception process, which implies the relationship between attribution theory, and perception process. On the other hand, Myers (1983) stated that attribution theory analyzes how we make judgments about people.

According to Breakwell (1988) and his colleagues, attribution theory is a theory dealing with how the layman arrives at attributions and what the consequences of these attributions are, rather than a theory about whether or not these inferences are accurate. They further explained that causal attribution is concerned with causal explanation. Similarly, Weiner (1985) argued that the first question of attribution theorists is the perceived cause of events. This implies that attribution theorists have been particularly concerned with how causal attributions are reached. Heider (1958) as cited in Weiner (1985) contends that attributions are reached according to the following rule: "that condition will be held responsible for an effect which is present when the effect is present and which is absent when the effect is absent." According to Weiner (1985), attribution theory is motivational theory looking at how the average person constructs the meaning of an event based on his /her motives to find a cause and his/her knowledge of the environment. Similarly, Santrock (1988) described that attribution focuses on the motivation to infer causes of behavior in order to make sense out of world.

At beginning, it was assumed that there are two main theories of attribution. They are correspondent inference theory and covariation theory (causal attribution theory). Later, other theories were developed to help better understand attribution processes. These include abnormal conditions theory, Probabilistic contrast model and two and three step models (Jones and Davis, 1965). They also explained that correspondent inference theory states that a correspondent inference is made when a behavior is believed to correspond to a person's internal beliefs. According to this theory, an internal attribution is likely when we believe that the behavior was freely chosen, intended, had non-common effects, and was low in social desirability and external attribution might be made if we believe that the behavior is not freely chosen, unintended, has common effects and socially

desirable. According to correspondent inference theory, we try to determine the intentionality of the person in causing the effect (Beebe et al., 1999). According to Beebe et al. (1999), causal attribution states that there are three potential causes for any person's action: circumstances, a stimulus or the person himself or herself.

Abnormal conditions theory states that attribution processes energized only when something unusual happens or behavior does not meet our expectations. Under such abnormal conditions, we are motivated to find an explanation for the behavior (Anderson, 1974). Moreover, Anderson (1974) stated that probabilistic contrast model explains that when we are faced with more than one potential cause for a behavior we generate a focal set of potential causes. A factor can be a cause if it regularly occurs in the presence of the outcome (e.g., lightning can be a cause of a fire). This idea goes with Heider's (1958) explanation that a condition is responsible when it coincides with the presence and absence of effects.

Wells and Harvey (1977) stated that an effect is attributed to the particular causes with which it covaries. Kelley (1967) cited in Wells and Harvey (1977) proposed that individuals explain their own and others' behavior in a manner similar to that of a scientist identifying cause and effect relations. Overwalle and Heylighen (ND) similarly state that people make use of three pieces of covariation information about the event to solve an attributional question. According to these authors, these three pieces of information include consensus (what is everyone else doing), consistency (does this person act this way all the time?) and distinctiveness (does the actor respond in that way to all or a few stimuli of that type?). According to this theory, the type of attribution made depends on the mix of the three types of information. An external attribution is made when the three pieces of information are high. An internal attribution is made when consensus and distinctiveness are low and consistency is high. Low consensus with both high consistency and high distinctiveness results in making attribution to both internal and external causes. Baron and Byrne (1984) have similar ideas with Overwalle and Heylighen (ND) in stating the relationship between the degree of the three pieces of information and types of attribution to be made. The idea of these psychologists is summarized in the following Table.

**Table 1:- Degree of Information and Types of Attribution Made**

Information	Degree of information	Types of attribution
Consensus	Low	Internal
Consistency	High	
Distinctiveness	Low	
Consensus	Low	Internal and External
Consistency	High	
Distinctiveness	High	
Consensus	High	External
Consistency	High	
Distinctiveness	High	

As Anderson (1974) says from all the above explanations we can understand that attribution theory means different things for different people, but there is general consensus that it is primarily concerned with interpersonal perception. Myers (1983) also stated that although there are several distinct varieties of attribution theories, they do share some common assumptions that we seek to make sense of our world, that we often attribute people's actions either to internal or external causes and that we do so fairly in logical ways.

### **2.1.2 Dimensions of Attributions**

The distinction between attribution in terms of internal and external causes is central to the theory put forward by Harold Kelley (Kelley, 1967) as to how we arrive at attributions. Internal attributions for poverty tend to be individualistic that place blame and responsibility on the individual i.e. the poor. Internal attributions are seen to be

causes of poverty made by individual lack of ability, lack of work ethic, lack of self-motivation or laziness. External attributions for poverty according to Feagin are classified under two main schemes. A structural attribution which people externalize responsibility for their own socio-economic state by placing blame on macro-forces as government, public or private institutions, fatalistic attributions as bad luck or destiny and cultural factors as the social system, confessions or ethnicity (Nasser, 2007).

According to Weiss & Gal (2006), two of the causes are common to all of the researches done in relation to causal attribution for poverty. The first of these focused upon social conditions, over which the individual has no control, while the second emphasized the link between behavior over which the individual has a degree of control, such as a lack of motivation and effort, and poverty. Similarly, Hardiman, McCashin and Payne (2004), stated that poverty, according to an individualist point of view, is caused by people's own actions and behavior - their lack of motivation or hard work, for example. They further explained that attributing poverty to broad structural dimension include factors such as lack of opportunity, discrimination against particular groups, and so on.

However, most studies offered a third cause of poverty. In some (e.g. Carr, 2001; Nasser, 2007), a fatalistic cause that explained poverty as a consequence of characteristics, such as bad luck or poor health, over which the individual has no control, was offered. Social research based on Heider's attribution theory can be generalized to discern four attributions for poverty, these being individualist, structuralist, fatalist, and cultural (Smith, 1985).

It is important to note that the internal - external distinction by itself is unlikely to be adequate. Indeed, Weiner (1986), cited in Franzoi (2000), asserted that causal attributions vary along three dimensions: locus of control (internal versus external), stability (stable versus unstable), and controllability (controllable versus uncontrollable). While the stability of the causes is the second dimension of attribution, the controllability of the causes is the third most important dimension in making attributions. Moreover, Weiner (1985) argued that we think of some causes as being within people's control and others as being outside their control. The controllable/ uncontrollable dimension is independent of either locus or stability (Franzoi, 2000, pp 93).

A single cause can have a property of the three dimensions. For any individual, for example, ability is an internal, stable, and uncontrollable factor; effort is an internal, unstable, and controllable factor; and teaching and task difficulty are external, stable, and uncontrollable properties.

Breakwell et al. (1988) stated that stable causes are permanent and lasting, while unstable causes are temporary and fluctuating. These stable and unstable dimensions are independent of causality.

According to Tamir (1995), different authors made classifications of causal attributions using different methods. For instance, Berner and Weiner (1979) and Kelley (1967 & 1971) used logical analysis in classifying attribution. On the other hand, factor analysis is a method used by Swimer and Kelley (1982) in making classifications of attribution.

### **2.1.3 Attribution Bias**

As discussed above, attribution theory is a general term for a group of theories that describe how people explain the causes of human behavior. When an event occurs, there is a tendency among individuals to try to attribute a cause to that event. Such causal inferences are called attribution. At its core, as Santrock (1988) said, attribution theory assumes that people function as naive scientists in their attempts to understand the causes of behavior by engaging in an objective and elaborate reading of behavioral facts and empirical figures.

As a result of the failure to follow the objective paradigm envision in the attribution theory, a person's perception of the cause of another's behavior becomes vulnerable to a number of biases, thus becoming less accurate. A number of such attribution biases interfere with the adequate use of objective information in analyzing the behavior of others (Efrat, 2002).

According to Bullock & Funder (1986), attributional bias is a cognitive bias that affects the way we determine who/ what is responsible for an event or action. They furthermore explained that attributional biases typically take the form of actor/observer differences: people involved in an action (actors) view things differently from people not involved (observers).

According to Reader (1982), cited in Plotnik (1986), many studies have found that when people try to explain another person's action, they tend to overestimate the importance of dispositional or personality-based factors and underestimate the importance of situational ones. Similarly, Jones and Davis (1965) argued that people prefer making dispositional attributions (i.e. those that are internal and stable) and that external attributions are merely default options, made only when internal causes could not be found. Because of this tendency to make internal attributions over external attributions is so common, it has been labelled the fundamental attribution error (also known as correspondence bias or over attribution effect) (Franzoi, 2000; pp. 94). Social psychologists describe the fundamental attribution error as the tendency to attribute events to a person's character rather than to circumstances surrounding the events. In other way, Santrock (1988) explained that the fundamental attribution error involves overestimating the importance of traits and internal causes while underestimating the importance of situation and internal causes.

Franzoi (2000) asserted that there are two main reasons for this fundamental attribution error. One possibility is that when people are observed in a social setting, what is most perceptually salient is that particular person: dynamic movements, distinctive voice and overall physical appearance. In comparison, the relatively static external forces that may actually cause that behaviour are less salient and therefore less likely to be factored in to the attribution equation. Arkin & Duval (1975) and Jones & Nisbett (1972) have described elements that are salient as having Gestalt qualities of "figure against ground" (Prayer and Kriss, 1977). Prayer and Kriss added that the concept of "figure against ground" implies that when something is salient it receives a disproportional amount of attention relative to its context. Another possibility for the error is culture.

Cross-cultural studies have shown mixed attribution results among people from different cultures. Studies conducted in the United States have shown that causal attribution of poverty by Americans differs from societies in which political and social values fill a democratic behavioral structure. Americans are more likely to attribute poverty to individualistic reasons, blaming the poor for their own difficulty, while privileging the rich (Feagin 1972, 1975, cited in Nasser, 2007). Similarly, Furnham (1989) cited in Nasser (2007) found that British adolescents' attitudes to poverty were more classless

than being individualistic, with more structural views to the causes of poverty.

On the other hand, studies conducted outside the Western hemisphere, have shown consistent structural attribution and a lower support for an individualist attribution for poverty. Poverty attitudes in Turkey, Lebanon, Iran, India, South Africa and Singaporean Chinese tended to provide a structuralist explanation. Turks, Lebanese, Indian, Singaporean Chinese, as Eastern societies have a predominant collective behavioral structure and may tend to deflect responsibility from the group to a more powerful and controlling externalities. This implies that fundamental attribution error is more common in individualist culture than in those that are collectivist, and it is learned through socialization as Franzoi (2000) and Nasser (2007) have explained.

Whether perceptual salience, individualism or combination of those and other factors explain the fundamental attribution error, this particular bias can have significant social consequences. It blocks the actor's attempts to deny responsibility for negative events such as poverty with which he/ she is associated.

Another fundamental attribution error is actor- observer effect- the tendency for people to attribute their own behaviour to external causes but that of others to internal factors. This model draws on attributional research, which suggests that 'actors' tend to make situational attributions about their behaviour whereas 'observers' tend to make dispositional attributions about that behaviour (Carr, 2001; Santrock, 1988). Similarly, Jones and Nisbett (1972) cited in Weiner (1985) stated that there is a pervasive tendency for actors to attribute their action to situational requirements, where as observers tend to attribute the same actions i.e. poverty to stable personal disposition.

According to Crano and Messe' (1982), research has shown that observers are more likely to infer traits (dispositional attributions) in a target when they perceive the target as personally responsible for the potential cues. They further explained that an actor's behaviour can cause an event to occur, but these behaviours can be the result of forces that are beyond the actor's control. This idea is similar to what Weiner (1985) labelled as internal- uncontrollable dimension. In this case, we judge the actor's behaviour as causing the event, but we do not view the actor as being personally responsible for it. On the other hand, the actor can behave purposefully in a manner that contributes in some way to the occurrence of the event. In such instances, we tend to view the actor as being

personally responsible for the event, since some intentional action on the actor's part led to the occurrence of the event. In line with this idea, Weiner (1985) additionally stated that causes such as effort are likely to be perceived as controllable, whereas ability, the difficulty of tasks, mood and illness are subject to control.

## **2.2 Causal Attributions for Poverty**

Although attribution research consists mainly of laboratory experiments on causal attributions for the behavior of individuals, a number of studies have examined how people explain social events particularly poverty and unemployment (Guimond, Begin, and Palmer, 1989).

One of the central aims of attribution theory and research is to account for people's causal judgments (Guimond, Begin, and Palmer, 1989). Jones (1984) added that it is relatively well known that people seek to make sense of the world by making judgments about the cause(s) of human behavior(s) and personality. Furthermore, Blasi (2001) states that causation matters. First, causation determines whether blame attaches -- to anyone -- and whether some remedy should therefore follow. In the realm of social problems as well, causation is crucial in determining what areas we regard as suitable for intervention, and which interventions we will come to support.

