

**PSYCHOTICISM AND DRUG INVOLVEMENT AS PREDICTORS OF ATTITUDE
TOWARDS VIOLENCE AMONG YOUTHS IN OYE-EKITI COMMUNITY**

BY

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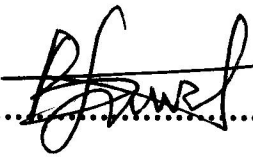
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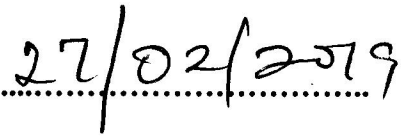
CERTIFICATION

I certify that this study was carried out by BISIRIYU AYORINDE OLUWASEUN (PSY14\2030) of the Department of Psychology, Faculty of Social Sciences, Federal University, Oye Ekiti.

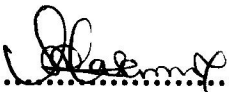

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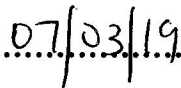

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DEDICATION

This project work is dedicated to God Almighty, my Creator and Redeemer. In Him I have my **total being**. Without Him, I am nothing. I also dedicate this research work to my wonderful and **darling** parents, Mr. & Mrs. Bisiriyu

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My profound gratitude goes to God Almighty for giving me the privilege of being alive till today and also rendering me with the ability and assistance to conduct this project successfully. Glory, honour and adoration are to His holy name.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the influence of psychoticism and drug involvement on attitudes towards violence among youths in Oye-Ekiti community in Ekiti state. The study adopted an ex-post facto research design. A total of 273 undergraduates were conveniently and purposefully sampled in the study. These participants were administered scales designed to measure psychoticism, drug involvement and attitudes towards violence together with demographic information. Two hypotheses were tested in the study. One was tested using multiple regression and was confirmed, the other was tested in the study using independent sample t-test and was also confirmed. The result of the tested hypothesis revealed that psychoticism and drug involvement predicts attitudes towards violence [$F(2, 270) = 27.65; p < .01; R = 0.41; R^2 = 0.17$], also independent prediction revealed that psychoticism predicts attitudes towards violence ($\beta = .290; t = 5.146, p < .01$) and also drug involvement predicts attitudes towards violence ($\beta = .247; t = 4.384, p < .01$). Male and female youths were different from each other on attitudes towards violence [$t = 3.87; df = 271, p < .05$]. Based on findings, it was concluded that psychoticism and drug involvement predicted attitudes towards violence. Gender had an influence on attitudes towards violence.

Keywords: Psychoticism, drug involvement, attitudes towards violence, gender, youths, Oye community, Ekiti state.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the study

Violence has been reported as one of the most serious problems of our world throughout human history. The World Health Organization (WHO) 1996, as cited in Dahlberg and Krug (2002) defines violence as “the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation.” This comprehensive definition mentions both using power and force in order to define an action as violence and the factor of intention. On one hand today, a society’s using power and force on another society for a number of reasons falls within the definition of violence made by the (WHO, 1996). The tendencies to justify these kinds of violent behaviours unfortunately help support and raise the presence of violence intentionally or unwittingly and create environmental conditions that raise violence. As it can be understood from the above definition, violence includes not only a physically harmful action but also using force intentionally resulting in psychological harm, underdevelopment, and recession.

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in research on violence. One of the reasons for such an interest is the social effects of violence. Violence affects society in two ways. First, violence is an action that affects not only the individual but also society. Bufacchi (2005) stated that “one can safely speculate that every person living today will experience, directly or indirectly, some type of violence”. Slovak, Carlson, and Helm (2007) reported that at schools, over 80% of students witnessed someone being threatened, slapped, hit, or punched and over 70% witnessed someone being beaten up. In addition to witnessing the acts of violence, it is also highly possible to hear about the violent news happening in the

society by means of mass-media, which elicits violence being an action affecting only the individual. Therefore, violence is an action that interests more than one individual. Bufacchi (2005) indicated that, except people losing lives because of a violent action, people who survive would also have great loss. The second reason of increasing interest in violence research is that "violence breeds violence" (Salzer, 1981). Violence is a good predictor for using violence (Gellman & Delucia-Waack, 2006). In addition, the victims of violence may undertake some other risks. Brockenbrough, Cornell, and Loper (2002) reported that victims of violence had low academic achievement and more aggressive attitudes, more likely to carry weapon, use alcohol, and fight at the school.

Determining the attitudes toward violence is very important in preventing violence. Gellman and Delucia-Waack (2006) indicated that attitude toward violence was a good predictor for the use of violence. The relationship between attitudes toward violence and being exposed to violence was also referred in some studies. Adolescents from impoverished urban communities are at high risk for involvement with serious delinquency and violent behaviour (Greenwood, 1992). Teens are at highest risk for violence involving loss of control, usually with family, friends, or acquaintances (Hammond and Yung, 1993). Urban adolescents engage in more fighting, weapon carrying, and witness more violence than other adolescents (Menacher, Weldon & Hurwitz, 1990).

The sophisticated nature of crimes, violence and their perpetrators may be linked to the human trait of psychoticism, which is a personality trait that relates to tough-mindedness and rebelliousness. Other synonyms for psychoticism include psychopathy, psychopathic deviate, and sociopathy. Ray and Ray (1982) indicated that psychopathy is not a continuous variable but rather an isolated clinical category with no "normal" counterparts whereas Boeree (1998) indicates that psychoticism is the dimension of personality that separates those people who end up in institutions from

the rest of humanity. The kinds of qualities found in high psychoticistic persons include certain recklessness, a disregard for common sense or conventions, and a degree of inappropriate emotional expression (Eysenck, 1990). According to Heath and Martin (1990), "It is conceptualized as a continuum of liability to psychosis (principally schizophrenia and bipolar affective disorder) with 'psychopathy' (i.e., anti-social behaviour) defined as 'a halfway stage towards psychosis'".

Aggression, coldness, egocentrically, an impersonal attitude, impulsivity, antisocial behaviour, lack of empathy, creativity and a tough-minded attitude characterise people with high levels of psychoticism (Link and Mealey, 1992; Hollin, 1992). People with low levels of psychoticism are often empathic, unselfish, altruistic, warm, peaceful, and pleasant. Eysenck (1983) work on psychoticism states that a person will exhibit some qualities commonly found among psychotics, and that they may be more susceptible, given certain environments, to becoming psychotic. However, examples of such psychotic tendencies include recklessness, disregard for common sense, and inappropriate emotional expression to name a few (Boeree, 1998). Romero, Luengo, & Sobral (2001) concluded that psychoticism is strongly linked to delinquency and further supported by reviews undertaken by (Furnham and Thompson 1991). Eysenck (1990) posited that criminality and antisocial behaviour are positively related to high levels of psychoticism, extraversion and neuroticism and that since males score much higher on psychoticism than females and are much more frequently found in jails, reform homes, and other institutions frequented by high psychoticism scores, then criminality might results from individual biological make up. He especially identified the male sex hormones (testosterone) and low cortical arousal as being responsible. He postulated that an individual's deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), the genetic structure underlying individual differences impacts "biological intermediaries" such as cortical arousal and as a result conditionability and conscience (Eysenck, 1996). Cortical arousal is a state in the

brain that is marked by being alert and attentive. Low cortical arousal is marked by poor arousal and this causes individuals to act out in order to attain greater arousal and this may include criminal acts.

On people's behaviour regarding crime and socially-desirable behaviors, Eysenck indicated that criminals know right from wrong, but prefer the wrong to the right and that the reasons some people commit crime and others do not is a matter of conscience (Eysenck, 1996). Various empirical works have linked psychoticism with crime (Heaven, 1996; Daderman, 1996) and with delinquency Powell and Steward, (1983). Psychoticism correlated highly with recidivism McEwan, (1983) and psychoticism scale might usefully assist in the detecting antisocial disturbed children or in the selection of high-risk groups (Powell & Steward, 1983) and has validity in predicting future offending (Putnins, 1982). On the whole, psychoticism has been linked to high levels of criminality (Eysenck and Gudjonsson, 1989) and self-reported delinquency more than controls (Davison and Neale, 2001).

Among the problematic behaviors implemented in adolescence, violence and the use/abuse of drugs are undoubtedly two public health issues (Harford, Chen, & Grant, 2016; Salas-Wright, Gonzalez, Vaughn, Schwartz, & Jetelina, 2016). At the scientific level, there is a vast amount of literature focused on the assessment of the association between substance use and violent behavior (Bennett, Holloway, & Farrington, 2008; Harford et al., 2016). The use of illicit drugs amongst young people appears to be widespread and is increasing. Drug use can be associated with significant harm in an individual. However, the causal basis of these associations is sometimes unclear. Most users of illicit drugs do not appear to use drug treatment services and the public health importance of harm caused by drug use is difficult to infer using evidence from clinical samples. Concerns over psychological and social (as opposed to physical) health consequences of drug use by young people have been prominent; particularly in relation to cannabis, which appears to be the most widely used illicit drug.

