



**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**COMPARATIVE STUDY ON CERTAIN PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS
AND ATTITUDES TOWARD CORRECTIONS BETWEEN CONVICTS OF
HOMICIDE AND NON-CRIMINAL GROUPS IN HAWASSA**

BY

MANAMINOSH WORKU



JUNE, 2009

ADDIS ABABA

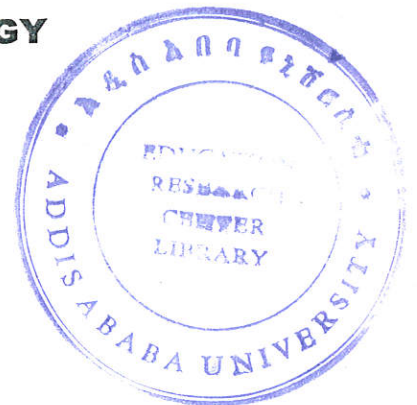
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**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF ART IN
COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY**

By

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ABBREVIATIONS

A	Agreeableness
ACLU	American Civil Liberties Union
C	Conscientiousness
E	Extraversion
FBI	Federal Bureau of Investigation
FFM	Five Factor Model
N	Neuroticism
O	Openness
PTSD	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder
SNNPR	Southern Nations and Nationalities People Region
P	Psychoticism

Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to compare certain personality characteristics and attitudes toward corrections of convicts of homicide and non-criminals in Hawassa. And the research questions were the following. 1. Is there statistically significant difference in personality characteristics between convicts of homicide and non criminals? 2. Is there statistically significant difference in attitudes toward corrections between convicts of homicide and non criminals?

60 homicides were randomly selected from Hawassa correction center. And 60 non-criminals were purposively selected at the same town. Two types of questionnaires (the Big Five personality questionnaire and attitude questionnaire) were used to gather information.

Analysis of the data was made using quantitative methods. In order to determine each group's personality characteristic and attitude towards corrections, the observed sample mean was compared with expected mean or average mean. Independent t-test was also run to determine their difference.

The results of the study revealed that, the majority of convicts of homicide and non criminals were extroverts and there was no significant difference in extraversion between these groups. However, the majority of non-criminals were agreeable while most convicts of homicides were not agreeable and there was statistically significant difference. Consequently, both groups were open to experience and there was no significant difference in openness between these groups. The majority of convicts of homicide were not emotionally stable where as the majority of non-criminals were emotionally stable and statistically significant difference was found between the two groups. Even though the majority of convicts of homicide and non-criminals were conscientious, there was significant difference in conscientiousness between these two groups.

The results of the study also revealed that, though the majority of convicts of homicide and non-criminals had positive attitude toward corrections there was significant difference in attitudes between the groups. In accordance with the findings and conclusions, recommendations were forwarded.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Violence and crime are not new phenomena in the field of development theory and practice. The available literature on this shows that since the 19th century there has been an assumed link between violence, crime and societal development. In the 1990's, however, the issue of violence has taken on particular significance. This is partly because of the abundant concentration of crime in the countries of the south. For instance, Africa is currently viewed as the most violent continent on the basis of crime victimization rates, followed by Latin America. Specifically, Columbia and South Africa stand out as two of the most violent societies in the World (McIlivaine, 1999).

Homicide is one of the most serious problem caused by violent behavior. It is the killing of one human being by the act or omission of another. The term applies to all such killings, whether criminal or not. Homicide is considered non-criminal in a number of situations, including deaths as the result of war and putting some one to death by the valid sentence of a court (Devine, 1978). Killing may also be legally justified or excused, as it is in cases of self-defense or where some one is killed by another person who is attempting to prevent a violent felony. Criminal homicide occurs when a person purposely, and

knowingly, causes the death of another and which violates the law (Devine, 1978).

In 1950 about seventeen thousand persons in the United States decided life was no longer worth, they struggle and died by their own hands. Another eight thousand were murdered. Roughly one out of every sixty deaths was the result of either suicide or homicide (Henery, 1954).

Eysenck,(1985) suggested crime was biosocial, and driven by learning as well as personality. The positive modeling of antisocial and aggressive behavior occurs in the broader social environment. Young persons from criminality contexts who are failing at school may see the more socially and materially successful people in their community engaging in violent and criminal activity, and see this behavior as adaptive and positive. Modeling one's actions on the successful, even if they are following a criminal career path is, arguably, a rational strategy (Anderson, 1999; Warr, 2002).

Nevertheless, many persons grow up in poor or socially uncontrolled conditions and do not become aggressive or violent. Such persons may avoid crime despite seeing the material advantage of criminal and antisocial activity, particularly if they have personality traits associated with resilience, namely low Neuroticism, high Extraversion, high Agreeableness/low Psychoticism, high Conscientiousness and high Openness (Davey, Eaker, & Walters, 2003).

Different physiologists and studies point out offenders' personality differently. For instance, Wilson and Herrnstein (1985) argue that the primary causes of criminal behavior are offender's weak impulse control and lack of empathy for others. And Eysenck (1985) points to a correlation between crime and high levels of extroversion, neurosis and psychosis.

On the other hand, by assessing 113 studies of personality difference between criminals and non-criminals, Schuessler and Cressey (1950) offered several general criticisms. The test results failed to establish personality components of criminal behavior. Frequently, the results supported the view that criminals and non-criminals have similar distributions of personality traits. The test results didn't distinguish between personality components caused by criminal experiences and criminal experiences caused by personality traits. However, as to Mannheim (1965), this conclusion does not imply the final impossibility of distinguishing between the personalities of criminals.

But by the researchers' assumption, homicide offenders have different personality characteristics from non-criminals. That is, homicide is the product of deviant personality. To this end the researcher should control demographic variables like sex, and educational level and should accordingly arrange the items in their categories to interpret the results. On the attitude of people toward corrections, it is observed from many researches that most people are very interested in the treatment and rehabilitative programs than with throwing away the proverbial key.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Criminal homicide is one of the most serious social problems encountered by contemporary society. Society is made worse by wrong doing with in its both directly and through the weakening of the force of its moral norms, and will suffer from loss of the services of at least some of its members. And homicide offenders by themselves are likely to exhibit problematic conditions like, depression, post traumatic stress disorder, substance abuse and antisocial behavior. Fear of crime is also another consequence of homicide. It makes people feel vulnerable and isolated, it reduces a person's general sense of wellbeing, it motivates people to buy safety devices with money that other wise could be used to improve their quality of life, and it also contributes to neighborhood decline and the crime problem.

According to the prison center there are about 240 convicts of homicide in Hawassa correction center. This shows that homicide was really a serious crime problem in the researcher's site area (SNNPR).

And this problem has negative effect on economic, social and political development of the country. So, controlling the problem helps to achieve a wide range of economic and social development goals.

In the researcher's opinion this problem is mainly related to emotional imbalance, poor education, faulty family life, mental deficiency and so on could be mentioned. Crime as a devastating event has always negative consequences to the life of the society. Though this is the case, researchers have given little

attention to this issue. Therefore, bearing this in mind, the researcher tried to see certain personality characteristics and attitude towards corrections of convicts of homicide and non- criminals.

Hence, this study identifies the personality characteristics of convicts of homicide; and assesses the attitudes of convicts of homicide and non-criminals toward corrections. Moreover, the study tries to compare, the personality characteristics of convicts of homicide with non-criminals; and attitudes of convicts of homicide with non criminals toward corrections.

1.3. Research Questions

In order to examine the problem more systematically, the researcher formulates the following basic questions:

1. Is there statistically significant difference in the personality characteristics between homicide convicts and non-criminals?
2. Is there statistically significant difference in attitudes toward corrections between homicide convicts and non-criminals?

1.4. Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study is to compare certain personality characteristics and attitudes toward corrections between convicts of homicide and non-criminals in Hawassa.

Specifically, the study intends:

1. to identify personality characteristics of convicts of homicide.

2. to identify the attitudes of convicts of homicide toward corrections.
3. to identify the attitudes of non-criminals toward corrections.
4. to compare homicidal personality characteristics with non criminals.
5. to compare attitudes toward corrections of convicts of homicide with non-criminal groups.
6. to point out some recommendations on the basis of research result.

1.5. Operational Definitions of Key Terms

Crime – refers to any act which violates the law.

Homicide – refers to killing people.

Criminal homicide- refers to killing people purposefully and knowingly and which violates the law.

Convicts of homicide – refer to criminals who are imprisoned in the correctional institution in the case of criminal homicide.

Non-Criminals _ refer to individuals who didn't have any crime record.

Personality – refers to the characteristic ways in which people behave.

Corrections – refer to any rehabilitative techniques designed and administered to illuminate criminals' unwanted criminal behavior.

1.6. Significance of the Study

This study tries to identify the attitudes of convicts of homicide as well as non-criminals towards corrections. Hence, based on the findings of the study, administrators may create awareness among these individuals so that they

would develop positive attitude towards rehabilitation. This intern may have valuable contribution in shaping the behavior of criminals.

This study also tries to see personality differences between convicts of homicide and non criminals. Thus, counselors may get important information about personality type of criminals knowing their personality type will help them during client-counselor relationship at the time of intervention.

Moreover, this study gives indispensable insight about attitude and personality characteristics of criminals. Therefore, policy makers may incorporate the typical characteristics of criminal behavior while making and implementing their policies.

This study deals about attitude of homicide convicts and non criminals towards rehabilitation. Hence, policy makers could design and implement their policies taking in to account the attitudes of these individuals.

Finally, other researchers who are interested to conduct study related to this issue may get valuable information.