Nasser (2007) asserted that social research based on Heider's attribution theory can be generalized to distinguish four attributions for poverty, these being individualist, structuralist, fatalist, and cultural. Heider attribution theory distinguishes between internal and external attribution types. Similarly, according to Nasser and Abouchdid (2001), research on the beliefs about the causes of poverty has been influenced by the causal attribution theory. They further explained that both theories emphasize the internality/externality of outcomes. "Internals" are those who see outcomes as function of what they themselves do, whereas "externals" see outcomes a function of forces beyond their control.

According to Zekeri (2003), three general theoretical orientations have prevailed in the study of poverty: the cultural, situational and structural explanation of poverty. These theoretical orientations are not too different from Nasser's (2007) classification of the

four attributions for poverty: individualist, structuralist, fatalist, and cultural. Kreidi (2001) in his study of attitude towards inequalities found that people distinguish between merited, unmerited and fatalistic types of poverty. Merited poverty corresponds to what researchers usually call "individualistic explanation" (e.g. loose morals, a lack of effort), unmerited poverty is due to discrimination, failure of the economic system, and lack of equal opportunities (so called structural causes), and fatalistic explanation operates with bad luck.

The above explanations imply that Nasser and Kreidi added a theoretical orientation to what Zekeri has proposed and both authors (Zekeri and Nasser) have given attention to the cultural attribution for poverty.

### **2.2.1 Culture of poverty**

The most frequently cited theoretical explanation of poverty is the "culture of poverty". Before going in detail to the concept of culture of poverty, it is better to say something about culture. UNESCO (1980) cited in Munene, Schwartz and Kibanja (2005) gave comprehensive definition of culture as follows.

*"Culture is a...set of distinctive, spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features that characterizes a society or a social group. Other than arts and humanities, it covers modes of life, fundamental human rights, value systems, traditions and beliefs pp 44"*

In line with the above definition, Miller (1993) identified between material culture and non-material culture. While material culture includes artifacts of a society; its inventions, tools and technologies, its music and art, its architecture and buildings, non-material culture includes values, ideas and ideals, tradition, language, language structure, morals and mores. He also explained that personal and cultural values create a framework or atmosphere, which either defines and enhances, or retards, the development of individuals and whole societies. Similarly, Vygotsky(1978) and Hofstede (1992) cited in Munene, Schwartz and Kibanja (2005) explained that value systems of a society is an important mediating tool of human mental functioning. According to them, values are the goals that direct, energize and serve to justify a person's behavior.

The culture of poverty concept is a social theory explaining the cycle of poverty. Based on the concept that the poor have a unique value system, the culture of poverty theory suggests the poor remain in poverty because of their adaptations to the burdens of poverty. People raised in a specific class learn certain thought patterns, social interactions and cognitive strategies that often remain with the individual through adulthood (Linda, 2003). He added that for people in the culture of poverty, time occurs in the present moment and future implications are seldom considered; setting goals and planning are not a part of generational poverty's culture.

Oscar Lewis advanced the culture of poverty theory. Lewis first suggested this thesis in 1959 in a work entitled "Five Families: Mexican Case Studies in the Culture of Poverty. According to this theoretical perspective, people are poor because of some personal or cultural defects. For example, Lewis (1966) described that blacks and the poor who of course include Ethiopians in general have been characterized as participating in a "culture of poverty".

In 1959, Oscar Lewis, makes a distinction between poverty and the culture of poverty: As an anthropologist I have tried to understand poverty and its associated traits as a culture or, more accurately, as a subculture with its own structure and rationale, as a way of life which is passed down from generation to generation along family lines (pp.8)

Lewis [1966] gave some seventy characteristics that indicated the presence of the culture of poverty, which he argued vary from society to society and from family to family. To mention some of them, he described that the people in the culture of poverty not only have a strong feeling of marginality, of helplessness, of dependency, of not belonging but also like aliens in their own country, convinced that the existing institutions do not serve their interests and needs. Along with this feeling of powerlessness is a widespread feeling of inferiority, of personal unworthiness. Tumlinson (2007) further stated that people in the culture of poverty are imprisoned by their culture. They are locked behind stonewalls and hopelessness of poverty. This is true of the Ethiopians as it is reflected in Amharic proverb “ኑሮ ከሱት መቃብር ይጥቃል” literally translated as “grave-yard enjoys you if

you assume it as a life.” Similarly it is reflected in Oromo proverb that “Waanti abbaan jaallate mixmixaa fi soogidda.” literally translated as whatever a person likes is the same as paper and salt.

Stockwell and Laidlaw (1981) cited in Miller (1993), say that economic development, or any kind of economic change, does not occur in isolation, but is part of a much larger and more general cultural transformation. In other words, economy and culture are dynamically interrelated; economic development will both influence and be influenced by other aspects of culture.

According to Miller (1993), Stockwell and Laidlaw further suggested that development requires a socio-cultural setting that will encourage the kinds of behavior that are necessary to achieve more adequate resource development and utilization. To the extent that such behavior is discouraged or not fully encouraged, culture may act as a serious obstacle to economic development. Similarly, World Bank stated that culture has potentially good and bad effects on processes of poverty reduction (The World Bank Group, 2007).

Some researchers in Ethiopia believe that the value systems related to gender issues have contributed a great role for poverty in Ethiopia. For instance, in her study of role of ICT in alleviating poverty, Sara (ND) explained that patriarchal laws, which constrain women access to and control of resources, have contributed to poverty. The same idea with this is that of Munene, Schwartz and Kibanja (2005) which states that gender hierarchy which is part of African culture enables men to retain much of their control of home and its income. They further explained that in the hierarchical culture, resources are legitimately allocated according to ascribed positions in the hierarchy.

Other researchers (e.g. Bevan, 2005) described that livelihood systems contribute to the prevalence of poverty in Ethiopia especially in urban areas. According to him, 14.5% of the population lives in urban areas. While urban centers are probably better off than rural areas there are indications that urban poverty has been increasing in recent years, partly due to the general economic decline, but also because of high rates of urban population growth due to rural urban migration. He also stated that many of the migrants are destitute rural people in search of a better life.

### 2.2.2 Situational view of poverty

The "Situational view of poverty" is the second theoretical framework forwarded by Zekeri (2003) and others. According to him, this theoretical approach views people as poor because of some personal characteristics that make them less competitive in the labor market. He also made clear that low educational attainments, primary adherence to the family rather than the workplace, and inadequate intelligence or motivation are some examples of these characteristics. This idea is in line with the idea of Nasser's (2007) classification of individualistic attributions for poverty that place blame and responsibility on the individual i.e. the poor. He advanced his idea that individualistic attributions for poverty is similar with Heider's (1958) discern of internal attributions that are seen to be causes of poverty made by individual lack of ability, work ethic, self-motivation or laziness. Similarly, Guimond, Begin, and Palmer (1989) said that individualistic attributions for poverty hold the poor responsible for poverty because of lack of education, lack of motivation, lack of abilities, and loose morals among the poor. Hunt (2004) added that individualistic beliefs locate the causes of poverty in poor persons themselves (e.g., lack of ability, lack of effort). According to Rafter (2002), "the paradigm of Individual Responsibility" suggests that the individual is ultimately responsible for his or her own socio-economic conditions.

The difference between the above two views (culture-of-poverty theory and the situational view of poverty) is not minor and explained by Zekeri as follows:

*"Differences between the culture-of-poverty theory and the situational view of poverty may seem trivial, but they are not; they view the causes of poverty in a very different light. For example, the culture-of-poverty theory view the characteristics of the poor as part of the problem; for the situational view of poverty, although the poor may have some differences from the middle class, the differences are not part of the causes of poverty-only a reflection of their situation. And where the culture-of-poverty theory suggests that the poor must be changed if we are to reduce poverty, the situational view suggests that if the situation of poverty is changed, if there are opportunities and jobs, any differing characteristics of the poor will not prevent them from taking advantage of new opportunities (2003:5).*

## CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODS

### 3.1. Population, Samples and Sampling Techniques

The target population of the study is adults in *Nekemte* town. Out of adults living in the six kifle ketemas of the town, the respondents were selected from two kifle ketemas. Male and female respondents was tried to be taken in to consideration by including husband and wife when possible in the study. Accordingly, 400 adults (202 males and 198 females) are included in the study.

A multi- stage random sampling technique was used to select the sample participant of the research. Accordingly, from the six kifle ketemas of the town; namely *Burka Jato*, *Chalalaki*, *Darge*, *Bakkanisa Kase*, *Qase* and *Baka Jama*) two sub cites (*Chalalaki* and *Qase*) were randomly selected through lottery method from five kifle ketemas excluding *Burka Jato*. *Burka Jato* was excluded from the lottery as adults in the kifle Ketama were respondents of the study during pilot study. After the two kifle ketemas were selected, four Kebeles (two kebeles from each kifle ketema) were selected through lottery method. Then, since the researcher could not find list of households from Kebeles and kifle ketemas he collected the data with his data collectors starting from the main road and passing two households not participated in the study. The data were collected on Saturday and Sunday to find the respondents at home.

A multi- stage random sampling technique is preferred because it is difficult to manage large number of respondents in the six kifle ketamas of the town. In addition, the researcher beliefs using successive random sampling method would not affect the finding of the study.

### 3.2. Instrument

The instrument prepared to collect the data is consists of three main parts. The first part is related to general information such as sex, age and religion of the respondents. The respondents were asked to tick to the variable related to them except that the age was asked on open-ended question (see Appendix 1 A).

Under the first part, religion is presented in four major groups; namely, Orthodox, Protestant, Muslim, and "Others". Seven Day Adventist, Lutheran, Baptist, *Meseret Kiristos*, *Mekane Yesus*, *Mulu Wangel*, Ethiopian Assembly of God, *Kale Hiywot*....etc are presented as Protestant. Catholic, *Wakefa* etc fall under "Others" category.

The second part of the questionnaire is related to the current socio-economy of the adults. This second part is consists of three main themes: educational level, occupational statuses and self-declared income level of the respondents. Educational level, occupational statuses and income level are considered as the three indicators of poverty (Chalachew, 2007).

To know the educational level of the respondents, six options (illiterate, Primary education, secondary education, certificate, diploma and bachelor degree and above) were given so that the respondents can tick their respective educational level. Similarly, six occupational statuses (Unprofessional/ manual, skilled manual and routine grades of manual, non-managerial at lower grade, non-managerial at higher grade, managerial and high professional and administration) were presented to the respondents.

In this study, income level was measured by using a concept of subjective poverty line approach (Yohannes, 1994). This is because as other researchers (e.g. Aklilu and Desalegn, 2002) said, it is difficult to obtain accurate income-based information through survey questionnaires as most respondents have a tendency to misinterpret their earnings in Ethiopia. Accordingly, the respondents were asked to rate their income level, as they perceive themselves in relation to the societies around them. This self-declared income level was measured on three categories (low, middle, and high).

The third and the most important part of the questionnaire was attribution for poverty measures. Forty-eight items of attributions for poverty scale was constructed by the present researcher and adapted along other researchers' (Nasser and Abouchdid, 20001) original perceived causes of poverty. These perceived causes of poverty were developed

based on the attributional style, which reflects how the person may attribute reasons outside the self. In order to ascertain the level of quality, a five-point scale was chosen for assessing the items, a value ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Consequently, participants rated each of the items based on the scale provided in such a manner. Out of these forty-eight items, twenty-seven items are related to individualistic attribution for poverty while 15 and 6 items are related to structuralistic and fatalistic attributions for poverty respectively.

An open -ended questionnaire was used to explain other perceived causes of poverty than mentioned in the items.

To achieve the validity in the instrument of data collection, an in-depth and critical review of related literature was made to ensure through background of the study and to focus on the pertinent issues in the development of the instruments. Besides, the instrument, which was initially prepared in English language, was given to expert in English so as to check the grammatical clarity of the items. Then, it was shown to the researcher's advisor in order to comment the extent to which the items were appropriate in securing relevant information to the research. Some modifications were made based on feed-backs obtained from the experts and advisor. Further, the questionnaire was translated into Amharic and Afan Oromo languages and then shown to the experts in Amharic and Afan Oromo so as to alleviate any unnecessary complication in translation and responding to the items.

To address the issue of reliability, the pre-testing of the instrument was made. To make effect this, a pilot test of the instrument was carried out in *Burka Jato* kifle ketema which is one of the six kifle ketemas in *Nekemte* town on 60 randomly selected adults (35 males and 25 females).

Then, the items were carefully examined to see if they require any modifications and to determine whether they lead to certain conclusions for significant purpose of the study. Hence, from the first part of the questionnaire two items were concealed (catholic and *Wakefata*) as the number of respondents in each religious affiliation during pilot study was insignificant. From attribution for poverty measures, one item was modified ("Poor believe that this word is unjust" was modified as "This world is unjust") and two were concealed. For the items related to causal attribution of poverty measures, after

modification of an item and cancellation of the two items Chronbach alpha was computed and its reliability was found to be 0.77.