Opinions regarding the probable importance of these, in public health terms, have varied. Mainly in line with the psychopharmacological model, research has suggested that violent behavior is closely related to the use of some specific psychoactive substances such as alcohol, crack cocaine, cocaine, and methamphetamine (e.g., Lloyd, Tafoya, & Merritt, 2015; Macdonald, Erickson, Wells, Hathaway, & Pakula, 2008; White, Tice, Loeber, & Stouthamer-Loeber, 2002).

Engaging in violent behaviours has been associated with smoking (Farrell, Danish & Howard, 1992; Watts & Wright, 1990; Windle, 1990), and alcohol and substance use (Dawkins & Dawkins, 1983; Demboe, Williams, Getreu, & Genung 1991; Kandel, Simcha-Fagen & Davies, 1986; Watts & Wright, 1990; Windle, 1990). Watts and Wright (1990) examined the relationship of drug use and delinquency among White, Mexican-American, and Black male high school students and inmates of a maximum security facility for violent and repeat offenders. Alcohol, tobacco, and illegal drug use were all associated with minor and violent delinquency for all three groups. The frequent use of illegal drugs was the best predictor of violence for all three racial groups. Delinquents are more likely to use and abuse a variety of substances (Watts and Wright, 1990).

1.2. Statement of Problem

Understanding violence requires an appreciation for the complexity human behaviour. Behaviour is not determined by one factor, but rather influenced by a host of interrelated factors (Bandura, Reese, & Adams, 1982). Youth involvement in behaviours that violate social and/or legal norms, rules or conventions has been for long the subject of interest and research, within the most diverse theoretical approaches. The construction of social norms, which vary from society to society, illustrates that violence is a social phenomenon. Only norm violations found most unacceptable to society are codified into laws and acted upon by

criminal justice agencies. Policies created to prevent and reduce violence are closely based on what a society believes causes and erupts violence.

There is a growing recognition that many problems of adolescents are interrelated (Takanishi, 1993). Therefore, the focus is shifting from solving single problems to advancing the general health of adolescents and decreasing the prevalence of risk behaviors (Takanishi, 1993). Dryfoos (1990) argued that because of the interrelatedness of the various problems of adolescents, it is more effective to eliminate the predictors, rather than the behaviors themselves. However, concerning violence and more especially juvenile delinquency, an especially important aspect of a neighborhood is the relationships among adolescents, their parents, and other adults (Osgood and Anderson 2004). This means that the more adults in the neighborhood who know one another, the more they will take responsibility for supervising one another's children, which in turn will lower the delinquency rates. According to the literature (e.g. Emler and Reicher, 1995; Defoe, Farrington and Loeber, 2013; Gottfredson and Hirschi 1990; Hansen 2003; Junger-Tas, Marshall and Ribeaud, 2003), the engagement in deviant and delinquent activities escalates from pre-adolescence to mid-adolescence, when it reaches its peak (generally around 16 years old), and then starts to stabilize and decrease in the subsequent years.

The research intends to answer the following questions:

1. Do psychoticism and drug involvement have independent and joint prediction of attitudes towards violence among youths in Oye-Ekiti community?
2. Is there a gender difference on attitudes towards violence among youths in Oye-Ekiti community?

1.3.Objectives of study

The main objectives of this study was to investigate if psychoticism and drug involvement would independent and jointly predict attitudes towards violence among youths in Oye-Ekiti community.

The specific objectives include;

1. To examine if psychoticism and drug involvement will independently and jointly predict attitudes towards violence among youths in Oye-Ekiti community.
2. To examine gender difference in attitudes towards violence among youths in Oye-Ekiti community.

1.4.Significance of study

In its broadest sense, the outcome of this study is aimed at improving the existing body of knowledge in the literature on psychoticism, drug involvement and attitudes towards violence. Its usefulness to counselling units or centres of schools and bodies of organisations will aid guidance counsellors in understanding the deficiency in the upbringing of children and also in assessing measures to be adopted in preventing maladaptive behaviours and shaping proper behaviours. It will also help therapists in eradicating violent behaviour in clinical assessment. This will however aid therapists in determining how and why a person is behaving abnormally and how that person may be helped.

Also, this study is beneficial as it will tend to evaluate the prevalence of psychotic issues among adolescents and their misuse or abuse of drug substance. However, proper understanding will aid in emphasizing the attitudes of people towards violent behaviour in the society. This study will also assess best techniques to be adopted in training children in socially acceptable behaviours and inculcating sound moral and valued principles in shaping the behaviours of young ones to make them socially, morally and psychologically competent

in adolescence and in adulthood. The outcome of this study will make possible the tendency to explore the relationship between future expectations, attitude towards the use of violence to solve problems, and self-reported physical and relational aggressive or violent behaviour and perpetuation of behaviours which are detrimental to the growth of the society among youths.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Eysenck Psychoticism, Extraversion, and Neuroticism (PEN) model

Eysenck, Hans Jurgen 1916-97, was a British psychologist. He was known for his theory of human personality. He suggested that personality is biologically determined and is arranged in a hierarchy consisting of types, traits, habitual responses, and specific responses. Eysenck did not believe in Freudian psychoanalysis as he considered it rather unscientific. According to Eysenck, Personality can be studied from either temperamental or cognitive aspects, or both He focussed on the temperament aspect of personality in his PEN model. For better understanding of the PEN model, therefore, the study should begin with its description or taxonomy of personality or temperament. Eysenck (1991) states, "In any science, taxonomy precedes causal analysis" (p. 774). In the course of taxonomy (classification), any organisms can be organised into groups based on characters and their relationships. Eysenck describes in plain terms how taxonomy in the study of personality can be achieved using the correlation technique called factor analysis: In the case of personality study the organisms concerned are human beings, the characters are traits, measured by experiment, by rating, by self-rating, or in some other way.

Traits can be correlated over subjects or subjects over traits, giving us groups of people showing similarity over traits, or groups of traits, cohering as factors over people. We can then look at the traits (or people) having the highest factor loadings in order to better identify the trait clusters (Eysenck, 1991). Individual differences in personality or temperament are analysed in terms of traits, which can be defined as theoretical constructs based on "covariation of a number of behavioural acts" (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985).

However, Eysenck (1991) further supposes that traits themselves inter-correlate and make up higher-order factors or super factors, which Eysenck calls "types." As a result, the PEN (Psychoticism Extraversion and Neuroticism) model proposes a hierarchical classification of personality containing four levels. At the very bottom level of the hierarchy are behaviours such as talking with a friend on a single occasion. At the second level are habits such as talking with friends on multiple occasions, which are comprised of recurring behaviours. The third level of the hierarchy is that of traits or factors such as sociability, which are comprised of inter-correlated sets of habits. At the top of the hierarchy are super factors or dimensions of personality such as extraversion, which are intercorrelated sets of traits or factors.

Eysenck suggests three such super factors: extraversion (E), neuroticism (N), and psychoticism (P). These three super factors or dimensions of personality are orthogonal to each other, which means that they do not correlate with each other (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). The PEN model is based on the principle of "aggregation," in which measures will have higher reliability if they are comprised of many items (Eysenck, 1990). That is, each super factor in the PEN model is comprised of many different factors, habits, and behaviours, and thus reliability of measurement is increased. The super factors of extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism at the top level of the hierarchy are stable, whereas behaviours such as talking with a friend on a single occasion at the bottom of the hierarchy are changeable across time and situation. In this respect, the distinction between levels is very important for the analysis of personality in the PEN model. Eysenck strongly advocates that there are only three major dimensions or super factors in the description of personality: extraversion-introversion; emotional stability versus instability, or neuroticism; and psychoticism versus impulse control (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). In the PEN model, these dimensions or super factors are based on "constitutional, genetic, or inborn factors, which are to be discovered in the physiological, neurological, and biochemical structure of the

individual" (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). Each person does not necessarily have either 100 percent or zero percent of extraversion, neuroticism, or psychoticism. An individual may show some degree of these super factors on the continuum. A person may have high extraversion, moderate neuroticism, and low psychoticism.

Eysenck suggests after studying psychosis: 1) Psychotic symptoms and illnesses do not form completely separate diagnostic entities. 2) Psychosis is not a separate diagnostic entity which is categorically separated from normality 3) This continuum is co-linear with the concept of psychoticism, embodied in the P scale of the EPQ. On this continuum, a person with high extraversion is sociable, popular, optimistic, and rather unreliable, whereas a person with low extraversion is quiet, introspective, reserved, and reliable. A person with high neuroticism is anxious, worried, moody, and unstable, whereas a person with low neuroticism is calm, even-tempered, carefree, and emotionally stable. A person with high psychoticism is troublesome, uncooperative, hostile, and socially withdrawn, whereas a person with low psychoticism is altruistic, socialised, empathic, and conventional (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). Based on a three-dimensional description of personality, the PEN model further attempts to provide causal explanation of personality.