1.7. Delimitation of the Study

Taking time and financial constraints into account and also in order to make the study more specific and manageable the researcher delimited the study on convicts of homicide and non-criminal groups in Hawassa 275 km away from Addis Ababa. And also the researcher delimited her sample to 60 convicts of homicide and 60 non-criminals (normal group). This is because of time and

financial constraint and the same is true in analysis. That is the data was analyzed by using percentage, mean and t-test.

1.8. Limitations of the study

This study had its own limitations. One of the foremost limitations of the study was its small sample size. Clearly, a representative large sample size would have added substantial weight to the conclusion drawn and recommendations made from the results. The second limitation of the study was limited number of up-to-date literature on the personality characteristics and attitudes toward corrections of homicide convicts. That is why the researcher used old books.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. The Concept of Crime

In dealing with the historical development of crime, particularly in comparing classical and positive schools of criminology, controversy is noted regarding the definition of crime. The classical school insists of defining crime in terms of the law. This school adheres to the concepts of 'no crime with out law'. On the other hand, the positive school rejects the legal definition of crime. Caroffalo, one of the founders of the positive school defines natural crime as "an act that offends the moral sentiment of piety and probity in the society" (Johnson, 1978).

As a result of rejection of the legal definition of crime by the positive schools of thought today there is no agreement on the question "what is crime?" A large number of criminologists particularly in North America still prefer the sociological definition of crime. But criminologists in Europe mostly accept the legal definition, which is more universal and standardized. Concerning the legal definition of crime, Paul (1991) in legal terms states" a crime is any act, committed found by court of law to be a violation of a criminal status". For our purpose, however, such a narrow definition has limited utility in terms of social problems. We will use a board definition, one that considers crime as any violation of the law (Paul, 1991).

In addition according to Johnson, (1978) criminology is dominated by the legal definition of crime, which insists that criminal behavior differs from other forms of deviance in that it is a violation of the law promulgated by a political authority and subject to punishment administered by agents of the state. Criminal law is distinct from civil law, which deals with private wrongs (Offences committed against an individual) as opposed to wrongs against the state "political authority" means that the actions of private organization originate and enforce criminal laws. Legally there is no crime unless a given kind of misconduct has been singled out, through the enactment of law, to be punished by the state's use of the coercive power it legitimately monopolized. The state creates crime by producing legal categories against which behavior is judged officially and on the basis of these judgments certain behaviors are treated as crimes (Johnson, 1978).

According to Bohm & Haley, (1997) the broader definitions of crime are social definitions. A typical social definition of crime is behavior that violates the norms of the society or, more simply, antisocial behavior. A norm is any standard or rule regarding what human beings should or should not think, say, or do under given circumstances. Because social definitions of crime are broad, they are less likely than narrower definitions to exclude behaviors that ought to be included.

Nevertheless, there are several problems with social definitions of crime. (Bohm & Haley, 1997) argue that, first, there is no uniform moral code accepted by all

of society. There is no uniform definition of anti-social behavior. Take, for example, the acts that constitute gambling, prostitution, abortion and homosexual behavior. As current public debates indicate, there is much controversy in the United States over whether those acts should be crimes. Even with acts about which there seems to be a consensus, like murder and rape, there is no agreement on what constitutes such acts.

Second, norms are always subjects to interpretation. Each norm's meaning has a history considered abortion for example. For, one group abortion is the killing of a fetus or a human being. For the other groups of people, abortion is not killing at all because, for them human life begins at birth and not at conception. For these people the abortion issue concerns women's freedom to control their own bodies. Thus, what constitutes antisocial behavior or crime, at least to some extent, is in the eye of the beholder.

Third, norms change from time to time and from place to place. For example, the consumption of alcohol was prohibited in the United States during the 1920's and early 1930s but is only regulated today. Prior to the mid 1970s, a husband could rape his wife with impunity in all but a handful of states. Today, laws in every state prohibit a husband from rapping or assaulting his wife. In short, conceptions of antisocial behavior and crime are not constant; they vary with time and place (Bohm and Haley, 1997).

2.1.1. Influences on Crime

The domination of sociological explanations of crime and violence is attributable, in part to a strong environmentalist approach in criminological research and theory. To this date, criminology, text books provide either no discussion of biological research what so ever or only a scattered page or two of the more explosive theories. But much emphasis is on environmental and psychological factors (Denno, 1990). Even if it is in this way Deno, (1990) classified these factors in to three.

2.1.1.1. Biological Factors

Crime is defined through the social process of enacting legislation. "Inherited" criminality would have to be impossibly flexible to the accommodated to the great variation in the definition of crime from time to time and from jurisdiction to jurisdiction (Johnson, 1978). The genetics of criminal groups would have to maintain a reasonably stable deference room the genetics of non-criminal groups in spite of the rapid change, when measured along the time frame of history, in the details of criminal behavior. Heredity is modified at a much more gradual pace because it is changed through mutations and inters group amalgamation over a number of generations (Johnson, 1978).

Heredity provides the cellular elements from the brain and nervous system through which behavior is activated. With in a range of probability, heredity affects a person's height, weight, skin color, nose shape, and general body

build. It sets limits on the development of personality, but it doesn't directly mold personality. Instead because the child is plastic, learns rapidly, and is influenced by many environmental factors, heredity functions more as raw materials which set bounds to the joint interaction of biological and social factors in establishing the personality. "What is inherited is not a particular trait or characteristics, but the way in which the development of the organism responds to its environment" (Denno, 1990). Further, genetic processes affect various aspects of personality in differing degrees psychological studies indicate that performances on present - day intelligence tests are genetically determined to an important degree. There is evidence of genetic biases for introversion - extraversion among personality traits, but neuroticism, dominance, specific interests and abilities, and psychopathic are heavily changed with the effects of nurture (Denno, 1990).

■
In and of itself, heredity doesn't distinguish criminals from non-criminals. Because no particular form of behavior (aggressive, antisocial, or conforming) can be inherited, no criminal act can be described as precisely the product of genetic inheritance. Genetically determined physical characteristics, however, can influence behavior through interaction with the environment. Further, genetic contributions are mediated through bodily functions, such as endocrine secretions. In sum, the most tenable conclusion at this time is that genetics has some influence on the probability of criminality, but what ever that influence is,

it is mediated through later physiological developments and environmental factors (Denno, 1990).

2.1.1.2. Sociological Factors

Sociogenic factors are properties of the socio-cultural environment incorporated with in personalities, which have influences on criminality (Hawkins, 1996). Rather than seeing persistent criminality as solely attributable to the individual's personality structure, sociogenic theory regards it as dependent on affiliation with groups whose range of characteristic attitudes, beliefs and values is at least tolerant of law violations. Personality is acquired through social interaction famed with in group values which include the coloring of personality traits; aggressiveness or cooperative ness, aspirations, beliefs, prejudices, moral concepts, and objects of love and hate. Similarly, the groups' culture and typical social relationship continue to influence behaviors towards or away from criminality (Hawkins, 1996).

More generally, cultural transmission theorists distinguish three ways in which behaviors may be transmitted by learning Vertical transmission refers to transmission in the family from parent to child, a learning mechanism often emphasized for crime. Horizontal transmission refers to learning from-same generation peers. Oblique transmission refers to learning from adults other than the parents; like vertical transmission, it is intergenerational. In contrast to genetic transmission, cultural transmission can proceed in three directions

(1) Adult → Children, (2) children → children, (3) children → adults
(Hawkins, 1996).

2.1.1.3. Psychological Factors

There have been many attempts to link crime to innate psychological tendencies as well as mental illnesses. In the mid - 1980's for example Wilson and Hernnstain argued that crime is deeply rooted in human nature, and probably innate tendencies. More emphasis however, has been placed on crime as a result of mental illness. It is claimed that delinquency often springs from emotional disturbance and that delinquent behavior can be predicted from psychiatric observation. In viewing social-class difference, Clucks found some emotional disturbance among 51% of delinquent, while 44% of the control group of non delinquents not shows a very significant difference. Thus only limited amount of crime and delinquents can be attributed to psychological disturbance (Paul, 1991).

One hypothesis is that some people are less able to control their impulses, felt by every one, are less able to structure their behavior in an ordinary way. A popular psychological explanation of deviance suggests that it is a form of aggression towards others and towards society produced by frustration of an individual. When a person has a need that isn't fulfilled he becomes frustrated and vents his frustration in aggression. This is called the frustration-aggression theory. Albert Cohen has remarked that "no mechanism ahs been used to explain so much deviant behavior as the frustration aggression hypothesis, and

it is as popular in common sense thinking as it is in the professional literature” (Popene, 1971).

2.1.2. Aspect (Types) of Crimes

All studies indicate that the types of crime and delinquency are closely related to the social structure in which it takes place. The type and the extent of crime are influenced by the nature and composition of the society. This is clearly demonstrated in comparative studies of the various primitive and modern social structures. It is generally recognized that little crime takes place in primitive societies (Chang, 1976).

It was thought that the nature of crime alters as countries become more ‘developed’, with property crimes increasing and personal and violent crime declining. More recently, this thesis has been challenged; first because it was based on the experience of nineteenth century Western Europe, which recent historical research has since contradicted; secondly because numerous case studies from the developing world have shown that such broad generalizations are untenable. There is no accepted way of classifying the type of crime. Various attempts to classify criminals by the types of activities they are engaged in have been made, but this effort hasn’t been successful (Marvian and Wolfgang, 1970).

