PERCIEVED SOCIAL SUPPORT, MORAL DISENGAGEMENT AND DECISION MAKING STYLES AS PREDICTORS OF TENDENCY TO COMMIT CRIME AMONG UNDERGRADUATES IN ANAMBRA STATE

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DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

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A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

NNAMDI AZIKIWE UNIVERSITY, AWKA

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (Ph.D) IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

OCTOBER, 2019

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this dissertation titled Perceived Social Support, Moral Disengagement and Decision Making Styles as predictors of Tendency to commit Crime among undergraduates in Anambra State was carried out by Mabia, Chidozie Emmanuel with Registration number 2013147010P, Department of Psychology, Faculty of Social Sciences, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy Degree (Ph.D) in Social Psychology. This work is mine except as specified in acknowledgements and references and that neither the dissertation nor the original work contained therein has been submitted to this University or any other institution for the award of a degree.

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Mabia, Chidozie Emmanuel   Date

APPROVAL

This dissertation titled Perceived Social Support, Moral Disengagement and Decision Making Styles as predictors of Tendency to Commit Crime among Undergraduates in Anambra State was submitted to the Department of Psychology, Faculty of Social Sciences, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State by Mabia Chidozie Emmanuel in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy Degree (Ph.D) in Social Psychology is approved.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved family.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

showered on me by my lovely friends: Emma Nnaemeka, Okonkwo Chukwuemeka and Sunday Nweke. To all of you and several others not mentioned here, I say thank you. My prayer is that God will bless and keep you all.

Finally, the researcher is unequivocally thankful to Almighty God for giving him strength, protection and inspiration for making this program possible. His mercies I appreciate.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined whether perceived social support, moral disengagement and decision making style will predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates in Anambra State. 682 students participated in the study. They include 415 females and 262 males whose ages ranged from 17-29 years (mean age 22.41; std 2.28). Mixed sampling design involving purposive, simple random and accidental samplings were used to select the faculties, departments, and students that participated in the study. Four instruments (crime behaviour rating scale, Multidimensional scale of perceived social support, mechanisms of moral disengagement scale and adolescent decision making questionnaire) were used to collect data for the study. The study adopted correlational predictive design and hierarchical multiple regression statistics was used to analyze the data. The result shows that the models for each of the hierarchy were significant, R^2=(.07, .17. and .05 and F value for this three hierarchy are 17.32**, 155.42** and 9.40**) respectively. The β value for the third model shows that only (significant others, moral disengagement, evasiveness, panic and self-control) were significant, β = (-.14, -.37, .19, -.08 and -.10) respectively. The discussion focused on importance and implication of these three significant predictors. Recommendations were based on the findings. It was recommended that input from significant others, improved moral disengagement and self confidence are important variables that can induce tendency to commit crime.

CHAPTER ONE:

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Youths' involvement in violence and criminality is on the increase, especially high profile crimes like: kidnapping, armed robbery, ritual killings, murder, advance fee fraud (popularly known as 419) and drug trafficking (Ajaegbu, 2012, Animasahun, 2011, & Aremu, 2011). Many youths are expected to be within the university system, where they are supposed to develop skills required for both career and psycho-social development (Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004, Larson, 2000; Tsang, Law & Hui, 2012). Unfortunately, evidence from Nigeria Prison Services indicated that about 70% of the inmates (both awaiting trial and convicted) are within the age range (18-30 years) that could be described as youths (Nigerian Prison, 2017).

Globally, Nigerian youths within these ages who are incarcerated overseas from 2012 till date are even higher (David, 2018; Okakwu, 2019; Nwafor, 2012,). Furthermore, there are good percentage of individuals within this age range who may not have been arrested or convicted but might have been involved in one way or the other in various forms of criminal behaviours including: rape, cultism, armed robbery, internet scam, drug trafficking, kidnapping, murder, burglary, terrorism, bribery and corruption, money laundering and others (Oguntunde, Ojo, Okagbue, Oguntunde, 2018; Okeke et al., 2012; National Bureau of Statistics, 2017). Evidence from research showed that there is increase in crime in Nigeria (Achuba, Ighomereho & Akpor-Robaro, 2013; Adegoke, 2014; Ajaegbu, 2012; National Bureau of Statistics, 2017; Nigerian

Communication Commission, 2017). Internationally, Nigeria is ranked 16th in the world index of insecurity and crime (Global Peace Index, 2018; Nigerian Communication Commission, 2017). The implication of these high incidences of crime include the fact that less investors may be willing to invest in Nigeria, life and properties are not secured, more offenders may be incarcerated, making the prisons to be stressed and overcrowded, and victims will suffer more trauma and psychological symptoms.

Following this high incidence of crime and possible consequences to the offenders, victims, and the society at large, there is an extant need to explore the risk factors that are related to the tendency to commit crime. This is because evidence from psychological theories and empirical research (Bernard, Snipes & Gerould, 2010; Rostami, Modani, Liljeros & Edling, 2018) suggested that criminal behaviour may not be a spontaneous action rather it may originate from a gradual planned process (tendency) which when reached a particular threshold may then result to criminal behaviour.

Generally, crime is defined in legal terms as acts or omissions, use of force, fraud or stealth to obtain material or symbolic resources; that can be punished by imprisonment or fine (Montaldo, 2017; Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1990; Oguntunde et al, 2018). In other words crime is an illegal act for which someone can be punished by a constituted authority especially a gross violation of law; a grave offence against humanity .Examples of crime are kidnapping, murder, burglary, fraud, rape, terrorism, armed robbery, cyber crimes, bribery and corruption, money laundry and so on.

From these definitions tendency to commit crime is criminal behaviours and characteristics that can easily predispose an individual to commit crimes (Animasahun, 2011). Tendency to commit

crime means   the likelihood for one to engage in an illegal act or omission to which punishment is attached.

There may be many risk and protective factors that may be related to tendency to commit crime and no single research can cover it all. Thus within the scope of the present study, three independent factors (perceived social support, moral disengagement and decision making style) which may be classified as internal and external factors as suggested by theoretical and empirical literature (Ajzen, 1991; Bandura, 1986) were considered as possible predictors of tendency to commit crime.

Perceived-social-support is the comfort given to one by the family, friends, coworkers, or that one is cared for by, or supportive social network and has assistance available from other people (Duci & Tahsini, 2012; Onyishi, Okongwu & Ugwu, 2012). Social support can be emotional (e.g., nurturance), tangible (e.g., financial assistance), instrumental (e.g., advice) or companionship (e.g., sense of belonging) and/or assistance one receive from people around him/her.

Moral-disengagement is a set of social cognitive mechanisms that allow individuals to justify their immoral and bad effects on social safety actions in order to preserve self-image (Bandura, 1986; Hymel, Rocke-Henderson and Bonanno, 2005). It is a process of convincing the self that ethical standards do not apply to oneself in a particular context. This is done by separating moral reactions from inhuman conduct and disabling mechanism of self condemnation. Bandura, Caparara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, and Regalia (2001) defined moral disengagement based on social cognitive theory as the social cognitive process through which the average person is able to commit horrible acts against others. Therefore, moral disengagement means breaking away

from morality or ethics. It is a state of freedom from attachment to morality, and it entails a decision not to be guided by the system of beliefs and values that govern right conduct against which behavior is judged to be right/acceptable or wrong/unacceptable within a community.

Bandura (1986, 1999 & 2002), subdivided moral disengagement into eight dimensions; (i) moral justification, (ii) euphemistic labeling, (iii) advantageous comparison, (iv) displacement of responsibility, (v) diffusion of responsibility, (vi) distortion of consequences, (vii) attribution of blame, and (viii) dehumanization. These categories of moral disengagement may induce students/individuals to engage in criminal behaviors by creating cognitive justifications for the behaviours and influencing the students/individuals in rationalizing actions taken that are not in line with society's morals and norms.

Decision-making-style is another variable of interest. Decision-making-style is personality dimension that is usually defined as a process or sequence of activities involving stages of problem recognition, search of information, definitions of alternatives and selection of an actor of one from two or more alternatives consistent with the ranked preference (Mann, Harmoni & Power, 1989). Decision making is a cognitive processes resulting in the selection of a belief or a course of action among several alternative possibilities. Every decision making process produce a final choice, which may or not prompt action. Therefore, decision making is the process of identifying and choosing alternatives based on the needs, values and preferences of the decision maker or makers. Mann et al (1989) categories decision making into five dimensions: (i) self-confidence, (ii) vigilance, (iii) panic, (iv) evasiveness and (v) complacency.

Mann et al. (1989) also categorized decision making styles into two: adaptive (vigilance & self confidence) and maladaptive (panic, evasiveness & complacency). So, maladaptive decision

making styles which comprises panic, evasiveness and complacency are likely to influence negative decision making because most of the time individuals/students involve in the decision making are under group influence in taking decision unlike their counterparts in adaptive decision making styles which comprises vigilance and self confidence; in which the individuals/students involved in decision making believe in themselves before taking a decision. This shows that the adaptive decision making style personality is internally directed more than the maladaptive decision making style personality. Mann et al. (1989) in support of the above assertion noted that constraint for competent decision making can be as a result of conformity to peer group.

Statement of the Problem

Criminality is one of the social problems that cannot be totally eliminated, but can be managed or prevented. Currently, it has been observed that there is an increase in the number of youths who are involved in criminal activities, such as kidnapping, armed robbery, ritual killings, advance fee fraud (popularly known as 419), rape, terrorism, cultism and murder (Ajaegbu, 2012; Animasahun, 2011; Aremu, 2011; Okeke, et al., 2012). In Nigeria the budgetary allocation for combating criminal related activities surpass every other budgetary allocation (Olufemi, 2015). Olufemi (2015) noted also that from 2011-2015, 12 % of the budget was allocated to combat crime, security and other terrorist activities. Also researchers (Animasahun, 2011; Aremu, 2011; National Bureau of Statistic, 2018) had reported a geometric increase in the various forms of crime such as armed robbery, kidnapping, cybercrimes, cultism, gang rape and advance fee fraud.

Many methodological approaches (quantitative and qualitative) and theoretical assumptions have been used in trying to understand tendency to commit crime. One of such theoretical assumptions believed that internal and external factors are related to tendency to commit crime. However, there are inexhaustive list of factors or constructs which could be categorized as internal or external factors. Thus within the scope of the present study a combination of one external factor (perceived social support) and two internal factors (moral disengagement and decision making style) were examined in statistical model which utilizes quantitative data to see the extent of their contribution as risk or preventive factors in tendency to commit crime among the participants of this study.

Research Questions

The study provided answers to the following questions:

1. Will perceive-social-support (family, friends and significant others) predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates?

2. Will moral-disengagement predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates?

3. Will different dimensions of decision-making-style (vigilance, self-confidence, panic, evasiveness and complacency) predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate if perceived-social-support, moral-disengagement and decision-making-style could predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates. Specifically, the researcher seeks to:

i. Find out whether perceived-social-support (family, friends and significant others) predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates. .

ii. Find out whether moral-disengagement predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates.

iii. Find out whether different dimensions of decision-making-style (vigilance, self-confidence, panic, evasiveness and complacency) predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates.

Relevance of the Study

The findings of this study are expected to be of help to policy makers in Nigeria by providing relevant information and measures on the variables that may increase or decrease tendency to commit crime among youths. Secondly, this study will add to the existing body of knowledge on issues concerning tendency to commit crime in our higher institutions of learning and secondary schools.

Finally, the result of the study will generate more research efforts and useful sources of material from which other studies could be initiated in the area of tendency to commit crime, perceived-social-support, moral-disengagement and decision-making style.

Operational Definition of Key Study Variables

Decision-making-style is personality dimension (vigilance, self-confidence, panic, evasiveness and complacency) that are cognitive processes resulting in the selection of a belief or a course of action among several alternative possibilities as measured by adolescent decision making styles questionnaire (ADMQ) by Mann et al (1989).

Moral-disengagement is a cognitive process in which the average person is able to commit horrible acts against others through cognitive restructuring of inhumane conduct into a harmless or worthy one by dimensions of moral disengagement as measured by Mechanisms of Moral Disengagement Scale by Bandura (1996).

Perceived social support is the comfort given to one by the family, friends and significant others as measured by Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support by Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet & Farley (1988)

Tendency to commit crime is likelihood to exhibit criminal behaviours and characteristics that can easily predispose an individual to commit crimes(drug addiction, armed robbery, kidnapping and advance fee fraud etc) as measured by Crime Behaviour Scale by Animasahun (2011).

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, relevant literature on the studied variables: tendency to commit crime, perceived social support, moral-disengagement and decision-making styles are reviewed. The review was done in line with the following subheadings; conceptual, theoretical and empirical reviews.

Conceptual Review

Tendency to Commit Crime

Tendency

Tendency is an inclination, attitude, disposition or likelihood of behaving in a particular way or acting in a particular direction (Cambrdge University Press, 2019; Definition.com, 2018; Marriam Webster Dictionary, 2018). In other words tendency is a person's inclination or likelihood to behave in a particular way. It is an aspect of a person's character that is shown by behaving in a particular way or direction. Tendency can also be seen as an attitude, habit, or situation that is starting to develop in a particular way or particular direction. For instance, tendency is a person's attitude of having artistic, criminal or suicidal tendencies; or there is tendency for students to socialize in the evenings or for new manager to make changes.

Crime

Crime is an action or omission that violates a law, constitutes an offence, or an illegal act which results in punishments that can range from the payment of fines to incarceration in jail which constitutes an offence and is punishable by law (Criminal-law free advice, 2016; Merriam-Webster, 2017; Oxford University Press, 2019). Robertson (1990) defined crime in ordinary language as regulations that are created and enforced through social or organizational institutions to control human behaviour.

In other words crime in legal terms can be seen as acts or omissions forbidden by law that can be punished by imprisonment and/ or fine. Examples of crimes are murder, armed robbery, burglary, rape, drunken driving, child neglect and failure to pay taxes as when due. It is something reprehensible, foolish, or disgraceful e.g.; it is a crime to steal. So, whether a given act or omission constitute a crime does not depend on the nature of that act or omission. It depends on the nature of the legal consequences that may follow it. So, an act or omission is a crime if it is capable of being followed by what is called criminal proceedings. A crime can equally be seen as an act harmful not only to some individuals but also to community, society or state. Most likely one will be subject to three sets of laws at any given time. The three sets include Federal statutes; State statutes and Local Government ordinances. According to Criminal Code Act Part II (1990), there are three categories of crime: felonies, misdemeanors and violations. A felony is any offense which is declared by law to be a felony, or is punishable without proof of previous conviction, with death or with imprisonment for three or more years. Thus, it is either the law has classified the offense as a felony or the punishment for the offense is death or imprisonment for a term of three years or more. Felony crime includes personal crimes, such as murder, robbery and rape. Other types are crimes against property including burglary or larceny. Misdemeanor is therefore defined as any offence which is acknowledged by law to be misconduct or is punishable by imprisonment for not less than six months, but less than three years (Criminal Law). The test is whether the offense is labeled as misdemeanor by the law or the prescribed punishment is not less than six months but less than three years. Misdemeanor includes assault, battery or writing bad checks. Violation is less serious than misdemeanors and includes traffic violations or violations of town or ordinances.

Animasahun (2011) define tendency to commit crime as criminal behaviours and characteristics that can easily predispose an individual to commit crimes. Tendency to commit crime means the likelihood for one to engage in an illegal act or omission to which punishment is attached. This can also be seen as a person's inclination or likelihood to behave improperly in the society and to break the law governing the society. Punishments can range from the payment of a fine to incarceration in jail depending on the severity of the crime committed by the offender. The likely crimes to be committed by students are: armed robbery, fraud, kidnapping, rape, cybercrimes, murder and drug trafficking.

Perceived-Social-Support

Social support is the delivery (or perceived delivery) of assistance from communities, social networks, and confiding partners in meeting the instrumental and expressive needs of individuals (Brown, 2016, Colvin, Cullen & Vander ven, 2002). This occurs at both the micro and macro level, can be provided by formal sources (such as spouses), and can either be instrumental or expressive. Instrumental support includes any kind of material assistance, like money, goods or services, while expressive support refers to the emotional dimension, such as having someone with whom to discuss problems (Colvin et al., 2002 & Cullen, 1994). Schwarzer, Knoll and Rieckmann (2003), and Schwarzer and Leppin (1991) defined social support as the function and quality of social relationships, such as perceived availability of help or support actually received. It occurs through an interactive process and can be related to altruism, a sense of obligation, and the perception of reciprocity. It may be regarded as resources provided by others as coping assistance or an exchange of resources. Agoha, Ogwa, Evbuoma, Igbokwe and Idoko (2015) stated that social support roles may be instrumental (tangible, aids and services), emotional (empathy, love, trust and caring), informational (advice and suggestions) or appraisals support

(affirmative and feedback). Stroebe (2000) defined social support to include real or perceived resources provided by others that enable a person to feel cared for, valued and part of a network of communication and mutual obligation.

Moral Disengagement

Moral disengagement is convincing oneself that a particular standard is not applicable to one in order to justify immoral acts. Bandura (1986) categorized moral disengagement into: moral justification, euphemistic labeling, advantageous comparison, displacement of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility, sanitizing languages, disregard or distortion of consequences and dehumanization. The eight categories of moral disengagement are conceptualized below according to Bandura (1986).

Moral Justification

This is one of the disengagement practices that operate on the cognitive restructuring of the behavior itself. This means that people do not ordinarily engage in harmful conduct until they have justified to themselves the morality of their actions. In the process of moral justification, one tries to justify detrimental conducts made to be personally and socially acceptable by portraying it as serving socially worthy or moral purposes. Then, people can act on moral imperative and preserve their view of themselves as a moral agent while inflicting harm on others. In support of the above position, Kramer (1990), Rapoport and Alexander (1982) statement is related to moral justification. They stated that over the centuries, much destructive conduct has been perpetrated by ordinary, decent people in the name of blameless ideologies, religious principles and nationalistic imperatives.

Euphemistic Labeling

This dimension of moral-disengagement holds that language shapes thought patterns on which actions are based. Activities can take on very different appearances depending on what they are called. So, euphemistic language not surprisingly, is widely used to make harmful conduct highly regarded and to reduce personal responsibility for it. Gambino (1973) in an intelligent analysis of the language of no responsibility identified the different varieties of euphemisms. One of the varieties relies on sanitizing languages. By concealing highly destructive activities in innocent or sanitizing speech, the activities loose much of their state of being repugnant. E.g.; soldiers 'waste' people rather than destroy them, or the attacks become 'clean surgical strikes', arousing pictorial images of curative activities. This sanitizing euphemism can come in the form of some governmental agencies that people are notified, they are given a 'career alternative enhancement.'

Advantageous Comparison

This is another way of making harmful conduct look good. This means that how behavior is viewed is coloured by what it is compared against. Therefore, by exploiting the contrast principle, harmful acts can be made righteous. According to Bandura (1999) terrorists see their behavior as acts of selfless martyrdom by comparing them with widespread cruelties inflicted on the people with whom they identify. The more outragious the contrasting inhumanities, the more likely it is that one's own destructive conduct will appear benevolent. E.g.; the massive destruction in Vietnam was minimized by portraying the American military intervention as an act of saving the people from communist enslavement.