The PEN model looks for psychophysiological, hormonal, and other biological mechanisms responsible for the personality dimensions, so that the theory can be tested by scientific experiments. Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) clearly contend that "no theory would be considered valid that did not make testable and verified predictions" (p. 187). Consequently, Eysenck (1990) proposes the arousal theory, by modifying his inhibition theory to explain the causal roots of the three dimensions of personality

2.1.2 Trait Theory

Trait theory is one of the major approaches to the study of human personality. In the framework of this approach, personality traits are defined as habitual patterns of behaviour, thought, and emotion that are manifest in a wide range of situations. The most important features of traits are relative stability over time, different degrees of expression in different individuals, and influence on behaviour. Gordon Allport was a pioneer in the study of personality traits, which he referred to as dispositions. Allport distinguished three such dispositions: cardinal dispositions – obvious, main traits that are dominant in an individual's life (e.g., narcissism); central dispositions – not as salient as cardinal traits, but significant and found to some degree in every person; and secondary dispositions – less visible, less stable individual traits, seen in specific situations. Most people, according to Allport, do not have a cardinal disposition (these are so dominant that they dominate the person's life and cannot be hidden), but instead are described by their central dispositions.

Allport believed that the identity of each person could be described by 5-10 individual traits (the central dispositions), and that the members of a culture or nation share common dispositions. Although Allport understood the value of nomothetic science, he also advocated for an idiographic approach to understanding personality, aimed at recognizing the unique traits of each person. Further development in trait theory has been associated with the application of factor analysis. This method allows identification of trends in large amounts of data and produces factors that are continuous, bipolar, and capable of describing individual differences. Factor models differ in the number of factors and degree of connection among them. For example, Raymond Cattell developed the Sixteen Personality Factor Model that includes the following traits: 1) Warmth (A); 2) Reasoning (B); 3) Emotional Stability (C); 4) Dominance (E); 5) Liveliness (F); 6) Rule-Consciousness (G); 7) Social Boldness (H); 8) Sensitivity (I); 9) Vigilance (L); 10) Abstractedness (M); 11) Privatness (N); 12)

Apprehension (O); 13) Openness to Change (Q1); 14) Self-Reliance (Q2); 15) Perfectionism (Q3); and 16) Tension (Q4). Cattell used factor analysis with oblique rotation, meaning the factors in his model may be related to each other (i.e., not independent of one another).

To measure these traits, he developed the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF). Cattell believed that each person can be characterized by a unique combination of expression of these traits. He factors analyzed these primary traits and discovered five second-order or Global Factors: 1) Openness / Tough-mindedness; 2) SelfControl; 3) Extraversion; 4) Independence / Accommodation; and 5) Anxiety. Based on the results of multiple abstract variance analysis (MAVA), Cattell concluded that about two-thirds of the characteristics of personality are determined by the influence of the environment, and one-third depends on heredity. He suggested that personality traits can describe not only individuals, but also social groups. He used the term syntality to denote the range of traits that may characterize a group. Cattell studied syntality of various religious, educational, and professional groups, as well as entire nations. The main features that define syntality of a country include the size of its territory, morale, wellbeing, and degree of industrialization. Another important theorist, the British psychologist Hans Eysenck, developed a hierarchical model of personality that includes three factors: 1) Extraversion / Introversion, 2) Neuroticism / Stability, 3) Psychoticism / Socialization.

Eysenck used factor analysis with orthogonal rotation, meaning the traits in his model are uncorrelated. He and his colleagues developed the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) and Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) for measuring these traits. The Eysenck Personality Profiler (EPP) breaks down different facets of each trait. Eysenck suggested that personality traits are products of the brain, and the result of genetic factors. A contemporary trait theory, The Five-Factor Theory postulated by Robert R. McCrae and Paul T. Costa, Jr., is based on the Five Factor Model (FFM), also known as the Big Five . The Big Five factors

are **Openness to Experience (O)**, **Conscientiousness (C)**, **Extraversion (E)**, **Agreeableness (A)**, and **Neuroticism (N)**; often referred to via the common acronyms **OCEAN**, **NEOAC**, or **CANOE**. The **NEO Personality Inventory–Revised (NEO PI–R)** provides scores for the five **broad domains** as well as for six subordinate dimensions (or facets) within each of the **Big Five**. Results of numerous cross-cultural studies based on the **FFM** show that the same **structure** exists in samples from different countries. The **Big Five factors** correspond fairly closely to **Cattell’s five Global Factors** in the following way: **Big Five Factor** **Global Factor**
Openness/ Tough-mindedness, **Conscientiousness** **Self-control** **Extraversion** **Agreeableness**
Independence/ Accommodation **Neuroticism** **Anxiety**. All trait models include **extraversion versus introversion** as one of the central dimensions of human personality, and most factor models include **neuroticism, or emotional instability**. Constructs that describe **Extraversion / Introversion** and **Neuroticism / Emotional stability** are found in ancient philosophy and the **many** psychological theories of temperament, character, and personality. These facts provide **some** evidence of the universality of these traits (or factors) in different cultures.

Current research indicates that personality traits are significant predictors of social **behaviour**, determining five to 50% of the variance (typically about 30%), subject to the **following** factors: 1) reliability of measurement parameters of the investigated social **behaviour** using multi-factor, integrated assessments, as well as different methods and sources of data; 2) validity of the methods used to measure the traits; 3) presence of a logical and theoretically grounded connection of personality traits with particular social behaviours, which can then be tested empirically.

2.1.3 Rational Choice Theory

The literature attacking and defending rational choice theory (RCT) is enormous and still continues to grow; debating its merits, or lack thereof, has become something of a cause among social and political theorists. Much of this debate proves fruitless, however, because many people (both critics and defenders) fail to correctly understand, or at least fail to sufficiently appreciate, the role rational choice theory plays in developing explanations of social phenomena. Empirical explanations can usefully be divided, following Jon Elster (1979), into three basic modes: causal, functional, and intentional. In its standard form, the first explains a social phenomenon by referring to an antecedent event or state of affairs that, together with some sort of causal mechanism, is sufficient to bring it about determination. The second explains a social phenomenon teleological – that is, by referring to the purpose or function it serves.

When successful, functional explanations may arguably be a special case of causal explanations, though their distinctiveness warrants viewing them as separate. The third explains a social phenomenon as arising ultimately from the intentional states – desires and beliefs – of social actors (together, perhaps, with some intervening chain of causal or functional explanations carrying us from these decisions to the outcome in which we are interested). If it could be shown that intentional states were causally sufficient antecedent conditions for human action, then the intentional mode of explanation might also collapse into the causal mode. There are important philosophical reasons for doubting whether this could be shown, however, and in any case my article will remain agnostic on such questions.

For the most part, people view RCT (which will be defined more precisely below) as a species of intentional explanation. Roughly, according to this view, the point of RCT is to explain social phenomena by showing how they arise from the deliberate or intentional pursuit of self-interest by social actors (and especially, individual persons). These

explanations can be more or less direct. They are more direct when social actors simply choose those outcomes that are in fact optimal for them, given the constraints they happen to face; they are less direct when, for example, outcomes are the unintended and perhaps undesired by-products of attempts to optimize in this manner. Less often, people view RCT (or at least certain applications of it) as a species of functional explanation. In this view, the point of RCT is to show that certain social phenomena can be explained with reference to their usefulness in solving problems arising from the general pursuit of self-interest. For example, promise-keeping has the structure of a prisoners' dilemma, and so it might be difficult for a community to maintain promise-keeping as a social convention; the fact that state-enforced contract law can to some extent mitigate these difficulties might then be regarded as explaining (functionally) those legal institutions.

This application of rational choice theory is common in the so-called law and economics literature. Although nearly everyone views RCT as a species of either intentional explanation (more often), or else functional explanation (less often), it ought to be viewed as **neither**. Rather, on the best available understanding, RCT should be viewed as contributing to **the construction** of straightforward causal explanations. The debate over RCT has been fruitless because those contributing to it generally fail to understand RCT in this way. Because the intentional explanation view is the dominant one, my article will concentrate on showing that it is inferior to the causal explanation view, and more or less ignore the functional explanation view. The simplest and best answer defines RCT as an approach to the study of social phenomena characterized by a small bundle of core methodological assumptions. The core assumptions in question are three. First, there is what might be called a discrete purposeful actor assumption.

This assumption maintains that there exist in the world of social phenomena discrete entities capable of acting purposefully. Human beings are, at least on the common-sense view

of things, obvious examples of discrete purposeful actors. That is, human beings are **discrete** entities capable of considering several different possible courses of action, and **deliberately** selecting and carrying out (or attempting to carry out) one or more of them. However, what the discrete purposeful actor assumption does not require: First, it does not require believing that individual human beings are the only possible discrete purposeful actors. Collective agents might qualify under certain conditions, for example. Second, it does not require believing that human beings always act in a purposeful way, only that they are capable of doing so at least some of the time. And third, it does not require believing that purposeful action is uninfluenced or unconstrained by factors external to the actor in question, so long as such influences and constraints leave the actor some choices, at least some of the time. Thus stated, the discrete purposeful actor assumption is so weak it is hard to imagine grounds for disagreeing with it. Often, the discrete purposeful actor assumption is confused with a different idea, commonly referred to as 'methodological individualism', which is more vulnerable to criticism. In part 2, RCT does not depend on methodological individualism. The second and third assumptions of rational choice theory are perhaps more familiar: these are the utility theory assumption and the rationality assumption. Under certain very general conditions (adumbrated below) it has been shown that an agent's choices or decisions can be described as if they were an attempt to optimize a mathematical function, regardless of what they are actually an attempt to do.¹⁰ The utility theory assumption holds that we can often expect the choices or decisions of discrete purposeful actors to conform with these conditions. When this is the case, it follows that we can assign each discrete purposeful actor a 'utility function', which provides, as it were, a concise mathematical summary of whatever choices or decisions we expect them to make.