Crimes are divided by law into various categories, depending on the severity of the offense, the age of the offender, the potential punishment that can be levied,

and the court which hordes jurisdiction over the case. The criminal universal is made up of numerous sub-cultures. The broadest classification is crime against person and those against property. Crimes against property, which account for over 80% of the total crimes in volume in the USA, appear to have more diverse cases than crime against persons (Chang, 1976).

The term index crimes refer to the eight types of crimes that are reported annually by the federal Bureau of investigation (FBI) in its uniform crime reports. This category of criminal behavior generally consists of those serious offenses that people think of when they express concern about the nation's crime problem. Index crimes include murder; rape, robbery and assault – all of which are violent crimes committed against people – as well as property crimes such as burglary, theft, motor vehicle theft and arson. There are almost 2 million violent crimes reported each year in the United States, including more than 22,000 homicides (Schafeer and Lamm, 1995).

Since the purpose is to forward general idea of the various types of crime, it has been found more practical to categorize crime into three broad classes, these are “violent crimes, property crimes and other types of crime” (Mudler and Laufer, 1994).

2.1.2.1. Violent Crimes

Crimes of violence are crimes that are committed against people and are prohibited by law and by the accepted social value. The taking of life is the most serious harm one human being can inflict on another. It is usually assumed that violence involves the more conventional act such as criminal homicide, assaults of various types and robbery (Johnson, 1978).

The attitude of people as regards the use of violence is related with a specific population in a society. For instance, social classes or ethnic groups have different attitude towards the use of violence. Though their theory isn't fully accepted, Wolfgang and Ferracuti explain such variation as a sub-culture of violence. This means that some members of a group are more irritable, more quarrelsome and more belligerent than other and thus respond to stimuli more violently. Therefore, the use of violence to solve personal and inter personal problems varies considerably within the same society (Clinard and Robert, 1979).

Various studies show that crimes of violence are high in less developed countries than in developed ones. A comparative study of crime of violence in developed and developing countries was carried out in Boston and Cairo. It was found out that in Cairo 34.6% of all arrested were crimes against the person, while in Boston this was only 8.3% (Clinard and Abbotte, 1973).

By any standard, the U.S.A. leads developed countries when it comes to homicides, and the largest numbers of homicides are committed with hand guns. Americans kill twenty-two fellow citizens for each 100,000 of the population compared with 1.4 citizens in Switzerland and 0.33 in Australia. There are almost 2 million violent crimes reported each year in the United states, including more than 22,000 homicides; Murder, assault, rape, robbery, kidnapping and many terrorist activities all have a common component: violence against the person. The victim of violent crime experiences the act immediately, personally and directly (Andargachew, 1988).

Though, it is difficult to clearly identify reasons that cause violent crime in Ethiopia. Due to lack of proper delimitation of boundaries people quarreled over a small piece of land. None of them would tolerate the loss or right over his property, no matter how small or unimportant, until it is settled through proper legal means which usually takes long time. Crime against the person is also caused due to drunkenness or intoxication. Drunkenness leads to fight that often results in the loss of life or serious personal injuries (Andargachew, 1988).

2.1.2.2. Property Crimes

Traditionally property crimes include larceny (theft, stealing); obtaining property by fraud; burglary; and arson, which not only deprives the owner of property but also can endanger lives. Larceny is the property crime that is committed most frequently. Crime against property is an act of obtaining by illegal means the wealth of another person. Crime against property usually

consists of the largest group of crimes in many societies; “crimes against property are different types some property offenders violate the law occasionally while others make a career out of it” (Clinard and Meier, 1979).

As Andargachew (1988) has found out, the second largest group offenses in Ethiopia is those against property. Crime against property can be grouped into three categories. The first group consists of breach to trust and fraud. These are the most common property offenses. They are mainly urban offenses committed by people working in private enterprises or government departments. The causes for these crimes are very difficult to establish though an apparent reason may be the desire to get rich fast. The second category includes such offenses as theft and burglary. These again are mainly offenses one comes across in urban areas. The causes for these crimes aren't definitely known but poverty and unemployment due to rapid urbanization may be part of the cause. The third category consists of such common offenses as arson property destruction and banditry. These are more common in rural areas, and are caused mainly by feeling of revenge.

To add up on what was discussed by Andargachew, (1988), about property crime Clinard, (1973) notes, and the United Nations report about corruption in developing countries as follows:

The less developed countries may expect to experience the effect of white-collar crime as their social structure becomes more complex and they will have to look at their legal system with this development in mind (49-50).

Many agree with Huntington that "corruption" may be more prevalent in some cultures than in others, but in most cultures it seems to be most prevalent during the most intense phases of modernization. Mydial concluded that if conditions in pre-colonial times were compared with those following independence, corruption is more prevalent now than before independence and that in particular, it has recently gained ground in the higher echelon of officials and politicians. Embezzlement and fraud among the elite in Africa is wide spread problem that saps the development potential of the newly independent state (Clinard, 1973).

When he discusses this idea further, Clinard (1973) argues that corruption is one of the most widely pervasive problems in Africa. Ministries receive from a promoter a gift of money or goods in appreciation for services they have rendered.

In the local government all the advisors want to be part of the public works committee where side payments are frequent, while no one wants to be an education or health committee. Generally in developing countries the corruption of government officials is an acute problem and that many persons have amassed large fortunes in political offences. In Africa, Asia and Latin America corruption is seldom regarded as a crime. Even though it is specified as crime they have long traditions of making gifts to persons in authority to gain some personal advantage. Some times giving a gifts accepted custom but asking for it doesn't.

2.1.2.3. Others Types of Crimes

Although, different crimes could be identified under this heading, the researcher is interested to discuss only victimless crime and crime against the state.

2.1.2.3.1. Victimless crimes

In most societies there are a separate group of laws dealing with such illegal activities as drug abuse, prostitution, gambling, homosexuality, drunkenness (alcoholism) and disorderly conducts and Vagrancy. These groups of offenses are referred to as victimless crimes; because it is assumed that no one is injured with the possible exception of those persons involved in these acts. However, the policies around the world spend a great deal of time prospecting these victimless crimes. Quinney notes,

A large number of criminologists feel that these activities should be take out from the status books because the prosecution of victimless crime is an invasion by the state into the private lives of individuals as long as the individuals are engaged in these activities on their own free will (1979:288-251).

Eventually, there are also arguments and counter arguments among scholars, whether these groups of offenses should be leveled victimless or not.

2.1.2.3.2. Crime against the State

On the whole crime against the state attempts to alter in some way the existing social structures. All societies, irrespective of their political and economic systems, designate certain acts as crime against the state. All governments enact laws against acts that are considered by those in power as endangering the state.

There are a wide range of acts that would be included as crime against the state. These would be various in kind like sabotage; assassination, violation of militant draft laws, perjury, violation resulting from advocacy and support of radical ideas failure to conform to certain laws because of religious beliefs etc. Crimes against the state are usually committed to improve the existing political system. Therefore, political criminals are different from conventional criminals because they are committing offences in pursuit of their particular ideas which they believe will improve the existing political system. They are not out to extract large sum of money from victims and basically they are not motivated to kill individuals (Clinard and Meier, 1979).

Some writers distinguish political crimes from crimes against the state; political crimes are committed either by those who are in political position or by the government himself. Usually political leaders or governments want to punish some people whose views are considered to be a threat to the continuity of their power.

2.2. The Concept of Criminal Homicide

Murder has a quality of absolute finality that is relatively unusual among crimes. Killing is the climax of preceding events which explain the act, but the act itself takes only a moment or two. Nevertheless, the consequences for the victim can not be undone, and symbolically killing is among the ultimate rejections of sacred norms and the supreme protests against one's lost in life (Johnson, 1978).

Homicide is one of the most serious problem caused by violent behavior. It is the killing of one human being by the act or omission of another. The term applies to all such killings, whether criminal or not. Homicide is considered non-criminal in a number of situations, including deaths as the result of war and putting some one to death by the valid sentence of a court (Devine, 1978). Killing may also be legally justified or excused, as it is in cases of self-defense or where some one is killed by another person who is attempting to prevent a violent felony. Criminal homicide occurs when a person purposely and knowingly causes the death of another (Devine, 1978).

2.2.1. The Causes of Homicide

According to Elwin, (1950) the causes of homicide are quarrels over property, suspicion of magic, insanity, revenge, family quarrels, sex motives and alcohol. He has used the word 'cause' rather than 'motive' for motive implies premeditated. Indeed some were little more than tragic accidents. For this

reason it is not easy to fit many of them in to such a scheme as that proposed, for example, by Jennyson who declares that 'every murder falls in to one of six classes, it may belong in a greater or less degree to perhaps two of those classes, but in one of them it comes logically to rest (Elwin, 1950). The six classes are as follows.

- Murder for gain; murder for revenge; murder for elimination; murder from jealousy; murder from lust of killing; murder from conviction.

2.2.1.1. Description of Personality Types

Personality has been conceptualized from a variety of theoretical perspectives, and at various levels abstraction or breadth (John, Hampson, and Goldberg, 1991, McAdams, 1995). Each of these levels has unique contribution to our understanding of individual differences in behavior and experiences. However, a number of personality traits, and scales designed to measure them, escalated with out an end insight (Goldberg, 1971). Researcher, as well as practitioners in the field of personality assessment, were face a bewildering array of personality scales from which to choose, with little guidance and no over all ratio at hand. What made matters worse was that scales with the same name often measure concepts that are not the same, and scales with different names often measure concepts that are quite similar. Although diversity of scientific pluralism is useful, the systematic accumulation among the researchers became difficult amidst the Babel of concepts and scales (Goldberg, 1971).