Therefore, cognitive restructuring of harmful conduct through moral justification, sanitizing language, and exonerating comparisons are the most powerful set of psychological mechanisms

for disengaging moral control. So, investing harmful conduct with high moral purpose not only eliminates self-censure, it engages self-approval in the service of destructive exploits. People engaging in this kind of behaviours work hard to become proficient at them and take pride in their destructive accomplishments.

Displacement of Responsibility

This type of disengagement practices operates by obscuring, or minimizing the agentive role in the harm one causes. People will behave in ways they normally renounce if a legitimate authority accepts responsibility for the effects of their action. Under displaced responsibility, they view their actions as stemming from dictates of authorities rather than being personally responsible for the action/actions. This is because; they are spared self-condemning. For example, in Milgram's (1974) obedience experiment, where he got people to escalate their level of aggression by commanding them to do so and telling them that he took full responsibility for the consequences of their actions. This motivates the participant to escalate their level of aggression since they see themselves for not been accountable for the aggressive behavior they were exhibiting. This is equally in line with Goldhagen (1996) documents that many of the perpetrators in German genocide infantry were more than willing executioners. Disengagement practices operate within socio-political structures that shape their expression and affect their prevalence. So inhumanity toward human beings cast in devalued categories and invested with attributes become not only permissible but righteously approvable.

Diffusion of Responsibility

The exercise of moral control is also weakened when personal agency is not clear by diffusing accountability for harmful behavior. Kelman (1973) as reviewed by Bandura (1999) provides a

discerning analysis of the different ways in which a sense of personal agency gets ambiguous or vague by diffusing personal accountability. This can be done in several ways. A sense of responsibility can be diffused, and thereby diminished, by division of labour. Most enterprises require the services of many people, each performing sub-divided jobs that seem harmless in themselves. After activities become profitable into unconnected sub functions, people shift their attention from the morality of what they are doing to the operational details and efficiency of their specific job.

Group decision making is another common practice that gets otherwise considerate people to behave inhumanely. This is because, when everyone is responsible no one really feels responsible. Social organization goes to great lengths to devise mechanisms for obscuring accountability for decisions that will affect others adversely. Zimbardo (1975) is in support of the above assertion by stating that collective action is still another measure for weakening moral control.

Disregard or Distortion of Consequences

Additional ways of weakening moral control operate by disregarding or distorting the effects of one's actions. This is because, when people pursue activities that are harmful to others for reasons of personal gain or social pressure, they avoid facing the harm they cause or minimize it. If minimization does not work, the evidence of harm can be discredited. As long as the harmful results of one's conduct are ignored, minimized, distorted, or disbelieved, there is little reason for self-censure to be activated.

It is easier to harm others when their suffering is not visible and when injurious actions are physically and temporally remote from their effects. War technologies have become highly

dangerous and depersonalized. Now is the era of faceless warfare, in which mass destruction is delivered remotely with deadly accuracy by computer and laser controlled systems. In support of disregarding or distorting the effects of one's actions, Bandura (1992) stated that when people can see and hear the suffering they cause, vicariously arouse distress and self-censure serve as self-restrainers. Tilker (1970) as reviewed by Bandura (1999) supported disregard or distortion of consequences by stating that even a high sense of personal responsibility is a weak restrainer of injurious conduct when aggressors do not see the harm they inflicted on their victims. Therefore, the present researcher is also of the view that people are more likely to cause arm if they are not seeing their actions. This means that less arm will be inflicted on people if the executor of the arm is seeing the victim/victims. This is one of the reasons some of the participants in Milgram's (1974) experiment refused to continue with the experiment when they heard the screaming of the assumed participant that was suffering from assumed electric shock.

Dehumanization

The last dimension of disengagement mechanisms operates on the recipients of injurious acts. The strength of moral self-censure depends partly on how the executioners view the people they abuse. Bandura (1986) was of the opinion that correlative interpersonal experiences during formative years, in which people experience humour and suffer strain together, create the foundation for compassionate understanding to the trouble of others. (Bandura, 1992; McHugo, Smith & Lanzetta, 1982) as reviewed by Bandura (1999) stated that to perceive another in terms of common humanity activities, compassionate emotional feelings through noticed similarity and a sense of social accountability will increase man's inhumanity to man.

Keen (1986), Kelman (1973) stated that Self-censure for brutal conduct can be disengaged by stripping people of human attributes. Once dehumanized, they are no longer observed as persons with feelings, hopes and concerns but as sub human objects. They are depicted as senseless "savages", "gooks", and the other disreputable miscreants according to Bandura (1999). Gibson and Haritos-Fatouros (1986) stated that it is easier to dehumanize people when they are viewed as low animal forms, as when Greek abusers referred to their victims as "worms". Again, Levi (1987) reports an incident in which a Nazi camp commandant was asked why they went to such extreme lengths to demean their victims, whom they were going to kill anyway. The commandant shockingly explained that it was not a matter of purposeless brutality. Rather, the victims had to be degraded to the level of sub human objects so that those who operated the gas chambers would be less disturbed by anxiety.

Decision-making can be defined as the cognitive process which results in selection of a course of action among several alternative scenarios. Decision making can be intellectual or emotional, rational or irrational. Every decision making process produces a final choice which may or may not swift action. It is a process of identifying and choosing alternative based on the values, choices and beliefs of the decision maker. It is therefore a process which can be more or less rational or irrational and can be based on precise or implicit knowledge and beliefs. Decision-making in management has three components:

Alternatives: There are two or more alternatives. Decision making means to select the best alternative.

Choice: Decision-making involves choice. It means to choose the best solution for solving the problem.

Objective or problem: Decision-making is objective oriented. It is done to achieve an objective or to solve problem.

Moreover, goal-oriented decision making theory by Eisenfulur (2011) defined decision-making as process of making a choice from a number of alternatives to achieve a desired result/decision. This definition has three key elements. First, decision-making involves making a choice from a number of preferences. Second decision-making is a process that involves more than simply a final choice from among options. Finally, the desired result mentioned in the definition involves a purpose in target resulting from mental activity that the decision maker engages in to reach a final decision to get a victim of interest.

Negulescu (2014) in agreement with Eisenfulur (2011) defined decision-making in management as the process of choosing between two or more alternatives to accomplish ones purpose. Negulescu (2014) stated equally that managers are making scheduled routine decisions, unscheduled, unique, and deriving from the organizations strategy interrelated to environmental factors. Petrescu (2012) in disagreement with Eisenfulur (2011) and Negulescu (2014) defined decision making as a set of principles which support the idea of accepting a philosophy in management. Petrescu (2012) is related to some extent to Baumhart (1961) that defined decision-making as appropriate behavior at the work place called moral decision, which considers that any manager must take into account three elements in the decision making processes: moral recognition, moral evaluation and moral intention and action.   According to Savur (2013), Vardaman, Gondo and Allen (2014) principles of ethical decision refers to a type of behaviour which promotes loyality to its own control, clarity and vigilance against those who violate the principle of business ethics (taking bribes, secret negotiations etc).

Oliveira (2007) also defined decision-making as the process of human thought and reaction about the external world, which include the past and possible future events and the psychological consequences to the decision maker of those events. The essence of decision-making seems to integrate both the beliefs about explicit actions and peoples subjective attitude to those actions. For example, decisions are responses to situations and may include three aspects. First, there may be more than one possible course of action under consideration. Second, decision makers can form expectations concerning future events that are often described in terms of probabilities or degree of confidence. Finally, consequences associated with possible outcomes can be assessed in terms of reflecting personal attitudes and current goals.

Decision-Making-Style

Matzler, Ballom and Mooradlan (2007) deviated from Mann et al's (1989) conceptualization of decision-making-styles. Matzler et al (2007) stated that intuitive style develops through learning, through accumulation of knowledge and experience, and becomes the so called cognitive style. They agreed that decision-making-style is a cognitive process but they failed to distinguish the styles like Mann et al (1989). Hunk (2009) deviated also from Mann et al (1989) decision making styles. He was of the opinion that collaborative style of decision-making involves the group led. This mean that the more complex the problem the more is the need for collaboration to increasing the effectiveness and value of decision. Negulescu (2014) agreed to Mann et al (1989) to some extent and defined decision making styles as the deciders' personality that depends on the way the behave in decision-making. He noted that among the styles discussed in the literature are: emotional, intuitive, collaborative, rational and cognitive styles. These styles agreed in distinguished styles of Mann et al (1989) decision making styles but in different direction. Klain (2004) agreed to Negulescu (2014) to some extent which stated that some

authors considered that 90% of decisions are made intuitively, although the truth is partial. TenBook and Gregorio (2010) agreed also to some extent to Negulescu (2014) decision-making-styles which stated that the decision maker is rational and chooses the level of cooperation taking into account the criteria: undertaking the needs, options available, time available, complexity of the problem, responsibility for implementing the decision and decision value/accuracy. Therefore, decision-making-styles in this study were centered on Mann et al (1989) five distinguished decision-making-styles: self-confidence, vigilance, panic, evasiveness and complacency.

Vigilance is a careful deliberate behavior to clarify objectives to be achieved by the decision, canvases an array of alternatives, searches painstakingly for relevant information, assimilates information in an unbiased manner, and evaluates alternatives carefully before making a choice. Vigilance may equally be seen as thorough information search and unbiased assimilation of new information. According to the conflict model, vigilance is the only coping pattern that allows sound and rational decision making.

Self-confidence is believing in one's self to clarify objectives to be achieved by the decision, canvases an array of alternatives, searches painstakingly for relevant information, assimilates information in an unbiased manner and evaluate alternatives carefully before making a decision.

Panic is a sudden feeling of great fear that cannot be controlled that prevents one from thinking clearly to clarify objectives to be achieved by the decision, canvases an array of alternatives, searches painstakingly for relevant information, assimilate information in an unbiased manner and evaluate alternatives carefully before making a decision.

Evasiveness is one not willing to give clear answers to clarify objectives to be achieved, canvases an array of alternatives, search painstaking for relevant information, assimilate information in unbiased manner and evaluate alternatives carefully before making a decision.

Complacency is feeling of satisfaction with one's self or with a situation, so that one does not think any change is necessary to clarify objectives to be achieved by the decision, canvas an array of alternatives, search painstakingly for relevant information, assimilate information in an unbiased manner and evaluate alternatives carefully before making a decision.

Theoretical Review

The Strain Theory

This theory was postulated by Merton (1938). The theory states that society puts pressure on individuals to achieve socially accepted goals; though they lack the means to achieve the goals, which leads to strain. This approach was one of the earliest attempts to study a comprehensive conceptual framework about crime from the perspective of the individuals' relationship within their environment. According to Merton's strain theory, the society puts pressure on individuals to achieve socially accepted goals, though they lack the means to achieve the goals, this leads to strain which may lead the individual/individuals to intention to commit crimes. For example, the intention to involve self in selling hard drugs or kidnapping to gain financial security. According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, the term strain refers to pressure on somebody/something very difficult to deal with. Merton stated equally that strain may either be structural or individual. Merton (1968) posited that social structures should be considered as factors that induce deviance. This is because; social systems hold the same goals for everyone without giving them the equal chances to achieve the goals. Merton (1968) as reviewed by

Maskell (2011) identified five ways to adapt to strain conditions: (i) Conformity (ii) Innovation (iii) Ritualists (iv) Retreatism (v) Rebellion

Moreover, Merton's classical strain theory was abandoned as a leading strain theory, the close relationship between individual and crime as postulated by Merton affected most of the later crime/delinquency conceptualization as it affects individual behaviour. To support this assertion, according to reviewed literature Yilmaz and Koca (2015), identified five critical points for the failure of classical strain theory:

(1) The link between social class delinquencies does not support empirical evidence, even though the classical strain theory assumes that delinquency is a lower class problem. (2) The strain, to which delinquent boy is a subject, does not diminish after school, but strain theories cannot explain the reduction in delinquency after school. (3) There is variability in delinquent acts of adolescents, although strains assumed to be constant. More precisely, adolescents do not commit delinquency on regular basis. (4) Previous strain theories of Cloward and Ohlin (1960), Cobin (1955), and Matron (1938, 1957), ignore many variables related to delinquency. (5) Delinquency results when individual is blocked from realizing his or her goals like building a house, paying family bills and occupational advancement are the fundamental assumptions of strain theory. These strain theories do not include any family-related variables like parental neglect, poor family relationship, and siblings' bullying which may lead an individual to intention to commit crimes or deviant behaviours. Researchers, like Elliot and Voss, (1974), Gold, (1963, 1966, Hirschi, (1969), Johnson, (1979) Liska, (1971) tested this assumption by examining the difference between aspiration and expectation. The finding suggests that delinquency should be higher when the difference between aspiration and expectation is high. Studies that tested this

assumption with focus on occupational and educational goals did not find any support for the theory.

Again, the theory laid emphasis only on financial constraints as the only reason by which individuals may commit crime without considering other factors like peer influence, environmental factors, family relationship, and parental cares, which may contribute to individuals deviant behaviours especially if the factors were more on the negative sides.

Revised Strain Theory

This theory was advanced by Agnew (1985). The focus of strain shifted from monetary constraints to the blockage of pain-avoidance and goal seeking behavior. Agnew expanded the scope of strain theory by pointing to another major source of frustration and delinquency /crime. He states that the blockage of pain-avoidance or goal seeking behavior leads to frustration. Agnew, argues that adolescents are often placed in aversive situations (environments) from which they cannot legally escape. Therefore, this blockage of pain-avoidance or goal seeking behviour frustrates the adolescents/youths and may lead them to illegal escape attempts or anger based crime/delinquency intentions. Yilmaz and KOCA (2015) reviewed Agnew's strain theory by introducing negative stimuli as another source of strain. He suggested that adolescents pursue not only positively valued goals but also try to escape from painful environmental factors or situations. For example, adolescents that were maltreated by their parents or guardians may not be able to avoid harmful situations unlike the adults that may decide to avoid the harmful situations by staying on his/her own. Therefore, since positively valued goals are blocked, escaping from a negative stimulus can also be blocked, and may cause frustration, and individual adaptation to new situation may lead him to intention to commit crime/delinquency. So, avoiding negative stimuli can be manifested in two different ways: Individuals may either have intent to

commit crime/delinquency, to escape from the painful situation or to remove the source of that situation. They may express intent to commit crime/delinquency to express anger when he/she cannot escape from the painful situation. Nye, (1958) assertion related to the strain theory by stating that relationship between aversive experiences and delinquency is mostly common explained in terms of social control theory. He stated further that punitive disciplinary practice for example, are said to lead to a breakdown in internalized, indirect and direct social control. Likewise Gold, (1963) and Hirsch, (1969) were of the opinion that reverse strain theory explain the fact that aversive situations affect delinquency even when these situations do not seem to interfere with the achievement of valued goals. Revised strain theory focused on the immediate goals of individuals unlike Merton's theory that is focused more on future goals of individuals. Although the revised strain theory laid emphasis on blockage of goals avoidance or goal seeking behavior that is likely to be frustrating and may lead to illegal escape. The revised strain theory failed to capture how to achieve, and remove positively valued strain and presentation of negatively valued strain.

General Strain Theory (GST)

Agnew (1992) believed that Merton (1938) theory was too vague in nature and did not account for criminal activity which did not involve financial gain. Yilmaz and Koca (2015) was of the view that GST was developed building upon the previous revisions of classical strain theory with a particular emphasis on such variables as stress, aggression, equity and justice, which were mostly used in psychology and sociology. The general idea of GST is that people who experience strain or stress become distressed or upset which is likely to lead them to commit crime/delinquency in order to cope. Emotion is one of the key principles of this theory that motivates crime. GST was developed to conceptualize the full range of sources in society where

strain possibly comes from which Merton did not touch. Therefore, Agnew (1992) introduced three types of strain, he stated that strain may result when others (1) Prevent individuals from achieving positively valued goals. (2) Removed positively valued stimuli from individuals, and (3) Present individual with negative stimuli

Strain as the Failure to Achieve Positively Valued Goals

The classical strain theories of Cloward and Ohlin, (1960), Cohen, (1955), and Merton, (1938) emphasized more on the first type of strain, the blockages of positively valued goals. According to these theories, lower class individuals are often blocked from achieving monetary success or middle-class status. In line with such theories, adolescent strains had always been measured as the difference between aspirations and expectations. These theories, however, have been criticized for example by Agnew (1992) who reported that previous researcher's tendency to measure strain in this way led to an empirical failure of the theory. Moreover, Farmworth and Leiber (1989) revealed that conceptual ambiguities of Merton's strain theory prompted past researchers to see it only as the blockage of positively valued goals. The failure of classical strain theories empirically prompted Agnew (1980) to revise the theory. One of the revisions of the theory argued that there is subculture among adolescents that emphasized various immediate goals. Agnew (1984) stated that achievement of these goals is contingent on a variety of factors like; athletic ability, intelligence, physical attractiveness as well as social class. Agnew (1992) then suggested strain as the blockage of positively valued goals should be seen as the discrepancy between expectations and actual achievement.

Strain as the Removal of Positive Stimuli

Agnew (1992) incorporated two additional types of strain; Strain as removal of passively valued stimuli and strain as the presentation of negative stimuli. Based on equity and justice literature, Agnew stated that mere blockage of positively valued goals cannot be the only source of strain, and that blockage of positively valued goals showed a weak predictor of strain, particularly when the goal has never been experienced before. Based on stressful life events literature, which focused on the loss of positive stimuli and introduction of negative stimuli, which may include death of a family member or loss of girl or boy friend, divorce or separation and expulsion or suspension from school. Stressful life events like these may lead to crime intentions when individual attempts to prevent the removal of positively valued stimuli, and tries to find solution or substitution for the loss. The individual may have intention to revenge against the situation, or tries to lessen his/her grievances using illicit drugs like cocaine or Indian hemp.

Strain as the Presentation of Negative Stimuli

This is another source of strain discussed in psychology literature. This category of strain was neglected in criminology literature until it was introduced in Agnew (1985) revised strain theory. Agnew (1992) argued that negative relationship with teachers, families and others in the immediate social environment of adolescents is likely to lead to delinquency/crime. These may lead to crime intentions when individual (1) Intention to escape from the negative stimuli like physical or verbal assault from a teacher or parent by trying to remove the source through for example, running away from the house, or playing truancy in school. (2) Intention to seek revenge against the source of negative stimuli e.g. anger which is likely to lead to crime (3) Intention to manage the situation by taking illicit drugs e.g., cocaine and marijuana etc. Yilmaz

and Koca (2015) listed some of the most cited factors of harmful stimuli as child abuse and neglect, criminal victimization, physical punishment, negative relations with parents and peers, negative school experiences, verbal threats and insults, and physical pain.

