

**INFLUENCE OF GENDER AND PERSONALITY TRAITS ON CRIMINAL
TENDENCIES AMONG ADOLESCENTS INMATES IN EKITI STATE PRISONS.**

**BY
OGUNDARE OLUWASEUN FOYEKEMI
PSY/14/2040**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY, FACULTY
OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES, FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE EKITI IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF
BACHELOR SCIENCE (BSc) DEGREE IN PSYCHOLOGY.**

**SUPERVISOR
MRS. H.F. OLAGUNDOYE**

NOVEMBER, 2018.

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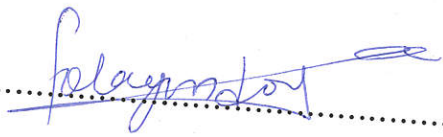
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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this study was carried out by OGUNDARE OLUWASEUN FOYEKEMI (PSY\14\2040) of the Department of Psychology, Faculty of Social Sciences, Federal University, Oye Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria, under my supervision.



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DEDICATION

This project work is dedicated to Almighty God, who gave me life and strength. I also dedicate this research work to my wonderful and darling parents, who sustained me both morally and financially throughout my course of study.

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I give all Glory to the Giver and Sustainer of life, who gave strength and health to me in the course of my studies.

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I acknowledge with deep sense of appreciation the role played by my parents who has remained the model for my existence, Chief Thomas Ogundare and Evang. (Mrs) E.B. Taiwo Ogundare for her Prayers, encouragement, and unconditional love towards the success of this work and other success in life since birth.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title page.....	i
Certification.....	ii
Dedication.....	iii
Acknowledgement.....	iv
Table of contents.....	v-vi
List of table.....	vii
Abstract.....	viii

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study.....	1
1.2 Statement of problem.....	7
1.3 Objectives of study.....	8
1.4 Significance of study.....	8

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Framework.....	10
2.1.1 Theories of Gender roles.....	10
2.1.2 Theories of Personality.....	14
2.1.3 Theories of Crime.....	25
2.2 Theoretical conceptualization.....	35
2.3 Related empirical studies/ Literature Review.....	35
2.4 Statement of Hypothesis.....	43
2.5 Operational Definition of terms.....	43

CHAPTER THREE: METHOD

3.1 Research Design.....	45
3.2 Setting.....	45
3.3 Research Participant.....	46
3.4 Sampling Technique.....	46
3.5 Research Instruments.....	47
3.6 Procedures.....	48
3.7 Ethical Consideration.....	49
3.8 Statistical Methods.....	50

CHAPTER FOUR:

RESULTS.....	51
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CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Discussion.....	54
5.2 Conclusion.....	56
5.3 Implication and Recommendations.....	56
5.4 Limitation of Study.....	57

REFERENCES

APPENDIX

LIST OF TABLES

4.1 T-test for independent sample showing gender and criminal tendencies.....	51
4.2 Multiple regression showing personality traits and criminal tendencies.....	52
4.3 T-test for independent sample showing age and criminal tendencies.....	53
4.4 T-test for independent sample showing conviction status and criminal tendencies.....	54

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the influence of gender and personality traits among inmates in Ekiti State prisons. The study adopted an ex-post facto research design. A total of 120 inmates were conveniently and purposefully sampled in the study. These participants were administered with Big-Five Personality Questionnaire and Brief Criminal Attitudes Scale together with demographic information. One was tested using multiple regression and was rejected. Three hypotheses were tested in the study using independent sample t-test, two was confirmed and the other was rejected. The result of the tested hypothesis showed that personality traits did not predict criminal tendencies [$F(5, 118) = 1.385, p > .001, R^2 = .057$]. Age did not have a significant influence on criminal tendencies ($M = 20.04, SD = 2.29. M = 20.22, SD = 2.08$), [$t(118) = -.422; p > 0.5$]. Gender does not have an influence on criminal tendencies ($M = 20.00, SD = 2.18, M = 20.74, SD = 2.26$) [$t(118) = -.422, p > 0.5$], Conviction status did not have an influence on criminal tendencies ($M = 20.00, SD = 2.18. M = 20.33, SD = 2.25$) [$t(118) = -.422; p > 0.5$]. From this assertion, the research suggests con-current psychometric testing of inmates.

Keywords: Gender, personality traits, age, conviction status, prison, Ekiti State.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the study

The Nigerian prisons are overcrowded and this development has turned out to be a major worry to the prison authorities, the judiciary and the police (Onyishi, Okongwu, & Ugwu; 2012). Over the years, inmates have outnumbered the capability prison lockups and services and the prisons are being overstrained. Nigeria has one of the alarming crime rates in the world (Uche, 2008 & Financial, 2011). Cases of armed robbery attacks, pickpockets, shoplifting, rape, Fraud, stealing, assassination, assault, kidnapping, forgery, vandalism, murder, felony, libel, racketeering, and slander have increased due to increased poverty among population (Lagos, undated). In the year 2011, armed robbers killed at least 12 people and possibly more in attacks on a bank and police station in North-Eastern Nigeria (Nossiter, 2011). There has however been lot of changes in public reactions towards crime and criminals especially among inmates in prisons and in their evaluation of their tendencies and disposition to commit crime (Gun, Maden, & Swinton; 2007). However, what has not changed is the fact that the majority believe criminals should be punished for their actions, while crime is still viewed in a negative manner. Crime has caused loss of live and property as well as overwhelming fear of insecurity, serving as a challenge in human existence and has become a big problem in our society (Slater, 2008).

Crime is universal, it is a common phenomenon in every society, but certain societies have recorded higher percentages of criminal activities than others.

According to crime statistics by the Nigeria Police Force, crime has shown an upward trend in the past years in Nigeria. According to the Police Headquarters report in Lagos from October 1995 to October 2005, the risk has continued to increase yearly in arithmetic progression (Crime Statistics, Nigeria Police Headquarters Lagos, 2005). The increase in the rate of crime in this country has created a lot of problems to the Police Force and the Law Courts. Crime is a global problem but it varies in different societies or countries. For instance, in the Western world same sex marriage is a normal behaviour but in Nigeria, it is seen as a crime that is punishable by law.

The House of Representatives had on May 30th 2013, passed the Anti -Same Sex Marriage Bill that makes same-sex unions in Nigeria a criminal offence punishable by a maximum sentence of 14 years in prison. The bill also criminalizes public displays of affection by same-gender partners. The bill also states that any person, who registers, operates or participates in gay clubs, societies and organizations directly or indirectly, makes a public show of a same-sex amorous relationship commits an offence and shall be liable to a term of 10 years imprisonment. Crime has become so menacing in our society that it is now feared in some quarters that a great danger awaits the country in the nearest future. Crime is an act that violates the law of the society or serious offence against the law of the society for which there is a severe punishment by law (Eddiefloyd, 2006). Crime is any action or omission prohibited by law and punished by the state. Crime is a deviant behaviour that violates prevailing norms, which may be cultural, social, political, psychological and economic conditions. Crime is an act defined by law. It is an act or omission which renders the person doing the act or making the omission liable to punishment (Okonkwo, 1980).

Notwithstanding a potent factor often neglected in the issue of crime and criminal behaviour is attitude. An individual predisposition towards crime, knowing attitude to be an individual expression on how much like or dislike he/she has over a thing, event, behaviour or object. It cannot be neglected in criminal behaviour. Attitudes are evaluation of ideas (such as the insanity defence), events (such as surprise parties), objects (such as abstract art) or people (such as sorority members). He also sees attitude as a person's evaluation of an act or behaviour towards a specific act and is proposed to be a function of acts perceived consequences and of their value to that person (Fishbein 1993). The underlining factor here is that attitude towards a particular object or event is influenced by the personal experience of the individual. In summary, an attitude is a learned predisposition to respond consistently in a positive or negative way to some person, object or situation (Petty, Ostrom and Brock, 1981).

A considerable amount of differences exist in the crimes committed and the criminal intent by male and female in various stages, throughout the world. Male criminality became the most significant issue in the literary discussion of crime, which gave female criminality little or no attention. As evidences show that male are more likely than female to engage in aggressive behaviours, there is also evidence that hormonal changes in women which are related to the menstrual cycle increase the likelihood of criminal behaviour during premenstrual and menstrual days (Pollack 1950). The kind of crime that are committed by women like those committed by men, reflect the gender defined social roles that are available to them, Both men and women tend to steal cloths, food or low items while men are likely to steal books, electrical good or high value items. This reflects the conventional domestic expectation that tie women to

shopping for basic household good in supermarkets while men are able to shop for Luxuries (Smart, 1977). 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 Heidensohn, (1985).

Personality is that dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person who uniquely influences his or her cognitions, emotions, motivations, and behaviours in various situations. Personality is the unique and variable patterns of human behaviours, focusing on sensing, thinking, and feelings. The personality of the individual is the settled framework of references within which a person addresses the current situation and decides how to behave. Personality is a comprehensive, all embracing concept and the total pattern of characteristics ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving that constitute the individual's distinctive method of relating to the environment. Personality is a sum total psychological characteristic of a person that are common as well as unique. The integrated and dynamic organization of the physical mental, moral and social qualities of the individual, as that manifests itself to other people, in the give and take of social life (Ramalingam, 2006).

Studies in the Western countries have examined the various personality factors in relation to crime but with some mixed results. Openness has generally shown to be positively correlated to crime but not of the significant (Miller, 2001); however, Clower and Bothell (2001) found that openness is negatively correlated with arrests. Extraversion was associated with committing status offence (an action that is prohibited to certain

class of people, and most often applied to offences only committed by minors) such as truancy and running away from home (Laak et al, 2003). Conscientiousness and agreeableness have both been repeatedly shown to be negatively related to criminal behaviour (Voller & Long, 2010). Neuroticism have been correlated to be positively correlated to property damage (Laak et al, 2003), sexual violence (Hornsveld & de Kruyk, 2005) and use of aggressive behaviour (Hines & Saudino, 2008). Eysenck (1977) argued that personality influences behaviour. 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.

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. Although Gottfredson & Hirshi (1990) are sociologists by training, they argued that people differ in an underlying criminal propensity, i.e. low self-control. Mills (2002) reported that norms and influence from criminal friends interact with criminal attitudes, and when coupled, the relationship to

criminality is particularly strong. Additionally, Rhodes (1979) found that people who enter prison with low levels of antisocial thoughts and attitudes develop more deviant attitudes with the passage of time. This increase in antisocial attitudes is likely due to the association with criminal peers within the prison environment.