As Allport (1958), many personality researchers had hoped that they might device the structure that would transfer Babel in to a community speaking a common language. As Allport once put, "each assessor has their own pet units and uses a pet battery of diagnostic devices".

What personality psychology needed was a descriptive model, or taxonomy, of its subject matter of the central goals of scientific taxonomies is the definition of over arching domains with in which large numbers of specific instances can be understood in a simplified way. Thus, in personality psychology, taxonomy would permit researchers to study specified domains of personality characteristics, rather than examining separately the thousands of particular attributes that make human beings individual and unique (Savcier and Goldberg, 1996).

After decades of research, the field is approaching consensus on a general taxonomy of personality traits, the "Big Five" personality dimensions. The Big Five represents a taxonomy or classification of traits that some personality psychologists suggest capture the essence of individual differences in personalities. These traits were arrived at through factor analysis studies. Factor analysis is a technique generally done with the use of computers to determine meaning full relationships and patterns in behavior data. According to Goldberg, (1958) one has to begin with a large number of behavior variables. The computer finds relationships or natural connections where variables are maximally correlated with one another and minimally correlated with other

variables and then groups the data accordingly. After this process has been done many times a pattern appears of relationships or certain factors that capture the essence of all of the data. Such a process was used to determine the Big Five personality factors. Many researchers tested factors other than the Big Five and found the Big Five to be the only consistently reliable factors.

Allport, Norman and Cattell were influential in formulating this taxonomy which was later refined. Allport compiled a list of 4500 traits; Cattell reduced this list to 35 traits. Others continued to analyze these factors and found congruence with self-ratings, ratings by peers and ratings by psychological staff that eventually became the Big Five factors.

Allport and Odbert's (1936) classification provided some initial structure for the personality. However, to be of practical value, taxonomy must provide a systematic frame work for distinguishing ordering and naming individual differences in peoples' behavior and experience (John, 1989). Aiming such taxonomy, Cattell (1943) used the Allport and Odbert list as a starting point for his multidimensional model of personality structure. Because the size of that list was too over whelming for research purpose Cattell (1943, 1945) began with the subset of 4,500 trait terms. Indeed, most taxonomic research has focused on, the personality trait category, although the other categories are not less important. For example emotional state, and social evaluation categories have recently received considerable attention (Almagor, Tellegen and Waller, 1995; Benet - Martinez and Waller, 1997).

Cattell's pioneering work, and the availability of a relatively short list of variables, stimulated the researchers to examine the dimensional structure of trait ratings. Several investigators were involved in discovery and clarification of the Big five dimensions. First, Fiske (1949) constructed much simplified description from 22 of Cattell's variables; the factor structures derived from self-ratings, ratings by peers ratings by psychological staff members were highly similar and resembled what would be later known.

The Five-Factor structure has been replicated by Norman (1963), Borgatta (1964), and Takemoto-chock, (1981) in list derived from Cattell's 35 variables. Following Norman (1963), the facets were labeled.

- (I) Extraversion (talkative, assertive, energetic).
- (II) Agreeableness (good – natured, cooperative, trustful)
- (III) Conscientiousness (orderly, responsible, dependable)
- (IV) Emotional stability versus Neuroticism (Calm, not neurotic, not easily up set).
- (V) Openness or culture (intellectual, polished, independent minded).

These factors eventually became known as the "Big -Five" (Goldberg, 1981) a title chosen not to reflect intrinsic greatness but to emphasize that each of these factors is extremely broad. These the Big Five structure doesn't imply that personality differences can be reduced to only five traits. Rather, these five dimensions represent personality at the broadest level of abstraction, and each

dimension summarizes a large number, distinct, more specific personality characteristics.

2.2.1.1.1. The Personalities of Criminal People

Personality is an important predictor of offending. Caspi, Moffitt, Silva, Kruger and Schmutte, (1994) found greater participation in delinquent activities, whether broken down by country, gender, and race, and whether delinquency was measured by self-report or official records-was associated with young persons who showed greater negative emotional expression (defined by greater aggression, greater alienation and greater stress reactions) and weak constraint (i.e. low traditionalism, low harm avoidance and lack of control). Individual differences in personality interact with social influences; impulsivity is a stronger predictor of antisocial behavior in poorer communities (Lynam, Caspi, Moffit, Wikstom, Loeber, and Nowak, 2000).

Eysenck's three "super traits" of personality P(psychoticism), E (Extraversion) and N (Neuroticism) reflect like other structural models of personality, higher order theoretical constructs emerging out of lower level-facets for each dimension. P reflects tough minded hostility, and involves elements of aggression, coldness, egocentrism, impulsivity, and a lack of empathy (Eysenk and Eysenk, 1976).

The term "P" it self derives from Eysenck's observation that criminality and genetic antisocial behavior is more common in the male relatives of families

with Schizophrenic propend, so is a broad spectrum indicator of psychopathology (Laurent, Gilvarry, Russel, & Murray, 2002). Eysenck proposed that P like E. reflected low cortical arousal, but was driven by abnormalities in neurotransmitter levels rather than physiological mechanisms.

Persons high in E are characterized by sociability, liveliness, activity, assertiveness, dominance and venture some ness. Eysenck theorized that persons high in E had lower levels of spontaneous cortical arousal in the reticular activating center of the brain stem, and sought excitement to increase their arousal levels to what would be normal for a person with a lower level of E (Eysenck, 1985). Eysenck once believed criminals to be higher in E than non-offenders, although he revised this view when impulsivity was found to be intermediate to N and P (Gray, 2000). When E was revised to accommodate the repositioning of impulsivity as a quality intermediate to his traits of P and N, criminals were found more introverted and high in N (Gudjonsson, 1997).

Eysenck's third omnibus dimension – N – addresses the continuum and control of emotions, with high N persons less variable in mood. Persons high in N are tense, unstable guilt ridden, emotional and negative. While persons low in N are at the opposite poles of these sub traits, being low. N is not always a virtue, if N operates in conjunction with high P, or low A, or psychopathic, a person may behave antisocially and not care about the implication to themselves, let alone others (Benning, Patrick, Salekin & Lestico, 2005). On this Cale, (2006) found P and N were most strongly linked to antisocial behavior.

In addition broader trait dimensions modulate findings and reiterate the need to remain mindful of traits beyond those which index antisocial tendencies alone. For example, when individuals criminal behavior was examined in a cohort of detained young offenders using the antisocial process screening device (Frick & Hare, 2002) and FFM traits derived from the Big five version of the Interpersonal Adjective scale (Trapnell & Wiggins, 1991), greater antisocial behavior was associated with lower A, greater N, lower O, and lower C (Salekin, Leistico, Trobst, Schrum, & Lochman, 2005).

On the other hand, by assessing 113 studies of personality differences between criminals and non criminals, Schuessler and Cressey (1950) offered several general criticisms. The test results failed to establish personality components of criminal behavior. Frequently, the results supported the view that criminals and non-criminals have similar distribution of personality traits. Because of this overlap in distributions, Schuessler and Cressey considered it “practically impossible” to predict individual delinquency from an individual test score.

The test results didn't distinguish between personality traits caused by criminal experiences and criminal experiences caused by personality traits. Mannheim, (1965) properly cautions, however, that these conclusion do not imply the final impossibility of distinguishing between the personality of delinquents and the personality of non delinquents; rather Schuessler and Cressey demonstrated the inadequacies of the studies they surveyed (Johnson, 1978).

2.2.2. Consequences of Homicide

Harm to society is not, I think, a distinct consideration society is made worse by wrong doing with in it, both directly and through the weakening of the force of its moral norms, and will suffer from loss of the services of at least some of its members. Again there is some thing like collective grief, arising from the rapture of what many are called social friend ship when one member of society is lost by death. There is finally the anxiety that spreads with in a group of people when lives are in danger. But these harms are the consequences of the kinds of harm suffered by wrongful killers, their victims, and their victims' friends and families (Devine, 1978).

As Taylor's review suggests that; criminal homicides are likely to exhibit combo rid conditions including PTSD (post traumatic stress disorder), depression, substance abuse and antisocial behavior.

In addition, for many crimes victims fear is the most burdensome and lasting consequence of their victimizations. However, fear of crime is also contagions one does not have to be a violent crime victim to be fear full of violent crime. In fact research shows that people who have heard about other people's victimizations are nearly as fearful as the people who have actually been victimized themselves (Bohm & Haley, 1977).

Fear of crime has many detrimental consequences. It makes people fell vulnerable and isolated, it reduces a person's general sense of well-being, it

motivates people to buy safety devices with money that other wise could be used to improve their quality of life, and it also contributes to neighborhood decline and the crime problems.

As Bohm & Haley, (1997) explains:

Fear . . . Can work in conjunction with other factors to stimulate more rapid neighborhood decline. Together, the spread of fear and other local problems provide a form of positive feed back that can further increase levels of crime. These feed back processes include (1) physical and psychological withdrawal from community life: (2) a weakening of the informal social control processes that inhibit crime and disorder: (3) a decline in the organizational life and mobilization capacity of the neighborhood: (4) deteriorating business conditions: (5) the importation and domestic production of delinquency and deviance; and (6) further dramatic changes in the composition of the population. At the end lies a stage characterized by demographic collapse.

2.3. Criminal Justice System

Like the family schools, organized religion, and the law, criminal justice is an institution of social control. A primary role of such institution is to persuade people through subtle and not so subtle means, to abide by the dominate values of society. Subtle means of persuasion include gossip and peer pressure,

where as expulsions and incarceration are examples of not so subtle means (Bohm and Haley, 1997).