### **3.3 Procedures**

The questionnaire was prepared in three languages: English, Amharic and Afan Oromo. The researcher had been teaching for three years at different colleges in the town. During his stay in the town, he observed that some people communicate mostly in Afan Oromo while others communicate mostly in Amharic. On the basis of this observation, the questionnaire, which was first prepared in English, translated in to Amharic and Afan Oromo with the help of comments from language expertise. Before contacting the participants for data collection, permission from concerned bodies (Mayor of the town, the two Kebeles administrative etc.) was secured. As regard to the consent of the participants, the objective of the study was informed that the information they give is used only for research purpose and the confidentiality is secure. Then, for those respondents who were able to read and write the questionnaire prepared in the language they prefer was given to them. For those who could not read and write, the data collectors read in the language the respondents are interested in after the respondents are told the purpose of the study. The researcher tried to collect the data in the same day it is distributed.

### **3.4 Data Analysis**

The data was analyzed through different statistical methods. Means, standard deviations, chi-square, independent sample t-test and paired t-test were applied in this research.

Paired t-test was calculated to discover the relative importance of the dimensions of causal attributions of poverty and their significant differences among each dimension.

To examine whether there is significant difference or not among independent variables of demographic (age, religious affiliation) and socioeconomic status (educational level, occupation, self-declared income level) with the dependent variables of the conceptual dimensions of attribution of poverty (individualistic, fatalistic, and structuralistic explanations) ANOVA was computed using SPSS package.

To know whether there is significant difference between males and females, independent sample t-test was computed. To see the consistency between occupational statuses and self-declared income level, chi-square was computed. An open-ended question was

analyzed on the basis of sex and the factors assumed as causes of poverty by more than two respondents were discussed and the result was interpreted qualitatively as supplement to the quantitative analysis.

In the process of data analysis, all independent variables were coded. For instance, sex was coded as 1 for males and 2 for females. Age was also coded as 1 (30- 40 years) and 2 (41-50 years) and 3 (51-60 years). The same principle was applied for the rest independent variables such as educational level, religious affiliation; occupational statuses and self-declared income level of the adults (see Appendix -2).

## CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the main results of the research and discussion of the findings are treated in relation to the main objectives of the study. Prior to the results and discussions, respondents' characteristics are presented in brief.

### 4.1 Characteristics of the Respondents

As it is mentioned under chapter three, the data were mainly generated through a survey conducted on a total sample of 400 (202 males and 198 females), which comprises 50.5% and 49.5% respectively. The detail demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in the following Tables.

**Table 3: - Respondent by Sex and Age**

Sex	Age of Respondents						Total	
	30-40		41-50		51-60			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
<b>Male</b>	98	56.3	59	46.5	45	45.5	202	<b>50.5</b>
<b>Female</b>	76	43.7	68	53.5	54	54.5	198	<b>49.5</b>
<b>Total</b>	174	100	127	100	99	100	400	100
	(43.5%)		(31.8%)		(24.8%)			

Ages of the respondents ranges from 30 to 60 years with a mean of 39 and SD of 7.3. As one can understand from the above Table, when the sex of the respondents is seen in relation to their age groups, 98 (56.3%) males and 76 (43.7%) females are respondents whose age is 30-40. 59 (46.53%) males and 68 (53.5%) females are respondents whose age is 41-50. Respondents whose ages are between 51 and 60 are comprised of 45 (45.5%) males and 54 (54.5%) females. From the total respondents, 174(43.5 %) are whose ages are between 51 and 60 which is the large proportion. 127(31.8 %) and 99 (24.8%) are respondents from age group between 41 and 50 and 51-60 respectively. As we can understand from Table 3, the large number of the respondents is from age category 30-40. As age increases the number of the respondents decreases regardless of their sex.

**Table 4:- Respondent by Sex and Religious Affiliation**

Sex		Religious Affiliation of the Respondents								Total	
		Orthodox		Protestant		Muslim		Others			
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
<b>Male</b>		57	54.3	46	43.4	45	49.5	54	55.1	202	50.5
<b>Female</b>		48	45.7	60	56.5	46	50.5	44	44.9	198	49.5
Total	No	105	100	106	100	91	100	98	100	400	100
	%	26.3		26.5		22.8		24.5			

Out of 105 (26.3 %) Orthodox religious groups, 57 (54.3%) are males and 48 (45.7%) are females. Out of 106 (26.5 %) Protestant religious groups, 46 (43.4%) are males and 60 (56.5 %) are females. 45 (49.5%) males and 46 (50.5%) females are from Muslim religious groups which comprise 91 (22.8%) of the total respondents included in the study. 54 (55.1%) males and 44 (44.9%) females are from "Others" religious group which is 98 (24.5%) of the total respondents. From the Table, one can conclude that there is no great difference between respondents from Orthodox and Protestant in number. "Others" category becomes greater than the Muslim religious group as it includes *Wakefata* and Catholic.

**Respondent by Sex and Educational Level**

Table-5 indicates that number and percentages of respondents included in the study in relation to their sex and educational level. 23 (41.8 %) males and 32 (58.2 %) females are illiterate, which is 55 (13.8%) of the total respondents. 32(44.4%) males and 40 (55.6%) females are at primary educational level. Similarly, respondents from secondary education, certificate, diploma and Bachelor degree and above constitute 69, 85, 73, and 46 respectively. Therefore, the high percentage of respondents is from certificate level followed by Diploma level.

**Table 5: - Respondent by Sex and Educational Level**

Educational levels of the Respondents		Sex		Total
		Male	Female	
Illiterate	No	23	32	55
	%	41.8	58.2	100
Primary education	No	32	40	72
	%	44.4	55.6	100
Secondary education	No	33	36	99
	%	44.4	55.6	100
Certificate	No	40	45	85
	%	47.1	52.9	100
Diploma	No	48	25	73
	%	65.8	34.2	100
Bachelor Degree & above	No	26	20	46
	%	56.5	43.5	100

The following Table is the number of respondents with regard to occupational statuses and sex. Unprofessional/ manual, skilled manual and routine grades of manual, non-managerial at lower grade, non-managerial at higher grade, managerial and high professional and administration are 96, 85, 73, 69, 51 and 26 respectively. The figures indicate that as the level of occupational statuses becomes higher, the number of respondents decreases. The number of males is greater than the number of females at diploma and Bachelor and higher degree which lead us to the conclusion that the higher the level of education the less the number of females.

**Table 6: - Respondents by Sex and Occupational Statuses**

Occupational Statuses of the Respondents		Sex		Total
		Male	Female	
High professional	No	18	8	26
	%	69.2	30.8	100
Managerial	No	28	23	51
	%	54.9	45.1	100
Non-managerial at higher grade	No	42	27	69
	%	60.9	39.1	100
Non-managerial at lower grade	No	33	40	73
	%	45.2	54.8	100
Skilled manual	No	41	44	85
	%	48.2	51.8	100
Unprofessional	No	40	56	96
	%	41.7	58.3	100

Table 6 tells us that the number of females increases as occupational statuses decreases. On the other hand, the number of males is greater than that of female in higher occupational statuses. This gives some clue for those who focus on gender issue. The clue is the number of females is less than the number of males as occupational statuses becomes higher.

#### **Respondents by Sex and Self-Declared Income Level**

In relation to self-declared income level, the largest group was respondents from middle self-declared income 176 (44%), and followed by low income 120 (30 %) and high income 104 (26%).

**Table 7:- Respondents by Sex and Self -Declared Income Level**

Sex	Self -Declared Income Level of Respondents						Total	
	Low		Medium		High			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
<b>Male</b>	52	43.3	96	54.6	54	51.9	No	%
<b>Female</b>	68	56.7	80	45.4	50	48.1	202	50.5
<b>Total</b>	120	100	176	100	104	100	198	49.5

From the above Table, one can infer that there is no great difference between the number of males and females in the three self-declared income level. Therefore, when we see the three self-declared income level in relation to causal attributions for poverty there is less probable that the result is affected by difference in their sex.

**Table 8:- Consistency between Self-Declared Income Level and Occupational Statuses of the Respondents**

Occupational Statuses	Self-Declared Income Level				Chi-Square
	Low	Middle	High	Total	
Unprofessional	40	36	20	96	30.75**
Skilled manual	34	32	19	85	P<. 01
Non- Managerial at lower grade	14	41	18	73	
Non-managerial at higher grade	13	39	17	69	
Managerial	11	17	23	51	
High professional and administrative	8	11	7	26	
<b>Total</b>	120	176	104	400	

To see whether there is consistency between self-declared income level and occupational statuses of the respondents; Chi-square was computed and found to be 30.75 as shown in the following Table. This value is greater than the Table value of Chi-square (23.209, df = 10) at significance level of .01.

The Chi- square value shown in Table 8 tells us that those at high occupational statuses assumed themselves as low-income earner and respondents at low occupational statuses assumed themselves as high income earner. This is perhaps because of the tendency to misreport one's income level as other researchers (Aklilu and Desalegn, 2002) said. On the basis of this analysis, we do not surely expect that respondents with high occupational statuses make causal attribution for poverty in the same way the high self-declared income level make. We also do not surely expect that individuals with low occupational statuses and low self-declared income level make causal attribution for poverty in the same way.

#### **4.2 Assessment of the Three Dimensions of Causal Attributions for Poverty**

To assess the relative importance of each dimension, the researcher computed scales scores for the three dimensions separately (by adding and dividing by the total number of items in the scale) and compared the mean scores, Standard Deviation, and Paired t-test for the three dimensions as shown in the following Table.

**Table 9:- Mean Scores, Standard Deviation, Paired t-test for the Dimensions of Causal Attributions for Poverty**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>Mean Scores</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t-test</b>
Individualistic	1.98	.94	399	-24.61
Structuralistic	3.91	1.206		
Individualistic	1.98	.94	399	-11.07
Fatalistic	2.91	1.406		
Structuralistic	3.91	1.206	399	11.91
Fatalistic	2.91	1.406		

The higher the mean score, the higher the agreement that the dimension is perceived as causes of poverty. As the above Table shows, the mean score of structuralistic dimension (3.91) is greater than that of the others two dimensions. This indicates that there is higher agreement among adults in *Nekemte* town with structuralistic causal attribution for poverty. This result is similar to finding of Chalachew (2007) though our respondents are from different age groups. According to Franzoi, (2000) and Nasser (2007), Eastern societies, which of course include Ethiopians, have a predominant collective behavioral structure and may tend to deflect responsibility from the group to a more powerful and controlling externalities. Therefore, this result supports the idea of the two psychologists. Structuralistic dimension is followed by fatalistic causal attribution for poverty. This implies that the adults more agree on fatalistic causes of poverty following structuralistic dimension than they do on individualistic causal attribution of poverty. However, there is more variation among the adults on fatalistic dimension than on the two dimensions. The standard deviation also tells us that there is less variation among the adults on individualistic causal attribution for poverty. Generally, there are differences among the three dimensions of causal attributions for poverty.

#### **4.3 Causal Attributions for Poverty and Their Relationship with the Variables Considered**

Under this section, causal attribution for poverty and their relationship with variables such as sex, religious affiliations, age, educational level, occupational statuses and self-declared income level is discussed. To see the relationship, different statistical tests are applied on the basis of their appropriateness to the variables. To see the relationship between the above-mentioned variables except sex and causal attributions for poverty, ANOVA is statistical tests preferred, as the number of groups in each independent variable is more than two.

##### **Sex and Causal Attributions for Poverty**

The question of difference between males and females in behavior has attracted the attention of many researchers. Numerous researchers (e.g. Morcol, 1997; Chalachew, 2007) have demonstrated the existence of gender difference in making causal attribution for poverty.

To see whether there is difference between males and females in making causal attributions for poverty; independent sample t-test was computed as one of objective of the study is to test sex difference and the number of groups is only two: male and female.

**Table 10: - Mean Scores, Standard Deviation, and Independent Sample t-test for the Sex and Dimensions Causal Attributions for Poverty**

Dimensions	Sex	No	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation	df	t-test
Individualistic	Male	202	1.90	.91	398	-1.71
	Female	198	2.07	.98		
Structuralistic	Male	202	3.84	1.25	398	1.41
	Female	198	4.01	1.14		
Fatalistic	Male	202	2.91	1.44	398	.13
	Female	198	2.90	1.37		

The above Table reveals that there is no significant difference between the male and female adults in making causal attribution for poverty. The male and female adults do not significantly differ in individualistic, structuralistic and fatalistic causal attributions for poverty, t calculated value being 1.72, 1.41 and .13 respectively at significance level of .05.