Yilmaz and Koca (2015) criticized GST on the ground that GST gained partial support from recent studies. Again studies which focused on strain as negative stimuli found that negative family and school environments, and stressful life events can predict various types of deviance. These studies, however, found limited or no support for positively valued goals. They noted equally that by incorporating all three types of strain that failure to achieve the positively valued goal of education is associated with deviance intentions but it restricted to the intention of the use of violence. Moreover, Broidy (2001) had noted that he measured multiple source of strain but found no support for the link between crime and goal blockage and perception of fairness.

Although the theory laid emphasis on blockage and removal of positively valued stimuli and presentation of individual with negative stimuli as the causes of crime intentions or crime. The theory failed to acknowledge the fact that personality like decision making styles and environmental factors like perceived-social-support and parental relationship may predispose individual/individuals to commit crime.

Social-Identity Theory (SIT)

This theory was postulated by Tajfel and Turner (1979). According to Tajfel and Turner's theory, individuals' perceptions of and attitudes toward in-group (e.g., family, friends and significant other.) and out-group members develop ultimately from their need to identify with and belong to groups that are relatively superior, as a means of boosting their self-esteem level. This approach was one of the earliest attempts to study comprehensive conceptual framework of

social comparisons. This social comparison may be in form of perceived-social-support (family, friends and significant others.) or criminal group. The consequence of these processes is that individuals perceive other group members to resemble themselves and show preference in their attitudes and behaviours toward them, while out-group members are seen to be dissimilar from the in-group members and to possess less favourable qualities that justify them to be inferior from the in-group. Haslam, Ellemers, Reicher, Reynolds and Schmit (2010); Ouwerkerk, Ellemers and de Gilder (1999) were of the view that an in-group seeks positive distinctiveness via direct competition with the out group in the form of in-group favouritism. It is considered competitive in that in this case favouritism for the in-group occurs on a value dimension that is shared by all relevant social groups (in contrast to social creativity scenarios). Haslam (2001) stated that building in the interpersonal, intergroup continuum, social identity theory details a variety of strategies that may be invoked in order to achieve positive distinctiveness. The individuals' choice of behaviour dictated largely by the perceived intergroup relationship. In particular the choice of strategy is an outcome of the perceived permeability of group boundaries (e.g.; whether a group member may pass from a low status group into a high status group), as well as the perceived stability and legitimacy of the intergroup status hierarchy. In the view of Turner and Onorato (1999), they saw identity as the concept of the social self that emerged and explained further to observe differences in behavior between the individual as a person (personal-identity) and the individual as a member of a group (social-identity).

Turner (1992) distinguished between personal and social-identity that illustrates the beginning of social categorization theory (SCT). Boduszek and Hyland (2011) on their review of SIT defined personal-identity as self definition of a unique individual in terms of interpersonal or intra-group differentiations ("I" or "me" versus "you"), while social identify was defined as self-definition as

a similar group member on terms of in-group and out-troop differentiations ("we" or "us" versus "they" or "them").

Social Categorization Theory (SCT)

Social categorization theory (SCT) was developed further by Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher and Wetherell (1987) to explain the antecedents and consequence of personal and social identity. Therefore, SCT was of the opinion that both personal and social identities were developed from self-categorization which are cognitive groupings of oneself and some class of stimuli as the same in-group while some other class of stimuli are not the same i.e. the out group. SCT suggest that identity importance is a combined function of an individual's readiness to adopt a particular identity and the level to which that identity is allowed as a significant self-definition within a specified social framework. For example, former experience of being accepted as a member of a group in a particular group is likely to increase an individuals' attitude or readiness to identify with the group, even when the group have criminal intent may not be of importance; since the achievement of noticeable identity is paramount. In line with the above example, Dovidio, et al (2006) were of the opinion that when personal identity is more relevant, an individual's needs standards, beliefs, and motives predict behavior better, while when social identity is strongly activated, individuals come to perceive themselves more as interchangeable exemplars of a social category than as unique personalities defined by their individual differences.

Therefore, Brewer (1991) assertion is in line with SCT by stating that ability of one to accept a specific identity either personal identity or social identity can be influenced by comparative strengths of one's needs for assimilation or differentiation with intention to commit crime.

Although the theory laid emphasis on in-group ties (positive distinctiveness) as the major means of joining a group in other to gain self-esteem. The theory failed to acknowledge the fact that a financial offer by another person or group may influence individual/individuals to join a group and gain self-esteem and the group may be a criminal group.

Criminal Social Identify Model (CSI)

This model was advanced by Boduszek and Hyland (2011). The criminal social identity (CSI) was of the view that individuals become criminals because of the presence of a persistent criminal identity which has its origin in process of negative criminal social comparison. The focus of social-identity shifted from individual groups to criminal groups. Development of this model was based on Erikson's (1963, 1968) and Marcia (1967) theory of ego identity formation, and it is likely to be suggested that development of one's intention to criminal identity arises out of the identity crisis that occurs during adolescence when peer relationships play an important role. Waterman (1985) as reviewed by Boduszek and Hyland (2011) stated equally that in order to deal with Erikson's psychosocial crises, an individual has to engage in a process of exploration of different identities and roles, eventually emerging with either a pro-social or anti-social identity. This is because the need for social comparison increases during adolescence.

Therefore, the negative criminal social comparison carried out by individuals who have failed in their pro-social roles and have exhibited non-conforming behavior on a personal level may be aggravated and compounded by contextual factors such as dysfunctional family environment and or the presence of criminal peers. Moreover, based on assumptions of interpersonal cognitive theory of self by Andersen, Chen and Miranda (2002) development of criminal identity might be influenced by representation of known criminal, which are stored in an individual memory

system and are made accessible at certain times due to relevant situational cues. Criminal social identity is consistent with the concept of multiple social identities which postulates that as a person's social context changes, corresponding social identity changes are likely to occur as a result of the activation of situation specific schemas.

In summary, Boduszek and Hyland (2011) based on Tajfel and Turner's (1979) social identity theory (SIT) adopted the concept of criminal social-identity, which suggested that the criminal group may provide an alternative identity for those who have failed to established strong and positive attachment to parents or significant others, who do not conform to the norms of the society in order to increase their self-image. SIT and social cognitive theory (SCT) concepts formed the basis for the development of CSI by Boduszek and Hyland (2011).

According to Cameron's (2004) earlier research on three factor model of social-identity which comprised of centrality, in-group affect and in-group ties moved Boduszek, Adamson, Shevlin and Hyland (2012) to base their categorization of CSI into three factors; cognitive centrality, in-group affect and in group ties in order to develop a measure of CSI model.

Cognitive centrality: This is the cognitive importance of intention to belong to criminal group. Criminal identity, then is seen as central to an individual's self-concept, which renders him or her more likely to endorse the group norms and act accordingly even in the absence of other group members. So, a relatively new concept in SIT according to Cameron (2001) "centrality" is considered to be an integral component of the criminal social identity model as it reflects the conscious cognitive component of intention to belong to a criminal group.

In-group affect: This is the positive emotional valence of intention to belong to a criminal group and is thought to develop to reduce the anxiety associated with discrepancy between ideal and

actual self by changing an individual's point of reference from wider societal norms to sub group norms

In-group ties: This refers to the perception of similarity and emotional bonds with other members of a criminal group. People with strong in-group ties are persistently readier to display behaviours condoned by the group in order to demonstrate their conformity as reviewed by (Boduszek, Adamson, Shevlin, 2012). Boduszek, O'shea, Dhingra, and Hyland (2014) in their review stated that conformity to criminal standards and conduct are positively encouraged and reinforced by other in-group members, consequently leading to an increase in the frequency of criminal behaviour or an alternation of non criminal acts into criminal ones.

Although the CSI laid emphasis on cognitive centrality, in-group affects and in-group ties as the factors that influence one to join a criminal group. The theory failed to acknowledge the fact that environmental and family factors may influence individual/individuals intentions to join a criminal group.

The Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory of moral agency (SCT) was postulated by Bandura (1986, 1999). Bandura (1986, 1999) proposed that individuals construct rationalizations and justifications for behavior that violates already laid down moral standards for example, crime, violence, delinquency and aggression; a process called moral disengagement. This approach was one of the attempts to study comprehensive conceptual framework of moral agency. Bandura (1986, 1999) SCT was of the view that most people avoid transgressive behaviour most of the time because they have internalized society's standards of conduct. Therefore, harmful acts or aggressive behavior are sometimes reconstructed mentally not only for external sanctions like

condemnation, rejection and punishment, but also internal moral sanctions for acting against people's beliefs like feelings of guilt and shame and damage to one's self concept. Bandura (1999, 2002); Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastonelli, and Regalia (2001) describes moral disengagement as the socio cognitive processes through which the average person is able to commit horrible acts against others. Consequently, SCT much like neutralization theory by Sykes and Matza (1957) describes eight inter strategies that individuals may employ to rationalize and justify their harmful acts against others. The eight strategies are moral justification, euphemistic labeling and advantageous comparison which refers to mechanism that serve to cognitively restructure harmful acts so that they appear less destructive. Then, dehumanization, distortion of consequences, and the attribution of blame mechanisms serve to reduce or eliminate the distress one perceives to be causing a victim. Therefore, Bandura (1999; 2002) as reviewed by Hymel, Rocke-Henderson and Bonanno (2005) re-categorized the eight strategies by which individuals can justify and rationalize their harmful acts against others into four major psychological mechanisms by which good people do bad things. These categories are: (i) Cognitive restructuring of harmful behavior. This refers to beliefs and arguments that see criminal behavior in a positive way through moral justification, euphemistic labeling and advantageous comparisons. (ii) Minimizing agents in committing crime. This refers to cognitive strategies that displace or diffuse responsibility for negative act by minimizing one' own personal responsibility for negative acts by minimizing one's own person responsibility in defense to a larger authority or group responsibility. (iii) Distortion/disregarding the impact of criminal behavior to others. This refers to strategies that help to distance oneself from the harm (intention to commit crime) or to emphasize positive rather than negative outcomes associated with the criminal behavior. (iv) Blaming and dehumanizing the victim. This refers to seeing the

victim as someone who deserves the detrimental acts or behavior. These categories of moral disengagement theory assist individuals to engage in criminal behaviour by creating cognitive justification for the behaviour and assisting individuals in rationalizing actions taken that are counter to society's morals and norms.

The Decision Making Model in Five (5) Steps

Decision making model in five (5) steps was postulated by Doyle (2012). According to Doyle (2012) decision making processes have five steps which involves: decision identification, options examination, information gathering, decision making and decision implementation. This is one of the earliest attempts to study comprehensive conceptual framework about decision making from the perspective of manager's management of his/her organizations. This implies that once a problem is identified, alternative solution to the problem is chosen for implementation. This problem may be to exhibit a particular criminal behavior intention in which the criminals/people may see as a problem to be solved.

Decision Identification: This means that in order to identify the decision to be made, the decision maker has to write all thoughts about the decision to be made and to draw it in different ways until the decision is exactly expressed to fit the wish. As reviewed by Negulesen (2014) that identifying the decision is assisted with answering the questions: which? what? and how? Or it may have an answer to the question: what if? The way and manner the questions are answered will determine whether the decision maker will continue to exhibit his/her criminal intentions or not.

Option examination: Various versions and options are formulated and considered and possible options, any assumptions and missing information are written down. Brainstorming is a

technique that helps the decision maker in deciding steadily. e.g., criminals that are planning to rob or kidnap are always brainstorming their intentions in order to carry out a successful intended criminal operations.

Gathering information: Missing information may be gathered through their anchor person that gives the intended criminals information about a particular crime. The criminals most of the time gathered relevant information and considered the pros and cons of their criminal intentions before performing the act.

Decision making: This means that the gathered information which may be intent to commit crime may be included in the evaluation options (step 2). The decision maker/makers should feel happy after the decision made and if the decision is in line with the opinion of majority, then the decision makers should get the group support for it to be successful.

Decision implementation: This means that information gathered and additional arguments collected during the decision formulation are used for creating an implementation. This decision implementation may be criminal intention to involve in one crime or other. This involves the step to follow, the order, roles and responsibilities for steady basis are determined for successful decision implementation. This implementation of decision may be intent to engage in criminal activities.

The Decision Making Process Model in Three Steps

Decision making process model in three steps was postulated by Chestnut (2013). According to Chestaunt (2013) decision making processes was categorized into three processes: identification, decision components buildings and implementation. This is another approach to study comprehensive conceptual framework about decision making.

Identification: These states that managers gather data within the organization; they apply mathematical and statistical methods on data gathered and use the result to sustain the decision choice. This decision choice is applicable to deviants/people that always have negative thoughts of possible way to engage in criminal behaviours.

Janis and Mann Decision Making Model

Janis and Mann (1977) decision making styles states that decision making is categorized into two: adaptive and maladaptive decision-making. An adaptive pattern is carefully deliberated behaviour such as: vigilant and self-confidence decision-making styles while maladaptive decision making styles are not careful deliberated behaviour such as: panic, evasiveness and complacency which fails to meet many requirements of high quality information processing. This information processing may be intent to take decision in a particular crime or as the case may be.

The Social Learning Theory

This theory also known as reinforcement theory was postulated by Burgess and Akers (1966) as reviewed by Caffrey (2013). This theory originally called differential association theory states that criminal behavior is learned in the same manner as any other behaviors. This is based on the idea that we learn from our interactions with others in the social context. This approach was one of the earliest attempts to study a comprehensive conceptual framework about criminal behaviours intent from the perspective of socialization. This shows that any form of moral disengagement or criminal intent behavior is not only learned through direct socialization and communication as stated by Sutherland (1939) seminal theory of differential association but also through observation and modeling. Burgess and Akers (1966) as reviewed by APA (2010) cut

down Sutherland's (1939) nine propositions to seven propositions and reformulated Sutherland differential association theory of criminal behavior. They reformulated theory stated that the probability that a person will engage in criminal and deviant behavior or criminal intent is increased and the probability of them conforming to the norm is decreased when they differentially associate with others who have criminal intention or criminal behavior. Aker (1973) as reviewed by APA (2010) stated that this theory is best applied to behavior within groups from which they receive reinforcement (operant conditioning) such as gangs, peer groups or social groups. Caffrey (2013) reasoned that social learning advanced the operant conditioning by stating that the frequency of a behavior can be increased with the use of reinforcement or decreased with the use of punishment.

Observational Learning Model

This model was postulated by Bandura (1977). This model states that humans learn social behaviour (e.g., moral disengaged, decision making, social support, and criminal intent or criminal behaviours) by observing others and imitating them. This observation of others (models) can be achieved through paying attention to the model and retention of the observed behaviours through symbolic coding, cognitive organization and symbolic rehearsal and motor rehearsal. This is followed by motor reproduction and accuracy feedback, while the last process is motivation which includes external, vicarious and self-reinforcement. Nabavi (2012) stated in support of observational learning model, that the model is based on the idea that we learn from our interactions with others in a social context. Nabavi (2012) stated equally that after observing the behavior of others, people assimilate and imitate that behavior.

Muro and Jeffrey (2008) in support of the model were of the view that Bandura, (1977) social learning theory has often been called a bridge between behaviourist and cognitive learning

theories. Based on the view of Muro and Jeffrey (2008); Nabavi (2012) reasoned that Bandura believes that direct reinforcement could not account for all types of learning and he added a social element arguing that people can learn new information and behviours by watching other people. Based on the reviewed literature, Nabavi (2012) stated that there are three concepts in social learning theory. First, people can learn social behavior through observation which is known today as observational learning. Bandura (1961) Bobo doll experiment shifted the focus in academic psychology from pure behaviorism to cognitive. Newman and Newman (2007) were of the opinion that bobo doll experiment was one of the most celebrated experiments on social learning model. Second, that mental state is an important factor for learning which is equally known as intrinsic reinforcement. Muro and Jeffrey (2008) in support of SLT concept states that this kind of learning emphasizes also on internal thoughts and cognition and it can help connect learning theory to cognitive development. Based on this, Bandura (1986) in his critique of this process believed that external environmental reinforcement is not the only factor to influence learning and behavior. Finally, the four basic modelling processes according to Bandura (1977) are: attention, retention, reproduction and motivation.

Attention is the process by which individual devoted much time to pay attention to the model (e.g., moral-disengaged individual/criminal behaviour intent) and observe their behavior for a long time which leads to retention of the observed behaviors. Retention means that the observed behavior is stored in the brain (cognitive processes) in order to be remembered. (e.g., moral-disengaged individual/criminal behavior intent). One way of increasing this is using technique of rehearsal. Reproduction is the ability to replicate the observed (moral-disengaged/criminal intent) behaviors that the model has just demonstrated. This means that the observer has to be able to replicate the action, which could be a problem with a learner who is not ready

developmentally to replicate the action. Motivation is the process through which an observed behavior is being motivated to be practiced always to make sure it is not forgotten or lost. Based on the discussion above, as reviewed by Nabavi (2013) which stated by the mid-1980's that Bandura's research had taken a more holistic bent and his analysis moved towards giving a more comprehensive overview of human cognition in the context of social learning which is known today as social cognitive theory.

Social Cognitive Learning Theory

This theory was propounded by Bandura (1986). This theory states that human behaviour is caused by personal, behavioural and environmental influences. Social learning theory stated that when people observe a model performing a behaviour and the consequences of that behaviour, they remember the sequence of events and use this information to guide subsequent behaviours. Observing a model can also prompt the viewer to engage in behaviour they already learned. Bandura (1986) changed social learning theory to social cognitive learning theory (SCLT) to emphasize the major role cognition plays in encoding and performing behaviours. Bandura argued that human behaviour is caused by personal, behavioural and environmental influences. Bandura (2001) applied social cognitive theory to mass communication and stated that the theory could be used to analyze how symbolic communication influences human thought, affect and action. This theory shows how new behaviour diffuses through society by psychosocial factors governing acquisition and adoption of the behaviour. The core concept of this theory is explained by Bandura (1986) through a schematization of triadic reciprocal causation. The schema shows how the reproduction of an observed behaviour is influenced by the interaction of the following three determinants: (1) Personal- whether the individual has high or low self efficacy towards the behaviour. (2) Behavioural- the response an individual received after they perform a behavior.

(3) Environmental- aspects of the environment or setting that influence the individual's ability to successfully complete a behaviour.

In view to the social cognitive learning theory (SCLT), Nabavi (2012) stated that based on social learning theory (SLT) that SCLT is a learning theory which has come out on the ideas that people learn by watching what others do, and that human thought processes are central to understanding personality. So, decision making styles are not left out here as personality factor that can be learned through cognitive social learning theory. She stated equally that by the mid 1980s, Bandura analysis aimed at giving a more comprehensive over view of human cognition in the context of social learning. Green and Peil (2009) also were of the view that SCLT provides a framework for understanding, predicting and changing human behaviour.

Moreover, Nebavi (2012) reviewed that SCLT places a heavy focus on cognitive concepts. This theory focused on how children and adults operate cognitively on their social experiences and how these cognitions then influence behavior and development. Mccormic and Martinko (2004) in review of this theory introduced some basic assumptions of SCLT by stating that people can learn by observing others; learning is an internal process that may or may not result in a behavior change and that learning can occur without a change in behaviour, which means observation with imitation. Nabavi (2012) stated through her review that researchers in SCLT according to their studies presented the following five cognitive features that can influence behavior in SCLT. The five features are; (1) expectations of future consequences and responses based on current situation; (2) vicarious experiences of others consequences; (3) expectations about future consequences affect how we cognitively process new information; (4) expectations affect decisions about how to behave and (5) effects of nonoccurrence of expected consequences.