As an institution of social control, criminal justice differs from the others in two important ways. First, the role of criminal justices is restricted officially to persuading people to abide by a limited range of social values; those whose violation constitutes crime. Thus, although courteous behavior is desired of all citizens, rude behavior is of no official concern to criminal justices, unless it violates the criminal law. Dealing with non-criminal rude behavior is primarily the responsibility of the family, second criminal justice is generally society's "last line of defense" against people who refuse to abide by the dominant social values and commit crimes. Usually society turns to criminal justices only after the other institutions of social control have failed. When the family, the schools organized religion and so on have failed to persuade a person to abide by the dominant social values codified in the criminal law, criminal justices is called on to do what the other institutions of social control could not (Bohm and Haley, 1997).

According to Johnson (1978 P.226) criminal justices system has two broad classes:

Criminal justice system 1 is known well. It is the traditional series of agencies that have been given the formal responsibility to control crime. Police and sheriffs' departments, judges, prosecutors and their staffs, defense

offices, jails and prisons, and probation and parole agencies criminal justice 1 is an overt system, the one seen every day in operation, the one customarily understood and referred to in crime and delinquency literature. But broader implications of the term system many public and private agencies and citizens outside of police, courts and corrections are or ought to be involved in reducing and preventing crime, the primary goal of criminal justices. These agencies and persons, when dealing with issues related to crime reduction and prevention, plus the traditional triad of police, court, and correction make up a larger criminal justices system, a system which this commission calls criminal justice system 2.

A state legislature, for example, becomes part of this large criminal justices system when it considers and debates any proposed law that might affect even remotely, any area of criminal justice activities. So the executive agencies of the state, educational administrative units, welfare departments, youth service bureaus, recreation departments, and other public officers become a part of criminal justices system 2 in many of their decisions and actions (Johnson 1978). In general according to Bohm and Haley (1997) criminal justice system is classified into three that is police, the courts and corrections.

2.3.1. Corrections

Crime and the official policies on crime are two sides of the same phenomenon. Those who threaten the capitalist state and its class interests are controlled by means of the criminal law, and criminal sanctions are applied to those who are accordingly defined as criminal.

The state's definition of crime thus anticipates the response that which makes for the definition of crime also produces the policies for controlling crime (Quinney, 1979).

When she discusses this idea further, Quinney (1979) argues that the organized force of the capitalist state takes many forms as the criminal sanction is formulated and administered. In all cases the state controls the lives of the people, but the ways in which it is accomplished are diverse. In conventional language the variations are generally divided into "punishment" and "correction". Each form of criminal sanction implies divergent aims the punitive sanction supposedly is replaced by treatment in modern times.

The modern trend toward corrections continues the objectives of punishment. Correctional reform, however, involves controlling crime and criminals by modern scientific knowledge and professional management (Taylor, 1983). The state's business is to maintain peace and correction is to treat or "rehabilitate" any one who threatens public order. Prisons are to be made into therapeutic

centers, where offenders will be scientifically managed and perhaps changed, and at least reintegrated into society (Taylor, 1983).

2.3.2. Attitudes of People toward Corrections

There is little or no published literature on the punishment and rehabilitation views of generally convicts of homicide and non-criminal groups, there is a large body of literature that has explored views on punishment and rehabilitation among the general population. One area that has been found to be a significant predictor of punishment and rehabilitation views is gender. Men tend to be much more supportive of punishment of criminals, while women are more supportive of rehabilitation efforts. Lambert (2005) argued that women and men have different moral reasoning and views of justices. Specifically men emphasize punitive punishment and individual rights, while women advocate compassion, rehabilitation, and sensitive to other.

Education also has been found to have a liberalizing effect on views toward crime and punishment. Those with higher education level are less punitive and more supportive of treatment effort (Lambert, 2005).

A new poll commissioned by the ACLU released today reveals a strong dissatisfaction with the current state of the criminal justice system in American and a growing public confidence in rehabilitation and alternative punishments for non-violent offenders (Bohm & Haley, 1997).

Contrary to popular belief, punishment and retribution are not for most in American's mind" said Ndilne Strossen, president of the ACLU. "In fact, this new study shows our nation to be far more concerned with rehabilitation and social reintegration than with throwing away the proverbial key."

Peter Nelissen did research on attitudes of prisoners and personnel toward rehabilitation. He noticed in practicing the ignorance of an objective rationale approach of correctional intervention and decided to investigate the psychosocial conditions to develop such an approach. The author stresses that he has certainly not an unrealistic belief in the possible renaissance of the rehabilitation idea. In his view imprisonment can however-according to human standards – not do without these programs. More over these programs may perform a very important counterbalancing positive function is an essentially detrimental in negative environment. Correctional research shows fruitful attempts to improve the effectiveness of at least some correctional intervention with at least some offenders. One of the study results of this research is that positive attitudes towards rehabilitation seem to be most strong (European Journal of criminal justices, 1998).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the study employed descriptive survey method. This method was selected because; Seyoum and Ayalew (1989:16) stated the descriptive method is concerned with depicting the existing situation. Moreover it deals with the relationships between variables, the testing of hypothesis, and the development of generalizations, principles or theories that have universal validity.

3.2. Target Population

The target population of this study includes criminal homicides that were convicted and imprisoned in Hawassa correction center and non-criminals in the same town. The total number of convicts of homicide was about 240 in the year 2008/9, though the number fluctuates. Out of that 235 were males and only five were females.

3.3. Sample Selection Procedures

In order to draw adequate and representative samples from the target population, random sampling and purposive sampling techniques were used. Through random sampling, 25% of convicts of homicide from 240 were selected.

That is 60 convicts of homicide were randomly selected from the target population for the main study. And 20 convicts of homicide were taken for pilot study.

Based on the age, sex and educational level of selected samples of homicide convicts, 60 non-criminals who have almost the same age and educational levels with samples of homicide convicts were purposively selected. Equal numbers of males with samples of convicts of homicide were also purposively selected from non criminals. Since the study was comparative, the researcher used this method of sampling because; Lambert (2005) found that age, sex and educational level has influence on the attitudes toward rehabilitation and treatment.

3.4. Data Gathering Instruments

The researcher used two types of questionnaires to gather information about the personality characteristics and attitudes toward corrections of convicts of homicide and non-criminal ones. These were the Big-Five personality questionnaire and attitude questionnaire.

Essentially, the Big – Five personality questionnaire which contains 41 items and 5 points scale was adopted from Buchanan (2001). And the items were statements in which homicide convicts and non-criminals responded to each item on a 5-points scale, indicating the degree to which each statement is a

true description of them selves which range from 1(strongly disagree) to 5(strongly agree).

The second tool was attitude questionnaire having 15 items with 5 points scale ranging from 1(strongly disagree) to 5(strongly agree). This tool was prepared by the researcher.

Both types of tools were given to the thesis advisor. After each type of questionnaire was checked and approved by the advisor, the items were translated in to Amharic and back to English and given to three experts to know about its applicability to local situations. The experts rejected 2 items on openness personality type and the researcher again substituted these items by another 2 openness items from John, (1991) and experts approved it.

Finally, pilot testing was made on 20 subjects for the purpose of determining the reliability of the tools. Accordingly, the selected 41 personality items on their five categories and 15 attitude items (translated in to Amharic) were tried on 20 convicts' of homicide. No time limit was made for the completion of the questionnaire. Finally the responses of the subjects were scored for both scales and their reliability were assessed by computing Cronbach Alpha. These measures proved to be reliable with $\alpha = 0.872$ for extraversion, $\alpha = 0.792$ for agreeableness, $\alpha = 0.846$ for conscientiousness, $\alpha = 0.816$ for neuroticism, $\alpha = 0.784$ for openness and $\alpha = 0.851$ for attitude. So, this implies the items of both questionnaires were reliable and the researcher took the whole items for the main study, after making some modification on certain items.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

Before the on set of data collection, the correction center was visited and the institution manger and police guards were contacted. In addition, the information on the numbers of convicts of homicide specifically the numbers of female convicts of homicide and male convicts of homicide was collected.

Following this, a schedule was drafted and subjects were sampled out. Finally the researcher and three other assistants gathered the data with in four weeks, employing an average of one hour for every respondent. Besides, the questionnaire was administered individually for prisoners at the correction center and for non criminals at their homes and work places.

3.6. Data analysis Procedures

The data collected to measure Big – Five personality characteristics and attitudes toward corrections of convicts of homicide and non-criminals were organized in line with the objectives of the study, and SPSS 15.0 for windows was applied.

To find out each groups personality characteristics in Big-Fives and attitude toward corrections, the researcher used comparisons between the two means. The expected mean (average mean) compared with the observed sample mean. The expected mean was computed in the following way. The expected mean ($\mu = \text{maximum score} + \text{minimum score} \div 2$) (Yalew, 1997).

Moreover, as explained earlier, the subjects investigated in this study constitute convicts of homicide groups and non-criminal groups. The research questions were concerned with the comparison of convicts of homicide and non-criminals on certain personality characteristics and attitudes toward corrections. So, t-test was run and means comparison was made.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of data in the light of the basic questions, which the study has set out to test. The findings are presented in two main sections. The first part deals with demographic information of participants. The second part briefly discusses the relationship between crime and personality. This part also presents the relationship between crime and attitudes toward corrections.