The rationality assumption is tightly related to utility theory. Roughly speaking, it states that people can expect discrete purposeful actors to optimize their utility functions,

given whatever constraints they happen to face. Since utility functions are merely a mathematical representation of what we expect discrete purposeful actors to do in the first place, these two assumptions are, in a sense, merely two sides of the same coin. Indeed, in strictly parametric situations the latter collapses into the former. However, when what one actor wants to do depends in part on what others might do, things get more complicated, necessitating a distinction between the two assumptions. For example, in ordinary market competition, each firm seeks to maximize its profits, and thus the specification of its utility function is elementary. What pricing strategy will actually maximize a firm's profits, however, depends in part on the pricing strategy adopted by competing firms. Thus it is not obvious, on the basis of their utility functions alone, what the rational pricing strategy for each firm would be – or at least not without further elaboration of what it means to behave 'rationally'. The standard elaboration employed in such strategic situations is provided by what is called the Nash equilibrium solution concept.

2.1.4 Social Learning Theory

This theory was developed by Aker in 1999. Akers' social learning theory was first formulated as differential association reinforcement by Burgess and Akers (1966). They were attempting to combine Sutherland's (1947) differential association theory with the principles of behavioural psychology. Sutherland (1947) endeavoured to develop a theory of white-collar crime, which required a theory that differed from most of the era since most had assumptions based on individual-level deficiencies of lower-class citizens and criminals. Consequentially, a theory was formed based on crime, like any behaviour being learned through differential association. Sutherland proposed nine points to highlight his theory of differential association and are as follows: (1) Criminal behaviour is learned, (2) criminal behaviour is learned and in interaction with other persons in a process of communication, (3) the principle part of the learning of criminal behaviour occurs within intimate personal

groups, (4) when criminal behaviour is learned, the learning includes (a) ~~techniques~~ committing the crime, which are sometimes very complicated and sometimes very simple, and (b) the learning also includes the specific direction of motives and drives, rationalisations, and attitudes. (5) the specific direction of motives and drives is learned from definitions of the legal codes as favourable or unfavourable, (6) a person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favourable to violation of law over definitions unfavourable to violation of the law, (7) differential association may vary in frequency, duration, priority, and intensity, (8) the process of learning criminal behaviour by association with criminal and anti-criminal patterns involves all of the mechanisms that are involved in any other learning, and (9) although criminal behaviour is an expression of general needs and values, it is not explained by those general needs and values, because non-criminal behaviour is an expression of the same needs and values (Sutherland 1947).

Sutherland's (1947) theory, however, did not specify the process in which behaviour is learned. The sixth principle of differential association was essential to the creation of Burgess and Akers' (1966) differential association–reinforcement theory. Sutherland (1947) believed in the ability of people to learn two kinds of definitions that are assigned to behaviours—favourable and unfavourable. The probability of an individual committing a certain delinquent act will increase when their definitions of the act are more favourable. Correspondingly, an unfavourable definition toward an act will decrease the probability of its commission. In most circumstances, people are exposed to both criminal and anti-criminal influences with an overly representative presence of favourable or unfavourable definitions being rare. Burgess and Akers (1966) believed that Sutherland's (1947) concept of learning through association or interaction with others within a social context goes hand in hand with the premises of operant theory, which refers to how behaviour is formed by interactive environmental factors, either social or non-social (Akers 2009).

Akers and Burgess included work from B. F. Skinner, an expert in the psychology of operant conditioning who formulated the original operant reinforcement model. Skinner (1953) formed his theory through experimental work with laboratory rats. He studied the rat's behaviour when they were placed in a box containing a lever that when pushed rewarded the rats with a food pellet. The rats were able to learn that they could consistently receive food by using the lever and thus were subjected to operant conditioning to do so. Akers eventually applied concepts from this study to his own work including the four core elements of social learning theory: definitions, differential association, differential reinforcement, and imitation. Eventually, Burgess and Akers (1966) altered Sutherlands (1947) original 9 propositions to contain a detailed illustration of the learning process. With contributions from Skinner's (1953) writings on operant condition, Bandura's (1969) work on the modelling of behaviour, and Sutherland's (1947) differential association theory, Burgess and Akers (1966) gave the following new principles that describe the learning process of criminal behaviour: (1) Criminal behaviour is learned according to the process of operant conditioning, (2) criminal behaviour is learned both in non-social situations that are reinforcing or discriminative and through that social interaction in which the behaviour of other persons is reinforcing or discriminative for criminal behaviour, (3) the principle part of the learning of criminal behaviour occurs in those groups which comprise the individuals' major source of reinforcements, (4) the learning of criminal behaviour, including specific techniques, attitudes, and avoidance procedures, is a function of the effective and available reinforces and the existing reinforcement contingencies, (5) the specific class of behaviours which are learned and their frequencies of occurrence are a function of the reinforces which are effective and available and the rules or norms by which these reinforces are applied, (6) criminal behaviour is a function of norms which are discriminative for criminal behaviour, the learning of which takes place when such behaviour is more highly reinforced than

noncriminal behaviour, and (7) the strength of criminal behaviour is a direct function of the amount, frequency, and probability, of its reinforcement.

As before mentioned, Burgess and Akers (1966) saw this new theoretical perspective as originating from applying an integrated set of learning principles to differential association theory. However, criticisms of this refinement caused Akers to move away from these seven principles and concentrate on Bandura's (1969) social behaviourism and the four core elements that would comprise social learning theory. The social learning theory is thought to be a general theory of crime due to its underlying assumptions that attempt to explain why individuals commit deviant acts and also why they do not. Akers briefly describes his theory as: "The probability that persons will engage in criminal and deviant behaviours is increased and the probability of conforming to the norm is decreased when they differentially associate with others who commit criminal behaviour and espouse definitions favourable to it, are relatively more exposed in-person or symbolically to salient criminal/deviant models, define it as desirable or justified in a situation discriminative for the behaviour, and have received in the past and anticipate in the current or future situation relatively greater reward than punishment for the behaviour (Akers 2009)."

2.1.5. Frustration Aggression Theory

In 1939, Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, and Sears published a monograph on aggression in which they presented what has come to be known as the frustration-aggression hypothesis (F-A). This hypothesis proved to have an immense impact. It appears to have influenced current Western thinking on aggression more profoundly than any other single publication. For more than three decades, the F-A hypothesis has guided, in one way or another, the better part of the experimental research on human aggression (Geen, 1972; Zillmann, 1979). Perhaps more importantly, however, the views of aggression that it involves

seem to have become widely adopted and accepted; they have become commonplaces. This popular success may have various sources. First the principal hypothesis is uncomplicated and easy to grasp. The theory is generally well structured and clearly articulated, a fact that again facilitates comprehension. Second, the theory does not involve overly abstract concepts or elaborate procedures. It is very close to common sense – seeming to be built on it. Finally, as Selg (1971) observed, the theory tends to provide a justification for behaving aggressively: ‘Being frustrated made me do it!’ Like the aggression amnesty provided by instinct notions (‘It can’t be helped because we’re built that way’), although not as strong, this kind of justification can be drawn upon as a ready-made excuse for uncontrolled (or premeditated) hostile or aggressive actions (Zillmann, 1979).

As to the principal hypothesis, Dollard et al. (1939) posited “that the occurrence of aggressive behaviour always presupposes the existence of frustration and, contrariwise, that the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression”. Frustration, in this context, was specified as the thwarting of a goal response, and a goal response, in turn, was taken to mean the reinforcing final operation in an ongoing behaviour sequence. At times, however, the term ‘frustration’ is used to refer not only to the process of blocking a person’s attainment of a reinforcer but also to the reaction to such blocking. Consequently, ‘being frustrated’ means both that one’s access to reinforcers is being thwarted by another party (or possibly by particular circumstances) and that one’s reaction to this thwarting is one of annoyance. It was soon recognized that the initial claims – (a) that aggression is always based on frustration and (b) that frustration always leads to aggression – were far too general. These claims made frustration both a necessary and sufficient condition for aggression. Miller (1941) was quick to retract the latter part of the proposal. Quite obviously, frustrations do not cause hostile or aggressive outbursts by necessity. Potential outbursts may be effectively

inhibited or may result in alternative actions, such as the pursuit of other, more readily available reinforcers.