However, females agree on individualistic and structuralistic causal attributions for poverty than males do as the mean scores of females in the both dimensions are greater than that of males. It is also possible to say that the male and female adults almost equally agree on fatalistic causal attribution for poverty. From the standard deviation scores shown in the Table, we can also infer that highest variation exist within both males and females on fatalistic attribution for poverty compared to the variations that exist within them on individualistic and structuralistic attribution for poverty.

### Age and Causal Attributions for Poverty

Some researchers (Morcol, 1997 & Srnivas, 2005) found that age has effect on causal attribution for poverty. In Morcol's study old participants were found to attribute poverty to individualistic and fatalistic dimensions. To know whether this is true or not in relation to adults in *Nekemte* town, relationship between age and the three dimensions of causal attributions for poverty was analyzed using One-way ANOVA. The analysis is summarized in the following Table.

**Table11:- One-Way ANOVA for the Three Age Groups**

Dimensions		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F-value
Individualistic	Between Groups	1.70	2	.85	.96
	Within Groups	351.10	397	.88	
	Total	352.80	399		
Structuralistic	Between Groups	1.33	2	.67	.46
	Within Groups	578.61	397	1.46	
	Total	579.94	399		
Fatalistic	Between Groups	2.61	2	1.30	.66
	Within Groups	785.78	397	1.91	
	Total	788.39	399		

The result indicated in the Table shows that there are no significant differences among the three age groups of adult in making individualistic causal attribution for poverty ( $F = .96, P < .05$ ). The same is true for the two dimensions of causal attributions for poverty. The results also indicate that there are no significant differences among the three age groups of adults in making structuralistic ( $F = .46$ ) and fatalistic ( $F = .66$ ) causal attributions for poverty. On the other hand, as F-observed results in all the three dimensions are less than F-critical value, the researcher can safely accept the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference among the adults in making casual attribution for poverty on the basis of their ages.

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	Total	579.94	399		
Fatalistic	Between Groups	2.61	2	1.30	.66
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### Religious Affiliations and Causal Attributions for Poverty

Using One-way ANOVA, it is tried to see the main effect of the adults' religious affiliations on the three dimensions of causal attributions for poverty. As it is done for age groups, the analyses are summarized in the following Table.

**Table12:- One-Way ANOVA for the Four Religious Group**

Dimensions		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F-value
Individualistic	Between Groups	.35	3	.12	.13
	Within Groups	352.45	396	.90	
	Total	352.80	399		
Structuralistic	Between Groups	6.512	3	2.17	.21
	Within Groups	573.43	396	1.50	
	Total	579.94	399		
Fatalistic	Between Groups	3.84	3	1.28	.65
	Within Groups	784.55	396	1.98	
	Total	788.39	399		

The analysis reveals that there are no significant differences among the four religious groups (Orthodox, Protestant, Muslim and "Others") included in the study. The finding is in contrary to the findings of Feagin (1972) cited in Guimond, Begin, and Palmer (1989) and Hunt (2002) in which Protestants and Catholics attributed poverty to the individualistic and Jews and "Others" to structuralistic dimension. This difference is perhaps because of difference in culture, experience and other variables that exist between the respondents of the two researchers and respondents in this study.

### Educational Level and Causal Attributions for Poverty

In order to analyze the main effect of educational level of respondents on the three dimensions of poverty, the above statistical procedure was done. That is, one-way ANOVA was computed and summarized in Table 14.

Thinking that any reader of this paper can easily understand more if One-way ANOVA presented in Table 14 is supported by descriptive, especially means of each dimensions of causal attributions for poverty is presented along their educational level. The greater the mean, the more the adults at that educational level agree with the dimension. The highest agreement is observed in illiterate adults' attribution of poverty to structural factors and the least agreement is observed in illiterate adults' attribution of poverty to individual factors.

**Table 13:- Mean and SD of the Respondents along their Educational Level and Causal Attribution for Poverty**

Educational level of the respondents	Dimensions of Causal Attributions for Poverty		
	Structuralistic	Individualistic	Fatalistic
Illiterate			
Mean	4.15	1.27	2.62
Std. Deviation	.76	1.01	1.38
Primary education			
Mean	3.7	1.74	3.28
Std. Deviation	.89	1.11	1.46
Secondary education			
Mean	3.97	1.75	3.01
Std. Deviation	.92	1.19	1.36
Certificate			
Mean	4.00	1.81	3.02
Std. Deviation	.94	1.11	1.47
Diploma			
Mean	3.88	1.91	2.49
Std. Deviation	1.08	1.29	1.23
Degree and above			
Mean	3.78	2.74	2.98
Std. Deviation	1.05	.92	1.42
Total			
Mean	3.91	1.98	2.91
Std. Deviation	.95	1.13	1.41

Regarding the structuralistic causal attribution for poverty, the mean value of respondents from illiterate, primary education, secondary education, certificate, diploma and degree and above is 4.15, 3.68, 3.97, 4.00, 3.88 and 3.78 respectively. From these figures, we

can understand that regardless of educational level the adults similarly agree with this dimension. Illiterate more than the others blame structure or system as the mean value (4.15) of respondents at this educational level is greater than that of others. The standard deviation of this educational level tells us that there are least variations among illiterate adults in making structuralistic causal attribution for poverty. The blame of structure is followed by attributing poverty to such factors as luck, wish of "God", illness of the poor etc as these factors are related the third dimension of causal attribution for poverty. The mean values of the fatalistic attribution for poverty are 2.62, 3.28, 3.01, 3.02, 2.49 and 2.41 for the six educational levels in the same order. Respondents from primary education attributed poverty more to fatalistic factors compared to respondents from other levels of education. This difference may be due to the difference in information that the primary level and other levels of education adults encountered in their lives or due to individual differences present in the respondents.

The means score of illiterate, primary education, secondary education, certificate, diploma and Bachelor or higher Degree on individualistic attribution for poverty are 1.27, 1.74, 1.75, 1.81, 1.91 and 2.74 respectively. This implies that respondents from Bachelor or higher Degree gave responsibility more to the poor than the others did as their mean value (2.74) is greater than that of others.

#### **Table14:- One-way ANOVA for the Six Educational Level Groups**

**N.B:** Significant mean difference observed alone is written in Table 15.

1. Mean difference between illiterate and Bachelor or higher Degree
2. Mean difference between primary education and Bachelor or higher Degree
3. Mean difference between secondary education and Bachelor or higher Degree
4. Mean difference between Certificate and Bachelor or higher Degree
5. Mean difference between Diploma and Bachelor or higher Degree

Dimensions		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F- value	Mean Difference
Individualistic	Between Groups	41.66	5	8.33	10.55*	1. -1.47*
	Within Groups	311.14	394	.79		2. -.01*
	Total	352.80	399			3. -.99*
Structuralistic	Between Groups	8.72	5	1.75	1.20	4. -.93*
	Within Groups	571.22	394	1.45		5. -.83*
	Total	579.94	399			
Fatalistic	Between Groups	3.10	5	.62	.31	
	Within Groups	785.29	394	1.99		
	Total	788.39	399			

\* The mean difference is significant at .05 levels.

As it can be realized from the above Table, F-observed value is greater than F-critical value in individualistic dimension and F-observed values in structuralistic and fatalistic dimensions are less than F-critical value. These F-observed values tell us that significant difference exist among the six educational level groups (illiterate, primary education, secondary education, certificate, diploma and Bachelor or higher Degree) in making individualistic causal attribution for poverty ( $F=10.55$  5, 394  $p<.05$ ). However, there is no significant difference among the adults from the six educational levels in making structuralistic and fatalistic causal attributions for poverty.

To see among which groups the difference exists in making individualistic causal attribution for poverty, further analysis of Post-Hoc Comparison was made. As the number of respondents in each group is unequal, Scheffe's test was preferred to identify which group is significantly different from the other. Accordingly, the analysis reveals that respondents from Bachelor or higher Degree significantly differ from respondents of the rest educational level groups in individualistic causal attribution for poverty. However, there is no significant difference among the rest groups. This has the

implication that those respondents from higher level of education (Bachelor or higher Degree) attributed poverty to individualistic dimension than their counterparts did as the mean score (2.74) of Bachelor or higher Degree respondents is greater than the mean scores of the rest groups. This finding is in contrary to the findings of Morcol (1997) and Guimond, Begin, and Palmer (1989) in which high educated individuals attributed poverty to structural or situational factors than to individualistic dimension. This finding is also different from the finding of Chalachew (2007) in which high school students attributed poverty more to individualistic than university level students did.

### Occupational Statuses and Causal Attributions for Poverty

The researcher analyzed whether there is significant difference among the six occupational statuses groups taken into account in the study. To analyze the difference, one-way ANOVA was used. As its result is put in the following Table, F-obtained (3.78) on individualistic dimension alone is significant at P-value less than five percent as it is less than f-critical value. This implies that there is significant difference among the six occupational statuses on the dimension. However, this result does not identify which group differs from which. To know this, as the number of respondents in each group is unequal, Scheffe's Test was preferred for Post-Hoc Comparison. Scheffe's result shows that respondents with high profession and administration significantly differ from unprofessional, skilled manual and non-managerial at lower grade respondents.

**Table15:- One-way ANOVA for the Six Occupational Statuses Groups**

Dimensions		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F-value	Mean Difference
Individualistic	Between Groups	16.53	5	3.31	3.78*	1. -.72*
	Within Groups	336.27	394	.85		2. -.73*
	Total	352.80	399			3. -.80*
Structuralistic	Between Groups	9.50	5	1.90	1.31	
	Within Groups	570.44	394	1.45		
	Total	579.94	399			
Fatalistic	Between Groups	4.93	5	.99	.50	
	Within Groups	783.46	394	.199		
	Total	788.39	399			

\* The mean difference is significant at .05 levels.

**N.B:** Significant mean difference observed alone is written in Table 15.

1. Mean difference between unprofessional and professional and administrative
2. Mean difference between non-managerial at lower grade and professional and administrative
3. Mean difference between skilled manual and professional and administrative.

The finding of these data may lead the researcher to conclude that respondents at professional and administrative level of occupational statuses gave more individualistic explanation than unprofessional, non-managerial at lower grade and skilled manual respondents did. This also implies that professional and administrative individuals are putting responsibility on poor people while individuals at lower level of occupational statuses are trying to place responsibility more on the system or structure.

### **Self-declared Income Level and Causal Attributions for Poverty**

As it is done for the above mentioned variables, one-way ANOVA statistical procedure is applied to see the main effect of respondents' self-declared income level on the three dimensions of causal attribution for poverty. In others' studies, the effect of income level on causal attribution for poverty is almost similar. For instance, Morcol (1997) and Yusuf (2005) found that respondents from low income level attributed poverty to structuralistic and fatalistic. However, there is difference in making individualistic causal attribution to poverty. In Nasser and Abouchdid (2001) study respondents from high income more agreed with individualistic attribution. On the other hand, Feagen (1972) cited in Nasser and Abouchdid (2001) found that middle income respondents agreed more with individualistic attribution. Moreover, in Chalachew's (2007) study, students from high income parents gave structural explanation of poverty than students from low and middle income group parents. What about the effect of self-declared income level on causal attribution for poverty? Answer to this question is replied in the following Table and the discussion below it can give best answer to the question.

**Table 16:- One-way ANOVA for the Three Self-Declared Income Level**

Dimensions		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F-value	Mean Difference
Individualistic	Between Groups	.49	2	.24	.27	1-.05
	Within Groups	352.31	397	.89		2-.09
	Total	352.80	399			3-.04
Structuralistic	Between Groups	10.23	2	5.12	3.57*	1- .37*
	Within Groups	569.71	397	1.44		2- .16
	Total	579.94	399			3-.22
Fatalistic	Between Groups	4.84	2	2.42	1.23	1-.18
	Within Groups	783.55	397	1.97		2-.29
	Total	788.39	399			3-.11

\* The mean difference is significant at .05 levels.

1. Mean difference between low and middle self- declared income level
2. Mean difference between low and high self- declared income level
3. Mean difference between middle and high self- declared income level

As one can see from the above Table,  $F(2, 397) = 3.57$  is significant in structuralistic causal attribution for poverty at significance level .05. Nevertheless, F-obtained values (.27 and 1.23) are not significant in individualistic and fatalistic causal attributions for poverty as they are less than F-critical value at significance level .05. These results imply that while there is significant difference among respondents from the three self-declared income level on structuralistic explanation, there is no significant difference among the respondents on the two dimensions: individualistic and fatalistic causal attributions for poverty.