Furthermore, SCLT according to Green and Peil (2009) attempts to explain socialization broadly, including processes whereby individuals acquire their society's norms of thought and action; by which Bandura attempts to explain four types of learning effects: (1) observational learning effects by which new behavior is acquire from a model. (2) Response facilitation effect by which increased frequency of learned behavior after a model is reinforced according to literature. (3) Response inhibition effect by decreased frequency of learned behavior after observing punished model. (4) Response disinhibition effect in which return of inhibited response after observing a model behave has adverse consequences

Finally, people can influence what they will become by selecting the type of environment to live in. This statement is supported by Bandura (1997) which stated that our choices are influenced by our beliefs as well as our capabilities. Bandura proposes a triadic reciprocality which involves personal, behaviour and environment. Based on this Betz (2007) and Green and Peil (2009) supported Bandura's view of triadic reciprocality and defined human behavior as triadic, dynamic and reciprocality interaction of personal, behavioural and environmental factors. This is called internal principle of SCLT.

Even though the SCLT involves observations and imitation of models through cognitive processes, it is obvious that not all observed behavior is being imitated through cognitive processes. The theory failed to acknowledge the fact that the observers' interest is likely to influence learning easily.

Rational Choice Theory (RCT)

Rational Choice Theory (RCT) was postulated by Becker (1968). RCT states that intention of an individual to commit some act (criminal act) are based on the fact that the reward gained from

the act will be greater than the risk associated with it. This intent to commit crime comprises the individuals' decision to commit the actual criminal behavior or even support the intent to commit crime. Becker's (1968) is supported by Mehlkop and Graeff (2010) which reasoned that criminality is the consequences of rational actors' decision that maximize their benefit.

RCT was developed first in the late 18th century, since then it has been expanded on in many ways. Again, in relation to RCT, MCcarthy and Chaudbary (2014) defined rational choice as a set of ideas about the relationship between people's preferences and the choices they make.

Furthermore, Cornish & Clarke (1986); Kubrin, Stuckey and Krohn (2009) were of the view that RCT presumes that criminal behavior is not determined by biological, psychological or environmental factors acting on the individual, compelling him/her to have intent to commit crimes or engage in any form of moral disengaged behavior or even support the behaviour. RCT according to the view of Cornish and Clark (1986) and Kubrin et al (2009) insist that people have intent to commit or support a crime after weighing the cost and benefit of not committing a crime but ultimately determine that the reward of the crimes are greater than the benefit of not committing the crime

Cornish and Clarke (1986) as reviewed by Steele (2016) is in support of RCT by stating that a decision to offend takes place, and that such a decision is taken by a reasoning and (at least minimally) rational individual, weighing up the costs and benefits of the action. She stated also in her review that individuals as makers of fully reasoned decisions have been criticized for lack of realism. This is because; one of the RCT weaknesses is that real life is not simple, clear and straight forward. Steele (2016) reviewed equally that Cornish and Clark (1986) refers to RCT as "bounded rationality" which describes individuals as acting within the limits of their ability, the

information available and the time pressure. Moreover, based on RCT, McCarthy (2002) stated that RCT and deterrence theory gives human beings what is called criminology field agency. This means that people with agency act as agents on their own behalf while the other side of the agency might be thought of as determinism – people behave in a particular way not because they want to or choose to do so but because some cause has acted on them to compel them to behave in a certain manner.

Moreover, Akhilesh (2019) also reasoned on RCT that individuals rely on rational calculations to achieve outcomes that are in line with their personal objectives. These decisions provide people with the greatest benefit or satisfaction. Akhilesh (2019) assumes that all people try to actively maximize their advantage in any situation and therefore consistently minimizes their lose. Akhilesh (2019) in other words stated that since rational calculus dictates human behaviour, rationality will be the driving force when making a choice whose outcome will be maximizing the individual's pleasure or profit .Therefore, the strength of RCT maintains that people are rational beings who evaluate the consequences of their decisions and moved forward based on the expected outcomes. So, when confronted with decisions, whether criminal or other decisions, we consider the costs and benefits associated with each of them.

Theory of Planned Behaviour

Theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991) is an extension of the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). According to the theory of planned behavior the behavioural intention is defined as the persons thought of self-readiness to perform the behavior, and it is the best predictor of the actual behaviour. Based on TPB the intention to perform the behavior is determined by three factors; attitudes towards the behavior (beliefs about the behaviour), subjective norms (beliefs about others attitude towards a

behaviour) and perceived behavioural control (PBC). PBC can be linked to what Bandura (1997) termed as self-efficacy and is defined as the perceived ease/difficulty of successfully performing behaviour, which can be influenced by past experience, modeling, expected support and potential obstacles (Alzghoul & Abudullah, 2015). So, the key contribution of TPB is the concept of perceived behavioural control.

The persistent of an individual to engage in a particular behaviour and how much control he/she has over the intention, attitude, subjective norm and perceived control are important in whether the person engages in a particular behaviour. Therefore, behavioural intention is produced from a combination of attitude towards the behavior, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control.

Attitude

The attitude towards an intention to commit crime is a unique and strong factor that affects the youth's intention to engage in criminal behaviours. Attitude has more impact on the person's intention than the subjective norm and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 2008). Moreover, according to Alzghoul and Abudullah (2015) attitudes interprets more than fifty percent of variances in the person's intention to perform the behaviour (crime intention)

Subjective Norm

This refers to what is considered as an acceptable or permissible behaviour in a group or society. It captured the total social pressure that the environment exerts on an individual to perform (or not to perform) a given behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). This subjective norm encompasses two subcomponents, namely injunctive norm and descriptive norm. Injunctive norm refers to perceptions concerning what should be done while descriptive norm describes perceptions of significant others such as family members, peers, and friends etc are actually performing. Youths

most of the times are influenced by subjective norms to engage in intentions to commit a particular crime in society.

Perceived Behavioural Control

Perceived behavioural control (PBC) is the last factor of behavioural intention. PBC is defined as the extent to which people believe that they are capable of performing a given behavior, that they have control over its performance (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). This construct is conceptually similar to Bandura (1997) perceived self-efficacy, defined as people's belief about their capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning and event that affects their lives. PBC includes capacity and autonomy. Capacity is an individual perception of having adequate external or internal sources to perform crime intentions behaviour while autonomy is an individual perception that possible obstacles may be encountered in exhibiting crime intentions can be overcome. According to Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) PBC is dependent from the fact that skills, sources or obstacles are internal (for e.g., wiliness to exhibit crime intentions) or external (for e.g., influence of significant others e.g., peers and friends). Finally, it should be noted that according to TPB, PBC can also provide a small significant contribution in predicting behaviour together on the intentions when an individual's perception of control actually reflect his or her skills or resources. Likewise self-efficacy has found to be positively related with actual behavior (Girardelli & Patel, 2016). So, the most important predictive factor of behavior from intention is the principle of compatibility. In support of the above statement, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) stated that an intention is compatible with a behavior if both are measured at the same level of generality or specificity. In the same manner, to improve the prediction of crime intentions, attitudes, perceived norms and PBC must be measured with the same level generality used in defining crime behavioural intentions.

Theoretical Framework

The social cognitive learning theory and theory of planned behaviour were considered as the most appropriate theoretical model to be adopted for the present study (see figure 1 below). This is because these two theories unified all the variables (perceived social support, moral disengagement, decision making styles with intention to commit crime) and tried to explain how each variable is linked to another using the diagrammatic model (see figure 1 below).
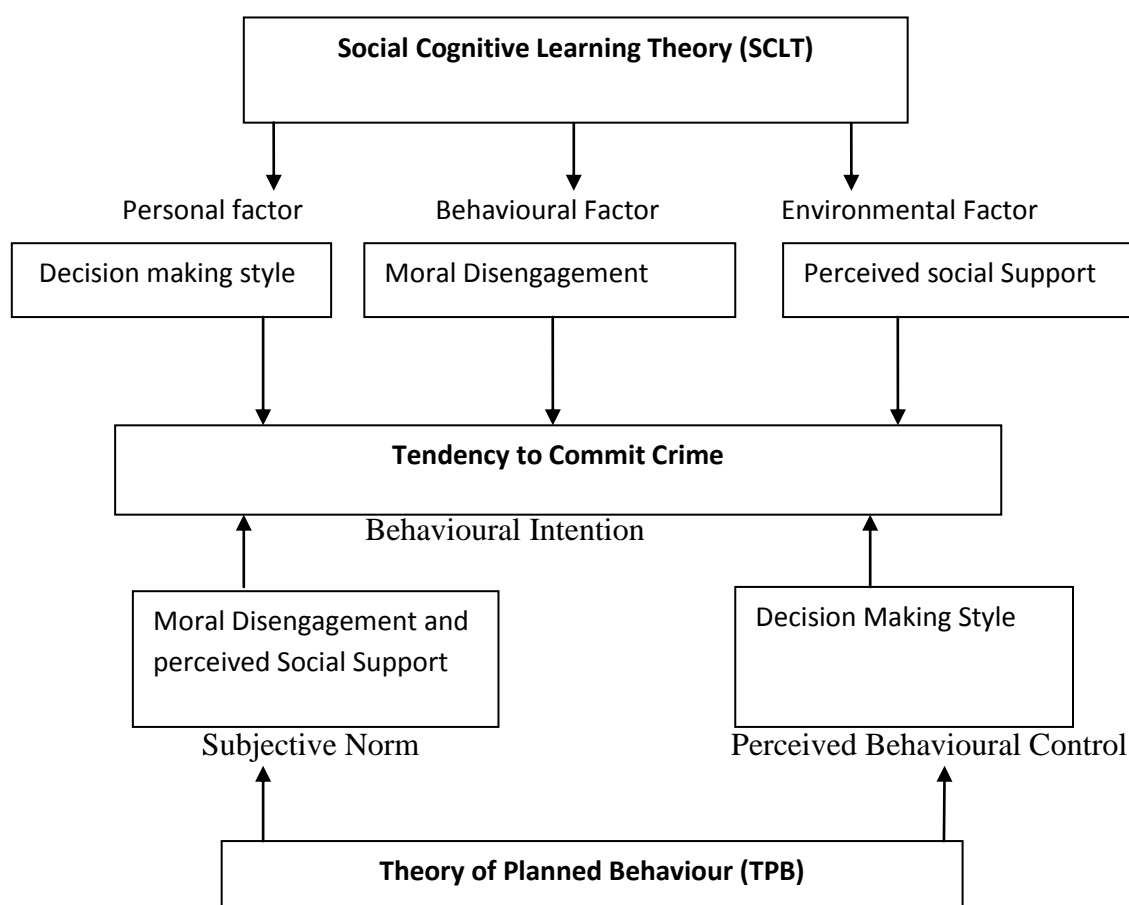
Figure 1 (Adapted from Ajzen 1991 & Bandura, 1986) a conceptual diagram for the assumed relationship between Perceived-Social-Support, Moral-Disengagement, Decision-Making-Style with intention to commit crime.

Figure 1 above was derived from the three basic assumptions of SCLT and two out of three basic assumptions of TPB. SCLT which hypothesized that Perceived Social Support could be seen as a subset of environmental factor that have direct link with behavioural intention. Moral-Disengagement could be seen as a subset of behavioural factor that have direct link with behavioural intention. In the same manner, Decision-Making- Style (vigilance, self-confidence, panic, evasiveness and complacency) could be seen as a subset of personal factor that is equally expected to have direct link with behavioural intention (intention to commit crime) through learning. Likewise, with regards to TPB, Perceived-Social-Support (family, friends and significant others) and Moral-Disengagement could be seen as subsets of subjective norms that have direct link with intention to commit crime. Finally, Decision-making-style (vigilance, self-confidence, panic, evasiveness and complacency) could be seen as a subset of perceived behavioural control which could be linked with intention to commit crime.

Empirical Review

Tendency to commit crime

In relation to Theory of planned behaviour (TPB), Girardelli and Patel (2016) empirical study on TPB-based model was tested by administering a questionnaire to 133 Chinese University students enrolled in a Sino-American University located in South-East China. Data were collected and analyzed using partial least squares (PLS) path modeling method (Hair, Hult. Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014). The result revealed some initial support to our proposed model. The model accounted 39% of explained variance in intention to participate in class. The stronger predictors for student's participation were attitudes perception and self-efficacy.

In disproof of RCT, Steele (2016) examined the results of a study which set out to ascertain applicability of rational choice theories of offending to offenders' actual experiences. Interview technique with mixed offending background was used in collecting data for the study. Forty-six (46) participants each of whom had been convicted of at least one offence, ranged from shoplifting to murder were used for the study. The results revealed that rationality can be seen to vary both within and between individuals and within and between offence types i.e., offenders in the acquisitive category appeared to make decisions about their offending whereas, the individuals in the violent/emotional category did not make such explicit decision statements.

Keller and Miller (2015) conducted a research using the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) to predict crime reporting intent. Nine hundred and eighty five (985) participants participated in the study. This experiment was explored using a mock crime scenario and survey questions. The research explored whether theory of planned behaviour (TPB) model factors (i.e., victims' attitudes perceived social norms and perceived behavioural control) and traditional model (i.e., perceived severity, victim characteristics) predict crime reporting. Data collected were analyzed using a two step linear regression. The result revealed that TPB factors and traditional model factors predicted crime reporting intentions. Again, the regression analysis tested the relationship between the enhanced TPB model and intent to report crime. The relationship result showed that enhanced TPB model only marginally improves the basic model. Therefore, with step 1 analysis, social norms accoutered for the majority of the model fit and was positively and significantly related to intent to report crime while perceived behavioural control (PBC) was negatively and significantly related to intent to commit crime and others were not significant.

In disproof of social learning theory, Caffrey (2013) using a secondary data collected via a survey by Wright and Rossi (1983) conducted with a sample of one thousand eight hundred and

seventy four (1,874) incarcerated male felons in America prisons. Utilizing social learning theory, the researcher argue that adult male felons who used guns in the commission of crimes will have had greater levels of exposure to violence and exposure to guns in their childhood home. Binary logistic regression results show that exposure to violence, as defined in the study did not predict adult criminal gun usage, but that exposure to guns and the control variable of race do predict adult criminal gun usage. Therefore, this finding is not in support of social learning and social cognitive learning theories i.e., learning through socialization and cognitive processes.

Moreover, Spano, Pridemore and Bolland (2012) conducted a research on the role of exposure to violence and violent behaviour on initiation of gun carrying. Data for the study were gathered from a longitudinal data from one thousand and forty nine (1,049) African American youths living in extreme poverty. The longitudinal data were analyzed using multivariate logistic regression. The result revealed that violent behaviour (time1) increased the likelihood of initiation of gun carrying (time 2) by 76% after controlling for the exposure to violence at time 1, which is consistent with the stepping stone model of youth gun carrying. Again, the second result revealed also that youth who were both exposed to violent at time 1 and engaged in violent behaviour at time 1 were more than 2.5 times more likely to initiate gun carrying at time 2 compared to youth who had neither of these characteristics, which supports the cumulative risks model of youth gun carrying

Rutten, Schuengel, Dirks, Stams and Biesta (2011) examined antisocial and pro-social behaviour in adolescent sports. Four hundred and thirty nine (439) adolescent athletes between 14-17 years of age who were recruited from Sixty seven (67) teams of thirty three (33) sports participated in the study. The athletes completed questionnaires assessing the outcome variables; antisocial and

prosocial behaviour and the explanatory variables; moral atmosphere of the sporting environment, moral reasoning about sports dilemma, fair play attitude, and coach athlete relationship quality in terms of both relational support and attachment related support from the coach in the sense of psychological availability and reliance on the coach. Instruments assessing the control variables: externalizing and prosocial behaviour in general and social desirability were completed by the participants. The collected data were analyzed. Multilevel analysis showed that team members explained 20% and 13% of the variance in antisocial and prosocial behaviour in the sports context respectively. The team effects suggest that aggregating antisocial or prosocial adolescents within teams may partially explain differences in antisocial and prosocial behaviours among athletes in the sport context. Again, a trend was found towards a relation between higher levels of moral reasoning within teams and less antisocial behaviour in the sports context. Favourable moral atmosphere was positively associated with more prosocial behaviour in sports context. Finally, supportive coach athlete relationships were associated with both less antisocial and more prosocial behaviour in the sport context.

Armitage and Conner (2010) conducted a qualitative research on efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour. The meta-analytic review data from a data base of one hundred and eighty five independent studies published in 1997; were gathered and analyzed for the study. The result revealed that theory of planned behaviour (TPB) accounted for 27% and 39% of the variance in behaviour and intention, respectively. Again, the perceived behavioural control (PBC) construct accounted for significant amount of variance in intention and behaviour; independent of theory of reasoned action variables. Moreover, the findings revealed also that when behaviour measures were self reports, the TPB accounted for 11% more of the variance in behaviour than when behaviour measures were objective or observed. The result also showed that attitude, subjective

norms and perceived behavioural control accounted more significant variance in individual's desires than intentions or self predictions while intentions and self predictions were better predictors of behaviour. Finally the result showed that subjective norm is generally found to be a weaker predictor of intentions.

Foshee, Bauman, and Linder (1999) conducted research on family violence and perpetration of adolescent dating violence. One thousand, nine hundred and sixty five (1,965) eighth and ninth students participated in the study. They researchers also asked questions about dating violence and the students' beliefs about dating violence. Interested in the role of socialization, the used social learning theory to hypothesize that adolescents who had been hit by an adult or had seen one adult hit another would be more likely to perpetrate dating violence and seeing dating violence as more acceptable than adolescents who had not been victims or witnesses of violence. Data for the study were gathered from self administered questionnaire completed in schools by the participants. Analyzed result revealed that violence was positively associated with both commission and acceptance of dating violence.

Again, in relation to TPB, Nash, Edwards and Nebauer (1993) conducted research on effects of attitudes, subjective norms and perceived control on Nurses' intention to assess patients' pain. One hundred (100) Nurses from five public and private hospitals located in Australia participated in the study. Attitude intention questionnaire based on theory of planned behaviour was used to collect data for the study. Data collected were analyzed and the result revealed that Nurses' intention to conduct pain assessment were predicted by attitude subjective norms and perceived control. The result also showed that perceived control was the only variable that made an independent contribution to intention. Moreover, analysis of intender' and non intenders' to

conduct pain assessment also revealed that perceived control was the only variable that differs significantly between the groups.