The prevalence of crime in Nigeria is at an upward level and the trend of its rise is becoming more difficult to handle. Nigeria has one of the highest crime rates in the world. Murder often accompanies minor burglaries. Rich Nigerians live in high – security compounds. Police in some states are empowered to “shoot on sight” violent criminals (Financial Times, 2009). In the 1980s, serious crime grew to nearly epidemic proportions, particularly in Lagos and other urbanized areas characterised by rapid growth and change, by stark economic inequality and deprivation, by social disorganisation, and by inadequate government service and law enforcement capabilities (Nigeria, 1991). In Nigeria, the annual crime rates fluctuated at around 200 per 100,000 populations until the early 1960s and then steadily increased to more than 300 per 100,000 by the mid-1970s. Available data from the 1980s indicated a continuing increase. Total reported crime rose from almost 211,000 in 1981 to between 330,000 and 355,000 during 1984 – 85. The British High Commission in Lagos cited more than 3000 cases of forgeries annually (Nigeria, 1991). In the early 1990s, there was growing number of robberies from 1,937 in 1990 to 2,419 in 1996, and later the figure declined to 2,291 in 1999. Throughout the 1990s, assault and theft constituted the larger category of the crime. Generally, the crime data grow from 244,354 in 1991 to 289,156 in 1993 (Uche, 2008) and continued to decline from 241,091 in 1994 to 167,492 in 1999 (Uche, 2008). The number of crime slightly declined to 162,039 in 2006, a reduction of 8 percent from 2005 (Uche, 2008).

1.2. Statement of problem

The Nigerian prison system is witnessing an enormous increase in people delving in and relapsing into crime and criminality. This development has challenged the practicality and feasibility of rehabilitation programmes in Nigerian prisons. Crime is however a global problem. It has being a source of concern to every society. Crime is always seen as a major challenge to every society. A crime free society could be regarded as the best in the world. Owing to this, every society is using every instrument within its possession to ameliorate or eliminate crime to the barest minimum. In the same vein, researchers are not relenting in this effort. They work hard trying to contribute their quota towards this objective through research works. Westende (1998) conducted a research to understand the causes the effects of crime and deviant behaviour. It was observed that profoundly ill-discipline and violent student's behaviour are detrimental and disturbing not only to an individual or students, but also to effective learning and teaching in classroom.

However, in as much as many researchers concentrated only on the Political, Sociological and Economical factors paying little or no attention to psychological factors such as Personality, Attitude, Age etc. Therefore, this study deemed it necessary looking at the influence these factors could have on crime. Knowing fully well that an individual tendency towards a stimulus can be used to predict his actual behaviour towards such stimulus, this proposed research believed that one of the best methods of preventing or controlling crime is to observe how those people perceive crime. We must not wait until an individual commits a crime before taking action. Through the person's tendency towards crime, one can predict what the individual will do when exposed to criminality

Therefore this research tends to answer the following questions:

- Is there a gender difference on criminal tendencies among adolescent's inmates in Ekiti state prisons?
- Do personality traits independently and jointly predict criminal tendencies among adolescent's inmates in Ekiti state prisons?
- Is there age difference on criminal tendencies among adolescents inmates in Ekiti state prisons?

1.3. Objectives of study

The main objectives of this study is to understand and explain the influence which gender and personality traits have on the criminal tendencies among adolescents inmates in Ekiti state prisons. To examine the causes of criminal tendencies and grant measures to amend them.

However, the specific objectives are to:

- Examine whether gender will influence criminal tendencies among adolescent's inmates in Ekiti state prisons.
- Examine whether personality traits will independently and jointly predict criminal tendencies among adolescents inmates in Ekiti state prisons.
- Examine whether age will have an influence criminal tendencies among adolescent's inmates in Ekiti state prisons.

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 gender and personality traits and its influence on criminal tendencies. Its usefulness to counselling units or centres of schools will aid

guidance counsellors in understanding the factors that leads to adopting negative thinking patterns of adolescents in developing intent towards crime. Assessment measures will also be highlighted and adopted in preventing maladaptive behaviours and shaping proper behaviours. It will also help therapists in eradicating criminal 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. It will also aid in enforcing socially acceptable behaviours and inculcating sound moral and valued principles in shaping the behaviours of their young ones to make them socially, morally and psychologically competent in adolescence and in adulthood.

Moreover, this research study will however assess the rate of recidivism or the potentials at which adolescent inmates in prisons have the tendency to commit crimes leading them to been remanded or detained in prisons. It will also help prison organisations understand the notable factors causing adolescents to behave in socially inappropriate behaviour and thereby involving themselves in criminal behaviours and attitudes. Knowledge of the various different personality traits among prison inmate is useful as it will assists in the development of interventions and strategies that target people with specific trait profiles so as to maximize their effectiveness in changing behaviour. Therefore, specific knowledge about personality traits among prison inmates will contribute to the understanding of criminal behaviour in the general Nigerian Population. Information derived from this study will facilitate development of programs that will help in reducing criminal behaviour in the Nigerian population especially among the Younger Population.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the theoretical framework and empirical findings regarding the issues of gender, personality and criminal tendencies in the research work.

2.1. Theoretical Framework

The following theories were used in explaining the variables under investigation

2.1.1. Theory of Gender Roles

Social Role Theory

This theory was developed by Eagley and Wood in 2012. The theory highlights a profound question about human life is why men and women, and boys and girls, behave differently in many circumstances but similarly in others. There is no one discipline that provides a sovereign, overarching answer, but each discipline favours certain types of causes. For biologists, sex differences reflect gonadal or other sex-differentiated hormones. For sociologists, the differences reflect the position of men and women in broader social hierarchies. For economists, the differences reflect the human capital of women and men. For developmental researchers, they arise from sex-linked temperament and socialization experiences. Evolutionary psychologists usually favour sex-differentiated selection pressures on human ancestors. This theory begins from a uniquely social psychological vantage point that highlights social roles and interweaves role-related processes with these other perspectives to produce a powerful analysis of sex differences and similarities.

The argument of this theory is that sex differences and similarities in behaviour reflect gender role beliefs that in turn represent people's perceptions of men's and

women's *social roles* in the society in which they live. In post-industrial societies, for example, men are more likely than women to be employed, especially in authority positions, and women are more likely than men to fill caretaking roles at home as well as in employment settings. Men and women are differently distributed into social roles because of humans' evolved physical sex differences in which men are larger, faster, and have greater upper-body strength, and women gestate and nurse children. Given these physical differences, certain activities are more efficiently accomplished by one sex or the other, depending on a society's circumstances and culture. This task specialization produces an alliance between women and men as they engage in a division of labour. Although these alliances take somewhat different forms across cultures, task specialization furthers the interests of the community as a whole. Gender role beliefs arise because people observe female and male behaviour and infer that the sexes possess corresponding dispositions. Thus, men and women are thought to possess attributes that equip them for sex typical roles. These attributes are evident in consensually-shared beliefs, or gender stereotypes. In daily life, people carry out these gender roles as they enact specific social roles such as parent or employee. Because gender roles seem to reflect innate attributes of the sexes, they appear natural and inevitable. With these beliefs, people construct gender roles that are responsive to cultural and environmental conditions yet appear, for individuals within a society, to be stable, inherent properties of men and women. To equip men and women for their usual family and employment roles, societies undertake extensive socialization to promote personality traits and skills that facilitate role performance.

Additionally, gender roles influence behaviour through a trio of biological and psychological processes. Biological processes include hormonal fluctuations that act as chemical signals that regulate role performance. Psychological processes include individuals' internalization of gender roles as self-standards against which they regulate their own behaviour as well as their experience of other people's expectations that provide social regulatory mechanisms. Biology thus works with psychology to facilitate role performance. The broad scope of this theory enables it to tackle the various causes of female and male behaviour that are of interest across the human sciences. But the theory was not developed all in one piece. Gender roles derive from the specific family and employment roles commonly held by women versus men in a society. Consistent with the correspondent inference principle (Gilbert and Malone, 1995), people infer the traits of men and women from observations of their behaviour. Given a homemaker-provider division of labour, people disproportionately observe women and girls engaging in domestic behaviours such as childcare, cooking, and sewing, and men and boys engaging in activities that are marketable in the paid economy. Furthermore, perceivers tend to essentialize gender by viewing the different behaviours of the sexes as due to inherent differences in the natures of men and women. Thus, even though the division of labour is tailored to local conditions, it tends to be viewed by the members of a society as inevitable and natural. The social behaviours that typify the homemaker provider division of labour differ in their emphasis on communion versus agency (Eagly, 1987; Eagly and Steffen, 1984). Thus, women's accommodation to the domestic role fosters a pattern of interpersonally facilitative and friendly behaviours that can be termed communal.

Women's communal activities encompass child-rearing, a responsibility that requires nurturing behaviours. The importance of close relationships to women's nurturing role favours the acquisition of superior relational skills and the ability to communicate nonverbally. In contrast, men's accommodation to the employment role, especially to male-dominated occupations, favours a pattern of relatively assertive behaviours that can be termed agentic (Eagly and Steffen, 1984). The distribution of the sexes into occupations is another important source of observations of women and men. Given the moderately strong sex segregation of the labour force (Tomaskovic-Devey et al., 2006), perceivers infer the typical qualities of the sexes in part from observations of the type of paid work that they commonly undertake. Research has shown that occupational success is perceived to follow from agentic personal qualities to the extent that occupations are male-dominated and from communal personal qualities to the extent that they are female-dominated (Cejka and Eagly, 1999; Glick, 1991). Also, men have greater access to employment roles yielding higher levels of authority and income, and their adjustment to this aspect of their roles may foster relatively dominant behaviour (Ridgeway and Bourg, 2004; Wood and Karten, 1986). Women's lesser access to such roles may favour more supportive behaviour (Conway et al., 1996).

Gender roles are an important part of the culture and social structure of every society. Their power to influence behaviour derives from their essential quality, appearing to reflect inherent attributes of women and men and from the related tendency to be relatively consensual and for people to be aware of this consensus (Wood and Eagly, 2010). Because gender roles are shared, people correctly believe that others are likely to react more approvingly to behaviour that is consistent rather than inconsistent

with these roles. Therefore, the most likely route to a smoothly functioning social interaction is to behave consistently with one's gender role or at least to avoid strongly deviating from it. In summary, gender roles are emergent from the activities carried out by individuals of each sex in their typical occupational and family roles. To the extent that women more than men occupy roles that are facilitated by predominantly communal behaviours, domestic behaviours, or subordinate behaviours, corresponding attributes become stereotypic of women and part of the female gender role.

2.1.2. THEORIES ON PERSONALITY

Psychoanalytic theory of personality

Psychoanalytic theory which was developed from the writings of Sigmund Freud (1856-1939), posits that all humans have natural drives, instincts and urges that are repressed in the unconscious and is developed early in life and is composed of three distinct parts: the id, the ego, and the superego (Siegel, Senna & Welsh, 2006). The id represents the instinctual drives, the ego represents understood social norms that harness or suppress the id pleasurable desires, and the superego is learned moral reasoning (Siegel et al.).

The psychoanalytic perspective of personality emphasizes the importance of early childhood experiences and the unconscious mind. This perspective on personality was created by psychiatrist Sigmund Freud who believed that things hidden in the unconscious could be revealed in a number of different ways, including through dreams, free association, and slips of the tongue. Neo-Freudian theorists, including Erik Erikson, Carl Jung, Alfred Adler and Karen Horney, believed in the importance of the

unconscious but disagreed with other aspects of Freud's theories. Sigmund Freud stressed the importance of early childhood events, the influence of the unconscious and sexual instincts in the development and formation of personality.