4.1. Demographic/Background Information

Table 1: Age, Sex and Educational Level of the Two Groups of Respondents

Demographic Variables		Homicide Convicts		Non-criminals	
		N	%	N	%
Sex	Male	57	95	57	95
	Female	3	5	3	5
	Total	60	100	60	100
Age	18-23 years	12	20	12	20
	24-29 years	26	43.33	26	43.33
	30-35 years	22	36.37	22	36.67
	Total	60	100	60	100
Educational level	Elementary (1-4)	5	8.33	5	8.33
	Junior (5-8)	4	6.67	4	6.67
	Secondary (9-10)	9	15	9	15
	Higher secondary (11-12)	25	41.66	25	41.66
	College and university	17	28.34	17	28.34
	Illiterate	-	-	-	-
Total		60	100	60	100

A total of 120 convicts of homicide and non-criminals were participated in the study. From both groups, 95 percent were males and 5 percent of them were females. Regarding their age, 20 percent of convicts of homicide and 20 percent of non-criminals were 18-23 years old. In addition, table 1 show that 43.33

percent of convicts of homicide and the same percent of non-criminals were within 24-29 years old. Finally, as the same table shows, 36.67 percent of homicide convicts and 36.67 percent of non-criminals were within 30-35 years old. When we see their educational level, 8.33 percent of each group was from grade 1-4 and 6.67 percent of each group was from grade 5-8. Besides 15 percent of each group was from grade 9-10 and 41.66 percent of each group were from grade 11-12. Lastly, 28.34 percent of each group was from colleges and universities.

4.2. Differences of Personality characteristics between Non-Criminals and Convicts of Homicide

One of the purposes of the present study was to investigate whether or not there is statistically significant difference in personality characteristics between convicts of homicide and non-criminals. The results obtained were presented as follows.

Table 2: Means, Percentages and Standard Deviations for

Extraversion on Homicide Convicts and Non-criminals

Groups	N	%	Mean \bar{X}	Expected mean μ	Standard deviation
Homicide convicts	60	91.7	31.35	27	2.72
Non-criminals	60	95	31.67	27	3.41

μ = expected mean, N = Total number of respondents

n= number of respondents who have that particular type of personality.

$$\text{Percentage (\%)} = \frac{n \times 100}{N}$$

As indicated in table 2, the mean score of homicide convicts (31.35) as well as the mean score of non- criminals (31.67) were greater than the expected mean

(27). This implies that the majority of both convicts of homicide and non-criminals had extrovert personality characteristic. In other words there were individuals in both groups who were not extroverts. That means as we see from table 2, in homicide convicts there were 8.3 percent of respondents who were not extroverts, besides in non-criminals there were 5 percent of respondents who were not extroverts.

Table 3: Means, Percentages and Standard Deviations For Agreeableness on Convicts of Homicide and Non-Criminals

Groups	N	%	Mean \bar{X}	Expected mean μ	Standard deviation
Homicide convicts	60	23.4	15.83	21	2.68
Non-criminals	60	85	30.57	21	3.15

As indicated in table 3, the mean score of convicts of homicide (15.83) was less than the expected mean (21). This shows that the majority of homicide convicts were not found to be agreeable. On the other hand the mean score of the non-criminals (30.57) was greater than the expected mean (21). So, this implies that non-criminal participants had agreeable personality characteristics. This doesn't mean that there were no non-criminal participants who were not agreeable. That means as table 3 shows, there were 15 percent of non-criminal respondents, who were not agreeable. In the same way there were 23.4 percent of convicts of homicide who were agreeable.

Table 4: Means, Percentages and Standard Deviations For

Conscientiousness on Convicts of Homicide and Non-Criminals

Groups	N	%	Mean \bar{X}	Expected mean μ	Standard deviation
Homicide convicts	60	93.3	37.11	30	5.13
Non-criminals	60	96.7	39.68	30	6.03

As demonstrated in table 4, the mean score of convicts of homicide was found to be 37.11. In addition, the same table shows that the mean score of non-criminal participants was found to be 39.68. This clearly shows that the mean scores of both groups were greater than that of the expected mean (30). Therefore, one may infer from the above data that the majority of convicts of homicide as well as non-criminals were found to have conscientious personality type. But as table 4 indicates, there were 6.7 percent homicide convicts who were not conscientious and there were 3.3 percent non-criminal respondents who were not conscientious.

Table 5: Means, Percentages and Standard Deviations For

Neuroticism on Convicts of Homicide and Non-Criminals

Groups	N	%	Mean \bar{X}	Expected mean μ	Standard deviation
Homicide convicts	60	80	31.08	24	2.81
Non-criminals	60	5	13.67	24	3.26

As it is depicted in table 5, the mean score of convicts of homicide on neuroticism was found 31.08, which was greater than the expected mean (24), showing the majority of homicide convicts had neurotic personality. On the other hand, the mean score of non-criminals was 13.67 which was less than expected mean. This shows that non-criminals were not neurotic. This doesn't mean that there were no non-criminals that were neurotic. Since the table indicates that there were 20 percent of homicide convicts who were not neurotic, and there were 5 percent of non-criminal respondents who were neurotic.

Table 6: Means, Percentages, And Standard Deviations of Openness on Homicide Convicts and Non-Criminals

Groups	N	%	Mean \bar{X}	Expected mean μ	Standard deviation
Homicide convicts	60	88.3	26.20	21	4.34
Non-criminals	60	95	27.10	21	5.45

As indicated in table 6, the mean score of convicts of homicide on openness was 26.20 and for non criminals the mean score was 27.10. In both groups the mean scores were greater than the expected mean. This implies both groups had openness personality characteristics. In other words, the majority of them were open to experience. That means, there were respondents who were not open to experience in both groups. Further more, the table shows us that there

were 11.7 percent of convicts of homicide respondents who were not open to experience and there were also 5 percent of non-criminal respondents who were not open to experience.

Table 7: Difference in Extraversion between Convicts of Homicide And Non-Criminals

Groups	N	Mean \bar{X}	Std. deviation	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Homicide convicts	60	31.35	2.72	.563	118	0.575
Non-criminals	60	31.67	3.41			

In order to determine the difference in certain personality characteristics of convicts of homicide and non-criminals independent t-test analysis was employed. Thus, table 7 shows no significant difference between convicts of homicide and non-criminals in extraversion personality ($t=0.563$, $df=118$, $P>0.05$). This shows that the difference in extraversion personality between these two groups was found to be statistically in significant. That means convicts of homicide and non-criminals were found to have the same extraversion personality type.

Table 8: Difference in Agreeableness between Convicts of Homicide And Non-Criminals

Groups	N	Mean \bar{X}	Std. deviation	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Homicide convicts	60	15.83	2.68	27.568*	118	.000
Non-criminals	60	30.57	3.15			

* P<0.05

* t- value is significant at the 0.05 level (2 – tailed)

As table 8 shows, there was statistically significant agreeableness difference between the two groups (t=27.568, df=118, P<0.05). It means that non criminals showed greater agreeable personality characteristic than homicide convicts. This difference was actually seen in the mean score of the two groups (for convicts of homicide = 15.83 and non criminals = 30.57).In other words non- criminals and homicide convicts were different in agreeableness personality type.

Table 9: Differences in Conscientiousness between Homicide Convicts and Non-criminals

Groups	N	Mean \bar{X}	Std. deviation	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Homicide convicts	60	37.11	5.13	2.510*	118	.013
Non-criminals	60	39.68	6.03			

* P<0.05

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

Table 9 shows statistically significant difference in conscientiousness personality between homicide convicts and non-criminals ($t=2.51$, $df=118$, $P<0.05$). In other words convicts of homicide and non criminals didn't have similar conscientiousness personality characteristic. Moreover, the mean of conscientiousness for non-criminals (39.68) was greater than that of convicts of homicide (37.11). From this one may infer that, non-criminals were found to be more conscientious than convicts of homicide.

Table 10: Difference in Neuroticism between Homicide Convicts and Non-criminals.

Groups	N	Mean \bar{X}	Std. deviation	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Homicide convicts	60	31.08	2.81	31.331*	118	.000
Non-criminals	60	13.67	3.26			

* $P<0.05$

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

As indicated in table 10, the independent t-test reveals that there was a statistically significant difference between convicts of homicide and non-criminals in terms of neurotic personality. This difference is actually seen in the mean scores of the two groups (convicts of homicide = 31.08 and non-criminals = 13.67). From this one may infer that, convicts of homicide participants were found to be much more neurotic than non criminals. This implies that, neurotic personality was one of the personality characteristic of convicts of homicide.

Table 11: Difference in Openness between Convicts of Homicide and Non-criminals

Groups	N	Mean \bar{X}	Std. deviation	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Homicide convicts	60	26.20	4.34	1.000	118	.319
Non-criminals	60	27.10	5.45			

As table 11 depicts that there was no statistically significant difference in openness personality between convicts of homicide and non-criminals ($t=1.000$, $df=118$, $p>0.05$). Actually, the means of the two groups were not as such far apart. That means convicts of homicide and non criminals had the same level of openness personality characteristic.

4.3. Attitude Difference among Convicts of Homicide And Non-Criminals toward Corrections

The other purpose of the study was to see whether there is statistically significant difference in the attitudes between convicts of homicide and non-criminals toward corrections or not. Thus, in order to determine the difference, independent t-test analysis was used and presented as follows.

Table 12: Means, Percentages and Standard Deviation for Attitude towards Corrections on Convicts of Homicide and Non- Criminals

Groups	N	%	Mean \bar{X}	expected mean μ	Std. deviation
Homicide convicts	60	100	73.98	45	3.29
Non-criminals	60	93.33	67.61	45	6.98

μ = expected mean, N = number of respondents

As indicated in table 12, the mean score of attitude of convicts of homicide was 73.98. The table also shows that the mean score of non-criminals was 67.61. Both means were greater than the expected mean (45). This implies that convicts of homicide and non-criminals had positive attitude toward corrections. Further more when we see the percentage on table 13, 100 percent of convicts of homicide had positive attitude toward corrections, and 93.33 percent of non-criminals also had positive attitude toward corrections. This also shows that non-criminals as well as homicide convicts had positive attitude toward corrections.