Miller therefore rephrased the second part of the hypothesis to read: "Frustration produces instigations to a number of different types of response, one of which is an instigation to some form of aggression". According to this reformulation, frustration actuates motivational forces that are diffuse rather than specific to aggression. It is assigned the properties of a general drive. Such apparent moderation has not been applied to the first part of the original F-A hypothesis, however. Miller (1941) found the generality of this claim both defensible and useful. The revised F-A hypothesis thus maintains the following: (a) Frustration instigates behaviour that may or may not be hostile or aggressive. (b) Any hostile or aggressive behaviour that occurs is caused by frustration. In other words, frustration is not a sufficient, but a necessary, condition for hostility and aggression (Zillmann, 1979). It should be noted that the revised hypothesis retains a good deal of the original, sweeping claim. Because of its sweeping nature, the hypothesis proved most controversial (cf. Bandura & Walters, 1963a, b; Buss, 1961). After considering the more specific elements of frustration-aggression theory, we briefly review the main arguments in this controversy.

In developing a comprehensive theory of aggression, Dollard et al. (1939) specified that the motivational strength toward aggression is a function of: (a) the reinforcement value of the frustrated goal response, (b) the degree of frustration of this goal response, and (c) the number of frustrated response sequences. The first two of these propositions are straightforward. Aggression-potentiating annoyance is seen to increase with the incentive that could be obtained or the aversion that could be terminated by the blocked goal reaction. Furthermore, frustration can be incomplete, and thus a goal reaction can be partially completed. The third proposition is less direct, however. It is meaningful only if it is assumed that frustration-induced annoyance is cumulative. It is apparently held that 'aggressive drive'

resulting from frustrations is somehow maintained within the organism and adds up to a level at which an otherwise tolerable frustration evokes aggression.

Dollard et al, (1939) were in fact, very explicit about the assumed addictively of aggressive forces. They posited that the strength of a hostile or aggressive reaction depends in part on the "amount of residual instigation from previous or simultaneous frustrations". "Minor frustrations" they suggested, "add together to produce an aggressive response of greater strength than would normally be expected from the frustrating situation that appears to be the immediate antecedent of the aggression". Dollard et al. (1939) acknowledged the significance of the temporal aspect of this summation of 'aggressive drive' but quickly dismissed the issue by pointing out the lack of relevant data (Zillmann, 1979). The theoretical treatment of the inhibition of aggression is related to the time issue, in that the lack of immediate, overt manifestations of aggression is assumed to lead to prolonged covert consequences that eventually 'break out' in different form.

Dollard et al. (1939) recognized that not all frustrations produce overt aggression, and to account for this fact, they posited inhibitory forces whose strength was said to vary positively with the severity of the punishment anticipated to result from the particular contemplated goal reaction. It was proposed that if punishment (a notion that was broadened to include such things as injury to a loved object and failure to achieve desired objectives) was anticipated to outweigh any incentives that could be gained, overt aggression would be inhibited. However, consistent with the original conviction that all frustrations produce some form of aggression, Dollard et al. (1939) insisted that it would be 'clearly false' to view inhibited overt aggression as nonaggression. Being 'furious inside', for example, is interpreted as non-overt aggression, which apparently can linger on and erupt in overt manifestations at a later time. Put precisely, then, anticipated punishment, which is a primary source of frustration, effects the inhibition of overt aggression when it exceeds anticipated

gratifications. The inhibition is incomplete, however, in the sense that: (a) it fails to control covert elements of aggression, and (b) it fails to terminate the instigation to aggression.

A significant element of frustration-aggression theory concerns the redirection or displacement of aggression. Dollard et al. were very explicit in their treatment of this phenomenon. They proposed that a particular frustration instigates aggression primarily against the source of the frustration but also instigates aggression against targets that are to some degree related to that source. The strength of the instigation was seen to vary as a function of associative ties between the actual source of frustration and the alternative target. The Freudian displacement mechanism was thus interpreted in terms of stimulus affinities. With the source of frustration constituting the primary target for aggression, closely associated targets evoke similar aggressive reactions; generally, the strength of the instigation to aggression diminishes as the similarity between the original and alternative target decreases.

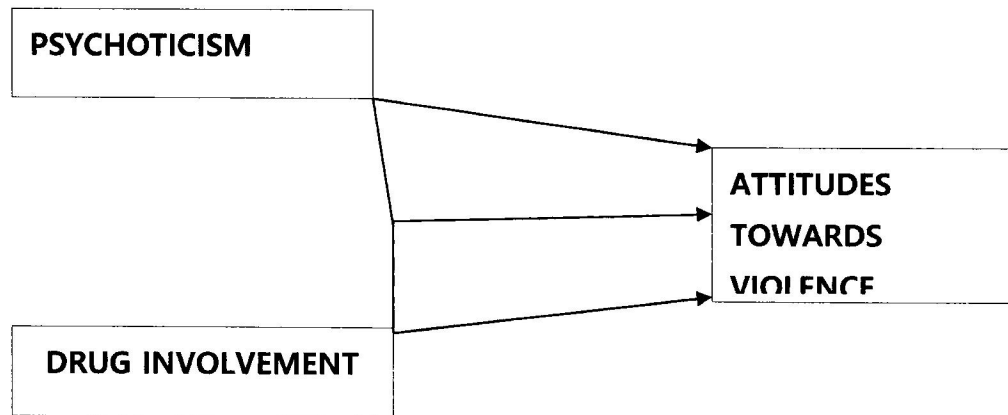
Dollard et al. (1939) further proposed that the more punishment is anticipated to follow contemplated acts of aggression against a particular target – that is, the more severe the inhibition placed upon such behaviour – the more likely it becomes that the 'inhibited' aggressive actions will be: (a) replaced by alternative, less punishment-burdened acts, and/or (b) displaced upon other targets. These propositions make it clear once again that in the framework of frustration-aggression theory, the inhibition of aggression is always incomplete. The frustrated individual who is forced to inhibit contemplated acts against particular targets (this inhibition in itself being considered frustrating and thus increasing the frustration suffered) is viewed as motivated to find other outlets for his or her aggressive inclinations. Only hostile or aggressive activities, transformed or displaced as they may be, are capable of reducing this instigation to aggression. Since the theory fails to stipulate other mechanisms for the reduction of such instigation, frustration must be viewed as a force that

'drives' the organism for an indefinite period of time, ultimately until hostile and aggressive acts are performed (Zillmann, 1979). This state of affairs is not entirely consistent with

In Miller's (1941) revision of the F-A hypothesis, the suggestion that frustration instigates nonaggressive as well as aggressive reactions seems to imply the possibility of instigation reduction by nonaggressive goal reactions. Concerning the reduction of the instigation to aggression as such, Dollard et al. (1939) categorically declared that it is achieved, at least in part, with any and every act of aggression. These investigators further proposed an 'equivalence of forms' of instigation-reducing means, positing an "inverse relationship between the occurrences of different forms of aggression". They qualified this postulated reciprocal relationship by suggesting that it applies especially to the dichotomies of overt vs. covert and self-directed vs. outward-directed aggression. In this context, the notion of catharsis is equated with the reduction of the instigation to aggression in general, irrespective of specific targets. A violent assault upon a frustrated person is thus seen as cathartic. More significantly, however, the expression of minor, less direct, and possibly covert acts of 'aggression' are viewed as alternative, powerful means to bring about catharsis. The mere expression of annoyance, which does not harm anybody, is also considered an aggressive act capable of producing catharsis.

Furthermore (and very significantly), since according to the theory, aggression can be displaced, attacks upon alternative targets are seen to reduce the instigation to aggression against the actual frustrated person. Finally, aggression against the self, in overt or covert form, may prove cathartic as well. (In contrast to Freudian thought regarding the death instinct, Dollard et al. consider self-aggression a last resort, however. "Other conditions being constant, self-aggression should be a relatively no preferred type of expression which will not occur unless other forms of expression are even more strongly inhibited". This proposition leaves no doubt that aggression as a reaction to frustration is primarily self-assertive).

2.2 Theoretical Conceptualisation



2.3 Review of Empirical Studies

2.3.1 Psychoticism and Attitudes towards Violence

Researches on the influence of psychoticism and violence have been on a very low side. However, most studies on psychoticism and its link to attitudes towards violence has focused more on the various personality types and traits of individuals and their disposition to commit violence. Previous researches by Bushman (1995) found that people with high levels of trait aggressiveness, as measured by the Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992), displayed more interest in the in the depiction of violence than low aggressive participants, and responded more aggressively to provocation. Further research on the mediating influence of personality in the effects of violence is important (Zillman and Weaver, 2011). Weaver (2013) in his research found that participants who scored high on EPQ psychoticism (P) displayed greater preference for graphically violent behaviours. However, Zukerman and Little (2010) study found that interest in morbid, violent and sexual acts and events was significantly related to EPQ P and the Disinhibition Scale of the Sensation Seeking Scale.