Erik Erikson emphasized the social elements of personality development, the identity crisis and how personality is shaped over the course of the entire lifespan. Erik Erikson explained personality in the role of an "identity crisis" created by inner turmoil or problems (Siegel et al., 2006). As has been noted by many critics of psychoanalytic theory, this identity crisis created by inner turmoil is difficult to test or validate empirically. The utility of psychoanalytic theory to explain complex, adjustment problems, and maladaptive behaviour is limited by the lack of evidence to support it (Shoemaker, 2005; Siegel et al.) and by the "circular nature" of psychoanalytic thought (Pfohl, 1994). That is the unconscious manifestations of pathology are "inferred from behaviour" and that behaviour is interpreted as a symptom of the pathology (Pfohl, 1994).

However, Carl Jung focused on concepts such as the collective unconscious, archetypes, and psychological types. Alfred Adler believed the core motive behind personality involves striving for superiority, or the desire to overcome challenges and move closer toward self-realization. This desire to achieve superiority stems from underlying feelings of inferiority that he believed were universal. Karen Horney focused on the need to overcome basic anxiety, the sense of being isolated and alone in the world. She also emphasized the societal and cultural factors that also play a role in personality, including the importance of the parent-child relationship.

Big-Five Personality Theory

Many contemporary personality psychologists believe that there are five basic dimensions of personality, often referred to as the "Big 5" personality traits. The five broad personality traits described by the theory are extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism. Today, many researchers believe that they are five core personality traits. Evidence of this theory has been growing for many years, beginning with the research of D. W. Fiske (1949) and later expanded upon by other researchers including Norman (1967), Smith (1967), Goldberg (1981), and McCrae & Costa (1987).

However, the various personality traits are discussed according to the Big-Five personality theorists.

Openness

Openness to experience is the tendency of the individual to be imaginative, sensitive, original in thinking, attentive to inner feelings, appreciative of art, intellectually curious, and sensitive to beauty (Costa & McCrae, 1992; John & Srivastava, 1999). Such individuals are willing to entertain new ideas and unconventional values. This trait features characteristics such as imagination and insight, and those high in this trait also tend to have a broad range of interests. People who are high in this trait tend to be more adventurous and creative. People low in this trait are often much more traditional and may struggle with abstract thinking.

People who are high on the openness continuum are typically:

- Very creative
- Open to trying new things

- Focused on tackling new challenges
- Happy to think about abstract concepts

Those who are low on this trait:

- Dislike change
- Do not enjoy new things
- Resist new ideas
- Not very imaginative
- Dislikes abstract or theoretical concepts

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness individuals are purposeful and determined. They have the tendency to act dutifully, show self-discipline, and aim for achievement against a measure or outside expectation. Conscientiousness describes socially prescribed impulse control that facilitates task- and goal-directed behaviour, such as thinking before acting, delaying gratification, following norms and rules, and planning, organizing, and prioritizing tasks (John & Srivastava, 1999). Standard features of this dimension include high levels of thoughtfulness, with good impulse control and goal-directed behaviours. Highly conscientiousness tends to be organized and mindful of details.

Those who are high on the conscientiousness continuum also tend to:

- Spend time preparing
- Finish important tasks right away
- Pay attention to details
- Enjoy having a set schedule

People who are low in this trait tend to:

- Dislike structure and schedules
- Make messes and not take care of things
- Fail to return things or put them back where they belong
- Procrastinate important tasks
- Fail to complete the things they are supposed to do

Extraversion

Extraversion is characterized by excitability, sociability, talkativeness, assertiveness, and high amounts of emotional expressiveness. People who are high in extraversion are outgoing and tend to gain energy in social situations. People who are low in extraversion (or introverted) tend to be more reserved and have to expend energy in social settings. Extraversion is always indicated by positive feelings (emotions) and tendency to seek company of others. It represents the tendency to be sociable, assertive, active, upbeat, cheerful, optimistic, and talkative. Such individuals like people, prefer groups, enjoy excitement and stimulation, and experience positive effect such as energy, zeal, and excitement (Costa & McCrae, 1992; John & Srivastava, 1999).

People who rate high on extraversion tend to:

- Enjoy being the centre of attention
- Like to start conversations
- Enjoy meeting new people
- Have a wide social circle of friends and acquaintances
- Find it easy to make new friends

- Feel energized when they are around other people
- Say things before they think about them

People who rate low on extraversion tend to:

- Prefer solitude
- Feel exhausted when they have to socialize a lot
- Find it difficult to start conversations
- Dislike making small talk
- Carefully think things through before they speak
- Dislike being the centre of attention

Agreeableness

Agreeableness is the tendency to be trusting, compliant, caring, considerate, generous, and gentle. Such individuals have an optimistic view of human nature. They are sympathetic to others and have a desire to help others; in return they expects others to be helpful. In essence, agreeable individuals are prosocial and have communal orientation toward others (Costa & McCrae, 1992; John & Srivastava, 1999). This personality dimension includes attributes such as trust, altruism, kindness, affection, and other prosocial behaviours. People who are high in agreeableness tend to be more cooperative while those low in this trait tend to be more competitive and even manipulative.

People who are high in the trait of agreeableness tend to:

- Have a great deal of interest in other people
- Care about others
- Feel empathy and concern for other people

- Enjoy helping and contributing to the happiness of other people

Those who are low in this trait tend to:

- Take little interest in others
- Don't care about how other people feel
- Have little interest in other people's problems
- Insult and belittle others

Neuroticism

Neuroticism measures the continuum between emotional adjustment or stability and emotional maladjustment or neuroticism (Costa and McCrae, 1992). People who have the tendency to experience fear, nervousness, sadness, tension, anger, and guilt are at high end of neuroticism. Individuals scoring at the low end of neuroticism are emotionally stable and even-tempered (Costa & McCrae, 1992; John & Srivastava, 1999). Neuroticism is a trait characterized by sadness, moodiness, and emotional instability. Individuals who are high in this trait tend to experience mood swings, anxiety, irritability and sadness. Those low in this trait tend to be more stable and emotionally resilient.

Individuals who are high in neuroticism tend to:

- Experience a lot of stress
- Worry about many different things
- Get upset easily
- Experience dramatic shifts in mood
- Feel anxious

Those who are low in this trait are typically:

- Emotionally stable
- Deal well with stress
- Rarely feel sad or depressed
- Don't worry much
- Very relaxed

Eysenck Personality Theory

Eysenck's theory is based primarily on physiology and genetics. Although he is a behaviourist who considers learned habits of great importance, he considers personality differences as growing out of our genetic inheritance. He is, therefore, primarily interested in what is usually called temperament. Eysenck is also primarily a research psychologist. His methods involve a statistical technique called factor analysis. This technique extracts a number of "dimensions" from large masses of data. For example, if you give long lists of adjectives to a large number of people for them to rate themselves on, you have prime raw material for factor analysis. Imagine, for example, a test that included words like "shy," "introverted," "outgoing," "wild," and so on. Obviously, shy people are likely to rate themselves high on the first two words, and low on the second two. Outgoing people are likely to do the reverse. Factor analysis extracts dimensions and factors such as shy-outgoing from the mass of information. The researcher then examines the data and gives the factor a name such as "introversion extraversion." There are other techniques that will find the "best fit" of the data to various possible dimension, and others still that will find "higher level" dimensions or factors that organize the

factors, like big headings organize little headings. Neuroticism is the name Eysenck gave to a dimension that ranges from normal, fairly calm and collected people to one's that tend to be quite "nervous." His research showed that these nervous people tended to suffer more frequently from a variety of "nervous disorders" we call neuroses, hence the name of the dimension. But understand that he was not saying that people who score high on the neuroticism scale are necessarily neurotics only that they are more susceptible to neurotic problems.

Eysenck was convinced that, since everyone in his data-pool fit somewhere on this dimension of normality-to-neuroticism, this was a true temperament, i.e. that this was a genetically-based, physiologically-supported dimension of personality. He therefore went to the physiological research to find possible explanations. The most obvious place to look was at the sympathetic nervous system. This is a part of the autonomic nervous system that functions separately from the central nervous system and controls much of our emotional responsiveness to emergency situations. For example, when signals from the brain tell it to do so, the sympathetic nervous systems instructs the liver to release sugar for energy, causes the digestive system to slow down, opens up the pupils, raises the hairs on your body (goose bumps), and tells the adrenal glands to release more adrenalin (epinephrine). The adrenalin in turn alters many of the body's functions and prepares the muscles for action. The traditional way of describing the function of the sympathetic nervous system is to say that it prepares us for "fight or flight." Eysenck hypothesized that some people have a more responsive sympathetic nervous system than others. Some people remain very calm during emergencies; some people feel considerable fear or other emotions; and some are terrified by even very minor incidents.

He suggested that this latter group had a problem of sympathetic hyperactivity, which made them prime candidates for the various neurotic disorders. Perhaps the most "archetypal" neurotic symptom is the panic attack. Eysenck explained panic attacks as something like the positive feedback you get when you place a microphone too close to a speaker: The small sounds entering the mike get amplified and come out of the speaker, and go into the mike, get amplified again, and come out of the speaker again, and so on, round and round, until you get the famous squeal that we all loved to produce when we were kids. His second dimension is extraversion-introversion. By this he means something very similar to what Jung meant by the same terms, and something very similar to our common-sense understanding of them: Shy, quiet people "versus" outgoing, even loud people. This dimension, too, is found in everyone, but the physiological explanation is a bit more complex.

Eysenck hypothesized that extraversion-introversion is a matter of the balance of "inhibition" and "excitation" in the brain itself. These are ideas that Pavlov came up with to explain some of the differences he found in the reactions of his various dogs to stress. Excitation is the brain waking itself up, getting into an alert, learning state. Inhibition is the brain calming itself down, either in the usual sense of relaxing and going to sleep, or in the sense of protecting itself in the case of overwhelming stimulation. Someone who is extraverted, he hypothesized, has good, strong inhibition: When confronted by traumatic stimulation such as a car crash the extravert's brain inhibits itself, which means that it becomes "numb," you might say, to the trauma, and therefore will remember very little of what happened. After the car crash, the extravert might feel as if he had "blanked out" during the event, and may ask others to fill them in on what happened. Because they

don't feel the full mental impact of the crash, they may be ready to go back to driving the very next day. The introvert, on the other hand, has poor or weak inhibition: When trauma, such as the car crash, hits them, their brains don't protect them fast enough, don't in any way shut down. Instead, they are highly alert and learn well, and so remember everything that happened. They might even report that they saw the whole crash "in slow motion!" They are very unlikely to want to drive anytime soon after the crash, and may even stop driving altogether. Now, how does this lead to shyness or a love of parties? Well, imagine the extravert and the introvert getting drunk, taking off their clothes, and dancing buck naked on a restaurant table. The next morning, the extravert will ask you what happened (and where are his clothes). When you tell him, he'll laugh and start making arrangements to have another party. The introvert, on the other hand, will remember every mortifying moment of his humiliation, and may never come out of his room again. (I'm very introverted, and again I can vouch to a lot of this experientially! Perhaps some of you extraverts can tell me if he describes your experiences well, too assuming, of course, that you can remember you experiences!)

One of the things that Eysenck discovered was that violent criminals tend to be non-neuroticistic extraverts. This makes common sense, if you think about it: It is hard to imagine somebody who is painfully shy and who remembers their experiences and learns from them holding up a Seven-Eleven! It is even harder to imagine someone given to panic attacks doing so. But please understand that there are many kinds of crime besides the violent kind that introverts and neurotics might engage in!