Finally, to buttress this, Bandura observational learning and social cognitive learning theories were in line with classical experiment conducted by Bandura (1963). In the experiment, an adult was allowed to knock around a plastic air filled "Bobo doll" – this means the kind of doll that bounces back after it's been knocked down. The adult would hit the doll around with a palm of a hand, strike it with a mallet, kick it and used aggressive things at the doll. The little children were later allowed to play with the doll. The children that watched the adult exhibiting aggressive behaviors to the doll imitated the aggressive behavior of the adult (model) towards the doll. Moreover, the children in a control group that did not observe the aggressive behaviors of the adult did not show aggressive behaviors to the doll when they were allowed to play with the doll. The children that watched the adult exhibiting aggressive behaviors to the doll imitated the aggressive behavior of the adult (model) towards the doll. This Bandura's (1963) experiment revealed that intentions are often learned by the simple process of watching and imitating the behaviors of others through cognitive processes. This is because attention, retention, reproduction and motivation involved mental processes through symbolic coding and motor rehearsal. This is because the above described experiment by Bandura (1963) showed that adolescents learn behaviors of adults, parents and models by observing and imitating them by making use of mental processes.

Tendency to Commit Crime and Social Support

Ellis, and Savage (2019) research on Strain, Social Support and Persistent Criminality Supported social support and Crime. The research examined the role of adolescent strain and social support on the etiology of the persisted offending. Data from National youth survey was used for the

study. Analysis of the data suggested that early adolescent strain was associated with young adult involvement in criminality. The findings also suggested that social supported experience in early adolescence has a marginal negative effect on both violent and nonviolent offending in young adulthood. The data also suggested that individual who reported low levels of social supported and high level of strain committed more violent acts in young adulthood than other subjects.

In another study, Du, Deguisto, Albright and Alrehaili (2018) conducted a study on peer support as a mediator between bullying victimization and depression. This study also supported social support and crime to some extent. Twelve thousand, six hundred and forty two (12,642) students from three hundred and fourteen (314) public, catholic and other private schools who were enrolled in grades 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 or their equivalent in the United States participated in the study. Physical and emotional victimization were measured, peer support was measured by asking individuals to rate their response to three items, which include: my class enjoy being together, my class are kind and helpful; and my class accept me as I am (Jeong & Lee, 2013). Depressive symptoms were measured by using Iannotti and Wang (2013) depression symptomology by having participants' indicate how often in the past 30 days they: (1) Feel low; (2) Were grouchy or irritable; (3) Feel nervous; (4) Feel difficulty in sleep; (5) Felt hopeless about the future. Data for the study were collected and analyzed with the above instruments. Findings of the study revealed that bullied victim was positively associated with depressive symptom, with higher victimization score reporting higher depressive symptoms. The result revealed also that bullied victim was negatively associated with peer support; with higher victimization score reporting lower peer support. Again the result revealed that peer support was negatively related to depressive symptom. Finally, the result revealed also that peer support

partially mediates the relationship between victimization and depressive symptoms among bullied students.

Humm, Kaminer and Hardy (2018), examined perceived support with exposure to violence and with the severity of depression, aggression and conduct disorder symptoms among early adolescents in a low-income, high-violence community in South Africa. A sample of six hundred and fifteen (615) Grade 7 learners completed measures of perceived social support, different types of violence exposure and symptoms of depression, aggression and conduct disorder. Result of the analyzed data revealed that maternal, paternal and overall family support were weakly associated with a reduced risk of domestic violence, but not with other forms of violence exposure, and were also weakly associated with a reduced risk of mental health difficulties. Again, Peer support was associated with higher symptomatology across all mental health outcomes while teacher support was associated with greater severity of depression.

Arriga, Garcia, Amarel and Daniel (2017) conducted research on bullying, cyber bullying and social support among Portuguese adolescents. This study also supported social support and crime to some extent. One hundred and forty five (145) adolescents within 7 to 12 years participated in the study. The study was designed to analyze bullying and cyber bullying in a school context and its links with social support of adolescents. Scale of victimization and school aggression, cyber bulling questionnaire (Portuguese version), social support satisfaction scale and questionnaire on internet use were used in collecting data. Collected data were analyzed and the findings revealed that in the dimension of victimization behaviour, negative significant correlations were found among the dimensions of social support satisfaction. The findings also showed a prevalence of observation behaviour in victimization and school aggression; and dimensions of social support satisfaction.

Alradaydeh and Alorani (2017) examined the relationship between aggressions and perceived social support among university students in Jordan. A sample of Nine hundred and nineteen (919) students from the University of Jordan answered self-reported questionnaires including the Aggression Questionnaire (AQ) and Perceived Social Support Scale (PSSS). The results showed that 51.3% of the university students had high levels of aggression, and they reported moderate perception of perceived social support. The level of aggression among male students was higher than female students, while female students had higher perception of perceived social support compared with male students. The results also showed negative correlation between aggression and perceived social support while perceived social support (family) had significant negative correlations with all domains of aggression.

In another study, Levent and Taçgın (2017) investigated cyberbullying tendency and multidimensional perceived social support status of the teacher candidates in Turkey. Four hundred and twelve (412) teacher candidates participated in this study. Collected data were analyzed and the result revealed that cyber bullying tendency and multidimensional perceived social support status have been differentiated in accordance with daily Internet usage time and sexuality. Moreover, according to the attractive findings of this study, the cyber bullying tendency ratio of females was higher than males and the social support ratio of males was higher than females.

Naughton, O'Donnell and Muldoon (2017) explored whether two separate dimensions; physical and psychological domestic violence and abuse (DVA), were evident in adult children's reports of their exposure to domestic violence and abuse (DVA) in their family of origin, and whether these dimensions affected psychological well-being and perceived satisfaction with emotional support (i.e., social support satisfaction). Four hundred and sixty five (465) young adults within

the age range of 17-25 years, comprising of 30 % male and 70% female reported their experiences of domestic violence and abuse (DVA) as perpetrated by their parents/caregivers, as well as psychological well-being and social support satisfaction, in an online survey. Using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the researchers verified the presence of a two-factor model (physical and psychological DVA). Again, hierarchical linear regression analysis demonstrated the differing impact of these two factors: specifically, although exposure to psychological domestic violence and abuse (DVA) was related to reduce psychological well-being. Furthermore, the result revealed also that there was no significant effect of exposure to physical domestic violence and abuse (DVA). However, mediation analysis suggested the presence of a suppression effect; which revealed negative relationship between exposure to psychological domestic abuse (DA) and social support satisfaction when exposure to physical domestic violence (DV) was accounted for.

Sikand and Reddy (2017), examined the Role of Psychosocial Factors in Criminal Behaviour in Adults in India. Concurrent embedded mixed research design was used in the research. Twenty (20) individuals with a criminal record were selected using purposive sampling and twenty (20) individuals with no criminal record were matched on the basis of age, gender and socio economic status. Eysenck Personality Questionnaire- Revised was administered on them. A semi-structured interview delving into understanding the social factors that contributed to the criminal behaviour was taken from six individuals who have a criminal record. Collected data were analyzed and the results revealed that there was no significant difference in the personality traits of extraversion, neuroticism, psychoticism and lie score between the two groups. However, various social factors like lack of social support, less emphasis on education and awareness,

financial constraints and certain individual traits were found to be prevalent. Furthermore, an interactive effect of personality and environmental factors was also established.

Moreover, Jia and Liu (2016) conducted research on perceived discrimination and antisocial behaviour among Chinese rural to urban migrant adolescents: Mediating effects of social support. This research supported social support and crime to some extent. Eight hundred and ninety seven (897) (459 boys & 438 girls) adolescents from four migrant and four public schools participated in this study. Perceived discrimination questionnaire, antisocial behaviour scale and social support scale were used in collecting data. Collected data were analyzed and the result revealed that Chinese migrant adolescents who perceived more discrimination were more likely to engage in antisocial behaviour. The result also revealed that teachers support partially mediated the relationship between perceived discrimination and antisocial behaviour. Again the result revealed that gender moderates this mediational relationship, such that teacher exerted a mediating role among girls, but not boys. Therefore, the findings suggest that reductions in teacher support may partially account for the effects of perceived discrimination on antisocial behaviour among Chinese migrant adolescent girls.

In another study, Zhang, Ra, Zhang and Macleod (2016), conducted a research on the impact of social support and bullying victimization on psychological distress among California adolescents. This research also supported social support and crime to some extent. Two thousand, seven hundred and ninety nine (2,799) adolescents aged from 12-17 years participated in the study. Data from 2011-2012 California health interviews survey were used. Findings from Zhang, (2016) study revealed that adolescents who were victimized were twice as likely to have serious psychological distress compared to non-victims. Again, higher level of social support

from adults in school was protective against serious psychological distress, but did not buffer the effect of bullying exposure.

Poquiz (2015) examined the role of social support in the associations between neighbourhood violence and internalizing symptoms among Latino Youth. One hundred and forty four (144) Latino adolescents comprising of seventy eight (78) Males and sixty six females with mean age of 16.25 years and Standard deviation of 1.46 from a charter high school in a large Midwestern city participated in the study. Participants completed a survey that included self-report measures on neighbourhood violence exposure, anxiety symptoms, depression symptoms, and social support. Collected data were analyzed and the result revealed that neighbourhood violence exposure was found to have a linear association with both anxiety and depression symptoms. Additionally, neither peer nor family social support moderated the associations between neighbourhood violence exposure and internalizing symptoms.

However, the findings of the research by Boduszek, O'shea, Dhingra and Hyland (2014) supported the claims of criminal social identity. The study examined the number of latent classes of criminal social identity that exist among male recidivistic prisoners. Three hundred and twelve (312) male recidivistic prisoners incarcerated in Nowogard maximum security prison were used for the study. The participants were recruited over a period of three months, March to May (2011) and ethical approval for the study was granted by the Polish Prison Service. The descriptive statistics for age, number of arrests, recidivism, and criminal identity (along with its subscales), including means (M) and standard deviations (SD) revealed that offenders demonstrate relatively moderate levels of criminal social identity across cognitive centrality, in-group ties and in-group affect. Boduszek, et al (2014) found equally that recidivistic prisoners

who reported a low level of parental supervision were significantly more likely to develop ongoing relationship with criminal friends.

Eskisu (2014), study aimed to determine the relationship between bullying attitude, family functions and perceived social support is related to crime and social support.. Six hundred and eighty three (683) high school students participated in the study. The researcher collected data by using students relations attitude scale, family assessment device and perceived social support scale. The data collected were analyzed using Pearson Product Moment coefficient correlation, Anova and Independent Sample t test. Students Relations Attitudes Scale measure self-confidence and avoidance of bully. Eskisu, (2014) result revealed a statistically significant relationship between bullying personality and the subscales of family assessment device and perceived social support. Eskisu, (2014) found also that students who stated that they bully others have high level of bullying personality, family dysfunction and low level of avoidance of bullying, family and teacher support. Moreover, Eskisu, (2014) findings revealed also that students, who stated that they are bullied, have dysfunction (except behaviour control) and low level of family, teacher and peer support.

Nevertheless, to buttress SIT as stated above, Merrilees et al (2013) examined the moderating role of in-group social identity on relation between youth exposure to sectarian antisocial and aggressive behavior in the community. Seven hundred and seventy (770) participants comprising mother-child dyads living in interfaced neighborhoods of Belfast were used in the study. In Merrilees et al (2013) study youths answered questions about aggressive and delinquent behaviours as well as the extent to which they targeted their behaviours toward members of the other group. Collected data were analyzed using structural equation modeling results which revealed that youth exposure to sectarian antisocial behavior is linked to increase in general and

sectarian aggression, and delinquency over one year. Reflecting the positive and negative effects of social-identity, in-group social-identity moderated this link, strengthening the relationship between exposure to sectarian antisocial behaviour in community aggression and delinquency towards the out-group. However, social-identity weakened the effect for exposure to sectarian antisocial behavior in the community on general aggressive behaviours.

Finally, Bruell (2013) examined the relationship of coercion, social support and self-efficacy with violent crime in Northwestern Boston. Longitudinal data from the Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighbourhoods were used to test the direct effects of both coercion and social support on violent crime, as well as the mediating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between coercion and violent crime. The study also tested the potential buffering effects of social support on the relationship between coercion and self-efficacy as well as the relationship between self-efficacy and violent crime. Results from the analyses demonstrate support for the direct effect of coercion on violent crime as well as for the moderating effect of social support on the relationship between self-efficacy and violent crime. The study finds little support for the inclusion of self-efficacy in the relationship between coercion and violent crime; however, post hoc analyses did identify social support to be a robust predictor of self-efficacy.

Tendency to Commit Crime and Moral Disengagement

Research findings by Hsu and Pan (2018) on moral disengagement and student misbehaviour in physical education supported moral disengagement and crime. The study examined how mechanisms of moral disengagement were related to student self report misbehaviour. Two hundred and eighty two (282) high school students enrolled in physical education classes participated in the study. The Chinese version of classroom instrument (Wu *et al,* 2016) which

measured student misbehaviour and moral disengagement in physical education scale (Pan and Hsu 2017) were used in data collection: Chinese version of the physical education classroom instrument consist of five sub scales including aggressive, low engagement, failure to follow directions, poor self management and distracting behaviour while moral disengagement in sport scale measured conduct re-construal, advantageous comparison, non-reasonability, distortion of consequences and attribution of blame. Pan and Hsu (2017) result in the first stage indicated that advantageous comparison and non responsibility positively predicted four misbehaviours (low engagement, failure to follow directions, poor self management and distracting behaviour). Moreover, Pan and Hsu (2017) second stage result on structural equation modeling confirmed that advantageous comparison and non responsibility significantly predicted students' misbehaviours in physical education.

Soares, Barbose and Matos (2018) findings on police officers' perspectives on states (police) violence: a socio-moral and psychological driven study on disengagement, supported moral disengagement and crime to some extent. Six Portuguese police officers with more than 15 years in service participated in the study. Their age ranged from 30-59 years. A semi-structural interview guide titled 'perspectives on police violent' which comprised of seven vignettes: (a) social demonstration (b); police chase (c); use of aggression /torture (d); police search (e); prison (f); individuals barricaded in buildings; and (g) containment of rioting at sports event. Each of these scenarios incorporated multiple micro-scenarios which evaluate some aspects that may influence moral offences inhibition. The interview was conducted in the Portuguese's language. All of the recorded interviews were first transcribed in Portuguese and afterwards they were translated into English language. Content analysis was in analyzing the data and content analysis result revealed that legitimize the resort to police violence, police officers rely heavily on

different mechanisms of moral disengagement for sanitizing language is typically used as a linguistic mechanism to distinguish violent actions; advantageous comparison with other law enforcement agencies or with the recipients conduct are typically employed; non-lethal violence is usually minimized and portrayed as innocuous; and the recipient of violence is usually dehumanized and seen as responsible for the acts of violence. Finally, the data also showed that whereas, on the one hand, the participants proved to be morally disengaged towards police violence, on the other hand they tend to view violent as moral wrong doing.

In another study, Popham and Volpe (2018) explored moral disengagement from the harms associated with digital music piracy: an exploratory, integrative test of digital drift and the criminal interaction order in Canada. To this end they developed an integrated research tool and administered it to a non-random sample of six hundred and twenty five (625) people. Popham and Volpe (2018) test includes measures for technological competency; capacity to mask personal identity online; affinity modeling deviant behaviours encountered online; positive affect for engaging in digital deviance; and moral disengagement. The collected data were analyzed and multiple linear regression of the standardized variables indicated that digital capacity for identity protection, affinity for modelling, and positive affect for digital deviance significantly predicted moral disengagement from the harms associated with digital music piracy

Fida, et al (2018), examined 'First, Do No Harm': The Role of Negative Emotions and Moral Disengagement in Understanding the Relationship between Workplace Aggression and Misbehaviour. The researchers investigated two independent studies in this study. Four hundred and thirty nine (439) participants participated in the first study while four hundred and sixteen (416) participants participated in the second study. The role of negative emotions in particular anger, fear, and sadness; and of moral disengagement (MD) in the paths between workplace

aggression, counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) and health symptoms. The focus on these relationships is rooted in two reasons. First, misbehaviour at work is a pervasive phenomenon worldwide and second, little research has been conducted in the healthcare sector on this type of behaviour despite the potential importance of the issue in this context. Data collected were analyzed and the results from the two studies revealed that workplace aggression (bullying or third-party aggression) associated with health symptoms and misbehaviour. In addition, Fida, et al (2018) result of structural equation modeling revealed the importance of examining specific discrete negative emotions and moral disengagement (MD) for better understanding of misbehaviour at work. Specifically, result of this research showed for the first time that anger, fear, and sadness, generally aggregated into a single dimension, and indeed differently associated with moral disengagement (MD), misbehaviour and health symptoms.

Haddoek and Jimerson (2017) findings on examination of differences in moral disengagement and empathy among bulling participants group also supported moral disengagement and crime to some extent. Haddoek and Jimerson (2017) examined how different roles in school bullying (bullies, victims and defenders) vary in cognitive and affective empathy. Seven hundred and two (702) (6th, 7th and 8th) grades students in the United States participated in the study. Bully participant roles scale, bully-victim questionnaire and participant role questionnaire were used in collecting data anonymously using online survey software in a single administration. Bully participant role scale measure students perceptions of bullying in their school based on students participant role. Bully- victim questionnaire consist of 12 subscales each comprising of bully, victim defender and outsider. Students were asked to indicate how frequently they enjoyed in relevant activities in the past 30 days; responses are given according to a five point scale (1 never-7or more times). An analysis of variance result showed differential patterns between

bullying groups and outcome variables (i.e. cognitive and attentions empathy and moral disengagement) while relationship findings also revealed significant relationship among moral disengagement, empathy, pro-sociality and victimizing behaviour.

In another study, Petruccelli, et al (2017) examined moral disengagement strategies in sex offenders and non-sex offenders. Three hundred and sixty two (362) males comprising a control group of Two hundred and sixty eight (268) non-offenders, a group of forty two (42) detained sex offenders and a group of fifty two (52) detained non-sex offenders participated in this study. Data collected with semi-structured interview and the Moral Disengagement Scale (MDS were analyzed and the results showed a significant difference between the jailed participants (non-sex offenders and sex offenders) and control groups. Moreover, offenders were found to display higher levels of moral disengagement (MD). Again, the result showed also that among the jailed participants, sex offenders seem to make more use of MD mechanisms than non-sex offenders.

Visconti, Ladd and Kochenderfer-Ladd (2015) research on the role of moral disengagement in the association between children's goals and aggression supported also crime and moral disengagement. Three hundred and seventy nine (379) children (189 girls and 190 boys) recruited from rural and suburban cities in the United States participated in the study. The parental consents of the participants' were obtained by the researcher. The study was a longitudinal study; data for the study were gathered when the children entered fourth, fifth and sixth grades. Only nine (9) children were lost due to attrition during the study. Children's social goals in response to hypothetical peer conflict were assessed at each time point by using four different vignette scenarios (Chuny & Asher, 1996). Specifically, children were presented with each hypothetical vignette and then used a five point likert scale from 1(disagree) to 5 (agree a

lot) to indicate the degree to which they would endorse two forms of social goals in that situation: reverse and relationship maintenance. Each subscale was average across the four vignettes. Moral disengagement was assessed using items from Bandura et al (1996) moral disengagement scale. Of 20 items from Bandura's original 32 items that were relevant to children's reasoning about bullying were retained. Items from the original scale were also omitted if they were deemed inappropriate for young children (i.e. items from dehumanization subscale). Children were asked to indicate how readily they agreed with the 20 statements reflecting different forms of moral disengagement relating to aggressive and anti-social behaviour on a scale from 1(disagree a lot) to 5 (agree a lot). Findings from the study revealed that moral disengagement mediates the concurrent association between antisocial goals and higher levels of aggressive behaviour, as well as the concurrent association between pro-social goals and lower levels of aggressive behaviour. Moreover, moral disengagement emerged as a significant mediator of the longitudinal association between pro-social goals and lower rates of aggressive behaviour toward peers across the span of the middle childhood.