Studies by Conklin (1981), showed that the personality traits of offenders did differ from the general population, although, the differences were usually small. Zimbardo (1972) said that, there were some evidences that delinquents and criminals might be more emotionally disturbed than the general populations. Research study by Tenibiaje (1995) observed that the personality characteristics of juvenile delinquents and criminals were not similar, in terms of extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism. Understanding why crime occurs requires an appreciation of the complexity of human behaviour. Behaviour is not determined by one factor, but rather influenced by a host of interrelated factors (Bandura, Reese & Adams, 1982). For example, an individual's action to losing his or her job may vary according to factors such as age, coping skills, personality, level of social support, or financial status. Thus, both individual and structural level factors are essential to explaining current behaviour and to predicting future behaviour.

Some researchers have recently asserted that, for some youth, victimization is a condition rather than an event (Finkelher, Ormrad, Turner & Heide, 1999). This youth do not experience only one or several separate incidents of victimizations, but endure repeated and multiple victimizations, as if being repeated victims comprise their own crime hot spot (Menard & Huizinga, 2001, Pease & Laycock, 1996). It is unknown whether or not the relations between the Big 5 and aggression are direct, or indirect through some learned aggressive outcomes, such as aggressive emotions and aggressive attitudes. Anderson & Bushman, (2002) posits that repeated interaction with aggression-related stimuli (both real and fictitious) and situations, and subsequent positively reinforced aggressive behaviour, is likely to increase one's aggressive personality through several learned outcomes (e.g., aggressive beliefs, attitudes, and related emotions).

Furthermore, in all major social-cognitive models of aggression, momentary accessibility of aggressive emotion and cognitions are key proximal causes of aggressive

behaviour. Thus, depending on the specific Big 5 trait, GAM would suggest that the Big 5 traits are related to aggressive behaviour because they may either enhance or inhibit the development and chronic accessibility of aggressive emotions and aggressive attitudes. For example, if Agreeableness is negatively associated with aggressive emotions or aggressive attitudes, then it should also be negatively related to aggression. There is strong support for how repeated exposure to aggression-related stimuli and situations is related to aggressive emotions and aggressive attitudes; and how those aggressive outcomes are related to the likelihood of aggressive behaviour (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). However, there is a paucity of research on how Big 5 traits are related to these aggressive outcomes.

Research has shown that Agreeableness and Conscientiousness are both negatively related to vengefulness (an aggressive emotion), whereas Neuroticism is positively related to vengefulness (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001). Sharpe and Desai (2001) found that Neuroticism is positively related to anger and hostility (aggressive emotions), whereas Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness are negatively related to these emotions. Anderson et al. (2004) found that Agreeableness and Conscientiousness were negatively related to attitudes towards violence (an aggressive attitude). Thus, this literature suggests that the Big 5 personality traits may be related to aggressive behaviour directly and/or indirectly through aggressive emotions and aggressive attitudes.

2.3.2 Drug Involvement and Attitudes towards Violence

During the last decade, interest has grown in the relationship between alcohol, drugs, and violence. In addition to the mostly misguided attention in mass media and in political circles to the relationship between illegal drugs and violence, a number of empirical studies have attempted to disentangle the associations between alcohol, drugs, and violence. Several studies have attempted to organize this knowledge into a comprehensive theoretical

framework. This chapter synthesizes this body of work to assess the state of the art in thinking about the relationships between psychoactive substances and violent behaviour.

Defining and understanding the complex relationships among alcohol, drugs, and violence require that we examine issues of pharmacology, settings, and larger social contexts to understand the mechanisms that associate substance use and violence in individuals. In addition to this, we must also consider not only the ways in which individuals are nested within larger social contexts, but also the ways in which these contexts themselves may create conditions in which violent behaviour takes place, for example, the ways in which availability of substances, while itself conditioned to some degree by larger social forces, contributes to the spatial distribution of crime and violence. We do not attempt to review the growing literature on the biological aspects of violence. Despite increased interest in this area of research, no credible scientific evidence currently exists that demonstrates any significant link between biological characteristics and violence (National Research Council 1993).

Future research may reveal complex interactions among biological, pharmacological, psychological, and contextual aspects of alcohol- and drug-related violence, but no conclusive evidence exists to support this idea at present. In addition to trying to understand the ways in which alcohol and drug use may contribute to violent behaviour, it is also important to consider the ways that alcohol and other drugs relate to human behaviour in general. Some advances have been made in the study of psychological expectancies concerning alcohol's effect on behaviour (Brown 1993, Grube et al 1994), the relationship between alcohol and cognitive functioning (Pihl et al 1993), the impact of alcohol on aggressive behaviour (Leonard & Taylor 1983), and the dynamic developmental effects of early exposure to alcohol and violence among young people (White et al 1993) and among women who have been victimized as children and as adults (Miller & Downs 1993, Widom & Ames 1994, Roesler & Dafler 1993).

Similar work has attempted to understand the links between illicit drugs and behaviour, although due to the attention focused on the illegality of these substances, this body of work tends to be most concerned with illegal behaviours that might be associated with drugs. Examples from this literature include examinations of the links between drug use and delinquent behaviour among juveniles (Watts & Wright 1990; Fagan 1993); relationships between substance use and domestic violence (Bennett 1995, Bennett et al 1994, Roberts 1987, Blount et al 1994); the ways in which the use and distribution of illicit drugs are related to all types of crime, particularly nonviolent property offenses (Ball et al 1982; Ball 1991; Baumer 1994; Greenberg 1976; Johnson et al 1994; Klein & Maxson 1985; McCoy et al 1995; Meiczkowski 1994; Feucht & Kyle 1996); and the impact of drug use on the ability to maintain interpersonal relationships (Joe 1996; Fishbein 1996; Lerner & Burns 1978).

A fairly common problem specific to theoretical and empirical investigations of the relationship between drugs and violence is the tendency—largely ideological—to lump all illicit drugs together, as if all drugs might be expected to have the same relationship to violent behaviour. Different drugs certainly do have different pharmacological effects, which may or may not influence the user's tendency toward violence; this should be treated as a prominent empirical question, rather than as an afterthought usually addressed only when results are disaggregated by drug type. Another problem specific to the analysis of the impacts of illicit drugs on behaviour that hinders our understanding of the relationship between drugs and violence in real-world (as opposed to laboratory) settings was cogently pointed out by one researcher—that the degree of both impurity and deception in the illicit drug market “makes any direct inferences between drug-taking and behaviour seem almost ludicrous” (Greenberg 1976; Johnson 1978). Evidence of the greater likelihood of polydrug use among more violent research subjects also confuses any causal inferences that can be made with respect to particular drugs (e.g. Spunt et al 1995; Inciardi & Pottieger 1994). A rather fragmented

research literature attempts to identify links between alcohol, drugs, and violence at the individual or pharmacological level. Evidence of an individual level association between alcohol and violence is widespread. For example, Collins (1981) reviewed a number of studies in which alcohol and violence were associated among individuals.

Experimental studies have also shown a consistent relationship at the individual level between alcohol use and aggressive behaviour, especially in the presence of social cues that would normally elicit an aggressive response; the consumption of alcohol increases the aggressiveness of this response (Taylor 1983, Gantner & Taylor 1992; Pihl et al 1993). Roizen (1993) reports that in nearly 40 studies of violent offenders, and an equal number of studies of victims of violence, alcohol involvement were found in about 50% of the events and people examined. Although most individual-level studies assume that alcohol has a potentially causal role, an argument supported by the experimental studies cited here, some have argued variously that the relationship is spurious (Collins 1989), that both are caused by third factors (Jessor&Jessor 1977), or that aggression and violence precede alcohol and drug abuse (White et al 1987).

In general, little evidence suggests that illicit drugs are uniquely associated with the occurrence of violent crime. While respondents of the 1991 National Criminal Victimization Survey perceived more than one fourth of violent criminal assailants to be under the influence of alcohol, less than 10% of these assailants were reported by victims to be under the influence of illicit drugs. Of these, more than half were reported to be under the influence of both alcohol and drugs (Bureau of Justice Statistics 1992a). These percentages are supported by urinalysis data for persons arrested for violent offenses, which yield the finding that in 1990, only 5.6% of violent offenders were under the influence of illicit drugs at the time of their offense (US Bureau of Justice Statistics 1992b). Studies of the drug and alcohol involvement of homicide offenders and victims also support the notion that alcohol is,

overwhelmingly, the substance most frequently implicated in this particular form of violence (Abel 1987; Spunt et al., 1995; Wieczorek et al., 1990; Yarvis 1994; Fendrich et al., 1995; Goldstein et al., 1992). Interview studies with homicide offenders as well as toxicology studies of homicide victims consistently report that approximately half of all homicide offenders are intoxicated on drugs or alcohol at the time of the crime; similar percentages of homicide victims test positive for substance use as well (Abel 1987; Ray & Simons 1987, Fendrich et al., 1995; Spunt et al., 1995; Wieczorek et al., 1990; Kratcoski 1990; Welte & Abel 1989; Garriott 1993; Tardiff et al., 1995). Some evidence suggests that alcohol is the substance most frequently implicated in other violent events as well (Buss et al 1995; US Bureau of Justice Statistics 1992).