2.1.3. THEORIES ON CRIME

Psychological Theories and Perspectives of Crime

Psychological theories of criminal behaviour explain crime in the area of the individual and their personality. There are many theories which explain people's criminal tendencies and the resulting societal view and their attitudes towards crime, including biological explanations, psychological explanations and social explanations.

There are several fundamental assumptions that all psychological theories on crime have in common. First, the individual is the primary unit of analysis in psychological theories of crime, i.e. individual human beings are solely responsible for their criminal or violent acts or behaviours. Second, an individual's personality is the major motivational element that drives behaviour within individuals. Third, criminals are seen as suffering from personality deficiencies. Thus, crime results from abnormal, dysfunctional, or inappropriate mental processes within the personality of the individual.

Finally, these defective or abnormal mental processes could be caused from a variety of things, including a diseased mind, inappropriate learning, improper conditioning, and the absence of appropriate role models or the strong presence of inappropriate role model.

However, certain psychological theories of crime are explained.

Psychoanalytic theory of crime

Psychoanalytic theory which was developed from the writings of Sigmund Freud (1856-1939), posits that all humans have natural drives, instincts and urges that are repressed in the unconscious and is developed early in life and is composed of three distinct parts: the id, the ego, and the superego (Siegel, Senna & Welsh, 2006). The id

represents the instinctual drives, the ego represents understood social norms that harness or suppress the id pleasurable desires, and the superego is learned moral reasoning (Siegel et al.). Criminal behavior occurs as a result of imbalance between these three parts of our personality structure and is thought to be a symbolic way of meeting our unconscious needs (Siegel et al.). The internal conflicts that lead to deviancy, usually resulting from a conflict between the id and societal norms understood by the ego, are very painful to the individual, so that the individual pushes them into the unconscious (Shoemaker, 2005). Then, the individual develops coping strategies called defense mechanisms to cope with the conflicts, and these defense mechanisms can lead to problematic personality traits and problematic behaviors, such as deviancy. In essence, deviant behavior is seen as the external manifestation of an internal disease.

Erik Erikson expanded on this theory, explaining deviancy as an “identity crisis” created by inner turmoil or problems (Siegel et al., 2006). As has been noted by many critics of psychoanalytic theory, this identity crisis created by inner turmoil is difficult to test or validate empirically. The utility of psychoanalytic theory to explain complex, deviant behavior is limited by the lack of evidence to support it (Shoemaker, 2005; Siegel et al.) and by the “circular nature” of psychoanalytic thought (Pfohl, 1994). That is the unconscious manifestations of pathology are “inferred from behavior” and that behavior is interpreted as a symptom of the pathology (Pfohl, 1994).

Additionally, all humans have criminal tendencies or potentials. These tendencies are curbed, however, through the process of socialisation. A child that is improperly socialised, then, could develop a personality disturbance that causes him or her to direct

antisocial impulses either inward or outward. Those who direct them inward become neurotic while those who direct them outward become criminals.

Social cognitive theory of crime

The major postulator of the social cognitive theory was Albert Bandura (1977), which was formerly referred to as social learning theory (SLT). The theory defines human behaviour as a triadic, dynamic, and reciprocal interaction of personal factors, behaviour, and the environment (Bandura, 1977). According to this theory, an individual's behaviour is uniquely determined by each of these three factors. While the SCT upholds the behaviourist notion that response consequences mediate behaviour, it contends that behaviour is largely regulated antecedent through cognitive processes. Therefore, response consequences of behaviour are used to form expectations of behavioural outcomes. It is the ability to form these expectations that give humans the capability to predict the outcomes of their behaviour, before the behaviour is performed. In addition, the SCT posits that most behaviour is learned vicariously.

The SCT's strong emphasis on one's cognitions suggests that the mind is an active force that constructs one's reality, selectively encodes information, performs behaviour on the basis of values and expectations, and imposes structure on its own actions. Through feedback and reciprocity, a person's own reality is formed by the interaction of the environment and one's cognitions. In addition, cognitions change over time as a function of maturation and experience (i.e. attention span, memory, ability to form symbols, reasoning skills). However, the SCT posits the interaction of (1) observation, symbolic representations and self-generated stimuli and self-imposed consequences, (2) environmental conditions and (3) behaviors in determining behavior.

Self Control Theory

Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) social control theory view crime as a hedonistic event. They assert that everyone has the same motivation to commit crime regardless of their social situation or the existence of laws and sanctions designed to govern the acceptability of behaviour. Gottfredson and Hirschi developed a theory of crime that focuses on a single determinant or cause. The determinant or cause of behaviour, according to Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) is the existence of low self control. Low self control is an enduring characteristic developed early in life that determines behaviour. Individuals with low self control tend to need immediate gratification, seek out exciting or thrilling situations, and have very little control over their own behaviour. Criminal acts provide the excitement and gratification to satisfy their needs.

Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) delineate a number of propositions to explain how self control can explain criminal behaviour over time. First, low self control is established very early in life and cannot be altered. The causes of low self control, however, do not fall on the individual, rather, from the absence of nurturance and discipline from families (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). They place the blame for this development on the parents' inability to socialize the child correctly. The authors mention a number of factors that may inhibit the child's socialization, including: inadequate punishments, parental criminality, family size, and mothers who work outside of the home. Second, the theory includes six components to explain behaviour. Low self control involves a "here and now" orientation in that the individual does not consider future consequences. Individuals with low self control seek simple and gratifying tasks. The individuals are adventuresome and enjoy thrilling situations. These individuals are more likely to embrace physical rather than mental tasks.

Individuals low in self control tends to be selfish and self centred in their needs and desires. And finally, these individuals appear to have a very low frustration tolerance and are more likely to become angered by these events. Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) "clearly assert that these six traits we have sketched are not alternative ways of having low self control; rather, they form a single one-dimensional latent trait" (Grasmick, Tittle, Bursik & Arkenklev, 1993). This trait then is able to predict involvement in crime as well as success in conventional occupations and relationships. Third, individuals with low self control are likely to commit crime or analogous behaviours throughout their lifespan. The authors assert "these differences remain reasonably stable with change in the social location of individuals and change in their knowledge of the operation of the sanction system" (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990). In other words, low self control remains stable over time regardless of environmental changes or changes in the laws or punishments. And finally, Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) argue that age is not important in the explanation of crime, but that the fluctuations in opportunity explain increases and decreases in criminal behaviour. Interestingly, the authors do not claim that low self control is by itself the primary reason for crime. Rather, individuals with low self control are unable to resist the opportunity to commit crimes. Hence, the condition (i.e. low self control) interacts with the opportunity to increase the likelihood of the criminal act (Grasmick, et al., 1993).

More important, however, is the assertion that when opportunity for crime decreases, as the offender ages, an individual with low self control is likely to engage in analogous behaviours that are problematic but not necessarily criminal. Analogous behaviours may include, smoking, gambling, drinking and driving, and/or sexual

promiscuity (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990). As mentioned, Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) assert that their theory is not a theory of personality. However, the construct of low self-control is very similar to the personality dimensions of impulsivity, and on some levels extraversion discussed by Eysenck. In addition, low self control is directly related to a lack of constraint as measured by the MPQ. This theory departs from traditional sociological explanations of crime and for that should be applauded. However, Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) depart from many psychologists in their assertion that self-control does not change over time as individuals react with the environment.

Life Course Theory

Sampson and Laub's (1993) life course perspective recognizes that factors in the environment may influence an individual's criminal career patterns. Although personality is only tangentially discussed in Sampson and Laub's life course theory, its relevance to the study is twofold. First, the real value to the discipline is the introduction of an individual-centered explanation. That is, they recognize that behavior can change and that individual decision making influences behavior. Second, in contrast to Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), Sampson and Laub discuss how other established risk factors such as employment, marriage, and changes in lifestyle could cause desistance from crime. In the study by Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck (1959), titled *Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency*, they examined why some people commit crime throughout their lifespan and others desist or stop committing crimes once they reached adulthood. They viewed individuals as active recipients to their environment and concluded that the external influences could shape how individuals make decisions. Each individual has

experiences that may lead his or her life in different directions or pathways (Sampson and Laub, 1993). Hence, it was argued that criminal behavior could change as pathways and turning points through life situations.

Sampson and Laub (1993) address three main themes in their book "Crime in the Making". First, the authors contend that informal controls such as those exerted by families, schools, and/or peers can mediate the structural contexts that may lead to delinquency. Second, the authors recognize the existence of stability for some offending careers. They maintain that early onset of delinquency is one of the best predictors of future offending. Finally, they recognize that fluctuations in criminal behavior can also result from what they term social capital. For example, job stability in a quality occupation and the involvement in quality relationships or marriages can impact the individual's likelihood of remaining in crime. The authors, however, fail to include personality as a factor that influences an individual's environment. Specifically, McCrae and Costa (1999) argue that an individual's personality can influence their preference for friends, situations, their ideologies about how the world works, and their own social roles. In sum, life course perspective and subsequent debate is concerned with the development and stability of criminal behavior. Any reference to personality is made only as a recognition that individual decision making is influenced by many factors, one of which may be personality.

Although various studies provide valuable insight and much needed support from individual theories of crime, life course research in criminology has failed to include personality as a causal or predictive variable. However, research conducted by developmental theorists is able to contribute to this stability debate.

Strain theory

Robert K. Merton (1938) developed the first major strain theory in criminology. He argues that all people in the United States are encouraged to strive for the cultural goal of monetary success. Lower-class individuals, however, are often prevented from achieving this goal through legitimate means. Their parents may fail to provide them with the skills and attitudes necessary for school success, they may live in communities with inferior schools, and their parents often lack the money to send them to college or set them up in business. As a consequence, lower-class individuals more often experience strain, with this strain being a function of the disjunction between their goals and the legitimate means for achieving them. Merton states that there are several ways to cope with this strain, some of which involve crime. Individuals may attempt to achieve monetary success through illegitimate channels, such as theft, drug selling, and prostitution. They may strike out at others in their frustration. They may engage in drug use to alleviate their frustration. And they may reject the goal of monetary success and focus on the achievement of other goals, certain of which involve crime. Merton noted that most strained individuals live with their strain rather than cope through crime, and he went on to describe factors that influence the likelihood of criminal coping such as the extent to which individuals are socialized to condemn crime. Building on his earlier works (Agnew, 1985, 1989), Agnew (1992) proposed a general strain theory (GST) of crime and delinquency, which focuses on a much broader range of strains. But like the classic strain theorists, he argued that these strains pressure individuals into engaging in crime through the negative emotions they generate. He also took an inclusive approach to other theories of crime, especially social control and social learning theories (Akers, 1985; Hirschi, 1969), by using their key concepts to help explain why some people are

more likely than others to cope with strains through crime. Agnew's (1992) introduction of GST rejuvenated criminological Social control theory (Hirschi, 1969) explains crime in terms of the absence of positive relationships with conventional others, such as parents and teachers. Social learning theory (Akers, 1985) explains crime in terms of positive relationships with deviant others or at least those who reinforce deviance. GST, by contrast, posits that crime is a consequence of "negative relationships with others", or strain (Agnew, 1992). Strain includes not only negative interpersonal relationships but also situations, conditions, and events that are objectively expected or subjectively perceived to be negative (e.g., parental abuse, chronic unemployment, homelessness, discrimination, and the immediate need for much money).