Dhingra, Debowska, Sharratt, Hyland and Kola-Palmer (2015) investigated the impact of psychopathy factors and gang membership on moral disengagement while controlling forage, ethnicity, having run away from home, family member and/or friend arrests, substance misuse, parental physical fights, violence exposure (victimization and witnessing), and maternal warmth and hostility. Seven hundred and sixty nine (769) serious juvenile offenders participated in the study. Data collected from the participants were analyzed using multiple regression analysis and result showed that six independent variables made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model: gang membership, age, gender, violence exposure, and psychopathy Factors 1 and 2. Again, the result revealed also that Psychopathy factor 1 was the strongest predictor of moral

disengagement. Therefore, the results indicated that youth with heightened psychopathic traits make greater use of strategies to rationalize and justify their harmful behaviour against others.

Thornberg, Pozzoli, Gianluca and Jungert (2015) examined in a single model how moral disengagement and moral emotions were related to bullying and defending behaviour among school children. Data were collected from five hundred and sixty one (561) Swedish students. Collected data were analyzed and the results revealed that moral disengagement was positively associated with bullying and negatively associated with defending, whereas moral emotions score was negatively associated with bullying and positively associated with defending. Therefore, Thornberg et al (2015) result showed also that students who scored high in moral emotions did not tend to bully other students, irrespective of their levels of moral disengagement, whereas when the moral emotions score was low bullying behaviour increased with increasing levels of moral disengagement. In contrast, Thornberg et al (2015) result showed also that moral disengagement was negatively related to defending behaviour at low levels of moral emotions, but not when moral emotions were high.

Findings of the study on denying humanness to victims: how gang members justify violent behaviour by Allegne, Emma, Isabel, Fernandes and Pritchard (2014) supported the claims of this study that examined moral disengagement and youth gang in UK. A total of one hundred and eighty-four (184) males were recruited from youth centres and one secondary school in London, UK. All participants filled out the Eurogang youth survey (Weerman, et al., 2009) and the mechanisms of moral disengagement scale, Bandura et al (1996). Youth were considered members if they met all four criteria of Eurogang definition. (a)Youthfulness: That is, all members of the group were under the age of 25; (b) durability - the group had been together for

more than three months; (c) street orientation - responding "yes" to item "does this group spend a lot of time together in public places like the park, the street, shopping areas, or the neighborhood? (d) group criminality as an integral part of the group identity – responding "yes" to the items "is doing illegal things accepted by or okay for your group'' and "do people in your group actually do illegal things together?" Violent crime was assessed based on participants' answers to the following questions: "hit someone with the idea of hurting them," "attacked someone with a weapon" and used a weapon or force to get money or things from people. Results indicated that a total of six out of the eight strategies for moral disengagement varied significantly as a function of gang membership. Allegne, et al (2014) analysis showed that gang members were significantly more likely than non-gang youths to employ moral justification, euphemistic language, advantageous comparison, displacement of responsibility, attribution of blame and dehumanization.

In disproof of moral disengagement, Allegne, et al (2014) finding also showed no significant differences between diffusion of responsibility, distortion of consequences and youth gang. Again, Allegne, et al (2014) mediation analysis on moral disengagement and violent crime result showed that dehumanization was the only technique to have a significant mediation influence on violence crime. This Allegne, et al (2014) findings showed that dehumanization is the only moral disengagement that had a significant partial link to gang members committing violent crime, which means that other moral disengagement techniques did not display a mediating role when engaging in violent crime.

DeLisi, et al (2013) findings are related to moral disengagement and crime. DeLisi, et al (2013) examined dynamics of psychopathy and moral disengagement in the etiology of crime in Iowa USA. The data were derived from a no probability sample of adolescent youths in two (one male

only and one female only) long-term residential placement facilities for juvenile offenders in Western Penn-Sylvania. 152 male and female participated in the study. Multidimensional Residential Youth Inventory (MRYI) Mechanisms of Moral Disengagement scale, Youth Psychopathic traits Inventory (YPI) and The Family Stress Index (FSI), derived from the Childhood Trauma Questionnaire were used in data collection. DeLisi, et al (2013) analyzed data revealed that psychopathic personality features, moral disengagement, and family stress intermixed in diverse ways depending on the severity of psychopathic personality and gender. DeLisi, et al (2013) result revealed also that higher levels of psychopathy, and effect of psychopathy on criminal onset was unmediated. However, DeLisi, et al (2013) found also that moral disengagement had mediating effects on criminal onset at lower levels of psychopathy.

Ponari and Wood (2009) investigated the relationship between cognitive mechanisms, applied by people to rationalize and justify harmful acts, and engagement in traditional peer and cyber aggression among school children. Ponari and Wood (2009) examined also the contribution of moral disengagement, hostile attribution bias, and outcome expectances, and they further explored the individual contribution of each moral disengagement mechanism. Three hundred and thirty nine (3,039) secondary school children participated in the study. The participants completed self report measures that assessed moral disengagement, hostile attribution bias, outcome experiences and their roles and involvement in traditional and cyber aggression. Data collected from the measures were analyzed, and the result revealed that moral disengagement positively related to both forms of peer directed aggression. Again, Ponari and Wood (2009) found also that traditional peer aggression positively related to children's moral justification, euphemistic language, displacement of responsibility and outcome expectances, and negatively associated with hostile attribution bias. Moreover, the results revealed also that moral

justification related positively to cyber aggression and victimization. Furthermore, the result showed that cyber aggression and cyber victimization were associated with high levels of traditional peer aggression and victimization, respectively. Finally, the result suggest that moral disengagement is a common features of both traditional and cyber peer aggression, but it seems that traditional forms of aggression demand a higher level of rationalization or justification

Tendency to Commit Crime and Decision Making

Yao et al (2019) conducted an experiment on psychopathy and decision making: antisocial factor associated with risky decision making offenders. This study aimed to examine the relationship between decision making and different psychopathy factors in an offender sample. Sixty five (65) male adult offenders from domestic prison participated in the study. The instruments used in the study were Iowa gambling task (IGT) to measure decision making under ambiguity, game of dice task (GDT) to measure decision making under risk, Levenson self-report psychopathy scale to measure egocentricity, callousness and antisocial behaviours, Raven's advanced progressive matrices to measure general intelligence. The whole experiment was conducted in two quiet and appropriate temperature rooms and was divided into two parts. First, participants were requested to complete the IGT and GDT task in other room after first part. Half of the participants completed the IGT first and then completed the GDT, while the others did in opposite order. There was a break of 15 minutes for rest between the self-report questionnaire and decision making task. The analysis of the data revealed that only antisocial factor of psychopathy significantly correlated game of dice task risky selection, but there was no general relationship between psychopathy and IGT task performance. The finding revealed also that general intelligence neither related to decision making and psychopathy. Finally, the result showed that antisocial factor of psychopathy was associated with decision making under risk rather than

ambiguity. Therefore, these findings suggest that the antisocial factor of psychopathy was more related to executive dysfunction in offenders.

In another study, Maeder, McManus, Yamamoto and McLaughlin (2018) investigated whether jurors would be biased in favour of guilt when a defendant's gender was congruent with stereotypes associated with certain crimes (i.e. a gender–crime congruency effect) and the role of juror gender in informing such an effect. Two hundred (200) participants participated in the study. The participants read a six-page fabricated grand theft of a motor vehicle or shoplifting trial transcript, in which they manipulated defendant gender. Results revealed that a woman charged with shoplifting and a man charged with auto theft would not predict harsher decisions among same-gender mock jurors. However, there was a significant juror gender by crime-type interaction effect on defendant impressions. For jurors who were women, shoplifting was associated with more positive defendant impressions, with no such effect for men.

Dando and Ormerod (2017) analyzed decision logs to understand decision-making in serious crime investigations. Sixty decision logs from the repositories of two UK police forces were randomly selected for the study. The selected logs were analyzed using qualitative and quantitative method to explore hypothesis generation and evidence selection by police detectives. Dando and Ormerod (2017) analyzed data revealed diversity in documentation of decisions that did not correlate with case type, and identified significant limitations of the decision log approach to supporting investigative decision-making. Therefore, differences emerged between experienced and less experienced officers' decision log records in exploration of alternative hypotheses, generation of hypotheses, and sources of evidential enquiry opened over phase of investigation.

Gambetti, Nori, Marinello, Zucchelli and Giusberti (2017) examined decisions about a crime: downward and upward counterfactuals. Ninety-three participants were asked to generate downward or upward counterfactuals regarding a given criminal event and, then, to give judgments about defendant's predictability, responsibility, intentionality and punishment. Gambetti et al (2017) results showed that downward counterfactuals had led people to judge the event less intentional, the defendant less responsible and, therefore, to give him a less severe punishment (vice versa for upward). The findings revealed also that relationship between counterfactuals and intentionality judgments were partially mediated by the perceived defendant's predictability of the negative outcomes. Finally, downward counterfactuals were linked to a greater focus on the context (external factors), whereas upward counterfactuals on the defendant/victim's behaviours (internal factors).

Pedneault, Beauregard, Harris and Knight (2017) examined myopic decision making: An examination of crime decisions and their outcomes in sexual crimes. The study examined Two thousand, two hundred and ninety six (2,296) crimes of a sexual nature committed by a sample of eight hundred and ninety eight (898) offenders evaluated at the Massachusetts Treatment Center. Pedneault, (2017) using Generalized Estimating Equations, 23 predictor variables measuring sexually coercive decisions made in each crime about four aspects (*who?*, *when?*, *where?*, and *how?*) were used to predict ten desired (positive) and seven undesired (negative) crime outcomes for offenders. Pedneault, (2017) results indicated that decisions made by offenders in the context of their sexual crimes were mostly oriented towards the production of immediate positive outcomes and the prevention of immediate negative outcomes, but demonstrated little consideration for non-immediate negative outcomes.

Beauregard, Leclerc and Lussier (2012) conducted research on decision making in the crime commission process: comparing rapist, child molesters, and victim cross over sex offenders. Sixty nine (69) male adult offenders comprising of 30 rapists, 17 child molesters and 22 victim-cross over sex offenders participated in the study. The researcher also organized offenders' narratives collected during semi structured interview in to three major areas (a) offense planning. This is pre-mediation of the crime, estimation of risk of apprehension by offender, and forensic awareness of the offender; (b) offense strategies. This means the use of vehicle, and level of force used; and (c) aftermath. This is the event leading to the end of crime and victim release site location choice. The researcher used mixed method frame work and followed Clarke and Cornish (1985) decision making model. Analyzed data revealed the important role of situational factors and age of the victim on the decision making process of serial sex offenders. Again, the findings showed that because of particular choice-structuring properties, the decision making varies across different groups of serial sex offenders.

Summary of Reviewed Literature

Based on the reviewed literature, it is observed that different theoretical postulations have been used to explain the concept of crime, perceived social support, moral disengagement and decision-making style. The theories were all reviewed to strengthen the understanding of the variables of this study. Each of the theory tried to better the understanding of how the variables influence human behavior towards the society in general, but not without some limitations and weaknesses. One clear limitation is that most of the reviewed theories explained the variables of the study independently without linking the variables to one another. Except social cognitive learning theory (SCLT) and theory of planned behaviour (TPB); these theories unified all the variables and tried to explain how each is linked to another using the diagrammatic model of

Bandura (1986) triadic reciprocal causation which includes personal, behavourial and environmental factors as determinants of behaviour. Betz, (2007) and Green and Peil, (2009) in support of Bandura's triadic reciprocality define human behaviour as triadic, dynamic and reciprocal interaction of personal, behaviour and the environment factors. Again, Theory of planned behaviour (TPB) is person/persons intention or decision to perform particular behaviour. The behaaviour in question may be tendency to commit a particular crime or more crimes. This intention to commit crime according to TPB is determined by three factors; attitudes towards the behaviour or crime, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. It is as a result of the social cognitive learning theory (SCLT) and theory of planned behaviour (TPB) capacity to unify the variables of the study that prompted their adoption as the main theoretical framework for the present study. This is because intention to commit crime, perceived social support, moral-disengagement and decision making styles involves most of the time observation and mental cognition, likewise TPB involves cognitive processes of attitudes towards a behaviour. So, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control must be functional before a decision (behaviour) could be taken or exhibited.

Moreover, different studies which are quite similar to the present study have been conducted to determine the factors that are related to the aforementioned variables. Although, most of the studies were conducted outside Nigeria and very few were conducted in Nigeria, and to the best knowledge of the researcher most of them were sociological and law based researches which focus more on qualitative and focus group research, none has established in psychological perspective which focused mainly on experimental and quantitative researches; perceived social support, moral–disengagement and decision–making styles as predictors of tendency to commit crime among undergraduates in Anambra State, South-East Region of Nigeria, hence the essence

of this study. It is expected that the present study will contribute to existing literature on the variables of the study as well as on the relationships between the variables of the study and its implications in the Nigeria Universities.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested in this study:

   i.   Perceived-Social-Support (family, friends and significant others) will significantly predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates.

   ii.   Moral–disengagement will significantly predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates.

   iii. Decision making style dimension (Vigilance, self-confidence, panic, evasiveness and complacency) will significantly predict tendency to commit crime among undergraduates.

CHAPTER THREE: METHOD

This chapter describes the methods used in carrying out the study. It includes the participants, instruments, procedure, design and statistics.

Participants

A total of Six hundred and eighty-two (682) undergraduates from Public Universities in Anambra State participated in the study. All the participants were within 17-29 years. The mean age of the participants was 22.41 years with standard deviation of 2.28. Three sampling techniques: purposive, simple random and accidental samplings were used to select the participants at different stages. Purposive was used in the first stage to select Anambra State and Public Universities in Anambra State. Simple random sampling was used in selecting the Faculties and Departments in the study while accidental sampling was used in selecting the participants. The minimum number of participants needed for the study was determined using infinite sample size formula (Mensah, 2013) (see appendix xiii pg 130). In all 262 males (42.7%) and 415 females (57.3%) participated in the study.

Instruments

Four instruments were used in the study. The instruments include:

Crime Behaviour Rating Scale (CBRS)

This thirty-three (33) items scale was used to measure tendency to commit crime. The crime behaviour rating scale (CBRS) was developed and validated by Animasahun (2011). It is designed to measure behaviours and characteristics that can easily predispose an individual to

commit crime. The 33 items were directly scored. The scoring was done on five (5) point scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree" indicating the extent to which the items apply to the participants. Sample items of the (CBRS) include statements such as "my behaviours often go contrary to acceptable norms", "I can find any means to make money to survive". Animasahun (2011) reported internal consistency reliability estimates (Cronbach Alpha) for CBRS (0.94) and the validity was obtained by inter items correlation ranged from 0.56 to 0.88; convergent validity of 0.86 and discriminant validity of 0.02.

Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS)

Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support was developed by (Zemet et al., 1988). This twelve (12) items scale was used to measure perceived social support. MSPSS measures the three sources of the social support; family support, friends support and significant others support. MSPSS was scored on a 6-piont Likert format ranging from 1 "very strongly disagree" to 6 "very strongly agree". Items 3, 4, 8 and 11 measure family supports; items 6, 7, 9 and 12 measures friend support while items 1, 2, 5, and 10 measures significant other support. Sample items on the scale includes, "my family really tries to help me", "I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows", "There is a special person who is around when am in need". Zemet et al. (1988) reported that family, friends and significant others support had strong and moderate construct validity. Zemet et al. (1988) also reported internal and test retest reliability MSPSS. Validity of the scale was also obtained by Onyishi et al. (2010) by reporting that factor loading of the items were relatively high. Reliability of the scale was also obtained by Onyishi et al. (2016) by reporting internal consistencies of the subscales (Cronbach alpha) were: Family, .78, friends, .76 and significant others, .70. Onyishi et al. (2016) reported a predictive validity of $p <$ .01 by using MSPSS to predict life satisfaction of prison workers.

Mechanisms of Moral Disengagement Scale (MMDS)

Mechanisms of Moral Disengagement Scale was developed by Bandura (1996). This thirty-two (32) items scale was used to measure mechanisms of moral disengagement. Mechanisms of moral disengagement scale (MMDS) measures the eight mechanisms of moral disengagement by Bandura (1996). The mechanisms are: moral justification, euphemistic labeling, advantageous comparison, displacement of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility, distorting consequences, attribution of blame and dehumanization. The summation of the eight mechanisms will be equal to moral disengagement. MMDS will be scored on three (3) point scale ranging from 1= "agree", 2='undecided', 3 = "disagree", indicating the extent to which the items apply to the participants. This means that lower score represents higher moral disengagement. Items 1, 9, 17 and 25 measure moral justification, items 2,10,18, and 26 measure euphemistic labeling, items 3, 11, 19, and 27 measure advantageous comparison, items 5, 13, 21, and 29 measure displacement of responsibility, items 4, 12, 20, and 28 measure diffusion of responsibility, items 6, 14, 22 and 30 measure distorting consequences, items 8, 16, 24 and 32 measure attribution of blame and items 7, 15, 23 and 31 measure dehumanization. Sample items of MMDS include statements such as "it is right to fight to protect your friends", "it is not bad thing to 'get high' once in a while.", "stealing some money is not too serious compared to those who steal a lot of money", "if kids are living under bad conditions they cannot be blamed for behaving aggressively", "it is unfair to blame a child who had only a small part in the harm caused by the group", "it is okay to tell small lies because they don't really do any harm.", "if kids fight and misbehave in it, it is their teachers fault" and "someone who is obnoxious does not deserve to be treated like a human being."

The researcher conducted a pilot test with seventy one (71) undergraduates from Enugu State Science and Technology University, Enugu and found a predictive validity of r = .467** when MMDS was correlated with Frick (2004) callous unemotional trait scale while a Cronbach alpha test revealed .800 reliability of MMDS (see appendix ii pg 118).