2.3.3. Gender and Attitude towards Violence

In the literature on gender, attitudes towards violence, criminal behaviour and attitudes, especially those related to criminal tendencies. One major question often asked in crime is "Why might gender matter"? In prisoner populations, women are generally less found to be prone to criminal tendencies than men (Byrnes et al., 1999). These differences are often explained by reference to gender differences in testosterone levels, which have been implicated in various forms of study of crimes (Archer, 2004; Coates & Herbert, 2009; Eisenegger, Haushofer, & Fehr, 2011; Sapienza, Zingales, & Maestriperi, 2009). Interestingly, testosterone levels may also mediate risk-taking differences in the context of crime. For instance, the second to fourth digit ratio, a marker of exposure to testosterone, is lower in male offenders than non-offenders, indicating higher testosterone levels in offenders (Hanoch et al., 2012).

Moreover, testosterone has been linked to crime and prison violence in both men and women (Dabbs, Carr, Frady, & Riad, 1995; Dabbs & Hargrove, 1997; Dabbs, Ruback, Frady,

Hopper, & Sgoutas, 1988). Given the potentially common influence of testosterone on differences in criminal behaviours both between men and women and between prisoners and non-prisoners, it seems important to consider the two factors simultaneously. For instance, given women's lower testosterone levels, differences between prisoners' criminal tendencies may be smaller in women than in men. Alternatively, given that women tend to be less risk taking than men and that criminal behavior may occur only with extremely high levels of risk-taking propensity, the differences could be more pronounced in females; it is thus possible that female prisoners represent a more extreme subpopulation than male prisoners. Because the literature on risk taking among prisoners has previously focused on males, the aim of this study was to examine risk taking in prisoners, as compared with a control group of non-prisoners, with a special emphasis on the potentially moderating role of gender.

The fact that the difference between male and female crime rates varies so much from society to society suggests that much of the differences are as a result of social and cultural acts. However, some of these differences may be the result of biological or hormonal differences between males and females as posited by the works of Heidensohn, (1985).

2.4. Statement of Hypothesis

1. Psychoticism and drug involvement will independently and jointly predict attitudes towards violence among youths in Oye-Ekiti community.
2. Male youth will significantly report positive attitudes toward violence than female youth in Oye-Ekiti community.

2.5 Operational Definition of Terms

Psychoticism: A personality pattern or trait characterized by aggressive behaviour and interpersonal hostility. It is indicated by a pattern of low self-control, lack of empathy and remorse, heedlessness and indulgent in violent and criminal offences or behaviours. This was

measured using 6-item Psychoticism scale developed by Francis, Robbins, Louch (2001). High score indicates higher level of psychoticism in respondents.

Drug involvement: The act of involving in the use of a chemical or substance for medicinal purposes in an addictive way. This was measured using 20-item Drug Involvement scale developed by Skinner (1982). High score indicates higher drug involvement.

Attitudes towards violence: The disposition or state of mind of behaving or involving in physical conflict and force. It is the tendency of intentionally use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation. This was measured using 39-item attitude toward violence scale developed by Anderson, Benjamin, Wood, and Bonacci (2006). High score on the scale indicates positive attitudes toward violence

Gender: The biological act of being referred to as a male or female.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

3.1 Research Design

The researcher adopted the use of ex-post facto research design because none of the variables of study was subjected to active manipulation; rather they were measured as occurred. The independent variables are psychoticism and drug involvement. The dependent variable is attitude towards violence.

3.2 Setting and Participants

The study was carried out among youths in Oye-Ekiti. The participants were 273 (139 male, 134 female) youths with age range of 15 to 32 years and mean age of 20.90 years (SD = 3.043). Two hundred and twenty-eight (83.5%) of the participants were from a monogamous family background, and only 45 (16.5%) was from a polygamous family background.

In terms of education, 4 (1.5%) had No former education, 10 (3.7%) had Primary Education, 59 (21.6%) had Senior Secondary School certificates/General Certificate of education and 200 (73.3%) had Tertiary Education. Regarding religious affiliation, 218 (79.9%) were Christian, 49 (17.9%) were Moslems and 6 (2.2%) was Traditional.

Analysis of occupation revealed that 237 (86.8%) were of university students, 18 (6.6%) were polytechnic students, 10 (3.7%) were self-employed and 8 (2.9%) indicated being a civil servant.

3.3 Instrument

A questionnaire was used to collect data from the field in this present study. The questionnaire was designed in four sections comprising of standardized scales as follows:

Section A comprises the demographic characteristics of the youths, such as their sex, family background, education, religion, and occupation.

Section B comprises the 20-item Drug Abuse Screening Test (DAST) developed by Skinner (1982) used in this current study to get information about the participant's involvement with drugs during the past 12 months. The scale is in 5-point Likert response format ranging from strongly disagree (scored 1) to strongly agree (scored 5). High score on the scale indicates higher level of involvement in drug use, while low score indicates lower level of involvement in drug use. Internal consistency reliability (alpha) of 0.95 was reported by the author. For the current study, reliability coefficient of 0.91 was reported.

Section C measures the revised Attitude Towards Violence Scale (ATVS) developed by Anderson, Benjamin, Wood, and Bonacci (2006), which consists of 39 items. The 39-item ATVS is a revised version of the scale originally developed by Velicer, Huckel, and Hansen (1989), and has been demonstrated to measure four dimensions: attitudes toward war, penal code violence, corporal punishment, and intimate violence (Anderson et al., 2006). Each item was rated on a five-point scale: agree strongly (5), agree (4), undecided (3), disagree (2), strongly disagree (1). High score on the scale indicates positive attitude toward violence, while lower score indicates negative attitude towards violence. The researcher reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88 for the scale in the current study.

Section D measures the 6-item Psychoticism scale developed by Francis, Robbins, Loudon and Haley (2001). The scale is in 5-point Likert response format ranging from strongly disagree (scored 1) to strongly agree (scored 5). High score on the scale indicates higher

psychoticism, while lower score indicates lower psychoticism. The psychoticism scale was used to observe traits such as: impulsiveness, lack of cooperation, oral pessimism, rigidity, low superego controls, low social sensitivity, low persistence, lack of anxiety and lack of feelings of inferiority. The authors reported reliability coefficients of 0.45, 0.43 and 0.44 for three different samples respectively. In the current study, the researcher reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.17 in the current study.

3.4 PROCEDURE

The researcher began the research process by seeking an approval from his supervisor and Head of Department to begin the data collection process. After the approval, the researcher proceeded to the community where data for the study were to be acquired. On getting to the community, the participants were accosted and given questionnaires to fill. In the course of the administration, emphasis was laid on the anonymity of the respondents and they were all assured of utmost confidentiality of their responses. At the end of the filling in the questionnaire the participants were thanked for taking their time.

A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed, 285 were returned, but only 273 found properly filled were taken for data analyses in this study.

3.5 STATISTICAL METHODS

The demographic data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics such as mean, range, standard deviation, frequency distribution and percentages. Hypotheses stated were analysed using inferential statistics. Hypothesis one was tested using multiple regression analyses to determine independent and joint contributions of predictor variables on criterion variable. Hypothesis two was tested with t-test for independent groups in order to compare and establish group differences.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Hypothesis one stated that psychoticism and drug involvement would independently and jointly predict attitudes towards violence. The hypothesis was tested using multiple regression. The result is presented in Table 4.1

Table 4.1 Multiple Regression Analysis of Attitudes towards Violence by Psychoticism and Drug Involvement

| Variables | β | t | P | R | R ² | F | P |
|------------------|---------|-------|------|------|----------------|-------|------|
| Psychoticism | .290 | 5.146 | ns | .412 | .170 | 27.65 | <.01 |
| Drug Involvement | .247 | 4.384 | <.01 | | | | |

From Table 4.1, it can be observed that psychoticism and drug involvement jointly predicted attitudes towards violence $F(2, 270) = 27.65; p < .01$ with $R = 0.41$ $R^2 = 0.17$. This result suggests that both variables jointly accounted for 17% variation in attitudes towards violence among youths in Oye-Ekiti. Similarly, both psychoticism ($\beta = .290; t = 5.146, p < .01$) and drug involvement ($\beta = .247; t = 4.384, p < .01$) independently predicted attitudes towards violence, where. Therefore, hypothesis one confirmed.

Hypothesis two stated that male youths would significantly report positive attitudes towards violence than female youths in Oye-Ekiti community. The hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent group. The result is presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: t-test for Independent group showing differences between Male and Female youths on Attitudes towards Violence

| Gender | N | Mean | SD | df | t | P |
|----------------------------|-----|--------|-------|-----|------|------|
| Attitudes to Violence Male | 139 | 111.76 | 21.85 | 271 | 3.87 | <.01 |
| Female | 134 | 101.72 | 21.02 | | | |

From Table 4.2, the result of the t-test shows that youths who were male ($X = 111.72$) significantly reported positive attitudes towards violence than youths who were female ($X = 101.72$), $t = 3.87$; $df = 271$, $p < .05$. The results imply that gender significantly influenced attitudes towards violence among youths in Oye-Ekiti. Therefore, hypothesis two was confirmed.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the prediction of attitudes towards violence from psychoticism and drug involvement. The researcher's purpose was to explain the predicted value in the attitudes towards violence of youths in Oye-Ekiti community. The findings of the study indicated that psychoticism and drug involvement independently and jointly predicted attitudes towards violence among youths. Gender was also found to have an influence on the attitudes towards violence among youths; thereby, emphasizing that males and females were not equal and but different from each other in their attitudes toward violence.