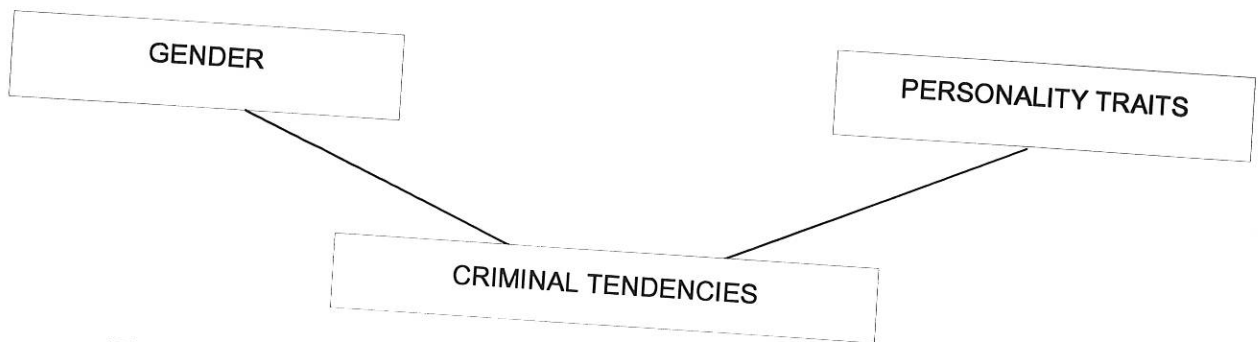
Specifically, Agnew proposes three types of strain: strain as the actual or anticipated failure to achieve positively valued goals, which includes the classic conception of strain (i.e., the inability to achieve monetary goals); strain as the actual or anticipated removal of positively valued stimuli (e.g., the violent death of a close friend); and strain as the actual or anticipated presentation of negative stimuli (e.g., child abuse). Next, GST proposes that strain generates negative effective states, such as anger and frustration, which create pressure for corrective action, including crime. This focus on negative effect helps distinguish GST from other theories. The effects of many types of strain on crime, such as child abuse and unemployment, can be explained using social learning and control theories (Agnew, 1995). For example, child abuse provides the juvenile with a violent model, while unemployment weakens one's stake in conformity. But GST is the only theory to argue that these variables impact crime at least partly through the negative emotions they create (Agnew, 2001, 2006). GST focuses on the

negative emotion of anger, which is said to energize individuals for action, reduce concern for the consequences of one's behaviour, and create a desire for revenge. Agnew (1995) suggests that researchers should examine both "long-term or chronic anger and the frequency of angry episodes," that is, trait anger and state anger. State anger is a transitory emotional condition due to annoying or frustrating situations, whereas trait anger refers to an individual's disposition to perceive a range of situations as annoying or frustrating and respond to such situations with marked elevations in state anger. Thus, individuals with high levels of trait anger are more likely to experience sustained elevation in state anger in reaction to strain than their peers with low levels of the trait.

Because of this trait-state causality, while GST focuses on state anger, trait anger is also relevant to the theory. In addition, state anger can further be conceptualized and measured as 'situational anger,' produced by a particular strain that functions as a 'situational event' (Agnew, 1992). Although, for Agnew (1992), anger is the "most critical emotional reaction for the purpose of the general strain theory", other negative emotions, such as depression and anxiety, are important as well. In fact, Agnew (1992) proposes that different types of negative emotions may lead to different crimes. For example, the inner-directed emotion of depression may be more conducive to internalized criminal acts, such as drug use, while the outer-directed emotion of anger may be more conducive to externalizing acts such as aggression. Finally, while classic strain theories tend to be limited in explaining why not all strained individuals turn to crime for strain adaptation, Agnew (1992) addresses this issue by identifying a range of factors that affect the likelihood of criminal versus noncriminal coping. In particular, these factors affect a person's ability to engage in legal and criminal coping, costs and benefits in regard to

criminal and legal coping, and disposition for criminal coping. They include both individual characteristics (e.g. self-efficacy) and environmental factors (e.g. social support).

2.2. Theoretical conceptualisation



The diagram above shows the conceptual framework of this research as it's explains that gender and personality traits will both have influence criminal tendencies of individuals.

2.3. RELATED EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Over the past years, various empirical studies had been carried out in relation to the influence of gender and personality traits on criminal tendencies among adolescent's inmates in prisons. This review serves as a guide for the researcher in conducting the present study.

These related empirical studies include:

- Review of literature on Gender and Criminal tendencies.
- Review of literature on Personality traits and Criminal tendencies.
- Review on the prevalence of crime in Nigeria.

2.3.1. Gender and Criminal tendencies

According to Osalor (2009): "The scariest undertone of Nigeria's socio-economic underachievement, by far, is the steady rise in youth crime, nurtured in a climate of increasing national income and the simultaneous failure of employment-generation and poverty alleviation programs. 'In Nigeria, the issue of criminality has been a gender issue women are no longer playing a role of second fiddle, they engage in such activities, in which men do, in order to make a living or to control the family especially where the breadwinner had died. Because of the difficulty in achieving these goals, the tendency of criminality becomes paramount in women circle' (Oluwadare & Agboola 2011).

Rotimi (1993) further revealed in cases where women have been found to commit certain offences, extra judicial measures may be taken to punish them viz, the use of ridicule, embarrassment and other forms of traditional sanctions etc, they have increasingly involved in sophisticated crimes such as armed robbery, drug trafficking or forgery. Women have been found to be engaged in frauds and related crimes, In a review of some of these crimes by Rotimi (1993), it revealed that a women was caught carrying \$19,000 which she intended to smuggle abroad as reported in West African Journal of January 21, 1985. While the punch of December 12, 1984 reported a woman sentenced to death for illegally exporting crude oil and the Evening times of January 23, 1984 reported of a female cashier who had forged the signature of her bank manager with the intention of stealing N24, 000.

In the literature on gender and 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, & Maestripieri, 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 Heidensohn, (1985).

2.3.2. Personality traits and Criminal tendencies

The prediction of criminal behavior is one of the most important issues in criminal justice. Within social and criminological psychology, criminal attitudes have been a mainstay in the prediction of antisocial behaviour (Stevenson, Hall, & Innes, 2003). However to date, researchers have not considered the potential mediating role of criminal friends in the prediction of recidivistic behaviour, criminal attitudes and their tendencies through the personality traits and dimensions of individuals. Additionally, previous research investigating criminal attitudes, criminal friends and recidivism linked crime to be a result of personality traits such as neuroticism, extraversion and agreeableness (Mills & Kroner, 1999).

Therefore, in line with previous studies which suggest a significant interaction between criminal attitudes, associations with criminal friends, and criminal behaviour, this study aims to investigate the possible mediating role of associations with criminal friends between criminal attitudes, and criminal behaviour using a Polish recidivistic violent prison sample. In a study by Mills and Kroner (1999), the direct impact of the four components of criminal attitudes (Attitudes towards Violence, Sense of Entitlement, Antisocial Intent, and Attitudes toward Criminal Associates) on association with criminal friends is investigated, along with the direct impact of association with criminal friends on criminal behaviour.

The main focus of the study placed an emphasis on indirect effects between the four components of criminal attitudes on criminal behaviour via association with criminal friends. It was hypothesized that association between criminal attitudes and criminal behaviour is activated in the presence of criminal others. This hypothesis has never been tested within the path modeling framework using a Polish prison sample.

However, studies in the Western countries have examined the various personality factors in relation to crime but with some mixed results. Openness has generally shown to be positively correlated to crime, but not often significant (Miller et al, 2001); however, Clower & Bothell (2001) found openness as negatively correlated with arrests. Extraversion was associated with likelihood of committing status offences (an action that is prohibited only to a certain class of people, and most often applied to offences only committed by minors) such as truancy and running away from home (Laak et al, 2003). Conscientiousness and agreeableness have both been repeatedly shown to be negatively related to criminal behaviour (Voller & Long, 2010; Hornsvield & de Kruck, 2005; Wiebe, 2004). Neuroticism has been shown to be positively correlated to causing property damage (Laak et al, 2003), sexual violence (Hornsvield & de Kruck, 2005) and use of aggressive behaviour (Hines & Saudino, 2008). Earlier studies (Idemudia, 1997); Tenibiaje, 2011; 2008) on personality trait assessment among Nigerian prison inmates used Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975). Eysenck states that criminals know right from wrong, but prefer the wrong to the right. He then explains the reason some commit crimes and others do not is a matter of conscience (Eysenck, 1996). The personality tie becomes clearer as he explains that extroversion and psychoticism are linked to low cortical arousal that influences condition ability, conscience, and ultimately

behaviour. And with regard to neurotics, anxiety may act as the drive or motivation for criminal behaviour. In this circumstance, emotions may override reason leading to aggressive and impulsive behaviour. In sum, according to Eysenck (1983) "all three are involved in antisocial conduct, so that typically the person indulging in such conduct would be extraverted rather than introverted, emotionally unstable rather than stable, and high on psychoticism rather than on superego functioning".

However, only one recent study assessed personality trait with the Big Five Personality Inventory amongst prison inmates in Nigeria. According to Tenibiaje (1995), he observed that the personality characteristics of juvenile delinquents and criminals were not similar, in terms of extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism.

2.3.3. Prevalence of Crime in Nigeria.

The literature on the prevalence of crime in Nigeria has emphasized on the rate at which crime is growing at a faster pace in the Nigeria society. Nigeria has been assessed to have one of the highest crime rates in the world. According to Financial Times (2009), Murder often accompanies minor burglaries. Rich Nigerians lives in high security compounds. Police in some states are empowered to "shoot on sight" violent criminals. In the 1980s, serious crime grew to nearly epidemic proportions, particularly in Lagos and other urbanized areas characterised by rapid growth and change, by stark economic inequality and deprivation, by social disorganisation, and by inadequate government service and law enforcement capabilities (Nigeria, 1991). In Nigeria, the annual crime rates fluctuated at around 200 per 100,000 populations until the early 1960s and then steadily increased to more than 300 per 100,000 by the mid-1970s.

However, the rate of kidnapping has increased from 343 in 2002 to 410 in 2003, and there has been further increase in the rate of kidnapping in Nigeria since 2004, the figure has sporadically increased from 2007 to about 1455 and 2055 in 2010 (Nigeria Annual Police Report 2009/2010). People are kidnapped for various reasons; the most prevalent trend in the kidnapping crime now is hostage taking of expatriate by the Niger-Delta militants. From the statistics and the situation of the country, that is assassinations and political killings, ritual killings, cultism, and murder has been on the increase from 2000 with 2550 people murdered.