Adolescent Decision Making Questionnaire (ADMQ)

This thirty (30) items scale was used to measure students' decision making styles. Adolescent decision making questionnaire was developed by Mann et al. (1989). It is designed to assess five subscales of decision making style. Items (1-6) measure self-confidence, items (7-12) measure vigilance, Items (13-16) measure panic, items (17-22) measure evasiveness and items (23-30) measure complacency. The thirty (30) items were reversed scored, so that a higher score represents a high level of the respective subscale. The scoring was done on four (4) point scale ranging from 1 = "always to 5 = never", indicating the extent to which an item apply to a participant. Sample items of adolescent decision making questionnaire (ADMQ), include "I feel confident about my ability to make decision", and "when I have to make a decision, I wait a long time before starting to think about it". Mann et al. (1989) reported a Cronbach Alpha of self-confidence 0.63, vigilance 0.55, panic 0.64, evasiveness 0.65, and complacency 0.90. The present researcher conducted a pilot test with seventy one (71) undergraduates and a Cronbach Alphas reliability of sub scales: self-confidence .62, vigilance .72, panic .76, evasiveness .81, and complacency .75 were obtained (see appendix ii - vi pg 118 - 122). The researcher conducted a pilot test with seventy one (71) undergraduates from Enugu State Science and Technology University, Enugu by conducting inter domain correlation of the five domains of ADMQ and adaptive domains correlated positively likewise maladaptive domains correlated positively. This

shows that internal validity of the five domains (confidence, vigilance, panic, evasiveness and complacency) were obtained by the researcher through pilot test (see appendix vii pg 123).

Procedure

Ethical clearance and approval for the study was duly obtained from Department of Psychology, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka (NAU) and letter of introduction was given for identification of the researcher. Thereafter, sampling procedures were initiated to identify the sample frame, sample size and sample or participants. Mixed sampling procedure which adopted purposive sampling, simple random sampling and accidental sampling were used. Purposive sampling was used in the first stage to select Anambra State from South East states (Ebonyi, Enugu, Imo and Abia) and Public Universities in Anambra State from other Public Universities in South East States. This is because according to National Bureau of Statistics on Crime Index (2017), Anambra state has the highest crime rate in South-East region of Nigeria. Public Universities were selected because Public Universities have more representatives of community (undergraduates from different socio-economic background than private Universities). Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka (NAU) and Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University, Igbariam (COOU) were the selected public Universities for the study. This is because evidence from research and reports have shown increase in undergraduates' involvement in crimes and criminal behaviours (Ndubueze & Sarki, 2018). Therefore, seven Faculties were randomly selected from each of the universities because the Universities are large and the Faculties are located at different locations. One Department was selected randomly from each of the selected Faculties. The selected Faculties and Departments in NAU are Arts (English), Biosciences (Botany), Physical Sciences (Computer Science), Education (Education Foundation), Environmental

Sciences (Architecture), Engineering (Metallurgical and Materials Engineering) and Social Sciences (Political Sciences).The selected Faculties and Departments in COOU are Agriculture (Agric Economics and Extension), Arts (Philosophy), Education (Education and Igbo), Environmental Sciences (Urban and Regional Planning), Law, Management Sciences (Marketing) and Social Sciences (Psychology). The researcher approached the Head of the Department of the selected Departments in the two Universities and introduced himself as a PhD student of Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka with the letter of introduction from Head of Psychology Department Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka. The researcher was given approval to meet the students with the help of the course representatives of each level in the selected Departments in the two Universities. The minimum number of participants were determined through infinite sample size formula (Mensah, 2013, see appendix xiii, pg 130). Furthermore, the copies of questionnaire were administered to each of the selected Department in the Departmental class and only those students who were available and consented to complete the questionnaire participated in the study (accidental sampling). Questionnaires were administered with the help of three research assistants in each of the school. All the participants were encouraged to complete the instruments and submit immediately and it took about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire forms. Only six hundred and eighty two (682) well filled questionnaires were used for the data analysis.

Design and Statistics

Correlational predictive design was employed for the study because the objective of the study is to establish the relationship that exist between perceived social supports, moral disengagement, decision making styles and tendency to commit crime. Hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis was used in testing the predictive effect of the variables in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULT

In this chapter, the results of the statistical analysis of the data obtained in the study are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1: **Summary table of Zero Order Correlation Coefficient matrix of Tendency to Commit Crime, Social Support, Moral Disengagement and Decision Making Styles**

S/N	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	TTC	1								
2	FAS	-.244**	1							
3	FRS	-.12**	.598**	1						
4	SO	-.239**	.714**	.581**	1					
5	MD	-.460**	.236**	.175**	.174**	1				
6	SC	-.076**	.253	.73	.279	.232**	1			
7	VIG	.155**	.180**	.063	.176**	-.017	.518**	1		
8	PAN	.189**	.090*	-.015	-.028	-.200**	-.28**	.135**	1	
9	EVA	-.325**	-.319**	-.190**	-.279**	-.38**	-.393**	-.183**	.304**	1
10	Com	-.368**	-.269**	-.097*	-.216**	-.382**	.307**	.082**	.330**	.643**

** $P < .01$, * $P < .05$

TTC= Tendency to commit crime, FAS=Family Support, FRS = Friends Support, SO = Significant Others Support, MD = Moral Disengagement, SC = Self-Confidence, VIG = Vigilance, PAN = Panic, EVA = Evasiveness, COM = Complacency

Results from Table 1 above showed that a significant negative relationship was found between tendency to commit crime and social support (family support $r = -.243**$, friends support $r = -.123**$ and significant others support $r = -.238**$). This means that an increase in tendency to commit crime will be associated with decrease in social support (family, friends and significant others). Negative significant relationship was also found between tendency to commit crime and moral disengagement at $r = -.460**$. This means that an increase in tendency to commit crime will be associated with a decrease in moral disengagement. Again negative significant relationship was also found between tendency to commit crime and decision making styles

(panic r = -.189**, evasiveness r = - .324**and complacency r = -.368**). This means that an increase in tendency to commit crime will be associated with a decrease in panic, evasiveness and complacency. While a positive significant relationship existed between tendency to commit crime and vigilance, r = .155**. This means that an increase in tendency to commit crime will be associated with an increase in vigilance. Hence, this suggests that decrease in social support (family, friends and significant others), and decision making styles (panic, evasiveness and complacency) are related to a significant increase in tendency to commit crime and increase in vigilance and decrease in moral disengagement are related to increase in tendency to commit crime. While self-confidence r = -.076* associated with tendency to commit crime negatively and significantly. These results provide preliminary support for running hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis which tested hypotheses 1, 2 and 3.

Table 2: **Summary Table of Hierarchical Multiple Linear Regression Analysis of Tendency to Commit Crime, Social Support, Moral Disengagement and Decision Making Styles**

Variables	R^2	$df1_{(df2)}$	F	SE	β	T
Model I	**.07**	3(677)	17.32**	18.60		
FAS					-.18**	-3.17
FRS					.07	1.53
SO					-.16*	-2.82
Model II	**.17**	1(676)	155.42**	16.78		
FAS					-.09	-1.73
FRS					.10*	2.24
SO					-.16*	-3.18
MD					-.43**	-12.47
Model III	**.05**	5(671)	9.40**	16.29		
FA					-.02	-.47
FRS					.06	1.46
SO					-.14*	-2.87
MD					-.37**	-10.13
Com					.19**	-.4.09
EVA					-.02	-.32
PAN					-08*	-2.19
VIG					-.07	1.86
SC					-.10**	2.55

** P< .01, * P< .05

TTC= Tendency to commit crime, FAS=Family Support, FRS = Friends Support, SO = Significant Others Support, MD = Moral Disengagement, SC = Self Confidence, VIG = Vigilance, PAN = Panic, EVA = Evasiveness, COM = Complacency

The results of hierarchical regression three steps model show that model **I** which tested what Perceived social support contributed to the understanding of tendency to commit crime was significant, $R^2 = .07$, $F(3,677)=17.32$, p<.01

Model **II** shows that addition of moral disengagement increased value of R^2 by .07, $F(1,676)$ =155.42, p<.01

Model **III** shows that when decision making style was added in model II the result also shows significant increase of R^2=.05, $F(5,671)$=9.40,P<.01

Although in the first model (see table **II** model **I**) family support and significant others support have significant **B** values of -.18** and -.16**. The overall model of all predicting factors (see table II model III) significant others, **B**= -.14*, Moral disengagement, **B**= -.37**, complacency, **B**=.19**, panic, -.08* and self-confidence, **B**= -.10** predicted tendency to commit crime significantly. Other subscales of perceived social support (family and friends) and decision making style (evasiveness and vigilance) did not significantly predicted tendency to commit crime (see table **II** model **III**).

Summary of findings

1. Among perceived social support sub factors only family and significant others significantly predicted tendency to commit.

2. Moral disengagement significantly predicted tendency to commit crime.

3. Only three subscales of decision making style (complacency, panic and self-confidence) significantly predicted tendency to commit crime.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Discussion

This study tested whether perceived social support, moral disengagement and decision making style are predictors of tendency to commit crime among undergraduates. Three hypotheses were tested and the results of the analysis were discussed as follows:

The first finding from the analysis showed that perceived social support (family support, friends support and significant others support) significantly predicted tendency to commit crime. The finding revealed also that perceived social support (family and significant others) significantly predicted tendency to commit crime negatively. The finding also showed that friends' social support predicted tendency to commit crime positively but not significant. A Possible explanation for this prediction could be that when perceived social support (family and significant others) decreases, tendency to commit crime increases, and when perceived social support (family and significant others) increases, tendency to commit crime decreases. The finding also shows that friends' social support predicts tendency to commit crime positively but not significant. Prior studies consistently found that perceived social support significantly predicted crime related behaviours. Some of such findings are Ellis and Savage (2019), Humm et al. (2018), Du et al. (2018), Alradaydeh and Alorani (2017).

The study by Ellis and Savage (2019) examined social support, strain and persistent criminality. The result suggested that social support experience in early adolescence has a marginal negative effect on both violent and non-violent offences in young adulthood. Humm et al. (2018) examined perceived social support with exposure to violence and with severity of depression, aggression and conduct disorder symptoms among early adolescents in low-income, high

violence community in South Africa. The study found that maternal, paternal and overall family support were weakly associated with a reduced risk of domestic violence exposure. Du et.al. (2018) examined peer support as a mediator between bullying, victimization and depression. They found that bullied victim was negatively associated with peer support; with higher victimization score reporting lower peer support. The result revealed also that peer support partially mediated the relationship between victimization and depressive symptoms among bullied victims. Also Alradaydeh and Alorani (2017) examined the relationship between aggressions and perceived social support, and the result revealed also that negative correlation between aggression and perceived social support existed, while perceived social support (family) had significant correlation with all domains of aggression.

The findings are also consistent with subjective norm component theory of planned behaviour by Ajzen (1985,1991). Subjective norm refers to what is considered as acceptable or permissible behaviour in a group or society. It captured the total social pressure that the environment exerts on an individual to perform or not to perform a given behaviour. This subjective norm encompasses two sub-components: injunctive norm and descriptive norm. Injunctive norm refers to perceptions concerning what should be done while descriptive norm describes perceptions of significant others such as family members, peers and friends are actually performing. This subjective norms most especially descriptive norms means that youths are influenced by family, friends and significant others to engage or not to engage in intentions to commit crime in the society.

The second finding of the present study was also confirmed. Moral-disengagement negatively and significantly predicted tendency to commit crime. This finding means that low moral disengagement determines high tendency to commit crime. This is because according to the

measuring instrument of moral disengagement in this study, a lower score in moral disengagement means increase in moral disengagement. A possible explanation for this prediction could be that when moral disengagement decreases tendency to commit crime increases and vice versa. In other words, moral disengagement contributed 17 % to prediction of tendency to commit crime. Prior studies consistently found that moral disengagement predicts crime related behaviours. Some of such findings are Allegne et al. (2014), Bandura (2002, 1999), Ponari and Wood (2010).

The study by Allegne et al. (2014) examined moral disengagement and youth gang in London, UK. Allegne et al. (2014) analysis showed that gang members were significantly more likely than non-gang youths to employ moral justification, euphemistic language, advantageous comparison, displacement of responsibility, attribution of blame and dehumanization. This means that moral disengagement influence anti-social behaviours and crime intentions in group of people. The result revealed also that mediation analysis on moral disengagement and violent crime result showed that dehumanization was the only technique to have a significant mediation influence on violent crime. Bandura (2002, 1999) examined moral disengagement and anti-social behaviours and found that moral disengagement influence various forms of anti-social conduct both directly and by reducing pro-social behaviour and guilt by promoting aggression. Ponari and Wood (2010) study found that a greater number of peer victimization experiences was associated with lower moral disengagement effect when controlling for own aggressive behaviour. This shows that moral disengagement contributed to tendency to commit crime and other anti-social related behaviours among undergraduates.

The findings are also consistent with perceived behavioural control (PBC) component of theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985, 1991). PBC refers to the extent to which people believe that

they are capable of performing a given behaviour, that they have control over its performance. This concept is related to Bandura (1997) perceived self-efficacy, defined as people's belief about their capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning and events that affect their lives. This PBC encompasses two sub-components: capacity and autonomy. Capacity is an individual perception of having adequate external or internal sources to perform crime intentions or not; while autonomy is an individual perception that possible obstacles encountered in exhibiting crime intention can be overcome. According to Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) PBC is dependent on the fact that skills, sources or obstacles are internal (e.g., wiliness to exhibit crime intentions) or external (e.g., influence of significant others e.g., friends, family and peers). This means also that moral disengagement provides a significant contribution to tendency to commit crime through perceived behavioural control.

The third finding showed that decision making style (complacency, evasiveness, panic, vigilance and self-confidence) significantly predicted tendency to commit crime. Again the finding showed that decision making style contributed 5% in predicting tendency to commit crime. The result showed also that complacency component of decision making style predicted tendency to commit crime positively and significantly. Panic and self-confidence decision making style negatively and significantly predicted tendency to commit crime. A possible explanation of this prediction is that when decision making style (panic and self-confidence) decreases tendency to commit crime increases and vice versa. This means also that when decision making style (complacency) increases tendency to commit crime increases. This shows also that decision making style (complacency, panic and self-confident) have a better relationship to tendency to commit crime while decision making style (evasiveness and vigilance) showed a poor relationship to tendency to commit crime. The implication of this finding is that moral

disengagement predicted tendency to commit crime more than social support and decisions making style. Again, Prior studies consistently found that perceived social support significantly predicted crime related behaviours. Some of such findings are Dando and Ormerod (2017), and Gambetti et al. (2017). The study by Dando and Ormerod (2017) on crime investigation from repositories of two UK police forces showed that differences emerged between experienced and less experienced officers' decision log records in exploration of alternative hypotheses, generation of hypotheses, and sources of evidential enquiry opened over phase of investigation. Gambetti et al. (2017) examined decisions about a crime: downward and upward counterfactuals and found that downward counterfactuals had led people to judge the event less intentional, the defendant less responsible and, give a less severe punishment (vice versa for upward). Gambetti et al. (2017) result revealed also that relationship between counterfactuals and intentionality judgments were partially mediated by the perceived defendants' predictability of the negative outcomes. This means also that personal traits of individuals and environmental factors contribute to individual's decision makings and crime intentions are not exempted in this case.

The findings are also consistent with personal factor component of social cognitive learning theory (SCLT) Bandura (1986). The personal factor of SCLT is related to the components of decision making style (self-confident, vigilance, panic, evasiveness and complacency) which are factors that are determined whether individual has high or low self-efficacy towards tendency to commit crime. So, the level of personal factor could determine the level of tendency to commit crime. In addition, perceived behavioural control of TPB is equally related to the decision making styles. This is because; PBC refers to the extent to which people believe that they are capable of performing a given behaviour, that they have control over its performance Fishbein and Ajzen (2010). This means that the level of PBC determines equally the level of decision

making style which may or may not determine tendency to commit crime among undergraduates and youths in society.

Implications of the Study

The findings of the study implied that a decrease in social support (Family and significant others), and decision making style (panic and self-confidence) brings about an increase in tendency to commit crime and vice versa. The result showed also that decrease in moral disengagement brings about increase in tendency to commit crime and increase in moral disengagement brings about decrease in tendency to commit crime, while increase in decision making styles (complacency) brings about increase in tendency to commit crime. Also friends support predicted tendency to commit crime positively but not significant. This showed that social support (friends and significant others) and moral disengagement are better predictors of tendency to commit crime. The finding revealed also that moral disengagement predicted tendency to commit crime more than social support and decision making styles. The study has both theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretically, despite the fact that a lot of past studies have been explicit on the implications of tendency to commit crime among undergraduates, this study was also added to the body of knowledge on tendency to commit crime or crime behaviours. It is the first study to the best of the researchers knowledge to integrate social support (friends, family and significant others), moral disengagement and decision making style (self-confident, vigilance, panic, evasiveness and complacency) as predictors of tendency to commit crime among undergraduates in public Universities in Anambra State. Hence, the findings of this study added to the emerging body of research on tendency to commit crime by revealing that social support, moral disengagement and

decision making style are related to tendency to commit crime and serve negative and positive predictors that influence tendency to commit crime.

Practically, the findings have implications for policy makers who work with youth's development, welfare and. institutions management. Since social support, moral-disengagement and decision making styles positively and negatively affects tendency to commit crime, policy makers for youth development, higher institutions and other schools managements and teachers shall need to pay attention to their students, advice and give positive supports that will enable them to take positive decisions in life and avoid vices like crimes and intentions to commit crime. Specifically, it is advised that social support(Family, friends and significant others), adaptive decision making style (self-confident and vigilance) should be promoted in schools in positive directions as it will help in reducing the likely tendencies to commit crime while mal adaptive decision making styles (panic, evasiveness and complacency) should be disencouraged in schools. It is also crucial for schools managements to design a flexible administrative structure which allows for an interactive communication style that enables students to express their ideas to management and teachers. Free access should also allow students to express their views to the management any time. The higher institutions authorities are also advised to organize sports competitions and symposium and rewards students that excel handsomely.

Finally, school management is also advised to organize trainings and workshops and inform students on the role variables such as social support, moral disengagement and decision making styles can play in increasing or reducing tendency to commit crime.

Recommendations

From the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- Research efforts should focus in-depth on this issue of tendency to commit crime to find out the various variables that are likely to influence tendency to commit crime.

- School managements should institute bi-annual workshops on tendency to commit crime and the likely consequences that follow any student that involves himself/herself in any criminal related behaviour.

- Researchers in crime behaviour should not fail to make their findings open to the public through media or journals, as this will help to educate the public more on some of their short comings that tend to worsen or deteriorate tendency to commit crime among undergraduates.

- Higher institutions authorities/management should create a hotline where students and staff will report any crime related behaviours either by the students or even staff with a standby rapid response team to handle the situations as at when due.

- School management are also encouraged to conduct socialization programs like games and symposium for students as this will be to enhance crime free society and subsequently encourage hard work and increase examination performances.

- It is also recommended that more research should be conducted in other ethnic groups with regards to social support, decision making style and tendency to commit crime among undergraduates and working class citizens.

- The present research should be replicated, keeping its limitations in view to test accuracy of the findings or the research can be conducted in other settings to compare results gotten from other environments with the present study results.

Limitations of the Study

Some of the limitations encountered in this study, which can influence the outcome of the present study include:

- The sample size of this study might be considered small for a study that involved Public Universities in Anambra State. This may limit the generalization of the result, thus future study should apply a more representative sample of the population.

- The research was restricted to only public Universities in Anambra State, South East region of Nigeria. Results from similar investigation, in Universities in other regions of Nigeria may or may not confirm the present findings.

- The research was a survey research and the participants may not have responded to the questionnaires as expected of them. This may limit the generalization of the result, thus future study should apply experimental or other types of research on a combined approach.