5.1 DISCUSSION

The findings of the study revealed that psychoticism and drug involvement independently and jointly predicted attitudes towards violence. The finding was approved by the works of Bushman (1995) who found that people with high levels of trait aggressiveness, as measured by the Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992), displayed more interest in the in the depiction of violence than low aggressive participants, and responded more aggressively to provocation. More studies by Weaver (2013) supported the study findings in his research where he found that participants who scored high on EPQ psychoticism (P) displayed greater preference for graphically violent behaviours. Also, further study by Zukerman and Little (2010) study found that interest in morbid, violent and sexual acts and events was significantly related to EPQ P and the Disinhibition Scale of the Sensation Seeking Scale. Taking a closer look into the Nigerian context, the work of Tenibiaje (1995) also supported the study findings where it was observed that the personality characteristics of juvenile delinquents and criminals were not similar, in terms of extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism.

A more understanding of the role of illicit drug use on attitudes towards violence were backed up by the works of Pihl et al (2013) in their experimental research studies where it was shown that a consistent relationship exists at the individual level between alcohol use and aggressive behaviour, especially in the presence of social cues that would normally elicit an aggressive response; the consumption of alcohol increases the aggressiveness of this response. Further study of drug use on attitudes towards violence was accompanied by research on its prevalence rate especially of the 1991 National Criminal Victimization Survey where it was perceived that more than one fourth of violent criminal assailants are found to be under the influence of alcohol, less than 10% of these assailants were reported by victims to be under the influence of illicit drugs. However, of this sample, more than half were reported to be under the influence of both alcohol and drugs (Bureau of Justice Statistics 1992).

Further studies on attitudes towards violence revealed that there was a gender difference in both male and female youth's population on attitudes towards violence. This study findings in an attempt to answer the question "Why might gender matter" in the criminal population and among youths was quite supported by the works of Dabbs, Carr, Frady, & Riad (2005); Dabbs & Hargrove (2007); Dabbs, Ruback, Frady, Hopper, & Sgoutas (2008) where it was confirmed that the hormone testosterone has been linked to crime and prison violence in both men and women. Moreover, it was understood that given the potentially common influence of testosterone on differences in criminal behaviours both between men and women and between criminals, prisoners and non prisoners, it seems very important to consider the two factors simultaneously. However, for instance, given women's lower testosterone levels, differences between individual criminal tendencies may be smaller in women than in men. Alternatively, given that women tend to be less risk taking than men

and that criminal behavior may occur only with extremely high levels of risk-taking propensity, the differences could be more pronounced in females.

5.2. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions are given: Psychoticism and drug involvement independently and jointly predict attitudes towards violence among youths in Oye-Ekiti community. Male and female youths of Oye-Ekiti community are different from each other on attitudes towards violence.

5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and drawn conclusion of the study, the following recommendations are given: Educating doctors, patients and families on what good addiction treatment must include. Identifying and cracking down on prescribers who are providing large quantities of narcotics in so called drug stations or pill mills. A more comprehensive research should be carried out on psychoticism and drug involvement on attitudes towards violence as studies at a late stage of adolescence or adulthood is not the best representation of when criminal tendencies, criminal behaviour, violence, crime and violent behaviour is fully developed, thus future research should examine attitudes towards violence longitudinally at many different ages and stages of life.

5.4. LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

This study despite its importance to the society at large and also helping to attend to various societal problems towards the issue of psychoticism and drug involvement also has its own limitation. The study was limited in scope as it was only secluded to youths in Oye-Ekiti community while neglecting those of the other local government area of the state. Also, the adoption of an expo-facto research design limited the cause-effect relationship of this

study. The quite minimal sample size tends to also be a limitation of the study seeing that there are more youths in Ekiti state and Nigeria in general.

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APPENDIX
QUESTIONNAIRE
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE-EKITI

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is designed to obtaining information on questions raised. Your name or any form of identity is not required. Your **HONEST** and **CORRECT** responses are essential for this exercise to be successful. The information you give is strictly for research purpose only, and therefore will be given utmost confidentiality. Thank you.

SECTION A
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Sex: Male () Female ()

Age: (in years)

Parental Background: Monogamy () Polygamy ()

Family Size:

Educational Qualification: No Formal Education () Primary () Secondary () Tertiary ()

Occupation: University student () Polytechnic Student () Self-employed () Civil Servant ()

Religious Affiliation: Christianity () Islam () Other Religion ()

SECTION B: The following questions concern information about your potential involvement with drugs not including alcoholic beverages during the past 12 months. Carefully read each statement and pick the option as it agrees with you. In the statements "drug abuse" refers to (1) the use of prescribed or over the counter drugs in excess of the directions and (2) any non-medical use of drugs. The various classes of drugs may include: Painkillers and Cough Syrups (e.g. Codeine, Tramadol), Cannabis (e.g. marijuana, hash), Solvents, Tranquilizers (e.g. Valium), barbiturates, cocaine, stimulants (e.g. speed), hallucinogens (e.g. LSD) or narcotics (e.g. heroin).

| S/N | Item | SA | A | U | D | SD |
|-----|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. | I have used drugs other than those required for medical reasons | | | | | |
| 2. | I have abused prescription drugs | | | | | |
| 3. | I abuse more than one drug at a time | | | | | |
| 4. | I can get through the week without using drugs | | | | | |
| 5. | I am always able to stop using drugs when I want to. | | | | | |
| 6. | I have had "blackouts/shutdowns" as a result of drug use | | | | | |
| 7. | I have felt bad or guilty about my drug use. | | | | | |
| 8. | My girlfriend (or parents) ever complain about my involvement with drugs | | | | | |
| 9. | Drug abuse create problems between me and my girlfriend or my parents | | | | | |
| 10. | I have lost friends because of my use of drugs | | | | | |
| 11. | I have neglected your family because of my use of drugs | | | | | |
| 12. | I have been in trouble at work because of drug abuse | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|-----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 13. | I have lost a job because of drug abuse | | | | | |
| 14. | I have gotten into fights when under the influence of drugs | | | | | |
| 15. | I have engaged in illegal activities in order to obtain drugs | | | | | |
| 16. | I have been arrested for possession of illegal drugs | | | | | |
| 17. | I have ever experienced withdrawal symptoms (felt sick) when I stopped taking drugs | | | | | |
| 18. | I have had medical problems as a result of my drug use(e.g. memory loss, hepatitis, convulsions, bleeding, etc. | | | | | |
| 19. | I have gone to someone for help for a drug problem | | | | | |
| 20. | I have been involved in a treatment programme specifically related to drug use | | | | | |

SECTION C: Kindly tick on the best option that explains the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements by using Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D), Undecided (U), Agree (A) and (Strongly Agree).

| S/N | Item | SA | A | U | D | SD |
|-----|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. | War is often necessary | | | | | |
| 2. | Any nation should be ready with a strong military at all times | | | | | |
| 3. | Children should be spanked for temper tantrums | | | | | |
| 4. | Any prisoner deserves to be mistreated by other prisoners in jail. | | | | | |
| 5. | Violence against the enemy should be part of every nation's defense. | | | | | |
| 6. | Prisoners should have more sever labor sentences than they do. | | | | | |
| 7. | Killing of civilians should be accepted as an unavoidable part of war. | | | | | |
| 8. | No matter how severe the crime, one should pay an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth. | | | | | |
| 9. | Punishing a child physically when she/she deserves it will make him/her a responsible and mature adult | | | | | |
| 10. | Violent crimes should be punished violently. | | | | | |
| 11. | Our country has the right to protect is borders forcefully. | | | | | |
| 12. | The manufacture of weapons is necessary. | | | | | |
| 13. | It is all right for a partner to choke the other if insulted or ridiculed. | | | | | |
| 14. | The death penalty should be a part of every penal code. | | | | | |
| 15. | Prisoners should never get out of their sentence for good behavior. | | | | | |
| 16. | Universities should use armed police against students who destroy university property. | | | | | |
| 17. | Giving mischievous children a quick slap is the best way to quickly end trouble | | | | | |
| 18. | It is all right for a partner to slap the other's face if insulted or ridiculed. | | | | | |
| 19. | Capital punishment is often necessary | | | | | |
| 20. | Our country should be aggressive with its military internationally. | | | | | |
| 21. | A violent revolution can be perfectly right. | | | | | |
| 22. | A parent hitting a child when he/she does something bad on purpose teaches the child a good lesson | | | | | |
| 23. | A child's habitual disobedience should be punished physically. | | | | | |
| 24. | It is all right for a partner to slap the other's face if challenged. | | | | | |
| 25. | Partners should work things out together even if it takes violence | | | | | |