Available data from the 1980s indicated a continuing increase. The total reported crime rose from almost 211,000 in 1981 to between 330,000 and 355,000 during 1984 – 85. The British High Commission in Lagos however cited more than 3000 cases of forgeries annually (Nigeria, 1991). In the early 1990s, there was growing number of robberies from 1,937 in 1990 to 2,419 in 1996, and later the figure declined to 2,291 in 1999. Throughout the 1990s, assault and theft constituted the larger category of the crime. Uche (2008) reported that the crime data grow from 244,354 in 1991 to 289,156 in 1993 and continued to decline from 241,091 in 1994 to 167,492 in 1999. The number of crime slightly declined to 162,039 in 2006, a reduction of 8 percent from 2005 (Uche, 2008). The work of Shehu et al (2009) research on the analysis of crime data using principal component analysis: A case study of Katsina State highlighted the average eight major crimes reported to the Police for the period 2006-2008. The crime consist of robbery auto theft, house and store breakings, theft, and grievous hurt and wounding, murder, rape, and assault.

For offences against lawful authority, 5,938 cases were recorded in 2008 as against 7,314 in 2007, representing an 18.8% decrease. For offences against Local Acts, a total of 1,438 cases were recorded as against 2,350 in 2007, representing a 36.8% decrease. In addition to the above statistics, 131,902 persons were arrested during the period under review. A total of 72,528 were prosecuted in the various courts across the country, 5,898 were acquitted, 30,593 were convicted and 36,037 were awaiting trial. In reported cases of stolen vehicles, a total of 2,433 vehicles were stolen and 1,464 were recovered. In the reported cases of missing persons, a total of 363 persons were reported missing, while 83 persons were successfully traced. In terms of road mishaps, there was decrease in the total number of road accidents recorded during the year under review. The total number of accident cases reported was 17,388 as against 17,797 cases that occurred in 2007. This represents 2.2% decrease. The year 2008 witnessed a decrease in the number of Road Traffic Offences. During the year, a total of 4,074 cases were recorded as compared with 6,553 cases reported in 2007 representing a 37% decrease. Out of 4,074 cases reported, 724 cases were convicted, 394 cases were acquitted, 772 cases were refused and 734 cases were awaiting trial. This overall decrease in the crime-wave was a reversal of the ugly trend that had haunted the Nigeria Police in the previous years. These official crime statistics of Crimes Known to the Police (CKP) are considered to be gross under estimations of the actual reality of crime.

2.4. Statement of Hypothesis

- Personality traits will independently and jointly predict criminal tendencies among adolescent's inmates in Ekiti state prisons.
- There will be a gender difference on criminal tendencies among inmates in Ekiti State Prisons.
- There will be no age difference on criminal tendencies among inmates in Ekiti State Prisons.
- There will be no difference in the conviction status of inmates on criminal tendencies in Ekiti State Prisons.

2.5. Operational definition of terms

- **Gender:** This can be described as the biological sex of an individual, usually a male or female. It also refers to the psychological orientation of individuals as regarding masculinity and femininity.
- **Personality traits:** The dynamic, unique and organised set of characteristics possessed by an individual that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, emotions, motivations, and behaviours in various situations. As measured using The Big-Five Personality Inventory (John & Srivastava, 1999).
- **Conscientiousness personality traits:** The tendency to act dutifully, show self-discipline, and aim for achievement against a measure or outside expectation. As measured using The Big-Five Personality Inventory (John & Srivastava, 1999).
- **Agreeableness personality traits:** The tendency to be trusting, compliant, caring, considerate, generous, and gentle. As measured using The Big-Five Personality Inventory (John & Srivastava, 1999).

- **Neuroticism** personality traits: The tendency of an individual to experience fear, nervousness, sadness, tension, anger, and guilt which are at a high end of neuroticism. As measured using The Big-Five Personality Inventory (John & Srivastava, 1999).
- **Openness** personality traits: The tendency of an individual to be imaginative, sensitive, original in thinking, attentive to inner feelings, appreciative of art, intellectually curious, and sensitive to beauty. As measured using The Big-Five Personality Inventory (John & Srivastava, 1999).
- **Extraversion** personality traits: The tendency to seek company of others. It represents the tendency to be sociable, assertive, active, upbeat, cheerful, optimistic, and talkative. As measured using The Big-Five Personality Inventory (John & Srivastava, 1999).
- **Criminal tendencies:** The likelihood or disposition of an individual to be involved or partake in any form of criminal behaviour and attitudes. As measured using the Brief Criminal Attitudes Scale (Taylor, 1968).
- **Inmate:** Inmates are previous convicts presently serving varying prison terms at the setting of the research.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

This chapter contains the methodology and procedures employed in the collection of necessary data and relevant information pertinent to the research study.

3.1. Research Design

The research was a survey of undergraduates in Ekiti state. This study adopted an Ex-post facto design to evaluate existing features within a population of inmate on the influence of gender and personality traits on criminal tendencies among prisoners in Ekiti state prisons. This was possible as the events has occurred before the research and was surveyed with the use of validated psychological instruments to acquire the opinions and feelings of the prisoners concerning the study variables. In the study, the variable characteristics were described as they naturally occur and no participant was manipulated or experimented upon during the research study.

3.2. Setting

The setting for the conduct of the current research is the prison yard under the Nigeria prisons service Ado-Ekiti located around housing Estate in Ado- Ekiti. The prison, being a Federal parastatal, had been established before the creation of Ekiti State in 1996. The Prison was established to take charge of convicted criminals for the purpose of punishment and rehabilitation. The yard occupies approximately 6050M- area with a capacity of about 500 inmates. There is a controller, deputy controller, warders and other prison officials who see to the day - to - day affairs of the prisons and the inmates ensuring their physical and mental well-being. The research chooses the location based on the proximity of the location to the researcher. Moreover, the location of the current study serves as the only prison facility in the state.

3.3. RESEARCH PARTICIPANT

The study was carried out among adolescent inmates in Ekiti State prison. A total of one hundred and twenty (120) inmates (101 male and 19 Female) were used as participants of this study and from the three major religious groups in Nigeria consisting of Christianity 66 (55.0%), Islam 53 (44.2%) and Traditional 1 (8%). The adolescents used in this study are between the age range of 15-22 years and the mean age of 19.81 (1.451). An average adolescent inmate in the study had spent 19.68 months in prison, in which they currently imprisoned for a crime or the other and that not all the inmates in the prison is administered the research instruments.

3.4. SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

The sampling technique adopted was a non-random sampling technique of which a convenience and purposive sampling design was used. Convenience sampling was used in this study to enable the researcher have a smattering idea of the phenomenon of interest and to get an inexpensive approximation of the true tendency of the research phenomenon. While, purposive sampling was adopted as the researcher was interested in typical cases of the study population (Inmates) and that will be satisfactory in relation to the researcher's need. This was achieved as the group of respondents had been identified (Inmates) and what the researcher did was to select all members of the group by giving them questionnaires to complete.

3.5. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

A questionnaire was used to collect data from the field in the present study using validated psychological instrument to collect information from the participants of the study. The questionnaire consisted of two separate instruments which included the socio-demographic information of the participants of the study. The instrument consists of three sections namely A, B, and C.

3.5.1. SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

This consists of items measuring socio-demographic information of the participants, such as gender, age, religion, and level of study. Gender was reported as (male=1 and female=2); actual age was given by the inmates; religious affiliation was reported as Christianity, Islam and Traditional.

3.5.2. Section B: Big-Five Personality Inventory

The Big Five Inventory (BFI) by John & Srivastava (1999) is a self-report inventory designed to measure the Big Five dimensions. It is quite brief for a multidimensional personality inventory (44 items total), and consists of short phrases with relatively accessible vocabulary. The BFI is graded on a five degree scale, from completely disagree=1 to completely agree=5. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the five factors of neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness are 0.58, 0.61, 0.58, 0.54 and 0.55 respectively. The overall mean correlation for the five dimensions was .83. A test- retest reliability procedure which spanned between 6-8weeks gave rise to an average .75 for the different BFI dimensions. The convergent validity correlations with the NEO-PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992) domain scales averaged .67

SCORING: BFI scale scoring (“R” denotes reverse-scored items)

Extraversion: 1, 6R, 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, 36

Agreeableness: 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, 42

Conscientiousness: 3, 8R, 13, 18R, 23R, 28, 33, 38, 43R

Neuroticism: 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, 39

Openness: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, 44

3.5.3. Section C: Brief Criminal Attitude Scale

The Brief Criminal Attitude Scale (Taylor, 1968) was used to measure criminal tendencies. It is a 15-item questionnaire used to examine the likelihood or disposition of an individual to be involved or partake in any form of criminal behaviour and attitudes. All items were measured on a dichotomous scale of yes and no answer format. The Brief Criminal Attitude Scale presented high ratings in reliability areas; internal consistency of .83, also its shows high test-retest reliability within the space of four days of reliability coefficient of .67.

SCORING: Each item is scored by giving a ‘1’ for Yes answers and ‘0’ for No answers. A participants’ variety score, which is a sum score, is calculated by summing the dichotomous scores on each individual item, and it ranges between 0 and 15, with higher scores indicating a wide variety of criminal tendencies and low scores a low variety of criminal tendencies.

3.6. Procedures

The researcher began the research process by seeking an approval from her supervisor and letter of approval from the Head of the Department to be introduced to the prison authorities where data is to be collected for the research work and was accepted by

the chief controller of the prison with a warm welcome to begin the data collection process. After the approval, the prison officials then assisted the researcher in the instruments administration by introducing the researcher and research assistant to the adolescent inmates. The researcher proceeded to begin the data collection with the assistance of a research assistant to carry out the data collection procedure. The validated psychological instruments were collected from the researcher and distributed to inmates in their respective prison wards. The researcher was however informed to come back on a later date to retrieve the already completed questionnaire from the prison authorities.

The validated psychological instrument was administered to the inmates with the help of the prison authorities in their regular prison wards by the guardian of the prison facilities. Then, the question booklets were distributed and instructions were given to the inmates on how to answer them. After collation of all questionnaire booklets from the prison facility, the inmates' responses were then scored and coded and were entered into the computer using SPSS spreadsheets for statistical analysis. The data were analyzed using the SPSS package version 20.

3.7. Ethical Consideration

The research participants were assured of the level of confidentiality prior to the research which was clearly stated in the research instrument before the research participants responded to research instruments. Participants were also assured that they could opt out of the research if they found the research items uncomfortable. Finally, the results gotten from the research would only be communicated to the academic community to avoid any form of illicit usage of respondents' information.