Table 13: Difference in Attitude toward Corrections between Convicts of Homicide and Non-Criminals

Groups	N	Mean \bar{X}	Std. deviation	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Homicide convicts	60	73.98	3.29	6.384*	118	.000
Non-criminals	60	67.61	6.98			

* P<0.05

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

Table 13 above indicates a statistically significant difference in attitudes toward corrections between convicts of homicide and non-criminals ($t = 6.384$, $df=118$, $P<0.05$). It means convicts of homicide had strong positive attitude where as non-criminals had positive attitude toward corrections.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

This chapter briefly presents the major findings of the study in light of other related literatures. In addition, justifications for any contradictory results will be stated.

The first issue of the study focuses on Big- Five personality differences between convicts of homicide and non-criminals. As the findings confirmed, there were statistically significant differences in some personality characteristics between convicts of homicide and non-criminals. On the other hand there were no statistically significant differences in some other personality characteristics between convicts of homicide and non-criminals.

When we look at, extrovert personality characteristic, for instance the mean scores for extraversion of convicts of homicide and non-criminals were almost the same (mean of homicide convicts = 31.35 and mean of non-criminals = 31.67). This indicates that the means of these two groups were not as such far apart. The independent t-test also shows that no significant difference existed between extraversion of convicts of homicide and non-criminals.

However, Eysenck (1985) believed that criminals to be higher in extraversion than non-criminals (Gray, 2000). In addition, when extraversion was devised to accommodate the positioning of impulsivity, non-criminals were found more extroverted than criminals (Gray, 2000).

But, the present finding confirms that both convicts of homicide and non-criminals had almost similar average scores on this personality type that lead to insignificant differences. But, the previous study by Eysenck (1985), clearly showed that there is significant difference in extraversion personality characteristic between convicts of homicide and non-criminals.

On the other hand, Davey, Eaker, & Walters (2003) show greater association between violent behavior and low extraversion personality. So the result of the present study on this personality characteristic is opposite to the studies mentioned in the literature. This might be because of the respondents' unreliable response.

Regarding agreeableness personality characteristics the mean score of non-criminals was found to be greater than the expected mean. On the other hand, the mean score of convicts of homicide in this personality type was found to be less than expected mean. This indicates that most of non-criminals were trusting, friendly and cooperative, whereas the majority of homicide convicts were not agreeable. In addition, the finding shows a statistically significant difference in agreeableness between convicts of homicide and non-criminals. This implies that non-criminals were found to have more agreeable personality characteristic than convicts of homicide. This finding is consistent with the previous studies indicated in the literature. For instance, Cale (2006) found that low agreeableness was most strongly linked to antisocial behavior. That

means, the lower the agreeableness, and the higher the antisocial behavior will be. This was clearly manifested in the present study.

When we come to conscientiousness, the present study shows a statistically significant difference between convicts of homicide and non-criminals. Non-criminals were found more conscientious than convicts of homicide. However, when we see their mean score comparison with expected means, the mean scores of both groups were greater than their respective expected mean. This shows most of the respondents in both groups were conscientious. Further analysis indicates that non-criminal respondents were more planned and organized than convicts of homicide. This means strictly planned individuals were not involved in committing homicide.

Though, the researcher of the present study couldn't find studies which compare conscientiousness between convicts of homicide and non-criminals, there are studies which compare antisocial tendency with conscientiousness which supports the present finding. Antisocial process screening device (Frick and Hare, 2002) and FFM traits derived from the Big-Five version of the Interpersonal Adjective Scales (Trapnell and Wiggins, 1991) found greater antisocial behavior in association with lower conscientiousness (Salekin, Leistico, Trobst, Schrum, and Lochman, 2005).

Unlike agreeableness, the present study shows that convicts of homicide had higher mean score in neuroticism than non-criminals. In addition when we see the comparison with the expected mean, the mean score for convicts of

homicide was found to be greater than expected mean. This implies convicts of homicide were neurotic, whereas, the mean score for non-criminals was less than the expected mean. Here we see that convicts of homicide were more neurotic than the non criminals but the majority of non-criminals were emotionally stable (not neurotic). Furthermore, the independent t-test analysis revealed a statistically significant difference in neuroticism between non-criminal groups and convicts of homicide, which is convicts of homicide, were more neurotic than non-criminals. Actually, the mean scores of homicide convicts were found higher than non-criminals on this personality type.

There are different studies which support this finding. For example, Cale, (2006) found that neuroticism is strongly linked to anti-social behavior. Another study, using antisocial process screening device (Frick & Hare, 2002) and FFM traits derived from the Big Five version of the interpersonal Adjective scales (Trapnell & Wiggins, 1991) shows greater association between antisocial behavior and neuroticism (Salekin, Leistico, Trobst, Schrum, & Lochman, 2005).

Even though the Antisocial process screening device (Frick & Hare, 2002) and FFM traits derived from the Big-Five version of the Interpersonal adjective scales (Trapnell & Wiggins, 1991); and Davey, Eaker, & Walters (2003), have shown greater antisocial behavior associated with lower openness, the independent t-test analysis in the present finding revealed that the difference on openness between homicide convicts and non-criminals was not significant.

Moreover, as we see from the present finding, the mean scores of convicts of homicide and non criminals were greater than expected mean. This implies that both convicts of homicide and non-criminal respondents were creative and imaginative. The present finding shows opposite result with the studies indicated in the literature. This gap might be because of unreliable response of the respondents of the present study.

In general, in the present findings criminal behavior is associated with high neuroticism, low agreeableness and low conscientiousness, which are discussed in the literature. However, the comparison of convicts of homicide with non criminals in extraversion and openness, and no significant difference is relatively a new perspective. That is in the present study high neuroticism, low agreeableness and low conscientiousness were the causes for committing homicide.

Besides, the other purpose of the study was to investigate attitude difference toward corrections between convicts of homicide and non-criminals. When we see the independent t-test analysis on attitude towards corrections between homicide convicts and non-criminals, the difference was found to be significant. This implies that homicide convicts had strong positive attitude toward rehabilitation (education, counseling and treatment), whereas, non-criminals were found to have positive but not strong attitude toward rehabilitation and treatment. In other words, non-criminals were not strongly agreed, but they preferred rehabilitation and treatment than punishing criminals.

Although, the researcher of the present study could not find studies which directly compare attitudes of homicide convicts with non-criminals toward correction, there is a study which indicates attitude difference by gender towards corrections. Men have negative attitude toward corrections, while women have positive attitude toward corrections (Lambert, 2005). However, many authors suggest that correctional reform, involves controlling crime and criminals by modern scientific knowledge and professional management. Further, they suggest prisons are to be made in to the therapeutic centers, where offenders will be scientifically managed and perhaps changed, and at least reintegrated in to society (Taylor, 1983). This is almost similar with the present finding, which reveals that both groups were found to have positive attitude on rehabilitation, though criminals than non-criminals strongly support it.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1. Summary

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate certain personality characteristics and attitudes toward corrections of homicide convicts in comparison with non-criminals in Hawassa Town. Hence, in order to meet the above stated objective, the study was guided by the following basic research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in the personality characteristics between convicts of homicide and non criminals?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference in the attitudes toward corrections between convicts of homicide and non criminals?

Moreover, to achieve this objective, random sampling and purposive sampling techniques were employed to select research participants, (Convicts of homicide and non-criminals) respectively.

Accordingly, 60 convicts of homicide and 60 non-criminals were included in the study. At the same time two-types of questionnaires were used to collect information. The first type of questionnaire was the Big-Five personality questionnaire which was adopted, where as the attitude questionnaire was prepared by the researcher.

To determine each group's personality characteristics and attitudes toward corrections mean comparison was made. The observed sample mean was compared with expected mean (μ).

To investigate the difference in personality characteristics and attitudes toward corrections between convicts of homicide and non-criminals the independent t-test was run.

The present findings revealed that the majority of convicts of homicide and non-criminals were extroverts and there was no statistically significant difference in extraversion between these groups. However, there was statistically significant difference in agreeableness between convicts of homicide and non-criminals. Besides, the results of the study revealed that the majority of convicts of homicide were not agreeable, whereas most of non-criminals were found to be agreeable. Although, both non-criminals and convicts of homicide were found conscientious in the present study, criminals were more conscientious than convicts of homicide. On the other hand, the majority of non-criminals were found emotionally stable, whereas the majority of convicts of homicide were neurotic and there was statistically significant difference in neuroticism between these two groups. When we see openness personality characteristics the majority of both groups were found to have creative and imaginative personality characteristic and both groups were found to have almost similar openness personality characteristic. The results of study also revealed that, though the majority of convicts of homicide and non-criminals had positive

attitudes toward corrections, convicts of homicide than non criminals strongly support it.

5.2. Conclusions

Based on the results of the study, the following conclusions were drawn by the researcher.

- There was no statistically significant difference between convicts of homicide and non-criminals in extraversion personality.
- It was found out that there was statistically significant difference in agreeableness between convicts of homicide and non-criminals.
- Even though the majority of convicts of homicide and non-criminals were found to have conscientious personality type, there was statistically significant difference in conscientiousness between these two groups.
- It was also found out that there was statistically significant difference in neuroticism between convicts of homicide and non-criminals.
- The study also revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in openness between convicts of homicide and non-criminals.
- In general the study revealed that neuroticism, low agreeableness and low conscientiousness were associated with criminal homicide.
- Finally it was found out that there was statistically significant difference between homicide convicts and non-criminals in attitudes toward corrections. Besides the whole of convicts of homicide and the majority of non-criminals were found to have no negative attitudes.