In order to see among which groups' significant difference exists on structuralistic dimension, Post Hoc-Comparison using Scheffe's test was done. Scheffe's test result tells us that there is significant difference only between low and middle self-declared income level on structuralistic explanation of poverty. Low self-declared income level respondents gave more structuralistic explanation of poverty than their counterparts did. This finding leads the researcher to reject his hypothesis that there is no significant difference among different level of self-declared income level groups on dimensions of attributions of poverty at a P-value of less than five percent. From this, the researcher may safely conclude that the low income level groups are trying to escape from taking responsibility by placing more responsibility on structure or blaming system.

To support quantitative analysis of the data, qualitative analysis is equally required. Therefore, in addition to the forty eight items related to the attribution for poverty measures, an open-ended question was asked to see what causal perceptions adults give for poverty than mentioned on the questionnaire. The respondents gave different casual reasons for poverty. However, the causal perceptions given by at least forty-five respondents are listed in the following Table. The responses were discussed in line with the respondents' sex simply to see whether the qualitative analysis supports the findings analyzed quantitatively; using t-test and one-way ANOVA.

**Table17:- Consolidated Responses of the Adults to an Open-ended Question**

No	Responses	Sex					
		M		F		Total	
		No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Unemployment of youth	62	15.5	55	13.75	117	29.25
2	Spread of HIV AIDS	50	12.5	40	10	90	22.5
3	Prejudice of different ethnic groups	40	10	36	9	76	19
4	Time mismanagement by the poor	46	11.5	25	6.25	71	17.75
5	Lack of plan by the poor	27	6.75	20	5	47	11.75
6	Governments' unequal treatment of nations	62	15.5	53	13.25	105	28.25
7	Lack of justice in the country	44	11	38	9.5	82	20.5
8	Lack of factories in Ethiopia	45	11.3	33	8.25	78	19.5
9	Expertise' lack of interest to work in their country	48	12	37	9.25	85	21.25

As one can deduce from the above Table, most of the responses (six responses) are related to structuralistic causal attribution for poverty. 117 (29%) of the total respondents believe that unemployment of the youth can be the cause of poverty in our country. Government's unequal treatment of nations is assumed as a cause of poverty by 105 (28%) respondents. In these both assumed causes the number of males is greater than the number of females, though the difference is not great. The difference between males and females being less implies that both sexes have almost similar causal perceptions for poverty. Spread of HIV-AIDS is the third assumed causal attribution for poverty. This can be fatalistic attribution as it resulted in sickness of the individuals. On the other hand, sickness is considered as fatalistic belief by researchers (Hunt, 2004). 76, 71, 47, 81, 78, 85 adults believe that prejudice among different ethnic groups, time mismanagement by the poor, lack of plan by the poor, lack of justice in the country, lack of factories in Ethiopia and expertise' lack of interest to work in their country respectively.

Generally, in addition to the above analyzed responses, other responses given to the open-ended question include lack of special support for the poor, weakness of the authorized people, absence of enough investment in our country, shortage of land to cultivation, occurrence of natural disasters, illegal merchants, lack of modern farming method, lack of working culture by the poor, inappropriate use of budget by the regional administrative, imbalance between income and expense etc. The responses are not only these. But these are those which are assumed as causes of poverty by more than two respondents.

#### 4.4 DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to know what causal perceptions adults in *Nekemt* town have regarding the causes of poverty. Accordingly, a questionnaire was given to 410 adults out of which the responses of 400 adults (202 males and 198 females) found to be usable.

Different demographic variables such as sex, age, religious affiliation, educational level, occupational statuses and self-declared income level were analyzed along with the three dimensions of causal attributions for poverty: individualistic, structuralistic and fatalistic.

Before analyzing these demographic variables along with the three dimensions of causal attributions for poverty, it was found to be necessary to identify which dimension is relatively important. This was done using t-test and mean values in each dimension. The greater the mean value, the more the respondents agree with that dimension. Accordingly, the mean value (3.91) of structuralistic dimension is greater than the mean values of individualistic and fatalistic dimension which are 1.98 and 2.91 respectively. This tells us that the respondents generally attributed poverty more to structuralistic dimension than to individualistic and fatalistic dimensions. The mean value of structuralistic dimension is followed by that of fatalistic dimension which indicates that fatalistic attribution was less important while individualistic attribution was least important for the adults. This tendency to blame the system or complain the structure might have emanated from this year economic inflation. This finding goes with the idea of Hine and Montiel (1999) cited in Nasser, Abouchedid and Khashan (2002) who consider that individuals from Third World countries tend to attribute poverty to external factors (i.e., structural factors) because of a general support for the poor and complaint against governmental institutions. This by itself implies that the adults are blaming the system of government and denying taking responsibility. Both structuralistic and fatalistic causal attributions for poverty are external causal attribution. This entails that the adults believe that government's inability contributed to poverty. It also tells us that the adults do not have motivation to work hard to escape out of poverty as they are pointing their fingers to factors such as government's inability and luck. On the other hand, they are not ready to take responsibility for poverty in our country. This analysis gives response to the

researcher's first question that what causal attributions do adults in *Nekemte* town give for poverty.

One of the objectives of the study was to see whether there is significant difference between males and females in making causal attributions for poverty. To achieve this objective, independent sample t-test was computed using SPSS after both sexes were coded.

T-obtained value for individualistic, structuralistic, and fatalistic are 1.72, 1.41 and .13 respectively. These T-obtained values are less than T-table value (1.96) at significance level of .05 which implies that there is no significant difference between males and females in making causal attributions for poverty in all the three dimensions. This finding is in contrary to Morcol's (1997) finding. In his study, while men attributed poverty to structural situations, women attributed poverty to individualistic and fatalistic dimensions. The difference observed in the two studies may be because of the difference in age of respondents in the two studies. In this study, the ages of the respondents are between 30 and 60 with mean average of 39. However, in Morcol's study, he stated that the respondents are old though their exact age is not identified. Besides, as Baron and Byrne (1984) said types of attribution made depend on three pieces of information: consensus, consistency and distinctiveness. Therefore, the inconsistency of the findings may be due to difference in the degree of these three pieces of information the respondents in the two researches encounter. When these three pieces of information is high, external attribution is more likely to be made. Therefore, adults (both males and females) in *Nekemte* town might have come across the information that all poor people work hard all the time across different situations; but still remain poor. This tendency of blaming the system and not the poor may yield positive attitude toward government assistance. Such beliefs and attributions in adults also increase the degree to which the continuations of social welfare programs receive public support. In addition, the attributions made by the adults give some clue for the government that the poor should be mobilized so that they can take responsibility and work hard to escape out of poverty. The government should also aware that the societies expect many things from it. As one can understand from their response to the open-ended question, they expect such things as treating the nations equally, giving employment opportunities for youth and

controlling corruption effectively as they believe that these can be causes of poverty.

These beliefs were reflected in their responses to the open-ended question. As discussed in the literature part of this paper, different researchers studied attributions for poverty in relation to religious affiliations in their area of study. In this study, four religious affiliations are taken into consideration; namely, Orthodox, Protestant, Muslim and "Others". Catholics and *Wakefata* are included in "Others" religious category as the number of respondents belonging to the religious categories is insignificant which was assured during the pilot study of this research. One-way ANOVA showed that there is no significant difference among the different religious groups considered under the study. The absence of significant difference among the adults from different religious groups may have the implication that the adults' perception to the causes of poverty is not affected by their religion. In opposite to Feagin (1972), cited in Guimond, Begin and Palmer (1989) study in which Protestant and Catholics gave individualistic explanation for poverty, in this study Protestant gave structuralist explanation for poverty. This difference may be because of the difference between respondents in Feagin and this study. In Feagin study, the respondents are from Americans who belong to individualistic culture and who are more likely to attribute poverty to individualistic reasons blaming the poor for their own difficulty (Nasser, 2007). As Franzoi (2000) says respondents from outside the Western hemisphere are more likely to show consistent structural attribution and a lower support for individualistic attribution for poverty. Therefore, the researcher believes that the respondents' degree of information and culture than their religious affiliation might have influenced their causal attributions for poverty. This finding has some implication that policy makers, social practitioners, curriculum designers and NGOs can design programs that motivate the community to take responsibility for poverty of their country and to give some assistance that the communities expect from them regardless of the community's religious affiliations. Curriculum should have contents that change the thinking patterns of learners regarding causes of poverty starting from lower level of education. It should encourage individual thinking pattern help students take responsibility for certain outcomes so that they can internal locus of control. All activities done in school should not lead the student believe in luck.

Other objective of the study was to know whether the attribution that adults make to poverty differ on the basis of their age. To see this, one-way ANOVA statistical procedure was applied. As indicated in Table 10, F-obtained in all the three dimensions are less than F table value. This implies that there is no significant difference among the adults from different age groups. This finding may not surely lead the researcher to the conclusion that age has no effect in bringing about difference in making causal attributions for poverty. This is because though the ages of the adults in this study assumed as having three age categories, the variation within groups ( $SD=1.3$ ) is not significant. In other words, the respondents are at adulthood developmental stage having the same thinking pattern and at formal operational stage of Piaget's stage of cognitive development. If respondents from different age groups, for instance, Childhood and adulthood, have been compared difference may be observed. This finding is in contrary to Srivas (2005) and Morçöl (1997) study that have stated age as having relationship with causal attributions for poverty. However, both researchers made no clear their findings except that Morcol's description that old respondents gave individualistic & fatalistic attribution than the others. This finding has the implication that adults whether at early stage or later stage have similar causal perceptions for poverty.

It is beyond question that in world of formal education, our thinking is changed based the quality and quantity of information we get. Accordingly, educational levels of the respondents in this study in relation to causal attributions for poverty were analyzed using one -way ANOVA. One-way ANOVA also revealed that respondents with bachelor degree or above significantly differ from the other respondents with different educational level in making individualistic attribution for poverty, but not on the two dimensions: structuralistic and fatalistic. Individuals from high educational level i.e. bachelor degree or above more blamed the poor for poverty compared to individuals at lower level of education i.e. below degree who blamed the system more. This finding is in reverse to Guimond, Begin and Palmer (1989) study in which the university level students gave situational (structuralstic) explanation for poverty and low-level educational status gave dispositional (individualistic) explanation for poverty. The finding in this study has the implication that the more a person is educated i.e. to the extent of Bachelor degree or

above, the more he/she would likely to take responsibility for poverty. Similarly, the less the level of education of a person, the more they are likely to blame system for poverty and to deny responsibility. Similar to Guimond, Begin and Palmer (1989) finding, Chalachew (2007) found that high school students attributed poverty more to individualistic than university level students did. These similarities and differences between this finding and that of Chalachew (2007) tell us that the University level students, who are most likely to be at adolescence age, make causal attributions for poverty in different way from that of adults having the same educational level. This difference may be because of difference in experiences and age between university level students and adults. This finding in relation to educational level of the respondents has some implication for concerned bodies that deal with poverty alleviation. Educating adults to the higher level of education helps to take responsibility for poverty in their country. Curriculum designers should pay attention to the contents of education starting from lower level of education. Contents of education should help the learners take responsibility for their own fate and not point their fingers towards outside themselves.

Similarly, the analysis exposed that respondents from professional and administrative occupational statuses significantly differ from the lower occupational statuses respondents in making individualistic causal attributions for poverty. Yet, the different occupational statuses do not differ in making structural and fatalistic explanations of poverty. Therefore, there is some similarity between educational level and occupational statuses in having effect on the three dimensions of poverty. In both variables (educational level and occupational statuses), the top levels significantly differ from the lower level and they put responsibility on poor compared to the lower level. This finding in relation to the relationship between occupational statuses and causal attributions for poverty revealed that respondents from professional and administrative occupational statuses believe that the poor themselves should work hard, have good work ethic and have motivation for self improvement and so on. This finding is similar to Abouchedid and Nasser's (2001) finding in which parents of students whose occupational status appeared higher were more likely to favor individualistic explanations for poverty.

Another significant difference observed is in relation to self-declared income level of the respondents. One-way ANOVA revealed that there is significant difference between low self-declared income level and middle self-declared income level in structuralistic causal attribution for poverty. Low self-declared income level respondents blame the system or structure for the poverty in our country than their counterparts (middle self-declared income level respondents). By making structural attribution they are externalizing responsibility for their own socio-economic state by placing blame on macro-forces as government. This finding goes in line with actor-observer difference hypothesis that there is a tendency for people to attribute their own behaviour to external causes if they are actors. These low self-declared income level adults considered themselves as poor and hence they are considered as actors. On the other hand, those individuals who are high self-declared income level can be considered as observers and hence they are expected to blame the poor actor-observer hypothesis. However, the three self-declared income level do significantly differ in fatalistic and individualistic causal attributions for poverty. This is to mean that the high self-declared income level did not make individualistic attribution as expected. This is perhaps because of the misinterpretation of one's own income level. This can be understood from the fact that there is no consistency between occupational statuses and self-declared income level.