3.8. STATISTICAL METHODS

Data obtained was analysed using the Statistical Packaged for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and software package version 20. Descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean, percentages, standard deviation, was conducted to describe the socio demographic information of the respondents. Hypothesis stated were tested using inferential statistics. Hypothesis one was analysed using independent sample t-test to determine group differences. Hypothesis two was analysed using multiple regression analysis to examine the independent and joint prediction of each personality traits on criminal tendencies. The p-value of 0.05 was used for test of statistical significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter deals with the data analysis and interpretation of results as acquired from the statistical result output. The data collected from all participants were coded, entered onto the SPSS spreadsheets, and analysed using software package SPSS. Descriptive statistics for all variables in the study were examined using SPSS frequencies. The results of the study are however addressed by each hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1

This state there would be a significant difference between male and female criminal tendencies among adolescents' inmates in Ekiti state prisons. Hypothesis is tested using the t-test for independent groups. The result is presented in table 4.1

Table 4.1: T-test for independent groups showing the effect of gender on criminal tendencies among adolescent inmates

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	Df	T	P
Criminal Tendencies	Male	109	20.00	2.18	118	-.422	>.05
	Female	11	20.74	2.26			

In Table 4.1, the result showed that male adolescent inmates ($M = 20.00$, $SD = 2.18$) did not report significantly higher in criminal tendencies than female adolescent inmates ($M = 20.74$, $SD = 2.26$), ($t(118) = -.422$; $p > 0.5$). The result implies that gender does not have significant influence on the criminal tendencies of adolescent inmates in Ekiti State. The hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 2

This states that personality traits will jointly or independently predict criminal tendencies among adolescents inmates Ekiti State. Hypothesis is tested using multiple regression. The result is presented in table 4.2

Table 4.2: Regression analysis- Personality Traits on Criminal Tendencies

Variable	β	T	R	R^2	F
Extraversion	-.004	-.043			
Agreeableness	.076	.538	.24	.057	1.385
Conscientiousness	.077	.492			
Neuroticism	-.139	-1.229			
Openness	-.019	-.190			

Dependent variable: Criminal Tendencies

The table 4.2 shows that all personality traits did not interactively or jointly predict criminal tendencies among adolescents in Ekiti State [$F(5, 118) = 1.385, p > .001, R^2 = .057$]. The result implies that personality trait does not have significant influence on the criminal tendencies among adolescent inmates in Ekiti State prison. Therefore, hypothesis two is rejected

Hypothesis 3

This state that age will have a significant influence on criminal tendencies of adolescents' inmates in Ekiti state prisons. Hypothesis is tested using the t-test for independent group. The result is presented in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: T-test for independent group showing the effect of age on criminal tendencies among adolescent inmates

Criminal Tendencies	Age	N	Mean	SD	Df	T	P
	Older Adolescent	69	20.04	2.29	118	-.422	>.05
	Younger Adolescent	51	20.22	2.08			

In Table 4.3, the result showed that older adolescent inmates ($M = 20.04$, $SD = 2.29$) did not report significantly higher in criminal tendencies than younger adolescent inmates ($M = 20.22$, $SD = 2.08$), ($t(118) = -.422$; $p > 0.5$). The result implies that age of adolescent does not have significant influence on the criminal tendencies of adolescent inmates in Ekiti State. The hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 4

Table 4.4: T-test for independent group showing the effect of conviction status on criminal tendencies among adolescent inmates

Convicted		N	Mean	SD	Df	T	P
Criminal Tendencies	convicted	42	20.33	2.25	118	-.422	>.05
	Not convicted	78	20.00	2.18			

An independent sample t-test (table 4) showed that the difference in criminal tendencies scores between inmates earlier convicted ($M = 20.33$, $SD = 2.25$) and inmates who hasn't been convicted before ($M = 20.00$, $SD = 2.18$) were not statistically significant ($t(118) = -.422$; $p > 0.5$). This means that inmates who had been convicted before of a crime were in no way better than inmates undergoing their first sentence on criminal tendencies. Therefore, hypothesis four is supported.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the influence of gender and personality traits on criminal tendencies among inmates in Ekiti State Prisons. The researcher's purpose was to explain the role which gender (Male and Female) and personality traits (Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism) has on the tendencies of inmates' to commit crime before and after conviction . However, the findings of the study are discussed extensively.

5.1. Discussion of Study Findings

The influence of personality traits on criminal tendencies from the result findings revealed that there was no prediction of criminal tendencies from the various personality traits. The study findings contradicts the previous work of Mills & Kroner (1999) where they investigated criminal attitudes, criminal friends and recidivism and linked crime to be a result of personality traits such as neuroticism, extraversion and agreeableness. However, the unpredicted outcome of personality traits can be fashioned out from studies by Clower & Bothell (2001) who found that openness is negatively correlated with arrests, extraversion was associated with likelihood of committing status offences (an action that is prohibited only to a certain class of people, and most often applied to offences only committed by minors) such as truancy and running away from home (Laak et al, 2003). Conscientiousness and agreeableness were both been repeatedly shown to be negatively related to criminal behaviour (Voller & Long, 2010; Hornsvield & de Kruyk, 2005; Wiebe, 2004), and neuroticism has been shown to be positively correlated to causing property damage (Laak et al, 2003). The findings of the study also contradicts the

findings according to Tenibiaje (1995) where he observed and concluded that the personality characteristics of juvenile delinquents and criminals were not similar, in terms of extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism.

In consideration of a major question often asked in crime and criminal behaviours "Why might gender matter"? An examination of the study findings indicated that gender of inmates was not significantly different from each other. This thereby attests to the fact that male and female inmates do not show any form of relationship and influence on criminal tendencies. These differences contradicts the research findings according to Archer (2004) it was concluded that they are often explained by reference to gender differences in testosterone levels, which have been implicated in various forms of study of crimes. Alternatively, research findings by Hanoch (2012) also contradicts the study results where it was 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. Heidensohn, (1985) however has this to say in bringing relieve to the study findings where it was determined 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, and that some of these differences may be the result of biological or hormonal differences between males and females.

Further investigation of the study findings showed that the conviction status of the inmates were not statistically significant. This emphasises that those who have been convicted before were in no way better on criminal tendencies than those serving their

first prison sentence. This study finding was supported by available data from the 1980s indicating a continuing increase in conviction status of crime. The total reported crime rose from almost 211,000 in 1981 to between 330,000 and 355,000 during 1984 – 85. The British High Commission in Lagos however cited more than 3000 cases of forgeries annually (Nigeria, 1991). Studies in relation to Uche (2008) reported that the crime data grow from 244,354 in 1991 to 289,156 in 1993 and continued to decline from 241,091 in 1994 to 167,492 in 1999. The number of crime slightly declined to 162,039 in 2006, a reduction of 8 percent from 2005 (Uche, 2008).

5.2. Conclusion

Based on the study findings, the following conclusions are given.

- The findings of the study concluded that personality traits did not significantly predicts criminal tendencies.
- The study findings also reported that there was no difference in the age of inmates on criminal tendencies.
- The difference in gender between male and female inmates on criminal tendencies were not statistically significant
- There was no difference between inmates who have been convicted of a crime before and those in their first sentence.

5.3. Implication and Recommendations

The Nigerian prison system is witnessing an enormous increase in people delving in and relapsing into crime and criminality. This development has challenged the practicality and feasibility of rehabilitation programmes in Nigerian prisons. However, what has been failed to understand is that if proper attention is not placed on the

eradication of this increasing problems and ensuring a crime free society, there will be more of people delving and relapsing into crime and criminal behaviour.

However, based on the drawn conclusion of the study, the following recommendations are given:

- Efforts should be made towards identifying inmates with mental disabilities and personality problems so as to rectify any problems before their release from the prison facilities thereby reducing the rate of recidivism or prison re-entry.
- Prison facilities should improve on giving inmates a good orientation of the need to avoid re-entry and also ensuring proper rehabilitation of inmates during their prison years it is a beneficial process to adopt so as to prevent the majority of them committing new crimes after their release but returning to the community and live their lives as law abiding citizens.
- A more comprehensive research should be carried out on criminal tendencies as studies at a late stage of adolescence or adulthood is not the best representation of when criminal tendencies, criminal behaviour and crime is fully developed, thus future research should examine criminal tendencies longitudinally at many different ages and stages of life.
- Lastly, future research should consider the variability in the sample population in order to have an increased representative power.

5.4. Limitations of Study

The findings of this research study must be interpreted with caution because of several important limitations. Firstly, the study sample was not extended to other prison facilities in the country. That is, the location of the current study is Ekiti state and so the

findings are limited to inmates who are sentenced to Ekiti State prison and those from Ekiti State. This is because; the prison facility is the only prison facilities in the state. Also, when the researcher standardized the research instrument for the research, instrument did not provide enough reliability for the measurement of the variables in the study.

In this study, all data were examined on a particular study population, which may not provide an accurate representation of criminal tendencies and behaviour. In addition, due to the research design (*expo facto*) and nature of the study, the true relationship between crime, criminal behaviour and criminal tendencies and its relationship to gender difference and personality may not be adequately reflected. Lastly, the study hypotheses were not able to effectively give cogent and valid findings to the nature of crime and criminal tendencies among inmates in Nigeria.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE-EKITI, EKITI STATE

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Dear respondent,

This study is conducted by OGUNDARE OLUWASEUN FOYEKEMI, an undergraduate student in the department of psychology, Federal University Oye-Ekiti.

Please note that your answers will be confidential and NOT released to anyone else. Your honest answers will be highly appreciated.

Thanks for your co-operation

Consent form

I agree to participate in the study. I understand that I am free to withdraw my participation if need be and without giving any reason, I agree that the data gathered from this study may be published in a form that does not identify me in any way.

Please express your interest to participate in this study by ticking 'yes' or 'no' below.

I agree to participate: Yes () No ()

SECTION A

Age (15-22yrs).....

Sex: Male () Female ()

Religious Affiliations: Christianity () Islam () Traditional ()

What crime brought you here? Please specify.....

How many years have you used here.....?

Have you been convicted before prior to this period: Yes/No

SECTION B

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please rate by responding to each statement with the most appropriate answer: **SD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, NAND = Neither agree nor Disagree, A = Agree, SA = Strongly agree.**

S/N	ITEMS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I see Myself as Someone Who is talkative.					
2.	I see Myself as Someone Who Tends to be lazy					
3.	I See Myself As Someone Who Tends to find fault with others.					
4.	I see Myself as Someone Who is emotionally stable, not easily upset.					
5.	I see Myself as Someone Who does a thorough job.					
6.	I see Myself as Someone Who is incentive.					
7.	I see Myself as Someone Who is depressed, blue					
8.	I see Myself as Someone Who has an assertive personality					
9.	I see Myself as Someone Who is original, comes up with new ideas.					
10.	I see Myself as Someone Who can be cold and aloof.					
11.	I see Myself as Someone Who is reserved.					
12.	I see Myself as Someone Who perseveres until the task is finished.					
13.	I see Myself as Someone Who is helpful and unselfish with others.					
14.	I see Myself as Someone Who can be moody.					
15.	I see Myself as Someone Who can be somewhat careless.					
16.	I see Myself as Someone Who values artistic, aesthetic experiences.					
17.	I see Myself as Someone Who is relaxed, handles stress well.					
18.	I see Myself as Someone Who is sometimes shy, inhibited.					
19.	I see Myself as Someone Who is curious about many different things.					