5.3. Recommendations

In this section things to be done so as to illuminate unwanted personalities of criminals and to make criminals to be productive citizens. Much expectation is valuable from different concerned bodies, such as policy makers and implementers, administrators, counselors, governmental and non-governmental organizations. So, based on the conclusions made the researcher forwards the following recommendations:

1. Those convicts of homicide who have neurotic personality should be given counseling services. Hence, the correction center, and NGOs should work in making neurotic prisoners to get out of neuroticism. Actually, personality is stable but it can be changed by altering the environment.
2. Counselors should use their effort to illuminate neurotic and non-agreeable (unwanted) personality.
3. Since, the attitude of convicts of homicide and non-criminals was positive toward corrections, Policy makers and implementers should take care on policy making and implementation on corrections.
4. The aim of correction centers is to teach prisoners to have appropriate behavior. So as to make prisoners effective in their life after prison, governmental and nongovernmental organizations should provide basic education and rehabilitation services.
5. Issues related to personality and attitudes toward corrections in comparison with criminals and non criminals need further intensive investigation. Hence, the present researcher kindly calls for other potential researchers to address this issue at a wider scale.

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Appendix A

Addis Ababa University
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Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to gather information about certain personality characteristics and attitudes on corrections. The questionnaire is to be filled in by both samples homicide convicts and comparable non-criminals.

Right at the out set, I would like to assure you that your responses will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes.

So, you are kindly requested to give genuine and sincere responses. There is no need to write your name.

Thank you, in advance, for your cooperation, urgent and genuine responses.

Part I: Background Information

1. Age _____

2. Sex 1. Male Female

3. Education level

1. Elementary (1-4)

2. Junior (5-8)

3. Secondary school (9-10)

4. Higher secondary (11-12)

5. College and university

6. Illiterate

Part II: Items on big five personality

Instruction: Indicate the extent to which you agree most to the following personality inventory by putting a tic (✓) mark against each inventory. Strongly agree (5), agree (4), neither agree nor disagree (3), disagree (2), strongly disagree (1).

1. Extraversion Items

I/No	Items text	Rating scales				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	I am the life of the party					
2	I am skilled in handling social situations					
3	I don't like to draw attention to my self					
4	I make friends easily					
5	I know how to captivate people					
6	I keep in the background					
7	I don't talk a lot					
8	I feel comfortable around people					
9	I have little to say					

2. Agreeableness Items

I/No	Items text	Rating scales				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	I respect others					
2	I insult people					
3	I believe that others have good intentions					
4	I accept people as they are					
5	I get back at others					
6	I cut others to pieces					
7	I have a good word for every one					

3. Conscientiousness Items

I/No	Items text	Rating scales				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	I am always prepared					
2	I make plans and stick to them					
3	I carry out my plans					
4	I do just enough work to get by					
5	I find it difficult to get down to work					
6	I pay attention to details					
7	I waste my time					
8	I get chores done right away					
9	I shirk my duties					
10	I don't see things through					

4. Neuroticism Items

I/No	Items text	Rating scales				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	I have frequent mood swings					
2	I am not easily bothered by things					
3	I dislike my self					
4	I seldom feel blue					
5	I panic easily					
6	I feel comfortable with my self					
7	I am often down in the dumps					
8	I often feel blue					

5. Openness Items

I/No	Items text	Rating scales				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	I Prefer work that is routine					
2	I believe in the importance of art					
3	I am not interested in abstract ideas					
4	I am ingenious					
5	I avoid philosophical discussions					
6	I do not enjoy going to art museums					
7	I do not like art					

Part III: Items on Attitude

Instruction: Indicate the extent to which you agree most to the following attitude items on corrections of criminals by putting a tic (✓) mark against each item (strongly agree (5), agree (4), neither agree nor disagree (3), disagree (2), strongly disagree(1)).

I/No	Items text	Rating scales				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	The treatment given to prisoners in prison should be good					
2	Convicts of homicide should get counseling service.					
3	Individuals in detention should receive rehabilitation services.					
4	The prisons should be comfortable on the prisoners.					
5	The only way to reduce crime in our society is not to punish criminals and throw away the key rather it is to rehabilitate them.					

6	It is important that the prison guard listens to the prisoner and hears about his problems					
7	The best way to rehabilitate offender is giving them a good education.					
8	Offender should get library services					
9	Correctional officers should accept offenders' questions on their basic needs.					
10	The best way to rehabilitate offenders is to teach them a skill that they can use to get a job when they are released from prison.					
11	Rehabilitation programs should be available even for offenders who have been involved in a lot of crimes in their lives.					
12	Trying to rehabilitate offenders probably will lessen the chances that they will go back in to crimes.					
13	The offenders in prison should get effective treatment.					
14	The best way to rehabilitate offenders is to try to help offenders change their values and to help them with the emotional problems.					
15	Prisons are to be made in to therapeutic centers.					

ክፍል ሁለት፡ የሰዎችን ስብዕና (ባህሪያት) የሚዳሰስ መጠይቅ

መመሪያ፡- የሚከተሉት የስብዕና መጠይቆች (ጥያቄዎች) የሰዎችን የባህሪ ዓይነት ለማወቅ የሚረዱ ናቸው። እነዚህ ጥያቄዎች ትክክል (ስህተት) የሆነ መልስ የላቸውም በመሆኑም ከእርስዎ የሚጠበቀው ከተሰጡት አምስት አማራጮች በይበልጥ የገለፅዎት ላይ <✓> ምልክት በማድረግ ይምረጡ።

- በጣም እስማማለሁ (5) አልስማማም (2)
- እስማማለሁ (4) በጣም አልስማማም (1)
- እስማማለሁ አልስማማም አልልም (3)

1. Extraversion items

ተ.ቁ	የዓረፍተ ነገር ዝርዝር	ስኬል				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	ለወገኔ በጣም አስፈላጊ ሰው ነኝ					
2	ማህበራዊ ነክ ጉዳዮችን የመፍታት ክህሎት አለኝ					
3	የሰዎችን አትኩሮት መሳብ አልፈልግም					
4	ጓደኛ በቀላሉ መያዝ እችላለሁ					
5	ሰዎችን እንዴት ማሳመን እንደምችል አውቃለሁ					
6	ያለፉት ክስተቶች በአሁኑ ላይ ጫና ይፈጥሩብኛል					
7	ብዙ አላወራም					
8	ከሰዎች ጋር መሆን ያስደስተኛል					
9	ትንሽ ትንሽ አወራለሁ					

2. Agreeableness items

ተ.ቁ	የዓረፍተ ነገር ዝርዝር	ስኬል				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	ሰዎችን አከብራለሁ					
2	ሰዎችን እዘልፋለሁ (እሳደባለሁ)					
3	ሌሎች ሰዎች ጥሩ አስተሳሰብ እንዳላቸው አምናለሁ					
4	ሰዎችን እንደባህሪያቸው እይዛቸዋለሁ					
5	ግትር አቋም የለኝም (የሰዎችን ሀሳብ ተቀባይ ነኝ)					
6	ሰዎችን አማለሁ (አነውራለሁ)					
7	ሰዎችን አላስቀይምም (አላስከፋም)					

3. Conscientiousness items

ተ.ቁ	የዓረፍተ ነገር ዝርዝር	ስኬል				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	ሁልጊዜ ዝግጁ ነኝ					
2	በዕቅድ ፅኑ ነኝ					
3	ዕቅዶቼን እተገብራለሁ					
4	ሥራዎችን በአግባቡ አከናውናለሁ					
5	ስራዎችን ለመጀመር እቸገራለሁ					
6	ለጥቃቅን ነገሮች ትኩረት እሰጣለሁ					
7	ጊዜን አባክናለሁ					
8	የዘወትር ስራዎች በወቅቱ እሰራለሁ					
9	ግዴታዬን አልወጣም (እሸሻለሁ)					
10	ነገሮችን በጥልቀት አልመለከትም					

4. Neuroticism items

ተ.ቁ	የዓረፍተ ነገር ዝርዝር	ስኬል				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	በተደጋጋሚ ባህሪዬ (ስሜቴ) ይለዋወጣል					
2	በነገሮች በቀላሉ አልረበሽም					
3	ራሴን እጠላለሁ					
4	አልፎ አልፎ እተክላለሁ					
5	በቀላሉ እሸበራለሁ					
6	በራሴ ደስተኛ ነኝ					
7	ብዙውን ጊዜ ግራ እጋባለሁ					
8	ብዙ ጊዜ እተክላለሁ					

5. Openness items

ተ.ቁ	የዓረፍተ ነገር ዝርዝር	ስኬል				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	ተደጋጋሚ ስራ እወዳለሁ					
2	በጥበብ (በስዕል፣ በሙዚቃ፣ ጌጣጌጥ . . .) አስፈላጊነት አምናለሁ					
3	ረቂቅ የሆኑ ሀሳቦች አያስደስቱኝም					
4	ፈጠራ እወዳለሁ					
5	የፍልስፍና ውይይቶችን አልፈልግም					
6	ሙዚያኖችን መገባቸውን አያስደስተኝም					
7	ጥበብ (አርት) አልወድም					

Declaration

I, undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work and that all sources of material used for this thesis have been duly acknowledged.

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Signature 

Place Kawassa

Date of submission 02-07-2009

I, undersigned, declare that this thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as a university advisor.

Name _____

Signature _____

Place _____

Date _____