- Finance was a major limitation of the study. Lack of fund restricted the researcher to conduct the research only in one state without including other states in Nigeria. The findings from other State in Nigeria may or may not confirm the present results.

Suggestions for the Further Study

Researchers who are interested in replicating or conducting a similar study in future should consider the limitations of the study and take caution so as to obtain a generalizable result for the study. In view of this, the researcher expresses that this is likely the first study on social support, moral disengagement and decision making styles as predictors of tendency to commit crime among NAU undergraduates. Therefore, it is recommended that more research should be done with a larger number of samples so as to have an in-depth understanding of these constructs.

Studies should be widened beyond the scope of this study, thus this research should be replicated in other areas like industries, public sectors, banks and among adults. Future studies should also consider using qualitative method (interview) and quantitative method (survey) in gathering data for the study. This, the researcher believes will give room for a better information void personality or perception which could affect the findings. It is also advised that researchers should find a way of persuading students to make themselves available in research of this nature as the findings will help inculcating morals to the undergraduates, youths and the society.

Conclusion

The results have implication for policy makers who work with youth's development, welfare and management. This implies that social support, moral disengagement and decision making styles are important factors in predicting tendency to commit crime among undergraduates/youths. Therefore, social support (family and significant others), moral disengagement and decision making styles (self-confidence, Complacency and panic) should be encouraged as factors that are likely to increase or reduce tendency to commit crime among youths.

Finally, results showed the contributions of the study variables (perceived-social-Support, Moral-Disengagement and Decision-Making Style) in predicting Tendency to Commit Crime. This research findings are hoped to encourage researchers to explore other possible predicting variables that will contribute positively or negatively in predicting tendency to commit crime. This is because understanding variables that are related to tendency to commit crime will widen the understanding of criminal behaviour and give an edge to those who are interested in curbing criminality

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APPENDIX I

Dear Participant,

Thank you for participating in this academic research on attitudes. You participation will contribute to not only knowledge accumulation but also practical application. Therefore, any information you give us is only for academic purposes. Please feel free to give us your real gender and age. Your answers are completely anonymous and only investigators directly involved in the project will have access to the data. You will never be personally identified in this research thesis or any presentation or publication.

Thanks you for your anticipated cooperation, I wish you a remarkable success in your studies.

Mabia Chidozie Emmanuel
Psychology Department
Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka.
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Tick the box as applicable to you

(1)   Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐

(2)   Age: _____

(4)   Religion: _____

(5)   Level_____

CBRS

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Agree
1	I Often tell lies to save myself from embarrassment	1	2	3	4	5
2	Life is fun and one must enjoy it at all costs.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I react spontaneously to issues of life	1	2	3	4	5
4	I can't control myself in tempting situations	1	2	3	4	5
5	I must satisfy myself first before thinking about how others feel	1	2	3	4	5
6	People often complain about me but I am not moved	1	2	3	4	5
7	My behavior often go contrary to acceptable norms	1	2	3	4	5
8	A lot of people hate me but I don't care	1	2	3	4	5
9	I enjoy smoking cigarette because it is fun	1	2	3	4	5
10	Indian hemp/marijuana makes the body more active	1	2	3	4	5
11	I have my own kind of drugs that keep me going	1	2	3	4	5
12	Man cannot enjoy life without drinking alcohol	1	2	3	4	5
13	I always want to demonstrate to people that I am strong	1	2	3	4	5
14	Nobody can cheat me and go scot-free	1	2	3	4	5
15	I fear no body	1	2	3	4	5
16	I take revenge on anybody that offends me	1	2	3	4	5
17	I find it difficult to control myself when I am provoked	1	2	3	4	5
18	I fight with anything at my disposal when provoked	1	2	3	4	5
19	I can handle gun/pistol very well	1	2	3	4	5
20	I can find any means to make money to survive	1	2	3	4	5
21	I have sometimes been arrested for a crime	1	2	3	4	5
22	I live in a wicked world and must struggle to survive anyhow	1	2	3	4	5

23	I can have my way in dangerous situations even if it involves using charms	1	2	3	4	5
24	Nobody cares about me so let me live my life anyhow	1	2	3	4	5
25	I see myself as neglected and lonely in the world	1	2	3	4	5
26	I have suffered in this world; honestly I am frustrated	1	2	3	4	5
27	Life is meaningless to me, I don't care what happens	1	2	3	4	5
28	Death is nothing to me let it come anytime	1	2	3	4	5
29	My conscience doesn't trouble me at all for anything I do	1	2	3	4	5
30	Let heaven falls I must have my way	1	2	3	4	5
31	The fear of God is the beginning of dull moments	1	2	3	4	5
32	God or no God, I live my life the way I want	1	2	3	4	5
33	Every Nigerian is a potential criminal	1	2	3	4	5

MSPSS

		Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neutral	Mildly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
1.	There is a special person who is around when I am in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	There is a special person with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	My family really tries to help me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	I get the emotional help and support I need from my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	My friends really try to help me	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	I can count on my friends when things go wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	I can talk about my problems with my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	My family is willing to help me make decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	I can talk about my problems with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6

MMDS

		Agree	Undecided	Disagree
1	It is alright to fight and protect your friends.	1	2	3
2	Slapping and shoving someone is just a way of joking.	1	2	3
3	Damaging some property is no big deal when you consider that others a beating people up.	1	2	3
4	A kid in a gang should not be blamed for the trouble the gang causes.	1	2	3
5	If kids are living under bad conditions they cannot be blamed for behaving aggressively.	1	2	3
6	It is okay to tell small lies because they don't really do any harm.	1	2	3
7	Some people deserve to be treated like animals	1	2	3
8	If kids fight and misbehave in school it is their teacher's fault.	1	2	3
9	It is alright to beat someone who bad months your family.	1	2	3
10	To hit obnoxious classmate is just giving them "a lesson."	1	2	3
11	Stealing some money is not too serious compared to those who steal a lot of money.	1	2	3
12	A kid who only suggest breaking rules should not be blamed if other kids go ahead and do it.	1	2	3
13	If kids are not disciplined they should not be blamed for misbehaving.	1	2	3
14	Children do not mind being teased because it shows interest in them.	1	2	3
15	It is okay to treat badly somebody who behave like a "worm"	1	2	3
16	If people are careless where they leave their things it is their own fault if they get stolen.	1	2	3
17	It is alright to fight when your group's honour is threatened	1	2	3
18	Taking someone's bicycle without their permission is just 'borrowing it.'	1	2	3
19	It is okay to insult a classmate because beating him/her is worse.	1	2	3

20	If a group decides together to do something harmful it is unfair to blame any kid in the group for it.	1	2	3
21	Kids cannot be blamed for using bad words when all their friends do it.	1	2	3
22	Teasing someone does not really hurt them.	1	2	3
23	Someone who is obnoxious does not deserve to be treated like a human being.	1	2	3
24	Kids who get mistreated usually do things that deserve it.	1	2	3
25	It is alright to lie to keep your friends out of trouble.	1	2	3
26	It is not a bad thing to 'get high' once in a while.	1	2	3
27	Compared to the illegal things people do, taking some things from a store without paying for them is not very serious.	1	2	3
28	It is unfair to blame a child who had only a small part in the harm caused by a group.	1	2	3
29	Kids cannot be blamed for misbehaving if their friends pressured them to do it.	1	2	3
30	Insults among children do not hurt anyone.	1	2	3
31	Some people have to be treated roughly because they lack feelings that can be hurt.	1	2	3
32	Children are not at fault for misbehaving if their parents force them too much.	1	2	3

ADMQ

		Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
1	I feel confident about my ability to make decisions.	1	2	3	4
2	I am not as good as most people in making decisions	1	2	3	4
3	It is easy for other people to convince me that their decision is the correct one.	1	2	3	4
4	I feel so discouraged that I give up trying to make decisions.	1	2	3	4
5	The decisions I make turn out well	1	2	3	4
6	I think that I am a good decision maker	1	2	3	4
7	I take a lot of care before making a choice.	1	2	3	4
8	Once I have made a decision then I don't change my mind	1	2	3	4

9	I like to think about a decision before I make it	1	2	3	4
10	When I make a decision, I feel that I made the best one possible.	1	2	3	4
11	I like to make decision myself	1	2	3	4
12	When I decide to do something, I get right on with it	1	2	3	4
13	I panic if I have to make decisions quickly	1	2	3	4
14	I feel as if I'm under tremendous time pressure when making decisions	1	2	3	4
15	I can't think straight if I have to make a decision in a hurry	1	2	3	4
16	The possibility that some small thing might go wrong causes me to immediately change my mind about what I'm going to do.	1	2	3	4
17	I avoid making decisions	1	2	3	4
18	I put off making decisions	1	2	3	4
19	I would rather let someone else make a decision for me so that it won't be my problem	1	2	3	4
20	I prefer to leave decisions to others	1	2	3	4
21	When I have to make a decision, I wait a long time before starting to think about it	1	2	3	4
22	I don't like to take responsibility for making decisions	1	2	3	4
23	When faced with a decision, I go along with what others suggest	1	2	3	4
24	Whenever I get upset by having to make a decision, I choose on the spur of the moment	1	2	3	4
25	I put a little effort into making decisions	1	2	3	4
26	When I'm forced to make a decision, I couldn't care which way I choose	1	2	3	4
27	I choose on the basis of some small detail	1	2	3	4
28	I tend to drift into decisions without thinking about them	1	2	3	4
29	When making decisions I tend to choose the first alternative that comes to mind.	1	2	3	4
30	I prefer to do what others choose because I don't like to be different.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX II

RELIABILITY
 /VARIABLES=MMDS1 MMDS2 MMDS3 MMDS4 MMDS5 MMDS6 MMDS7 MMDS8
MMDS9 MMDS10 MMDS11 MMDS12 MMDS13 MMDS14 MMDS15 MMDS16 MMDS17
MMDS18 MMDS19 MMDS20 MMDS21 MMDS22 MMDS23 MMDS24 MMDS25 MMDS26
MMDS27 MMDS28 MMDS29 MMDS30 MMDS31 MMDS32
 /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
 /MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	71	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	71	100.0

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

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.800	32

RELIABILITY
 /VARIABLES=ADMQ1 ADMQ2 ADMQ3 ADMQ4 ADMQ5 ADMQ6
 /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
 /MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	71	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	71	100.0

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

APPENDIX III

Reliability Statistics

APECronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.619	6

RELIABILITY
 /VARIABLES=ADMQ7 ADMQ8 ADMQ9 ADMQ10 ADMQ11 ADMQ12
 /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
 /MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	71	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	71	100.0

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

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.722	6

APPENDIX IV

RELIABILITY
 /VARIABLES=ADMQ13 ADMQ14 ADMQ15 ADMQ16
 /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
 /MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	71	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	71	100.0

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

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.758	4

APPENDIX V

RELIABILITY
 /VARIABLES=ADMQ17 ADMQ18 ADMQ19 ADMQ20 ADMQ21 ADMQ22
 /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
 /MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	71	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	71	100.0

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

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.813	6

APPENDIX VI

RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=ADMQ23 ADMQ24 ADMQ25 ADMQ26 ADMQ27 ADMQ28 ADMQ29
ADMQ30
  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	71	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	71	100.0

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

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.745	8

APPENDIX VII

CORRELATIONS
 /VARIABLES=CONFIDENCE VIGILANCE PANIC EVASIVENESS COMPLACENCY
 /PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG
 /MISSING=PAIRWISE.

Correlations

Correlations

		CONFIDENCE	VIGILANCE	PANIC	EVASIVENESS	COMPLACENCY
CONFIDENCE	Pearson Correlation	1	.568[**]	-.198	-.097	.317[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.098	.423	.007
	N	71	71	71	71	71
VIGILANCE	Pearson Correlation	.568[**]	1	-.074	.090	-.200
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.541	.454	.095
	N	71	71	71	71	71
PANIC	Pearson Correlation	-.198	-.074	1	.497[**]	-.380[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.098	.541		.000	.001
	N	71	71	71	71	71
EVASIVENESS	Pearson Correlation	-.097	.090	.497[**]	1	-.430[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.423	.454	.000		.000
	N	71	71	71	71	71
COMPLACENCY	Pearson Correlation	.317[**]	-.200	-.380[**]	-.430[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.095	.001	.000	
	N	71	71	71	71	71

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

GET
  FILE='C:\Users\mabison\Documents\MABIAMABSONMAINWORKANALYSIS2018.sav'.
DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.
REGRESSION
 /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
 /MISSING LISTWISE
 /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA CHANGE
 /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
 /NOORIGIN
 /DEPENDENT Crimetendency
 /METHOD=ENTER Familysupport Friendsupport Significantothers
 /METHOD=ENTER Moraldisengagement
 /METHOD=ENTER Complacency Evasiveness Panic Vigilance Selfconfidence.

Regression

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Crimetendency	73.0734	19.25832	681
Familysupport	20.0808	4.25312	681
Friendsupport	18.1527	4.23503	681
Significantothers	19.7930	4.51726	681
Moraldisengagement	72.1057	10.97607	681
Complacency	23.9853	4.20431	681
Evasiveness	19.2188	3.84218	681
Panic	10.4919	2.58167	681
Vigilance	12.5081	3.45437	681
Selfconfidence	15.0191	2.53817	681

Correlations

		Crimetendency	Familysupport	Friendsupport	Significan rs
Pearson Correlation	Crimetendency	1.000	-.244	-.123	
	Familysupport	-.244	1.000	.598	
	Friendsupport	-.123	.598	1.000	
	Significantothers	-.239	.714	.582	
	Moraldisengagement	-.460	.236	.175	
	Complacency	-.368	.272	.096	
	Evasiveness	-.325	.317	.187	
	Panic	-.189	.091	.016	
	Vigilance	.155	-.212	-.101	
	Selfconfidence	-.076	.073	.045	
Sig. (1-tailed)	Crimetendency	.	.000	.001	
	Familysupport	.000	.	.000	
	Friendsupport	.001	.000	.	
	Significantothers	.000	.000	.000	
	Moraldisengagement	.000	.000	.000	
	Complacency	.000	.000	.006	
	Evasiveness	.000	.000	.000	
	Panic	.000	.009	.341	
	Vigilance	.000	.000	.004	
	Selfconfidence	.024	.028	.120	
N	Crimetendency	681	681	681	
	Familysupport	681	681	681	
	Friendsupport	681	681	681	
	Significantothers	681	681	681	
	Moraldisengagement	681	681	681	
	Complacency	681	681	681	
	Evasiveness	681	681	681	
	Panic	681	681	681	
	Vigilance	681	681	681	
	Selfconfidence	681	681	681	

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Significantothers, Friendsupport, Familysupport[b]	.	Enter
2	Moraldisengagement[b]	.	Enter
3	Vigilance, Panic, Complacency, Selfconfidence, Evasiveness[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Crimetendency

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.267[a]	.071	.067	18.60028	.071	17.322	3	677	.000
2	.495[b]	.245	.240	16.78434	.174	155.418	1	676	.000
3	.543[c]	.294	.285	16.28587	.049	9.403	5	671	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Significantothers, Friendsupport, Familysupport

b. Predictors: (Constant), Significantothers, Friendsupport, Familysupport, Moraldisengagement

c. Predictors: (Constant), Significantothers, Friendsupport, Familysupport, Moraldisengagement, Vigilance, Panic, Complacency, Selfconfidence, Evasiveness

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	17978.341	3	5992.780	17.322	.000^b
	Residual	234221.988	677	345.970		
	Total	252200.329	680			
2	Regression	61761.648	4	15440.412	54.809	.000^c
	Residual	190438.681	676	281.714		
	Total	252200.329	680			
3	Regression	74231.228	9	8247.914	31.097	.000^d
	Residual	177969.101	671	265.230		
	Total	252200.329	680			

a. Dependent Variable: Crimetendency

b. Predictors: (Constant), Significantothers, Friendsupport, Familysupport

c. Predictors: (Constant), Significantothers, Friendsupport, Familysupport, Moraldisengagement

d. Predictors: (Constant), Significantothers, Friendsupport, Familysupport, Moraldisengagement, Vigilance, Panic, Complacency, Selfconfidence, Evasiveness

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	96.202	3.746		25.685	.000
	Familysupport	-.802	.253	-.177	-3.168	.002
	Friendsupport	.335	.219	.074	1.532	.126
	Significantothers	-.663	.235	-.155	-2.824	.005
2	(Constant)	140.689	4.915		28.624	.000
	Familysupport	-.400	.231	-.088	-1.733	.084
	Friendsupport	.442	.197	.097	2.239	.026
	Significantothers	-.673	.212	-.158	-3.179	.002
	Moraldisengagement	-.753	.060	-.429	-12.467	.000
3	(Constant)	140.159	6.043		23.194	.000
	Familysupport	-.107	.228	-.024	-.469	.639
	Friendsupport	.283	.193	.062	1.462	.144
	Significantothers	-.594	.207	-.139	-2.865	.004
	Moraldisengagement	-.649	.064	-.370	-10.132	.000
	Complacency	-.862	.211	-.188	-4.092	.000
	Evasiveness	-.074	.229	-.015	-.324	.746
	Panic	-.606	.277	-.081	-2.186	.029
	Vigilance	.403	.217	.072	1.856	.064
	Selfconfidence	.791	.310	.104	2.555	.011

a. Dependent Variable: Crimetendency

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	T	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance
1	Moraldisengagement	-.429[b]	-12.467	.000	-.432	.943
	Complacency	-.320[b]	-8.728	.000	-.318	.917
	Evasiveness	-.269[b]	-7.104	.000	-.264	.894
	Panic	-.173[b]	-4.710	.000	-.178	.987
	Vigilance	.098[b]	2.586	.010	.099	.946
	Selfconfidence	-.057[b]	-1.530	.127	-.059	.994
2	Complacency	-.192[c]	-5.250	.000	-.198	.805
	Evasiveness	-.135[c]	-3.620	.000	-.138	.792
	Panic	-.085[c]	-2.464	.014	-.094	.939
	Vigilance	.114[c]	3.338	.001	.127	.944
	Selfconfidence	.047[c]	1.353	.177	.052	.937

a. Dependent Variable: Crimetendency

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Significantothers, Friendsupport, Familysupport

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Significantothers, Friendsupport, Familysupport, Moraldisengagement

APPENDIX XIII

Participants selection using mixed sampling process.

Stage I: purposive sampling was used to select Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka and Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University, Igbariam as the only public Universities in Anambra State.

Stage II: Simple random sampling was used to select seven Faculties each from the two Universities while purposive sampling was used in selecting the participants from one Department each from the selected Faculties.

Stage III: Infinite sample size determination where the standard deviation is unknown (Mensah, 2013) formula was used to derive the minimum total number of participants required for the study. This formula used population proportion confidence interval where standard deviation is not known.

Thus: $P(1-P)(Z/E)^2$

Where P = population proportion = .50

Z = Z value for confidence levels =1.96 (95%)

E = probability estimate interval = .05

That is: $.50(1-.50)(1.96/.05)^2 = 384.16 = 384$ is the minimum acceptable sample size.