20.	I see Myself as Someone Who is considerate and kind to almost everyone.					
21.	I see Myself as Someone Who is full of energy.					
22.	I see Myself as Someone Who does things efficiently.					
23.	I see Myself as Someone Who Starts quarrels with others.					
24.	I see Myself as Someone Who remains calm in tense situations.					
25.	I see Myself as Someone Who is reliable worker.					
26.	I see Myself as Someone that is outgoing, sociable.					
27.	I see Myself as Someone who prefers work that is routine.					
28.	I See Myself As Someone Who can be Tense.					
29.	I see Myself as Someone Who is ingenious, a deep thinker.					
30.	I see Myself as Someone Who is sometimes rude to others.					
31.	I see Myself as Someone Generates a lot of enthusiasm.					
32.	I see Myself as Someone Who makes plans and follows through with them.					
33.	I see Myself as Someone Who Has a forgiving nature.					
34.	I see Myself as Someone Who gets nervous easily.					
35.	I see Myself as Someone Who tends to be disorganized.					
36.	I see Myself as Someone Who likes to reflect, play with ideas.					
37.	I see Myself as Someone Who worries a lot.					
38.	I see Myself as Someone Who Has few artistic interests.					
39.	I see Myself as Someone Who has an active imagination.					
40.	I see Myself as Someone Who likes to cooperate with others.					
41.	I see Myself as Someone Who tends to be quiet.					
42.	I see Myself as Someone Who is easily distracted.					
43.	I see Myself as Someone Who is generally trusting.					
44.	I see Myself as Someone Who is sophisticated in art, music, or literature.					

SECTION C

There are fifteen statements below which represent opinions that people hold. Would you please say if you agree or disagree with the opinions by putting your mark in the appropriate column alongside each one? Remember that there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers, but your opinion is the one that counts. Answer all questions and be frank. Thank you for your help.

S/N	ITEMS	TRUE	FALSE
1	I deserve my sentence/ criminals deserve their sentence		
2	I did not want the police to catch me/criminal do not want the police to catch them		
3	There are bigger prisoner outside prison than inside it		
4	The Judge or Magistrates sentences you/criminals, not the Probation officers		
5	The police hound you if you have a criminal record		
6	The authorities/officers are interested in you/criminals, and try to help you or them		
7	A fixed sentence is better than an indeterminate sentence		
8	People get sentenced on their records, not on what they have done		
9	The past must be forgotten		
10	There is some point in planning for the future and not living from day to day		
11	I was able/criminals are able to get some peace when I was/they are caught		
12	Punishment begins from the day you are released from the Court/Institution		
13	Once a criminal/in trouble, always a criminal/in trouble		
14	It is the probationers/trainees/prisoners who cause the trouble for themselves, not other people		
15	Everybody knows me here: I have nothing to hide/criminals are at home in prisons		

Frequencies

Statistics

	SEX	RA	CRIME	CONVICTED
N	120	120	120	120
	0	0	0	0
	Missing			

Frequency Table

SEX

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	101	84.2	84.2	84.2
Female	19	15.8	15.8	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

Religious Affiliation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Christianity	66	55.0	55.0	55.0
Islam	53	44.2	44.2	99.2
Traditional	1	.8	.8	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

CRIME

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unlawful Possession of Fire				
Arms	4	3.3	3.3	3.3
Fraud	7	5.8	5.8	9.2
Vandalization	2	1.7	1.7	10.8
Kidnapping	6	5.0	5.0	15.8
Assault	10	8.3	8.3	24.2
Drug	5	4.2	4.2	28.3
Murder	9	7.5	7.5	35.8
Rape	16	13.3	13.3	49.2
Robbery	22	18.3	18.3	67.5
Stealing	39	32.5	32.5	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	
Valid				

CONVICTED

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	42	35.0	35.0	35.0
No	78	65.0	65.0	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	
Valid				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	120	16	22	19.81	1.451
Month In Prison	120	3	72	19.68	12.539
Valid N (list wise)	120				

Reliability for Big Five Personality Traits

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

	N	%
Valid	120	100.0
Excluded ^a	0	.0
Total	120	100.0

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.591	44

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PER01	2.03	1.191	120
PER02	4.16	1.145	120
PER03	3.73	1.209	120
PER04	2.77	1.376	120
PER05	3.38	1.329	120
PER06	3.25	1.317	120
PER07	2.77	1.308	120
PER08	3.07	1.308	120
PER09	3.60	1.299	120
PER10	2.67	1.286	120
PER11	2.48	1.250	120
PER12	3.24	1.390	120
PER13	3.83	1.268	120
PER14	2.90	1.318	120
PER15	3.67	1.626	120
PER16	3.71	1.170	120
PER17	2.76	1.378	120
PER18	2.61	1.292	120
PER19	3.16	1.455	120
PER20	3.90	1.191	120
PER21	4.30	4.453	120
PER22	3.77	1.179	120
PER23	3.57	1.499	120
PER24	2.78	1.429	120
PER25	3.68	1.310	120
PER26	2.28	1.265	120
PER27	3.31	1.308	120
PER28	3.15	1.351	120
PER29	3.58	1.357	120
PER30	3.85	1.370	120
PER31	3.24	1.353	120
PER32	3.78	1.280	120
PER33	3.86	1.349	120
PER34	2.95	1.389	120

PER37	1.463	120
PER38	1.363	120
PER39	1.367	120
PER40	1.288	120
PER41	1.361	120
PER42	1.235	120
PER43	1.451	120
PER44	1.413	120
	1.259	120

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PER01	142.30	222.565	.119	.587
PER02	140.17	230.779	-.112	.602
PER03	140.60	227.351	-.017	.596
PER04	141.56	244.635	-.426	.628
PER05	140.95	208.065	.479	.558
PER06	141.08	215.734	.277	.574
PER07	141.56	226.568	-.002	.596
PER08	141.26	211.386	.397	.565
PER09	140.73	209.226	.460	.560
PER10	141.66	233.588	-.179	.608
PER11	141.84	241.832	-.391	.622
PER12	141.08	212.464	.341	.568
PER13	140.50	209.277	.472	.560
PER14	141.42	222.146	.110	.587
PER15	140.66	221.353	.087	.590
PER16	140.62	213.163	.400	.567
PER17	141.57	248.500	-.511	.634
PER18	141.72	235.583	-.228	.612
PER19	141.17	219.333	.157	.584
PER20	140.42	209.641	.497	.560

PER23	140.76	208.282	.544	.557
PER24	141.55	218.370	.171	.582
PER25	140.65	239.611	-.304	.621
PER26	142.04	203.473	.616	.547
PER27	141.02	243.502	-.428	.625
PER28	141.17	218.336	.211	.580
PER29	140.74	221.557	.120	.587
PER30	140.48	212.714	.345	.569
PER31	141.08	217.361	.222	.578
PER32	140.55	212.111	.362	.567
PER33	140.47	207.325	.522	.556
PER34	141.38	205.041	.552	.551
PER35	140.83	221.598	.113	.587
PER36	141.25	222.661	.077	.590
PER37	141.41	221.836	.094	.589
PER38	141.40	233.067	-.161	.608
PER39	140.56	234.679	-.199	.611
PER40	140.61	213.072	.358	.568
PER41	142.02	205.333	.539	.552
PER42	141.16	237.344	-.280	.614
PER43	140.77	222.992	.072	.591
PER44	140.66	207.155	.468	.557
		213.185	.365	.568

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
144.33	228.204	15.106	44

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	120	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	120	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.383	15

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
CRS01	1.36	.482	120
CRS02	1.08	.278	120
CRS03	1.15	.359	120
CRS04	1.17	.374	120
CRS05	1.23	.419	120
CRS06	1.49	.502	120
CRS07	1.33	.473	120
CRS08	1.37	.484	120
CRS9	1.34	.476	120
CRS10	1.24	.430	120
CRS11	1.49	.502	120
CRS12	1.54	.500	120
CRS13	1.51	.502	120
CRS14	1.36	.482	120
CRS15	1.46	.500	120

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CRS01	18.76	4.790	-.085	.429
CRS02	19.03	4.738	.023	.387
CRS03	18.97	4.789	-.047	.406
CRS04	18.95	4.939	-.141	.429
CRS05	18.89	4.585	.046	.387
CRS06	18.63	4.421	.081	.380
CRS07	18.78	4.121	.259	.322
CRS08	18.75	4.290	.159	.355
CRS09	18.78	4.176	.226	.333
CRS10	18.88	4.564	.051	.386
CRS11	18.63	4.236	.172	.350
CRS12	18.58	4.246	.168	.351
CRS13	18.61	4.055	.265	.317
CRS14	18.76	3.950	.346	.292
CRS15	18.66	4.176	.204	.339

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
20.12	4.843	2.201	15

Correlations

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Age	19.81	1.451	120
Month In Prison	19.68	12.539	120
Extraversion	23.1833	5.98595	120
Agreeableness	32.6667	6.07147	120
Conscientiousness	32.3167	6.16712	120
Neuroticism	23.1417	4.58220	120
Openness	33.0167	5.14493	120
Criminal Tendencies	20.1167	2.20078	120

	Age	MonthInPrison	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Neuroticism	Openness
Age	1	.352**	-.263**	-.176	-.108	.081	-.038
	120	.000	.004	.054	.242	.378	.682
MonthInPrison	.352**	1	-.039	-.111	-.114	.123	.120
	.000	120	.676	.229	.214	.182	.691
Extraversion	-.263**	-.039	1	.168	.065	.020	.124
	.000	.676	120	.067	.480	.824	.179
Agreeableness	-.176	.168	.120	1	.753**	-.445**	.305*
	.054	.676	120	.067	.480	.824	.179
Conscientiousness	-.108	.214	.065	.753**	1	-.533**	.409*
	.242	.114	.065	.753**	120	-.533**	.409*
Neuroticism	.081	.123	.020	-.445**	-.533**	1	-.049
	.378	.182	.824	.000	.000	.000	.596
Openness	-.038	.037	.124	.305**	.409**	-.049	1
	.682	.691	.179	.001	.000	.596	.120
CriminalTendencies	-.061	-.127	.009	.188*	.198*	-.210*	.041
	.506	.167	.926	.040	.030	.021	.654
	120	120	120	120	120	120	120

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Openness, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness ^b	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Criminal Tendencies

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df2		
1	.239 ^a	.057	.016	2.18318	.057	1.385	5	114	.235

a. Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness

ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression 33.014	5	6.603	1.385	.235 ^b
	Residual 543.353	114	4.766		
	Total 576.367	119			

a. Dependent Variable: Criminal Tendencies

b. Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
	B			Beta			
1	(Constant)	20.150	2.324			8.671	.000
	Extraversion	-.001	.034	-.004		-.043	.966
	Agreeableness	.028	.051	.076		.538	.592
	Conscientiousness	.028	.056	.077		.492	.624
	Neuroticism	-.065	.053	-.136		-1.229	.221
	Openness	-.008	.044	-.019		-.190	.850

a. Dependent Variable: CriminalTendencies

Group Statistics

	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CriminalTendencies	OlderAdolesent	69	20.0435	2.29728	.27656
	YoungerAdolescent	51	20.2157	2.08148	.29147

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
CriminalTendencies		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std Diff
			Equal variances assumed	.744	.390	-.422	118	.674
	Equal variances not assumed			-.429	113.133	.669	-.17221	.4

T-Test

Group Statistics

	SEX	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CriminalTendencies	Male	101	20.0000	2.18174	.21709
	Female	19	20.7368	2.25689	.51777

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of			
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
CriminalTendencies	.004	.948	-1.343	118	.182	-.73684
			-1.312	24.747	.201	-.73684

T-Test

Group Statistics

	CONVICTED	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CriminalTendencies	Yes	42	20.3333	2.24876	.34699
	No	78	20.0000	2.18019	.24686

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of			
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
CriminalTendencies	.315	.576	.790	118	.431	.33333
			.783	81.842	.436	.33333