The responses given to the open-ended question tell us that the respondents are denying taking responsibility and blaming the system. This in turn tells us that their motivation toward hard working is low. The responses support the finding obtained by analyzing the mean scores of the three dimensions of causal attributions for poverty. Most of the responses are related to the structuralistic dimension as they include unemployment of youth, government's unequal treatment of nations and lack of factories in Ethiopia. This finding is similar to the finding of White and Killick (2001) that made a rural household survey of 15 Ethiopian villages during 1989-1995. In their question to what events over the previous years had caused them particularly severe losses, 40% of their respondents replied that labor shortages caused them severe losses. Besides, 78%, 42%, 39% and 35% of their respondent responded that harvest failures, policy failures, problems with oxen and other livestock caused them severe losses respectively. However, these responses such as harvest failures, problems with oxen and other livestock are not expected from

the respondents of this research as they are from town. Therefore, as we can understand from these two studies, unemployment or labor shortage is assumed as cause of poverty in this country.

Some researchers in Ethiopia believe that the value systems related to gender issues have contributed a great role for poverty in Ethiopia. For instance, in her study of role of ICT in alleviating poverty, Sara (ND) explained that patriarchal laws, which constrain women access to and control of resources, have contributed to poverty. But, in contrary to this belief, no respondent of the present research gave this causal reason for poverty in this country to the open-ended question.

Other researchers (e.g. Bevan, 2005) described that livelihood systems contribute to the prevalence of poverty in Ethiopia especially in urban areas, partly not only due to the general economic decline, but also because of high rates of urban population growth. The adults were also asked whether they agree or disagree that high rate of population growth contribute to poverty in our country. Their response revealed that they more agree with mean average of 4.01 that it can be a cause of poverty. However, there is more variation (SD =1.16) among the adults in responding to this item compared to their responses to the other items (See Appendix 3, number 38).

According to Dessalegn and Aklilu (2000), the three major causes of poverty are unemployment, lack of health and sanitation services and inflation. They further explained that unemployment is blamed government's lay-off policies which is structural dimension according the present researcher's study. Therefore, the causal perceptions that adults in *Nekemte* town gave to the open-ended question is similar to the ideas of the two researchers.

# CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 5.1 SUMMARY

Attribution is the explanation given to cause(s) of event(s). It is beyond question that this explanation given by people determines their affective, cognitive and behavioral aspects. Attribution has got attention from a number of social psychologists since 1970's (Franzoi, 2000; Lindgren, 1981; Breakwell et al., 1988; Krupat, 1982) and these psychologists asserted that Fritz Heider (1958) was the first social psychologist to analyze formally and to bring the concept of attribution to the attention of social psychologists.

There are different theories of attribution among which causal attribution is one and the area of this study. Causal attribution is widely studied from academic point of view in our country. However, causal attribution for poverty is not widely studied in Ethiopia and that is why much information is retrieved from web sites.

The finding of this study is that the adults generally attributed poverty to structural factors than they did to individualistic factors.

The main Objective of this study is to find out what causal perceptions adults in *Nekemte* town have.

To reach upon the objective, the following questions have been formulated as basic targets of the study.

- What causal attributions do adults in *Nekemte* town give for poverty?
- Is there any significant difference among respondents on the basis of their sex, age, and religious affiliation? If any difference exists, in which dimension of attribution of poverty will it exist?
- Do socioeconomic statuses (education, occupation, self-declared income level) have significant effects on dimensions of attribution of poverty?

To answer the above questions, the study was conducted on a sample size of 400 adults whose ages are between 30 and 60. These adults are randomly selected from two *Kifle Ketamas* in *Nekemte* town.

In order to collect the data, a questionnaire having three parts was prepared first in English and later translated into Amharic and Afan Oromo. The need of translating the questionnaire into two languages was simply to respect the interest of the respondents. Meaning that an individual interested in Amharic responds to the Amharic questionnaire and so does an individual interested in Afan Oromo.

The third part of the questionnaire consists of 48 items out of which 27 items are related to individualistic causal attribution for poverty, 15 items are related to the structuralistic causal attribution for poverty and the rest 6 items are related to the third dimension of attribution for poverty i.e. fatalistic attribution.

In analyzing the data, trying to know the relative importance of each dimension of attribution was the first step. This analysis gave response to the first question of this study that what causal attributions adults in *Nekemte* town give for poverty. To know the relative importance of each dimension, the responses of each individual for each item under the three dimensions were added together. Then, the sum obtained for each dimension was divided by the number of items under each dimension. That is, for instance, to know whether an adult agrees with individualistic attribution, his/her responses to the fifteen items under the dimension were added together and divided by fifteen. After this was done for the 400 respondents, the results obtained entered into SPSS package. Then, the mean scores for each dimension was obtained and compared.

The comparisons of the mean scores tell us that the adults more agree with the structuralistic attribution for poverty and followed by fatalistic attribution for poverty. This implies that the adults are pointing their fingers to the structure or system. Hence, there is some expectation from governmental and non-governmental organizations especially dealing with poverty alleviation. Mobilization of the poor so that they can take responsibility and work hard to escape from poverty is one step to be taken by the concerned bodies. Governments and concerned bodies dealing with poverty alleviation should make the people aware that all people have a responsibility to make serious efforts to overcome poverty if they are given the necessary tools.

The analyses of t-test revealed that male and female adults do not significantly differ in individualistic ( $T(396) = 1.72$ ), structuralistic ( $T(396) = 1.41$ ) and fatalistic ( $T(396) = 1.13$ ) causal attributions for poverty at significance level of .05. This is because T-obtained in all the three dimensions are less than t-critical value (1.96). The absence of significant difference between the two sexes implies that any step taken to help them take responsibility for their own outcome may be similar. That is without considering gender difference; the adults should be motivated to take responsibility to be extricated out of poverty.

One-way ANOVA was statistical procedure preferred to know whether the adults vary on the basis of their age, religious affiliation, educational level, occupational statuses and self-declared income level.

The analysis showed that there is no significant difference among the respondents on the basis of their age and religious affiliation on the three dimensions of attributions for poverty. However, in relation to educational level, respondents from bachelor degree and above significantly differ from the respondents of the rest educational level on individualistic attribution for poverty. Similarly, adults whose occupational statuses are professional and administrative significantly differ from adults whose occupational statuses are unprofessional, non-managerial at lower grade and skilled manual on individualistic attribution for poverty. While respondents from bachelor degree and above and professional and administrative made more agreement with individualistic attribution in relation to the other groups, the rest groups made more agreement with the structuralistic attribution. This implies that highly educated and people in a higher position are ready to take responsibility for poverty of the country than the others are. Therefore, educating people to the higher educational level can be one recommendation to help people take responsibility for the poverty of their country.

One-way ANOVA in relation to self-declared income level showed that low self-declared income level respondents gave more structuralistic explanation of poverty than their counterparts did. This finding goes with actor-observer differences that explain people involved in an action (actors) view things differently from people not involved (observers) (Bullock & Funder, 1986). Low self-declared income level adults blamed

system for their own fate, while medium and high self- declared income level adults did not. This has the implication that concerned bodies dealing with poverty alleviation in the country should pay attention to the low self income groups especially in changing their motives. These groups are denying taking responsibility for poverty in the country and their motives toward hard working, self-improvement, management of money, creating sufficient jobs is more likely to be less as they disagreed with these ideas.

## **5.2 CONCLUSION**

Researches that focus on attribution gives responses to the way persons think and behave. After we know the thinking and behaving patterns of person taking action could be easy. Therefore, by studying the attribution for poverty among adults the researcher knew how the adults think, who think in what way and who is ready to take responsibility and who is not ready to take responsibility for the poverty in our country.

This research which perhaps the first in focusing on adults' causal attribution for poverty in this country should continue taking farmers (rural areas) as respondents of the study and seeing the relationship between different variables such as ethnic groups, political affiliation etc and causal attribution for poverty. It should also be extended to the causal attribution for prosperous. The present researcher could not take into consideration these variables due lack of time and relevant researches done in Ethiopia.

Finally, the researcher would like to conclude that in addition to hard working along with good governance and economic policy, research in relation to poverty from psychological point of view has its own contribution in making poverty history. Therefore, this is opening the door for research related to poverty from psychological point of view and let others continue.

### 5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the findings obtained and conclusions reached up on, the researcher gives the following recommendations to change the causal thinking patterns of the adults.

- Concerned bodies dealing with poverty alleviation should pay attention to the thinking patterns of people regarding the causes of poverty as thinking determines behavior.
- There is a need to encourage the adults to take responsibility in trying to reduce poverty through their active participation and hard working.
- The curriculum of the country should encourage students believe in hard working; not luck or some other forces in reducing poverty.

Government should make situations conducive to help the adults learn and improve their educational level as the higher the education level the higher they are ready to take responsibility.

- Government should also be ready in tackling in which it is blamed especially in relation to unemployment, nation's equality and justice etc. The government should try to create employment opportunity, treat the nations equally and bring about justice in the country.
- The adults in general and respondents from lower educational level and lower occupational statuses in particular should not point their fingers to the other external bodies and/or forces for the causes of poverty in our country. Government and NGOs dealing with poverty alleviation should arrange informal education program that encourage and help them have internal locus of control.
- Government and other concerned bodies should encourage researchers focusing on this issue as research can contribute in alleviating poverty.

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**Appendix I A**  
**Addis Ababa University**  
**School of Graduate Studies**  
**Department of Psychology**  
**Social Psychology Stream**

**Questionnaire (English Version)**

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data in order to investigate the perceived attribution for poverty among adults and their causal attribution patterns for poverty measures and as well as to examine whether causal attribution for poverty are person blame or system blame. The validity of this study highly depends on your truthful and honest response to the items provided. Therefore, you are kindly requested to fill or to respond to the given questionnaires appropriately. The information you provide should remain confidential and it will be used only for this research purpose. It will not be evaluated as right or wrong. Hence, you do not need to write your name or something else that describe your identity.

**Thank you!**

**I) General Information**

1. Sex: Male                       Female                       2. Age \_\_\_\_\_
3. Religion: Orthodox                       Protestant   
                         Muslim                       Other

**II) Socio-economic Status Measures**

The statements below show some of your current socio-economic status measures. Please, read one statement at a time and indicate/ give your response in the light of your own understanding of your current situation. Use this mark (√) to indicate your answer.

### 1. Your Educational level

- 1. Did not attend school (illiterate)
- 2. Attend some primary school or completed primary school
- 3. Attended some secondary school or completed secondary school
- 4. Certificate
- 5. Diploma
- 6. Bachelor or Higher Degree

### 2. Your Occupational Status

- 1. Unskilled manual (unprofessional) (e.g. farmers, guards, janitors, day laborers, messenger)
- 2. Skilled manual or routine grades of non-manual (e.g. driver, TTI teacher, Pre-school teacher, Post office, operator, Cashier, Secretary, High School librarian)
- 3. Inspectional, supervisory, or other non- managerial: lower grade (e.g. inspector, supervisor, expert, officer, computer programmers, librarians, diploma teacher, salespersons, clerks, nurses, teller)
- 4. Inspectional, supervisory, or other non- managerial: higher grade (e.g. inspector, supervisor, expert, officer, high school teacher, physicians, economists)
- 5. Managerial or executive (e.g. Bank Manager, Woreda leader, zonal leader, regional sector leader)
- 6. Professional or high administrative leader (e.g. senior expert, lecturer, doctor, professor, regional leader)

### 3. Your Income Level

In relation to the society around you how do you perceive your income level

Low income                       Middle income                       High income

### III) Attributions for poverty measures

1. The statements below are some beliefs about poverty. Please, read one statement at a time and rate each of them on a five-point scale provided below in the light of your own beliefs, perception and understanding of your own situation. Rate 1 (Strongly Disagree); 2 (Disagree), 3 (Neither Agree nor Disagree); 4 (Agree); and 5 (Strongly Agree) in the box provided against each statement. Identify your response by this (√) mark.

No	Perceived causes for Poverty	Responses				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Lack of interest to work by the poor					
2	Alcoholism (drunkenness) of the poor					
3	The government's difficulty to support agriculture					
4	Just bad luck or fate					
5	Unequal distribution of resources by government					
6	Lack of interpersonal abilities					
7	Lack of expansion of private industries that provide employment opportunity					
8	Lack of effort by the poor					
9	Living of the poor carelessly					
10	Lack of proper money management amongst the poor					
11	Sickness and physical handicapped of the poor					
12	Lack of effort to find job by the poor					
13	The Poor's human disposition					
14	Government's inability to control corruption					
15	Belonging of the poor to social groups that have been disadvantaged over the years					
16	Level of individual responsibility of the poor being low					
17	Females' lack of access to work (Gender biases)					
18	Poor's lack of sufficient will power					
19	"God's" wish for people to be poor					
20	Poor's being exploited by the rich					
21	The government's difficulty to provide quality education					
22	The wastage of many resources on different ceremony. E.g. wedding, holiday...					
23	Inadequacy of government policies					
24	Unemployed lack of interest to move to areas where there is job					
25	The poor feel hopelessness					

26	Unfavorable climate of the country					
27	Some Poor's just not making the effort to help themselves					
28	Loose of morals among the poor					
29	Lack of unwillingness by the government to allocate sufficient resources to help the poor					
30	Lack of self-motivation of the poor					
31	Poor's inability to attend quality education					
32	The government's difficulty to provide health services					
33	The Poor's many children per household					
34	High rate of population growth					
35	The government's difficulty to provide jobs					
36	Jobs' inadequate payment.					
37	Poor's failure to create sufficient jobs					
38	The government's difficulty to provide housing					
39	Extreme present- oriented ness of the poor					
40	Lack of motivation for self improvement					
41	Backward traditional values handed on over generation in the poor					
42	The celebration of many holy days & working few days by the poor					
43	This world being unjust					
44	Poor's belief that they are predetermined to be poor					
45	Ethnic discrimination in the country					
46	Poor's difficulties in establishing stable work habits					
47	Marital disruption among the poor					
48	External forces that we neither understand nor control					

2. If you think that there are other perceived causes of poverty, but not mentioned above, please list them below.

- i. \_\_\_\_\_
- ii. \_\_\_\_\_
- iii. \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank You!**



2. የሥራ ምድብ/ደረጃ

- 1. ያልሰለጠነ ወይም በከፊል የሰለጠነ የጉልበት ሰራተኛ/ለምሳሌ ገበሬ፣ የጥበቃ ሠራተኛ፣ የዕዳት ሠራተኛ፣ ቸርቻሪ፣ የቤት እመቤት፣ ተላላኪ፣ ቀን ሠራተኛ
- 2. የእጅ ሙያ የሠለጠነ ወይም በእጅ ሙያ ባልሆነት የሰለጠነ/ለምሳሌ ሹፌር፣ 1ኛ ደረጃ መምህር፣ የመዝገብ ቤት ሠራተኛ፣ የትምህርት ቤት ቤተ-መጻፍት ሠራተኛ፣ ታይፒስት፣ ዕቃ ግዥ
- 3. ቁጥጥር፣ ምልክታ ወይም ሌላ አስተዳዳሪዎ ያልሆነ ገቅተኛ ደረጃ/ለምሳሌ ተቆጣጣሪ፣ ገምጋሚ፣ ኤክስፐርት፣ የዲፕሎማ መምህር፣ የክብት ሐኪም፣ ነርስ፣ ላብራቶሪ ቴክኒሻን፣ ሰርቨየር
- 4. ቁጥጥር፣ ምልክታ ወይም ሌላ አስተዳዳሪዎ ያልሆነ ከፍተኛ ደረጃ ለምሳሌ ከፍተኛ ተቆጣጣሪ፣ ኢኮኖሚስት
- 5. አስተዳዳሪ/ሥራ አስኪያጅ/ ለምሳሌ የባንክ ሥራ አስኪያጅ፣ የወረዳ አስተዳዳሪ፣ የዞን መሪ ኃላፊ
- 6. ከፍተኛ ባለሙያ ወይም ዋና ባለሥልጣን/ለምሳሌ ከፍተኛ ኤክስፐርት፣ ሌክቸረር፣ ዶክተር፣ ፕሮፌሰር፣ የክልል አስተዳዳሪ

3. የወር ገቢ መጠን በነፍስ ወከፍ

ራስዎን ሲመለከቱና ከአካባቢዎ ህብረተሰብ ጋር ራስዎን ሲያነጻፅሩ በየትኛው የገቢ መጠን ደረጃ ላይ ይመደባሉ  
 ዝቅተኛ  መካከለኛ  ከፍተኛ

4. የድህነት ባህሪያት መለኪያ

ቀጥሎ የተመለከቱት ሐሳቦች ስለድህነት ያሉት እምነቶች/አመለካከቶች ናቸው። ለእያንዳንዱ ምክንያት ወይም መንስኤ ከአንድ እስከ አምስት በቁጥር ተመንገሮ በአማራጭ መልክ ተሰጥቷል። እያንዳንዱን ዐረፍተ ነገር በጥሞና ያንብቡት። በመቀጠል በተሰጡት አምስት ነጥቦች መሠረት በእርስዎ እምነት ምክንያት ይሆናል ብለው የሚያምኑትን ነጥቦች በአማራጭ በዚህ (V) ምልክት ያሳዩ።

- ነጥቦች (አማራጮች)
- 1. እጅግ በጣም አልስማማም
  - 2. አልስማማም
  - 3. ሐሳብ የለኝም
  - 4. እስማማለሁ
  - 5. እጅግ በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ.ቁ	አጠቃላይ መግለጫ	አጠቃላይ መጠን				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	ለድህነት ምክንያት ይሆናሉ ተብሎ የሚታሰቡ ነጥቦች ሰዎች መሥራት ስለማይፈልጉ።					
2	ሰዎች መጠጥ(የአልኮል) ስለሚያዘውትሩ					
3	መንግሥት እርሻን በጥሩ ሁኔታ ስለማይደግፍ					
4	ሰዎች መጥፎ እድል ስላላቸው።					
5	መንግሥት ሀብትን በእኩልነት/አድልኦ በሌለው አካሄድ ስለማይከፋፈል።					
6	ሰዎች ከውስጥ የሚመነጭ ተሎታ ስለሌላቸው።					
7	የሥራን ዕድል የሚፈጥሩ የግል ኢንዱስትሪዎች ባለመስፋፋታቸው።					
8	ድሆች ከድህነት ለማምለጥ ጥረት ስለማያረጉ።					
9	ሰዎች በግድየለሽነት ለመኖር ስለሚመርጡ።					
10	ድሆች ትክክለኛ የሆነ የገንዘብ አያያዝ ስለማያውቁ					
11	ድሆች ስለሚታመሙ ወይም አንላ ጎድሎ ስለሆነ።					
12	ሰዎች ሥራ ለማግኘት ብቃት ያለው ጥረት ስለማያደርጉ።					
13	ሰዎች የተሠጣቸው ስጦታ ድሆች እንዲሆኑ ስለምያደርግ					
14	መንግሥት ሙስናን በመቆጣጠር ረገድ ድክመት ስላለው።					
15	ሰዎች ለብዙ ዓመታት ሳይሳካሉት በቀረው የማህበረሰብ ክፍል ውስጥ ስለሚገኙ					
16	የሰዎች በግል የተጠያቂነት ስሜት አነስተኛ ስለሆነ።					
17	ለሴቶች የሥራ ዕድል ስለማይሰጥ					
18	ሰዎች ብቁና ሀይለኛ የሥራ ፍላጎት ስለሌላቸው					
19	ሰዎች ድሆች እንዲሆኑ የእግዚአብሔር ፍቃድ ስለሆነ					
20	ሀብታሞች ድሆችን ስለሚጨቁኑ					
21	መንግሥት ጥራት ያለውን ትምህርት ስለማይሰጥ					
22	ድሆች በተለያዩ በዓላት ላይ ብዙ ገንዘብና ሀብት ስለሚያባክኑ					
23	የመንግሥት ፖሊሲዎች በቂ አለመሆናቸው					
24	ሥራ አጠች ሥራ ወዳለበት ሥፍራ ተንቀሳቅሰው የመሥራት ፍላጎት በማጣታቸው					
25	የድሆች ተስፋ መቀረጥ					
26	የሀገሩ የአየር ሁኔታ አመቺ ያለመሆን					
27	አንዳንድ ሰዎች ራሳቸውን ለመርዳት ጥረት ስለማያደርጉ					
28	የድሆች ሞራል ማጣት					
29	ድሆችን ለመርዳት መንግሥት ያለውን ሀብት (resources) በአግባቡ ለማከፋፈል ዝግጁነት በማጣቱ					
30	ድሆች የራስ በራስ ተነሳሽነት በማጣታቸው					
31	ድሆች እውቀት ስለሌላቸው					
32	መንግሥት የጤና አገልግሎት ባለመስጠቱ					
33	በድሆች ቤተሰብ ውስጥ ልጆች በመብታቸው					
34	የሕዝብ ብዛት ከመጠን በላይ እየጨመረ በመሄዱ					
35	መንግሥት የሥራ ዕድል ለመፍጠር ባለመቻሉ					
36	ለሚሠራው ሥራ በቂ ክፍያ ስለሌለ					
37	ድሆች በቂ ሥራ ለመፍጠር ባለመቻላቸው					

38	መንግሥት የመኖሪያ ቤት ባለመሥጠቱ					
39	ድሆች ለነገ/ለወደፊት ያለማሰባቸው እና ያገኙትን ወዲያውኑ ስለሚጨርሱ					
40	ድሆች እራሳቸውን ለማሻሻል ፍላጎት/ተነሳሽነት በማጣታቸው					
41	ድሆች ኋላ ቀር የሆነ ልማዳዊ እሴት ስለወረሱ					
42	ድሆች ብዙ የበዓላት ቀናት ስለሚያክብሩና ጥቂት የሥራ ቀናት ስለሚሰሩ					
43	ይቺ ዓለም በእኩልነት ስለማትሰጥ(ኢ-ፍትሃዊ ናት)					
44	ድሆች ድህነት ከመጀመርያው የተወሰነባቸው አድርገው ስለሚያምኑ					
45	በዘር መከፋፈል ስለሚበዛ					
46	ድሆች ቋሚ የሥራ ባህሪያት በማጣታቸው					
47	በድሆች መሃል በጋብቻ ያለመግባባት					
48	እኛ ልናውቀውና ልንቆጣጠረው የማንችለው ውጫዊ ኃይል ስላለ					

2. ከዚህ በላይ ከተዘረዘሩ ሌላ የድህነት መንግሥት/ምክንያት ሊሆን ይችላል ብለው የሚያስቡ ካለ ክታች በተሰጡት ባዶ ቦታዎች ላይ ይዘርዝሩ

- ሀ. -----
- ለ. -----
- ሐ. -----
- መ. -----

አመሰግናለሁ

## APPENDIX 1 C

**Yunivarsitii Addis Ababaa  
Mana Barumsaa Qo'annoo Eebba Boodaa  
Kutaa Barnoota Saaykoloojii  
Istiriimii Saaykoloojii Hawaasummaa**

### **Gaaffilee (Afaan Oromootiin)**

#### **Qajeelfama Waliigalaa**

Kaayyoon gaaffilee kunniinii inni guddaan odeeffannoowwan faayida- qabcessa ta'an walitti qabachuudhaan/ guuruun hiyyummaa biyya keenyaatiif yookaan hiyyoomuu namootaa hedduutiif sababa yookaan ka'umsa ta'u danda'u wantoota jettanii amantan adda baafachuudha. Keessumaayyuu, kaayyoon qorannoo kanaa sababni hiyyummaa hanqina (dadhabina) namoota dhuunfaati moo hanqina (dadhabina) caasaati jedhamee amanama isa jedhu adda baafachuufi yaada furmaata ta'u eerudha (lafa kaa'uudha).

Galma ga'insa (fiixaan ba'insa) qorannoo kanaaf odeeffannoon haqaafi sirrii ta'e isin kennitan gahee guddaa waan taphatuuf shakkii yookaan sodaa tokko malee deebii haqaafi sirrii ta'e akka naaf keennitan kabajaan isin gaafadha. Odeeffannoon isin kennitan dogoggora yookaan sirriidha jedhamee waan hinmadaalamneefi icciitiin isaa waan eegamuuf ofirraa buutanii deebii keessan kennuu nidandeessu.

Yeroofi humna keessan wareegama gochuun odeeffannoo waan naaf kennitaniif galannii koo guddaafi kan onneerraa maddeedha.

#### **I) Odeeffannoo walii galaa**

Kan na ilaallata jettanii yaaddan mallattoo (√) kanaan adda baasaa.

1. Saala: Dhiira

Dhalaa

2. Umurii \_\_\_\_\_

3. Amantaa: Ortodoksii

Isilaama

Pirotistaantii

Kan biraa

## II) Guddina/sadarkaa dinagdee-hawaasummaa kan ittiin safarru

Yaadotni armaan gaditti tarreeffaman sadarkaa/ guddina dinagdee-hawaasummaa kan ittiin safaruuf yaalleedha. Yaada tokkoon tokkoon isaa eega haalaan dubbistanii booda dinagdee-hawaasummaa haala amma irra jirtanii hubachuun hima/ yaada-na ilaallata jettanii yaaddan fuulduratti mallaattoo ( √ ) kanaan agarsiisaa.

### 1. Sadarkaa Barnootaa

- 1. Tasa kan hin baranne
- 2. Sadarkaa tokkoffaa keessaa hanga murtaa'e kan barate yookaan sadarkaa tokkoffaa kan xumure
- 3. Sadarkaa lammaffaa keessaa hanga murtaa'e kan barate yookaan sadarkaa lammaffaa kan xumure
- 4. Sartifikeettiin kan eebbifame
- 5. Dippiloomaan kan eebbifame
- 6. Digrii jalqabaa yookaan isaa ol kan qabu

### 2. Gahee/Sadarkaa hojii

- 1. Kan hinleenjine ykn hanga tokko kan leenji'ee hojii humnaa hojjetu (FKN: Qoteebulaa, Waardiyaa, Qulqulleessituu, shaqaxxuu, haadha warraa mana keessaa, ergamaa/tuu waajjiraa, hojjataa/ttuu guyya - guyyaa)
- 2. Ogummaa harkaatiin yookaan ogummaa harkaa kan hintaaneen kan leenji'e (FKN: Shufeerii, B/saa sadarkaa 1<sup>ffaa</sup> (TTI), hojjetaa/ttuu mana galmee, hojjetaa mana Kitaabaa, Ogeessa hojii mukaafi sibiilaa)
- 3. To'annaa, Supparvayizarummaa, yookaan hojii bulchiinsaa kan hin taaneefi sadarkaa gad aanaa kan ta'e (FKN: to'ataa, gamaggamaa, Ekispartii, B/saa Dippiloomaa)
- 4. To'annaa, Supparvayizarummaa, yookaan hojii bulchiinsaa kan hin taaneefi sadarkaa ol aanaa kan ta'e (FKN: to'ataa ol'aanaa, Ekonomistii, B/saa sadarkaa 2<sup>ffaa</sup>)
- 5. Bulchiinsa yookaan hoji- gaggeessaa: FKN: Hoji-gaggeessaa mana Baankii, Bulchiinsa Aanaa, Itti Gaafatamaa Godinaa
- 6. Ogeessa olaanaa yookaan Abbaa Taayitaa FKN: Ekispertii olaanaa, Lekcherarii, Doktoorii, Pirofeesarii, Bulchaa Naannoo

### 3. Galii ji'atti mata mataan argamu

Hawaasa naannoo keessanii of bukkee qabdani yeroo of madaaltan sadarkaan galii keessanii kamiin jalatti ramadama?

Gad-aanaa

Giddugaleessa

Olaanaa

### 4. Safartuu xabiyyota/ amaloota hiyyummaa

Yaadotni armaan gaditti dhiyaatan ilaalchota/ amantaa sababa hiyyummaan walqabataniidha. Sababa/ ka'umsa tokkoon tokkoon isaatiif ilaalchi isin qabaachuu dandeessan lakkoofsa 1-5'tti jijjiiramee ka'ameera. Hima tokkoon tokkoon isaa sirriitti eega qalbeeffattanii dubbistanii booda himicha tokkoon tokkoon fuulduratti ilaalcha keessanirratti hundaa'uun fillannoowwan 1-5'tti dhiyaatan keessaa filachuun filannoo keesan mallattoo kanaan(✓) adda baasaa.

#### Filannoowwan:

1. Baay'een irratti walii hingalu( nan morma)
2. Irratti walii hingalu
3. Yaada hinqabu (hin deggeru; hinmormus)
4. Irrattan walii gala
5. Baay'een irratti walii gala

Lak.	Yaadota hiyyummaaf sababa nita'u jedhamanii yaadaman	Filannoowwan				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Namoonni hojjechuu waan hin barbaanneef					
2	Namoonni dhugaatii alkoolii yeroo mara waan dhuganiif					
3	Mootummaan qonnaa haala gaariin waan hin deggerreef					
4	Namoonni carraa gadhee waan qabaniif					
5	Mootummaan qabeenyaa haa'ee hojii hinqabneen waan hin hirreef					
6	Namoonni dandeettii uumamaa waan hinqabneef					
7	Indaastiroonni dhuunfaa carraa hojii uuman waan hinbabal'anneef					
8	Hiyyeeyyiin hiyyummaa bahuuf yaalii waan hingooneef					
9	Naammoonni maal na dhibdeen jiraachuu waan filataniif					
10	Hiyyeeyyiin qabaa maallaqaa sirrii ta'e waan hinbeekneef					
11	Hiyyeeyyiin dhukkubsatoo yookaan qaama hir'uu waan ta'aniif					
12	Namoonni hojii argachuuf tattaaffii ga'umsa qabu waan hingooneef					
13	Kennaan namootaaf kenname hiyyeessa waan isaan godhuuf					
14	Mootummaan malaafi maltummaa to'achuurratti dadhabina waan qabuuf					
15	Namoonni garee hawaasaa yeroo dheeraaf hinmilkoofneefii keessatti waan hammatamaniif					
16	Kaka'umsi dhuunfaan itti gaafatamuu namootaa gad-aanaa waan ta'eef					
17	Carraan hojii dubartootaaf waan hinkennamneef					
18	Namoonni fedhii hojii gahaafi humna-qabeessa ta'e waan hinqabneef					
19	Namoonni hiyyeeyyii akka ta'aniif jaalala Waaqayyoo waan ta'eef					

20	Sooreyyiin hiyyeeyyii waan hacucaniif					
21	Mootummaan barnoota qulqullina qabu waan hin kennineef					
22	Hiyyeeyyiin ayyaanota adda addaarratti maallaqaafi qabeenyaa baay'ee waan fixaniif					
23	Imaammatootni mootummaa gahumsa waan hin qabaanneef					
24	Hoji-dhabdootni bakka hojiin argamu deemanii hojjechuu waan hin barbaanneef					
25	Hiyyeeyyiin abdi waan kutataaniif					
	Haalli qilleensa biyyattii mijataa waan hintaanneef					
	Hiyyeeyyiin of gargaaruuf yaalii mataa isaanii waan hingooneef					
	Hiyyeeyyiin hamilee dhaboo waan ta'aniif					
	Mootummaan hiyyeeyyii gargaaruuf qabeenya jiru seeraan hiruuf qophii waan hintaanneef					
	Hiyyeeyyiin kaka'umsa mataa isaanii waan hinqabneef					
	Hiyyeeyyiin wallaaloo ta'uu isaanii					
31	Mootummaan tajaajila fayyaa waaan hinkennineef					
33	Maatii hiyyeeyyii keessatii ijoolleen waan baay'ataniif					
34	Baay'inni uummataa humnaan ol dabalaa waan deemeef					
35	Mootummaan dubartootaaf carraa hojii uumuu waan hindandeenyeef					
36	Mootummaan hojiif kaffaltii gahumsa qabu waan hinkaffalleef					
37	Hiyyeeyyiin hojii gahumsa qabu uumuu waan hindandeenyeef					
38	Mootummaan mana jireenyaa waan hin kennineef					
39	Hiyyeeyyiin boriif waan hinyaadneef waan argatan battalumatti waan fixaniif					
40	Hiyyeeyyiin of fooyyeessuuf fedhii/kaka'umsa waan hinqabneef					
41	Hiyyeeyyiin barmaatilee boodatti hafoo waan dhaalaniif					
42	Hiyyeeyyiin guyyoota ayyaanaa hedduu waan kabajaniifi guyyoota hojii muraasa waan hojjetaniif					
43	Addunyaan kun addunyaa haqa(walqixxummaan kennitu) waan hintaanneef					
44	Hiyyeeyyiin jalqabaa eegalee hiyyummaan akka waan isaanitti murtaa'etti waan amananiif					
45	Biyyattii keessatti sanyiin walqooduun waan baay'atuuf					
46	Hiyyeeyyiin amala hojii dhaabbataa waan hinqabaanneef					
47	Hiyyeeyyiin gaa'elarratti waan walii hingalleef					
48	Humni biraan nuti beekuufi to'achuu hindandeenye waan jiruuf					

Kanneen armaan oliitti tarreeffamaniin alatti sababa hiyyummaa biyya keenyaa yookaan sababa hiyyoomuu namoota baayyee ta'uu nidanda'a jettanii kan yaaddan yoo jiraate, armaan gaditti tarreessaa.

- A. \_\_\_\_\_  
 B. \_\_\_\_\_  
 C. \_\_\_\_\_  
 D. \_\_\_\_\_

**Galatoomaa!!**

## Appendix-2

### Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of the Respondents

Source	Level	Code	Frequency	Percent
Sex	Male	1	202	50.5
	Female	2	198	49.5
Age	30-40	1	174	43.5
	41-50	2	127	31.8
	51-60	3	99	24.8
Religious affiliation	Orthodox	1	105	26.3
	Protestant	2	106	26.5
	Muslim	3	91	22.8
	Others	4	98	24.5
Educational level	Illiterate	1	55	13.8
	Primary education	2	72	18
	Secondary education	3	69	17.3
	Certificate	4	85	21.3
	Diploma	5	73	18.3
	Degree and above	6	46	11.5
Occupational Statuses	Unprofessional/ manual	1	96	24
	Skilled manual/ routine grades of manual	2	85	21.3
	Non-managerial at lower grade	3	73	18.3
	Non-managerial at higher grade	4	69	17.3
	Managerial	5	51	12.8
	High professional and administration	6	26	6.5
Self-declared income level	Low	1	120	30
	Medium	2	176	44
	High	3	104	26
Causal attributions	Individualistic	1	400	100
	Structuralistic	2	400	100
	Fatalistic	3	400	100

### Appendix-3

#### Mean and Standard Deviation of Items Related Causal Attributions for Poverty

No	Responses	Mean	SD
1	Lack of interest to work by the poor	1.74	.77
2	Alcoholism (drunkenness) of the poor	1.84	.78
3	Lack of interpersonal abilities	1.79	.76
4	Lack of effort by the poor	1.77	.76
5	Living of the poor carelessly	1.63	.75
6	Lack of proper money management amongst the poor	1.65	.75
7	Lack of effort to find job by the poor	1.61	.68
8	The Poor's human disposition	1.74	.82
9	Belonging of the poor to social groups that have been disadvantaged over the years	2.4	.82
10	Level of individual responsibility of the poor being low	1.72	.79
11	Poor's lack of sufficient will power	1.92	.82
12	The wastage of many resources on different ceremony. E.g. wedding, holiday...	2.09	1.09
13	Unemployed lack of interest to move to areas where there is job	1.66	.78
14	The poor feel hopelessness	2.54	1.47
15	Some Poor's just not making the effort to help themselves	1.68	.74
16	Loose of morals among the poor	2.01	1.13
17	Lack of self-motivation of the poor	1.77	.78
18	The Poor's many children per household	2.42	1.39
19	Poor's failure to create sufficient jobs	2.93	1.55
20	Lack of motivation for self improvement	2.52	1.20
21	The celebration of many holy days & working few days by the poor	1.82	.79

22	Backward traditional values handed on over generation in the poor	2.25	1.38
23	Poor's belief that they are predetermined to be poor	1.69	.75
24	Poor's difficulties in establishing stable work habits	2.09	1.46
25	Marital disruption among the poor	2.73	1.08
26	Extreme present- oriented ness of the poor	1.74	.08
27	Poor's inability to attend quality education	1.65	.76
28	The government's difficulty to support agriculture	3.88	1.24
29	Unequal distribution of resources by government	3.84	1.36
30	Lack of expansion of private industries that provide employment opportunity	3.67	1.40
31	Government's inability to control corruption	3.83	1.19
32	Females' lack of access to work (Gender biases)	3.75	1.37
33	Poor's being exploited by the rich	3.94	1.27
34	The government's difficulty to provide quality education	3.89	1.29
35	Inadequacy of government policies	3.91	1.14
36	Lack of unwillingness by the government to allocate sufficient resources to help the poor	3.90	1.15
37	The government's difficulty to provide health services	3.93	1.38
38	High population growth	4.01	1.16
39	The government's difficulty to provide jobs	3.93	1.30
40	Jobs' inadequate payment	3.98	1.25
41	The government's difficulty to provide housing	3.98	1.20
42	Ethnic discrimination in the country	4.16	1.15
43	Just bad luck or fate	2.90	1.39
44	Sickness and physical handicapped of the poor	2.89	1.39
45	"God's" wish for people to be poor	2.79	1.50
46	Unfavorable climate of the country	3.00	1.38
47	This world being unjust	3.13	1.34
48	External forces that we neither understand nor control	2.75	1.38

## Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my original work. Those works used for the thesis are adequately acknowledged.

Name: Misgana Jora

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date of Submission \_\_\_\_\_

This thesis has been submitted for examination by my approval as a university advisor.

Name: Tamirie Andualem

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date of Submission: