

**UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE**  
**Faculty of Community and Health Sciences**

**Title:** Youth Violence Perpetration: A Systematic Review of Community-Level Protective Factors and Community Resilience

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## DECLARATION

I declare that *Youth Violence Perpetration: A Systematic Review of Community-Level Protective Factors and Community Resilience* is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university, and that all sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.



Full name \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Signed \_\_\_\_\_

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## Abstract

This study aimed to (1) establish the conceptualization of youth violence perpetration within the literature; (2) explore identified community-level protective factors, (3) establish whether the interaction between community-level risk and protective factors are discussed, and (4) establish whether community-level protective factors are conceptualised within a community resilience framework within the literature on youth violence. The research design of this study is a systematic review of literature focused on youth violence perpetration, community-level protective factors against perpetration of violence by youth, as well as community resilience. English-medium research literature published between Jan 1994 and Jan 2014 was reviewed. Databases that were searched are: Academic Search Premier, PsycArticles, MEDLINE, JSTOR, SocIndex, and SageOnline. Data extraction was done by two reviewers at three stages of review (abstract reading, title reading, and full-text reading), using three instruments for quality assessment across the three stages. Fifteen articles were deemed acceptable after review at the end of the three stages, achieving a threshold score of 50% or more, and these articles were used in the findings of this review. These primary studies were collated, systematically assessed, synthesised, and interpreted. Findings of this review indicate that youth violence perpetration is conceptualised within the research as various forms of violence committed by young people. The literature has suggested that youth violence perpetration may be as a result of a lack of social infrastructure and opportunities within impoverished communities. For this reason the provision of community resources, economic opportunity, educational and mentoring programmes, and subsequently the development of prosocial involvement/ interaction was suggested as strategies for intervention at a community level. Major findings of the study as well as the implications for practice and further research are discussed.

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# CHAPTER 1

## OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

### 1.1 General Introduction

This study aims to establish the conceptualization of youth violence perpetration within the literature; explore community-level protective factors identified, establish whether the interaction between community-level risk and protective factors are discussed, and establish whether community-level protective factors are conceptualised within a community resilience framework within the literature on youth violence.

According to the South African Regional Poverty Network (SARPN, 2008), youth are defined by the national Youth Policy as persons between the ages of 14 and 35 years. As highlighted by the SARPN (2008), this is a very broad definition of youth when taking into consideration South Africa's socio-political history because it encompasses a diverse range of youth, which have been exposed to different socio-political and historical experiences. Most research on youth violence define youth as ranging in age categories from children, to pre-adolescents, teenagers, and young adults. As there seems to be no consensus on the definition or age categories of what is considered to be 'youth', it spans a broad population sample.

Therefore, for the purpose of this paper the age range of youth will be narrowed down to between the ages of 12 and 25 years, spanning the age categories of adolescence and young adulthood as this population group are considered to be the most at-risk for violence perpetration. Thus the term 'youth violence' in this paper refers to youth, between the ages of 12 and 25 years, adopting the roles of perpetrators in violent activities/crime.

The World Health Organisation (WHO) (2008) defines violence as "the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual against oneself, another person, or against a

group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development, or deprivation” (Pillay, 2008).

Crime in South Africa, according to Pelsler (2008) is a role of the development and reproduction of a “culture of violence”, spanning the duration of the past 30 years, largely due to the Apartheid era. Pelsler (2008) further argues that this “culture of violence” is a “normalisation of crime and violence amongst an underclass of negatively socialised and socially excluded youth”, making up a large proportion of South Africa’s population.

Statistics on youth violence in South Africa provided by the Medical Research Council’s (MRC) Safety and Peace Promotion Research Unit (2011) indicates that the country’s injury death rate is close to double the global average. These statistics further indicated that violence is largely gendered, with young men between the ages of 15 and 29 years excessively engaged in violence as both victims and perpetrators (MRC, 2011).

The MRC (2011) has identified social contributory factors as poverty, unemployment, patriarchal notions of masculinity, vulnerabilities of families and exposure to violence in childhood, widespread access to firearms, alcohol and drug misuse, and a weak culture of enforcement and failure to uphold safety as a basic right.

According to Communities That Care (CTC, 2005) in the United Kingdom (UK), protective factors are seen as factors that suggest the opposite or absence of risk at each level that will help protect children and youth against involvement in crime, and other anti-social behaviour. Research has however identified additional protective factors, such as female gender, resilient temperament, a sense of self-efficacy, high intelligence, social bonding, healthy standards, opportunities for involvement, and social and reasoning skills, as moderating factors on the effects of exposure to risk (CTC, 2005).

The concept of resilience was first applied to the individual child or adult, but has now shifted to families, as well as communities (Landau & Saul, 2004). The concept of resilience is defined as being the ability to overcome adversity, “strengthened and more resourceful” (Landau & Saul, 2004). Community resilience is therefore seen as being a “community’s ability, hope and faith to withstand major trauma and loss, overcome adversity, and to prevail, usually with increased resources, competence and correctedness” (Landau & Saul, 2004). Within this study, the focus will be on looking at how community-level protective factors/ resources can be mobilised to manage violent/aggressive youth, within a community resilience framework.

## **1.2 Rationale for the study**

Violence has been identified as a significant global and national priority. While the risk factors for violence are well documented, relatively less is known about resilience. According to Foster and Brooks-Gunn (2009), several studies have indicated that ‘neighbourhood collective efficacy’ (the linkage of mutual trust and a willingness to intervene for the common good) acts as a mediator in influencing community structural contexts on forms of violence and that collective efficacy is important in the lives of youth.

As this study will be exploring literature focussed on youth violence, associated community-level protective factors, and the development of community resilience, it may prove useful in informing the most effective intervention programmes and guide best practices in communities that show increased vulnerability to engagement in and/or exposure to youth violence. It may also help develop an integrated framework for community-level interventions, as well as provide the basis for future research studies.

### **1.3 Review Aims**

This study aims to establish the conceptualization of youth violence perpetration within the literature; explore identified community-level protective factors, establish whether the interaction between community-level risk and protective factors are discussed, and establish whether community-level protective factors are conceptualised within a community resilience framework in existing literature on youth violence.

### **1.4 Review Questions**

The aims of this systematic review, as outlined above, resulted in the following review questions as focus areas:

1. How is youth violence perpetration conceptualised in the research?
2. Which community-level protective factors are identified in research on youth violence perpetration?
3. Is the interaction between community-level risk and protective factors discussed?
4. To what extent are the community-level protective factors conceptualised within a community resilience framework?

### **1.5 Significance of the study**

The prevention of violence remains a significant public health priority. Current research on the risks of violence needs to be complemented by a focus on protective factors. The current study aims to help future prevention efforts by starting to identify protective factors at the community level, best practices, as well as directions for future research.

### **1.6 Structure of Thesis**

This thesis will be presented in nine chapters. The first chapter focuses on a general overview of the study and includes an introduction, rationale for the study, the review aims and the review questions.



Chapter Two of the study is an abbreviated literature review of studies related to this topic. This includes youth violence and associated causal contributory factors, protective factors associated with youth violence, the link between community – level risk and protective factors and community resilience, as well as interventions for youth violence, and the relation to the current study.

Chapter Three outlines the methodology of this review and includes the research design, study procedures, inclusion and exclusion criteria, search strategies, data extraction methods, ethical considerations, as well as reliability and validity of the study. Chapter Four of the study outlines the analysis and process results of the review.

Chapter Five, Six, Seven, and Eight discuss the findings of the systematic review, particularly the conceptualization of youth violence perpetration within the research; the identification of community-level protective factors; the interaction between community-level risk and protective factors; and the conceptualisation of community-level risk and protective factors within resilience theory. Finally, Chapter Nine concludes the study with the discussion of the findings, the limitations of the study, implications for practice, recommendations for future research, as well as the significance of the study.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW:

#### 2.1 Introduction

As the research design of this study is a systematic review of literature on youth violence, the following will be an abbreviated literature review offering insight into current conceptualizations of youth violence. It will give a brief overview of youth violence and associated causal contributory factors, outline protective factors associated with youth violence; explore the link between community-level risk and protective factors and community resilience; as well as mention a few interventions for youth violence.

##### *2.1.1 Youth violence and associated causal contributory factors*

Many studies have indicated that risk factors for the development of youth violence derive from multiple levels of influence. At the individual and family levels, risk factors proposed for the development of youth violence include difficult temperament as children, poor impulse control, low intelligence, attention-deficits, early-onset conduct problems, inconsistent or harsh parental discipline, parental pro-violence attitudes, family conflict and violence, low family bonding, antisocial siblings, as well as emotional abuse and neglect (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2007, Van der Merwe & Dawes, 2007).

Community-level risk factors proposed by Van Der Merwe and Dawes (2007) is the co-occurrence of community violence, poverty and low social capital which have been noted to have negative effects on parenting behaviours, such as discipline and poor child and adolescent monitoring (Van Der Merwe & Dawes, 2007). Communities that allow for drugs to be readily available and have high numbers of neighbourhood adults involved in crime, also suggest an increase in the probability of violence perpetration in youth (Van Der

Merwe&Dawes, 2007). Seedat, Van Niekerk, Jewkes, Suffla, and Ratele (2009) further support these findings by listing social dynamics in support of violence as income inequality, patriarchal notions of masculinity that valorise toughness, risk-taking, defence of honour, exposure to abuse in childhood, weak parenting, access to firearms, widespread alcohol misuse, and weaknesses in the mechanisms of law enforcement.

### *2.1.2 Protective factors associated with youth violence*

Among individual protective factors, such as the ability to act independently, problem-solving skills, school factors - such as commitment to school and positive teacher influences, Leoschut and Burton (2009) propose strong community infrastructure, communities that create opportunities for youth to participate in activities where they have choices, decision-making power and shared responsibility, as community level protective factors. As noted by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2011), these factors assist youth in increasing their skills and self-confidence, as well as contribute to the community.

Faith-based community organisations, such as mosques and churches, are also reported as being instrumental in serving as protective factors for youth by offering them a sense of identity and belonging, as well as a place to grow and practise adult skills such as leadership (OECD, 2011). Protective factors at a societal level comprise of national and local policies and basic services that support child and youth-oriented programmes, reduces group conflict and economic inequality, as well as changes cultural norms in order to end the tolerance of violence and increase adult understanding of/and engagement with young people (OECD, 2011).

Factors such as warm, supportive relationships with parents or other adults, clear boundaries for behaviour, family cohesion, and parents who offer affection have also been proposed as

protective factors at the family level (Leoschut and Burton, 2009). It is noted that community level factors may work together with family level factors in conditioning family processes which may affect child outcomes (Foster and Brooks-Gunn, 2009).

Graham, Bruce and Perold (2010) further note that the issue of youth and violence is framed in a holistic manner since it requires that we are not simply thinking about how to deal with young people who are involved in violence but that, more broadly, we are ensuring that all young people are afforded the opportunity to grow up in a safe environment. It is noted that an approach such as this places responsibility on role players, other than the youth (Graham, Bruce, & Perold, 2010).

### *2.1.3 The link between community-level risk and protective factors and community resilience*

Masten (2007) refers to resilience as being a broad systems construct, due to the capacity of dynamic systems to withstand or recover from significant disturbances. According to Norris and Stevens (2007), the resilience of communities, and consequently the wellness of communities, rests upon a network of adaptive capacities, such as economic development, social capital, information and communication and community competence.

Graham, Bruce and Perold (2010), argue that the issue of violence involving youth in Southern Africa is especially related to the fact that the social networks and resources available to young people does not provide them with the means to adequately and meaningfully cope with, or understand, the world they are confronting, or to realise their full potential as active citizens of their countries. The majority are said to lack basic education, marketable skills, decent employment and opportunities for positive engagement in their communities and while most do not engage in significant or repeated acts of violence, evidence suggests that out-of-school and un- or underemployed youth are at greater risk of

becoming perpetrators – and victims – of violence and crime, along with youth who suffer from economic and social deprivation, marginalisation, neglect and abuse (Graham, Bruce and Perold, 2010).

#### *2.1.4 Interventions for youth violence*

Many intervention programmes targeting antisocial/ violent youth target different levels of risk and are not located within a theoretical framework. Interventions such as the SURVIVE Community Project focuses on the important influence of family, social, and environmental contexts in influencing multiple youth behaviours and social interactions (De Voe, Dean, Traube, & McKay, 2005). The Island Youth Programs consider the multiple levels of risk and protective factors associated with the development and prevention of youth violence (individual, family, school, peer, and community factors) and involves programs that focus on specific risk factors, working with target populations, defined by age or exposure to risk factors (Thomas, Holzer, Wall, 2002).

As cited in St. Pierre (1998), a volume by Burt, Resnick, and Novick (1998) focuses on integrated, comprehensive intervention programs that are aimed at building supportive communities for youth at risk of negative behaviours, such as violent behaviour, substance abuse, or pregnancy. There are nine programs described in this volume and common factors identified across these programs are reportedly attention to risk factors, as well as protective factors, inclusive of problems in at-risk communities and areas of strength (St. Pierre, 1998).

It is indicated that community resilience interventions are becoming used more widely in a variety of settings, but there is a paucity of interventions aimed specifically at youth violence. Windle, Salisbury, and Ciesla (2010), reported on twenty one interventions in their review on resilience promoting interventions. These interventions included Project Resilience (to promote resilience in youths and adults struggling to overcome hardship), The Resilience

Project (to assist communities, organisations and businesses to become resilient), Community Resilience (to promote community resilience to avoid adversity), The Freagarroch Project (to reduce re-offending), and APA Road to Resilience (self-help for the public to develop resilience) (Windle, Salisbury, & Ciesla, 2010).

Results of a study done of The Community-Program, conducted in Angola from 1998-2001 (post-war), indicated that a dual focus on youth and community development contributes to peace-building and the disruption of cycles of violence (Wessels, & Monteiro, 2006). Two of the conceptual elements which the programme was framed in were an ecological approach, viewing development as mediated by multiple levels, and a view of youth that recognizes the youth's capacity as actors, the transitional nature of their situation, the importance for youth of defining identity and a place within society, and the differences between rural and urban areas of developing countries (Wessels, & Monteiro, 2006). These elements placed together are said to suggest that improving the youths' situation requires taking a community approach that develops the youths' capacities, improves adult perceptions of youth, and increases the youths' positive role within their communities (Wessels, & Monteiro, 2006).

## **2.2 The current study**

The identified intervention programmes indicate that many violence intervention programmes target multiple levels of risk and protective factors associated with the development or prevention of violent/ aggressive behaviours by youth, and these are not located within a resilience framework. Furthermore there are an increasing number of resilience interventions, but these are not specific to youth violence. It is also unclear whether interventions in the Euro-American context are sufficiently representative of diverse contexts.

The present study will focus on evaluating the specific community level protective factors identified in research on youth violence perpetration, as well as the manner in which these

factors are addressed/ implemented in the study, including whether it is framed within a community resilience framework. The aim of the study would be to evaluate the kinds of community level protective factors identified (community infrastructure, faith-based organizations, national and local policies, etc.), and the extent to which these identified community-level protective factors are addressed in the research in order to guide future programme development and implementation, as well as future research.

### **2.3 Chapter summary**

As a means of providing insight into current understandings of youth violence, this chapter offered an abbreviated literature review of the phenomenon, specifically focussing on risk and protective factors at the varying levels (i.e., individual, family, community, etc.). It looked at the link between community-level protective factors and community resilience; as well as gave a brief overview of youth violence intervention programmes. Finally, it highlighted the aims of the current study which is to analyse and summarize existing research on community-level protective factors within studies of youth violence, adding to the knowledge base with the objective of guiding future programme development and implementation, as well as future research.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

The methodology of a study is seen as describing a process in order to produce a process (Sandelowski, & Barroso 2003). This section will outline the methodological process that was followed when conducting this study. The research design will be discussed, as well as the study procedures that were followed. The reliability and validity, as well as ethical considerations will also be discussed.

#### 3.2 Research design

The research design of this study is a systematic review. A systematic review is an approach to methodology that critically maps out available evidence and synthesises results (Badger, Nursten, Williams, Woodward, 2010). According to Petticrew and Roberts (2006), the aim of a systematic review would be to contribute to the answers of questions about what works and what does not, as well as numerous other kinds of questions. Systematic reviews reportedly flag up areas where counterfeit certainty abounds, helping to tell the difference between real and assumed knowledge (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). Systematic reviews are considered as being overtly different from traditional literature reviews as they are transparent, rigorous and replicable (Badger, et al., 2010). A systematic review was considered to be the best approach to addressing the aims and research questions of this study, as it assists in systematically evaluating and summarizing current knowledge on community-level protective factors in research on youth violence.



### **3.3 Study procedures**

As outlined by Yuan and Hunt (2009), a systematic review follows five basic principles: (1) formulating the research question(s), (2) conducting the literature search, (3) specifying all selection and assessment methods, (4) detailing the procedure for data extraction, and (5) providing the approach to analysis. The research question(s) for this review has been outlined under the introduction section of this research paper. The four remaining principles will be discussed below.

### **3.4 Inclusion criteria**

In a systematic review, the population of interest is a specified group of research studies rather than a population of individuals. The population of this review consists of studies spanning a 20-year period from January 1994 to January 2014 in which the primary focus was on addressing aspects of youth violence (prevention/intervention measures; risk/protective factors, etc.). For the purpose of this study, research articles were considered on the basis of the following criteria:

- 1) Types of studies: (a) research articles that appear in peer-reviewed journals; (b) published in full; (c) published between January 1994 and January 2014; (d) qualitative or quantitative.
- 2) Type of participants: (a) studies focusing on youth adopting roles as perpetrators/offenders of violence or aggressive behaviour; (b) aged 12 to 25 years.

### **3.5 Exclusion Criteria**

Studies have been excluded from the review if they met the following criteria:

- 1) Studies that were not published within the designated time period (Jan 1994 – Jan 2014), as well as studies that were not peer-reviewed, or full-text.

- 2) Unpublished studies, dissertation papers, editorials, letters, conference proceedings, books, and book chapters.
- 3) Studies that were published in a language other than English, or if they were articles that required payment for viewing.
- 4) This review was limited to studies where the mean age of the sample was at least 12 years old and not more than 25 years old. Studies that did not specify the mean ages of their samples were excluded if it could not be reasonably inferred that the mean ages of the samples were between 12 and 25 years.

### **3.6 Search Strategies**

All English-medium research literature published post- January 1994 was reviewed due to the paucity of scholarship in this area. Material accessed included: a) theoretical and empirical research on contributory factors for the development of community level protective factors in relation to antisocial, violent youth; b) interventions aimed at the prevention of/ and reduction in violent youths; both nationally and internationally, c) outcome evaluations and meta-analyses of intervention programmes targeting violent youths.

Articles were searched in the following online databases via the University of the Western Cape (UWC) library database: Ebscohost (Academic Search Complete, PsycArticles, MEDLINE); SocIndex; J-STOR; and SAGE online; with the following key terms:

- *youth violence, protective factors and resilience;*
- *youth violence, community protective factors and community resilience;*
- *youth offenders, protective factors and resilience;*
- *youth violence and protective factors; youth violence and community; and*
- *youth violence, protective, community and resilience.*

The titles of all papers generated by our search results were read and if the title of the paper contained words or phrases related to community-level protective factors, and community resilience (e.g., *resilience concepts, risk and protective factors and resiliency, community,* etc.) and/or words or phrases related to youth and youth violence (e.g., *adolescent, student, college student, youth, young adults, violent behaviour, delinquency, aggression, etc.*), the paper was retrieved and read to ascertain if it met the criteria for this particular systematic review.

### **3.7 Method of review**

The review was conducted in three stages by two reviewers, acting independently of each other. The stages of review consisted namely of the title reading, the abstract reading, and the full-text reading of articles. At each of these stages the two reviewers worked independently of each other, reading, assessing, and recording the scoring of the articles. After each stage, the reviewers would meet and discuss their findings. Any disagreements or conflicting findings were discussed amongst the reviewers in order to arrive at an agreement or resolution. In the case of mutual disagreement, the supervisor was considered to be the deciding party.

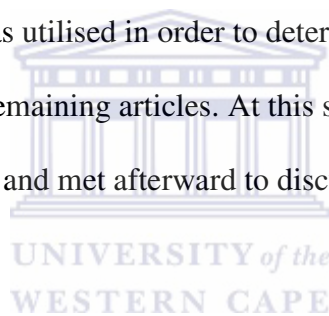
### **3.8 Assessment strategy**

As mentioned above, this review was assessed at three stages: title reading stage; abstract reading stage; and full-text reading stage. The following outlines the strategy followed at each of these stages:

*Title reading:* At this initial stage, articles were sourced using the keyword search and were assessed based on whether their titles met the inclusion criteria. Titles that contained keywords related to the inclusion criteria and that were deemed appropriate for inclusion were recorded in the title reading extraction tool (see Appendix B). This search was conducted in the library at the University of the Western Cape.

*Abstract reading:* During this stage, the abstracts of articles that were included at the title reading stage were assessed based on the inclusion criteria, using the abstract extraction tool (see Appendix C). The two reviewers worked independently of each other reviewing the article abstracts and deciding on their relevancy to the review. They then met to discuss and resolve any disagreements.

*Full-text reading:* At this level, the articles that were included based on their abstracts were assessed at the full-text level. The full text of the articles was read initially in order to determine if they met the inclusion criteria, based on their aims and findings. Articles that were deemed irrelevant were then excluded from the review. Following this, a critical appraisal tool (see Appendix D) was utilised to assess the remaining articles for inclusion in the review. This appraisal tool was utilised in order to determine the methodological soundness and coherence of the remaining articles. At this stage, both reviewers applied the tool to the articles independently, and met afterward to discuss and finalise the articles to be included in the review.



### **3.9 Assessment instruments**

For each of the abovementioned stages: title reading, abstract reading, and full-text reading, an extraction/appraisal tool was developed and utilised.

*Title reading extraction tool:* This tool is a self-constructed sheet that was used to record all information regarding the titles of articles that were deemed appropriate for inclusion in the review (see Appendix B).

*Abstract reading extraction tool:* Articles that were included based on their titles were then assessed using this self-constructed tool (see Appendix C). This tool was based on the inclusion criteria of this review, and the abstracts of articles that ticked each box in the tool were included in the following stage of the review (full-text). As mentioned before, the

completed sheets were reviewed and discussed amongst both reviewers before reaching agreement on articles to be included.

*Critical appraisal tool:* A critical appraisal tool (see Appendix D) was developed from two previously existing appraisal tools, one for qualitative studies (Long, Godfrey, Randall, Brettle & Grant, 2002) and one for quantitative studies (Long, Godfrey, Randall, Brettle & Grant, 2002) and used for each study in the review which met the inclusion criteria after the full-text reading. It was felt that a single critical appraisal tool was best suited for the current study in light of the research aims. The tool was developed and then piloted through a review of an article. The appraisal tool was also reviewed by an expert in the area actively involved in systematic review research. The revised instrument was then piloted for a second time with more articles by both reviewers before being finalised for utilisation.

Each full-text article obtained a composite score on the critical appraisal tool which was used to determine the overall quality of the article being assessed. Based on these scores, the articles were classified on the following threshold scores: Weak (< 40%); Moderate (41 – 60%); Strong (61-80%); and Excellent (>80%). Articles that obtained a score below 50% was deemed weak, and excluded from the review.

The process will be further outlined in the process and analysis results of this review (Chapter 4).

### **3.10 Ethical considerations**

There are no major ethical considerations as all of the articles that have been used in the review are already in the public domain. It does not involve any data collection using human participants. The Higher Degrees and Senate Research Committees at UWC granted permission to conduct this study.

### 3.11 Validity and reliability

Petticrew and Roberts (2006) highlight the fact that research evidence can be produced by multiple methods and approaches, some of which may be subject to a certain degree of systematic error or bias, possibly affecting the results of the study. It is noted that by including all studies in a systematic review without taking this into consideration will result in a biased review (Petticrew & Roberts 2006). Four sources of systematic bias in a systematic review that have been identified by Higgins and Green (2011) are:

- selection bias – systematic differences in groups/participants being compared,
- performance bias – exposure to other factors separate from the intervention of interest,
- attrition bias – withdrawals/exclusions of people entered into the study, and
- detection bias – the manner in which outcomes are assessed.

By means of allocation concealment, selection, performance and detection bias may be reduced (Higgins & Green, 2011). According to Higgins and Green (2011), this can be accomplished by having two independent researchers conducting the study selection, data extraction, and quality assessment. Petticrew and Roberts (2006) also note that biases can be limited, and the validity and reliability of the study increased, by having two researchers independently assessing the primary studies for inclusion. Thus, two reviewers working independently of each other assessed and scored the primary studies for inclusion at each of the abovementioned stages of the review (title reading, abstract reading, full-text reading) and resolved disagreement about inclusion of articles through discussion. Reliability and validity was further ensured by the use of data extraction tools and a critical appraisal tool.

### **3.12 Chapter summary**

A systematic review was considered to be the best approach to addressing the aims and research questions of this study, as it was seen as being able to assist in systematically evaluating and summarizing current knowledge on community-level protective factors in research on youth violence. This chapter discussed four of the five basic principles of the systematic review process followed in this study, namely: conducting the literature search; specifying all selection and assessment methods; detailing the procedure for data extraction; and providing the approach to analysis. It also accounted for any ethical considerations related to the manner in which the study was conducted, as well as the reliability and validity of this review.



## CHAPTER 4

### ANALYSIS AND PROCESS RESULTS

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter will outline the analysis and process results of this systematic review. From an initial list of 428 manuscripts containing the key words in the search criteria, a list of 15 studies that met all of the above search criteria was compiled (a list of these studies is attached in Appendix A).

#### 4.2 Process results

As mentioned in the methodology section of this paper, this study followed varying levels of review. The process results of each of these levels will be outlined below.

##### *4.2.1 Step 1: Identification*

Search criteria across the databases identified 450 potentially relevant studies. From these studies, 22 duplicates were identified and removed resulting in a total of 428 studies. Of this total, 310 were excluded on the basis of the title, e.g. domestic violence, as opposed to youth violence. Table 1 below provides a breakdown of the databases searched and the quantity of articles yielded.

##### *4.2.2 Step 2: Screening*

From the abstracts of studies retrieved based on their titles and the title extraction tool (n=118), 79 were excluded based on the abstract extraction tool and inclusion/exclusion criteria (e.g. not within specified population age group). This resulted in 39 studies presenting as potentially appropriate for review.



Table 1: TITLE SEARCH RESULTS

DATABASE (UWC)	KEYWORDS	QUANTITY YIELDED	DUPLICATES	TOTAL
<b>EBSCOHOST*</b>	1. Youth violence, protective factors, AND resilience	1	-	1
	2. Youth violence, community protective factors, AND community resilience	0	-	0
	3. Youth offenders, protective factors, AND resilience	0	-	0
	4. Youth violence AND protective factors	16	1	15
	5. Youth violence AND community	79	9	70
<b>TOTAL</b>		96	10	86
<b>SOCINDEX</b>	1. Youth violence, protective factors, AND community resilience	0	-	0
	2. Youth violence, protective factors, AND resilience	3	-	3
	3. Youth violence AND protective factors	20	7	13
<b>TOTAL:</b>		23	7	16
<b>J-STOR</b>	1. Youth offenders, AND protective factors	47	-	47
	2. Youth violence, AND protective factors	83	1	82
<b>TOTAL:</b>		130	1	129
<b>SAGE ONLINE</b>	1. Youth violence, protective, community resilience, AND resilience	201	4	197
<b>TOTAL:</b>		201	4	197
<b>TOTAL ON TITLE SEARCH:</b>		450	22	428

\*EBSCOHOST (incl. Academic Search Complete, MEDLINE, PsycArticles)

### *4.2.3 Step 3: Eligibility*

The remaining studies were evaluated in detail by means of full-text reading to determine relevance to inclusion criteria, and the application of the critical appraisal tool to determine methodological soundness. Articles were deemed irrelevant/inappropriate (n=24) based on the full-text reading when research aims, methodology, findings, etc did not meet the inclusion criteria of this study. One article was excluded after the application of the critical appraisal tool as it did not meet the threshold cut-off score of 50% and was therefore deemed weak in methodological soundness. This resulted in 15 remaining articles which were deemed suitable and which have been utilized for the purpose of this review.

All of the 15 studies included in this review were articles published in peer reviewed journals. Thirteen of the included articles, reported age ranges of participants between the target population of this review (12-25). In two of the studies, the age range of the target population was not reported, but the articles referred to participants as adolescents. One of these articles gave mean ages of 15.3, 14.4, and 17.5 for their three samples of participants (Lodewijks, De Ruiter, & Doreleijers, 2010). The other study reported a mean age of 16.4 (Rennie & Dolan, 2010). These studies were included in the systematic review. Figure 1 below details the search/ screening process.

Numbers in brackets in the flow chart refer to citations identified by electronic database searching.

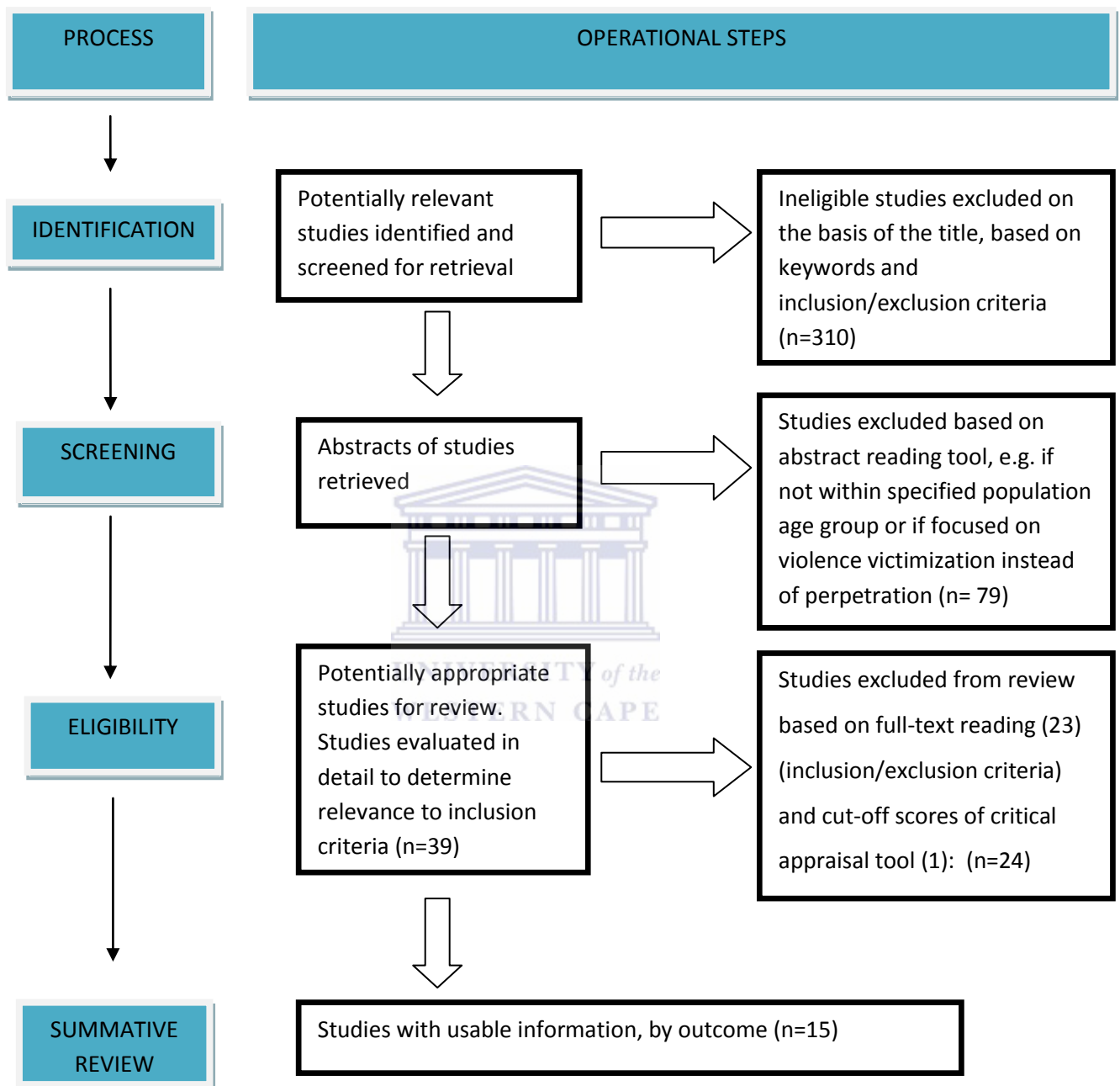


Fig. 1: Completed levels of review: QUOROM flowchart illustrating inclusion and exclusion of studies from this review. (Adapted from Petticrew & Roberts, 2006)

### 4.3 Ranking of articles

The critical appraisal tool was applied to 16 articles after the full-text reading process. One of these articles did not meet the threshold score of 50% and was excluded from the review. The purpose of the critical appraisal tool was to assess the methodological soundness of articles to be included in the review, by awarding scores for methodological domains reported or presented on in the study. The two reviewers applied the critical appraisal tool independently of each other and met to discuss differences. Differences occurred in scoring across the majority of the articles (n=11) on the 3-point Likert scale part of the critical appraisal tool and this was assessed and discussed further together, to which mutual agreement was reached.

Table 2 below outlines the ranking of the 15 articles that were included in the review based on their achieved score on the critical appraisal tool. Each of these articles obtained scores above 50%, and was deemed moderate to strong in methodological soundness. The critical appraisal tool consisted of 15 questions which assessed the methodological qualities of each article.

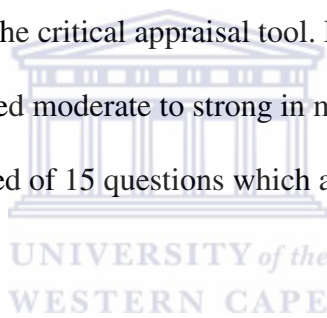


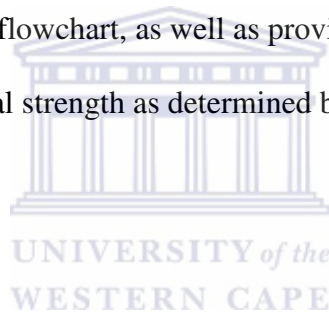
Table 2: Ranking of Articles

Ranking	Refs	Quality
1	Hemphill, et al., (2009)	76.19% Strong
	Rennie & Dolan (2010)	
2	Franke, (2000)	71.42% Strong
	Stevens & Hardy (2011)	
3	Almeida, et al., (2011)	66.66% Strong
	Eddy, et al., (2004)	
	Lodewijks, et al., (2010)	
4	Spencer et al., (2009)	61.90% Strong
	Williams et al., (1998)	
5	Herrman & Silverstein (2012)	57.14% Moderate
	Willman & Marcelin (2010)	
6	Black & Hausman (2008)	52.38% Moderate
	Escobar-Chaves, et al., (2002)	
	Hart, et al., (2007)	
	Shepherd, et al., (2013)	

As seen in Table 2, Hemphill, et al., (2010) and Franke (2000) ranked first (1<sup>st</sup>) scoring the highest with a rating of 76.19%. These articles scored relatively high across the items scored on clarity of aims and methodological procedure, as well as an integrated discussion of findings and limitations, and implications for further research and interventions. Four articles achieved the lowest score of 52.38% achieving a rating of moderate and just about making the threshold cut-off. These articles may have achieved lower ratings across the 15 questions included in the critical appraisal tool.

#### **4.4 Chapter summary**

This chapter outlined the analysis and process results of each stage of review followed in this study, namely identification, screening, and eligibility. It depicted the analysis and process results by means of a QUOROM flowchart, as well as provided an overview of the ranking of articles in terms of methodological strength as determined by the critical appraisal tool.



## CHAPTER 5

### FINDINGS ON CONCEPTUALIZATION OF YOUTH VIOLENCE PERPETRATION

#### 5.1 Introduction

One of the primary aims of this systematic review is to establish the conceptualization of youth violence perpetration within research on this topic. Therefore the conceptualization of youth violence offered up by articles included in this review were analysed and synthesised in order to establish the general consensus on what youth violence perpetration is considered to be within the research. This chapter will address the findings of this analysis and synthesis.

#### 5.2 General characteristics of studies

All of the 15 articles included in this systematic review offered somewhat of a conceptualization of youth violence within their study, although at times not delineating a specific definition of youth violence. Eight of the 15 articles (53.33%) included in the review were conducted solely in cities in the United States of America (USA). One study was conducted in both the USA and Australia (6.66%). Within the remaining six articles, one was conducted in Australia, Netherlands, England, Hawaii, Samoa, and Haiti respectively (40%). The research designs of the articles being reviewed included 12 quantitative studies (80%): structured interviews, cross-sectional surveys, and a randomised clinical trial; 2 qualitative studies (13.33%): semi-structured interviews and focus groups, and one mixed methods study (6.66%): formal survey and ethnographic data.

#### 5.3 Conceptualization of youth violence

Across the articles included in the systematic review, harassment, violent threats, relational aggression, physical fighting, gun violence/ weapons carrying, violent criminal offenses, physical injury resulting in seeking medical treatment, and sexual assault were described as

forms of youth violence perpetration. These forms of violence are considered as being aggressive, destructive, physical behaviour with youth between the ages of 12-25 years adopting the roles of perpetrators. The following table offers the conceptualization of youth violence as found in each article included in the review, and this will be elaborated on in further detail below.



Table 3: Conceptualization of Youth Violence

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Conceptualization of Youth Violence
Almeida., Johnson, McNamara, & Gupta, (2011)	To generate prevalence estimates of peer violence perpetration across immigration related factors; examine whether risk factors for peer violence differed by these variables, and explore the contribution of risk factors to peer violence perpetration	USA: Boston	9 <sup>th</sup> -12 <sup>th</sup> grade students (13-19 yrs) in the Boston Public Schools district	2008 Boston Youths Survey	Focuses on peer violence perpetration: including harassment (e.g., picking on someone, chasing someone), relational aggression (e.g., telling lies about someone, spreading rumours), and physical violence (i.e., pushing, shoving, or slapping someone and hitting, punching, kicking, or choking someone)
Black, & Hausman, (2008)	To discover why inner-city youth were tempted to carry a gun, their emotional reactions to gun handling, and how youth felt about peers who carried guns.	USA: Philadelphia	Youth (13-18 years of age) recruited in high-risk community	Qualitative: Semi-structured interviews and group interviews	Gun violence: access to, carrying, and the intentional use of handguns by adolescents. In this study, youth reported that guns were used as a tool of the drug trade, as a mechanism for prestige, and for protection from minor and severe forms of aggression 'Flossing' was a way to show off or release aggressive excitement and includes mimicking gunplay seen in the media or shooting the gun in the air.



Table 3: Conceptualization of Youth Violence Continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Conceptualization of Youth Violence
Eddy, Whaley, & Chamberlain, (2004)	To examine the ability of multidimensional treatment foster care (MTFC) to prevent subsequent violent offending relative to services as-usual group home care (GC)	USA: Pacific Northwest	Adolescent males averaged 14.9 years of age at study entry ( <i>SD</i> = 1.3, range = 12-17 years)	Randomized clinical trial	Violent behaviour: Violent offenses (official criminal referral for assault, menacing, kidnapping, unlawful weapons use, robbery, rape, sexual abuse, attempted murder, and murder) and self-reported Violent behaviour (hitting or threatening to hit someone// attacking someone with the idea of seriously hurting or killing that person// using force or strong-arm methods to get money/ things from students// using force or strong-arm methods to get money/things from others// gang fights, and rape)
Escobar-Chaves, Tortolero, Markham, Kelder, & Kapadia, (2002)	To examine violent behaviour and aggression among youth attending 10 alternative schools	USA: Houston, Texas	494 male and female 8 <sup>th</sup> and 9 <sup>th</sup> grade students (12-20 years old) at alternative schools	Cross-sectional survey	Violent behaviours described as aggression; weapon carrying (gun, knife, club, etc.); physical fights; and requiring medical attention as a result of violence
Franke, (2000)	To identify predictors across and within racial/ethnic groups; to examine the relationship between family factors and race/ethnicity and how these relationships influence the likelihood of youth violence in order to assist in development of effective prevention programs	USA	6362 adolescents grade 7 through 12 (age range 12-20)	Survey (Add Health: Longitudinal Study)	Describes violent behaviour as being in a serious, physical fight, seriously injuring someone, pulling a knife or gun on someone, and actually shooting or stabbing someone.

Table 3: Conceptualization of Youth Violence Continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Conceptualization of Youth Violence
Hart, O'Toole, Price- Sharps, & Shaffer, (2007)	To gain a better understanding of adolescent delinquent and violent behaviour through examining multiple risk and protective factors with the aim of informing prevention measures.	USA: Central California	32 adolescents between ages 14 and 18 years recruited from 3 high schools and a juvenile correction camp	Quantitative: Survey	Violent juvenile offending: murder arrests; non-negligent manslaughter; aggravated assault arrests; robbery arrests
Hemphill, Smith, Toumbourou, Herrenkohl, Catalano, McMorris, & Romaniuk, (2009)	To compare the prevalence or predictors of youth violence in Australia and the United States with the aim of informing appropriate contextual interventions	Australia: Victoria and USA: Washington	4000 students aged 12-16 years in Australia and USA	Longitudinal study: Self-report survey	Violent behaviour measured in terms of attacking someone with the idea of seriously hurting them; and beating someone so badly that he/she required medical treatment
Herrman, & Silverstein, (2012)	To assess and analyse the perceptions of adolescent women about violence and their thoughts on prevention	USA	Young women (12-18yrs) either incarcerated, involved in judicial system, or affiliated with services designated for at-risk youth	Qualitative: Focus group	Violence is learned behaviour: Rapes and shootings, fighting, domestic violence "banking" (ganging up and fighting with a person e.g. ten on one). Homicide, gun carrying, gang membership

Table 3: Conceptualization of Youth Violence Continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Conceptualization of Youth Violence
Lodewijks, De Ruiter, & Doreleijers, (2010)	To examine the impact of protective factors on desistance from violent reoffending in adolescents.	Netherlands	224 male adolescents in different stages of judicial process (Age: <i>M</i> 15.3; 14.4; 17.5)	Quantitative (Structured Assessment of Violence Risk in Youth – SAVRY)	Offers the SAVRY definition of violence for identification of violent offenses: “an act of battery or physical violence that is sufficiently severe to cause injury to another person or persons (i.e., cuts, bruises, broken bones, death, etc.), regardless of whether injury actually occurs; any act of sexual assault or a threat made with a weapon in hand”
Rennie, & Dolan, (2010)	To examine the significance of protective factors in assessment of risk using the SAVRY	UK: England North West Region	135 male adolescents in custody in the UK	Quantitative (SAVRY)	Offenses classified as violent as defined in the SAVRY manual, including arson with intent and sexual offences
Shepherd, Luebbers, & Dolan, (2013)	To identify and examine gender differences in risk factors for violence in an Australian juvenile context.	Australia: Victoria	213 male and female youths held in Youth Justice Centers (age <i>M</i> = 16.84)	Quantitative (SAVRY)	Violent behaviour measured according to the definition offered by the SAVRY manual.

Table 3: Conceptualization of Youth Violence Continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Conceptualization of Youth Violence
Spencer, Irwin, Umemoto, Garcia-Santiago, Nishimura, Hishinuma, & Choi-Misailidis, (2009)	To contribute to a better understanding of culture and ethnicity in youth violence among Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders by quantifying ethnic forms of social capital	Hawaii: Oahu	326 sample of three API groups of high school students (9 <sup>th</sup> -12 <sup>th</sup> grade)	Quantitative: cross-sectional survey	Violence based on nine dichotomous indicators of youth violence: (1) hit a family member or boyfriend or girlfriend; (2) thrown objects such as rocks or bottles at people; (3) robbed someone; (4) attacked someone with the idea of seriously hurting them or killing them; (5) used a weapon or force to get money or things from people; (6) physically hurt or threatened to hurt someone to get them to have sex; (7) purposely set fire to a house or building or tried to do so; (8) made threatening or nasty phone calls; and (9) been involved in gang fights
Stevens, & Hardy, (2011)	To explore individual, family, and peer predictors of involvement and psychological investment in fights among Samoan youth	Samoa	310 adolescents ages 13 through 19 in a public high school	Quantitative: Self-report surveys	Refers to school violence and after-school violence. Defines the word violence used in the study to refer to “fighting in a group setting that often involves the use of weapons or at least the intent to inflict serious physical harm to others”



Table 3: Conceptualization of Youth Violence Continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Conceptualization of Youth Violence
Williams, Stiffman, & O’Neal, (1998)	To investigate environmental and behavioural risk factors as predictors of involvement in violent behaviour among African American youths.	USA: St. Louis, Missouri	684 African American youths (ages 14-17)	Quantitative (Structured Interviews)	Violent behaviour measured by Diagnostic Interview Schedule for Children-Revised on section for conduct disorder (e.g. causing someone’s death or injury; stealing; holding someone up or robbing someone; threatening someone in order to steal from them; hurting or injuring an animal on purpose; forcing someone to do something sexual against their will; being in any serious physical fights involving punching or hitting; ever having used a weapon in a fight (bat, brick, knife, gun, etc.); ever having been physically cruel to someone or tried to cause them pain; threatened or hurt other young people who didn’t fight back; ever having gotten into fights after drinking; ever having gotten into fights after using drugs; and ever having been jailed for any of the above
Wilman & Marcelin (2010)	To understand the community level drivers of youth violence and contribute to policy approaches going beyond stabilization methods toward addressing structural violence	Haiti – Cite’ Soleil	Citizens of Cite Soleil aged 18-24	Formal survey and ethnographic data	Youth violent behaviour (aggressive, destructive, physical behaviour): a response to a broader structural violence



## 5.4 Forms of youth violence perpetration

### 5.4.1 *Harassment, violent threats, and relational aggression*

Five of the articles under review include some form of harassment, violent threats, and/or relational aggression in their conceptualization of youth violence (Almeida, et al., 2011; Eddy, et al., 2004; Spencer, et al., 2009, Williams, et al., 1998 & Wilman & Marcelin, 2010). The legal definition of harassment is “the act of systematic and/or continued unwanted and annoying actions of one party or a group, including threats and demands” for varying reasons, such as “... merely gain[ing] sadistic pleasure [and] making someone feel fearful or anxious” (Hill & Hill, 2007)

Almeida, et al., (2011), in their definition of youth violence refers to harassment as a form of peer perpetration which may include picking on someone or chasing someone. Their definition also included relational aggression such as telling lies about someone and spreading rumours (Almeida, et al., 2011). According to Eddy, et al., (2004), youth violent behaviour includes aspects of threatening to hit or injure someone, as well as intimidation in the form of using force or strong-arm methods to gain money or things from others.

In their summary of youth violence indicators, Spencer et al., (2009) also included using force to obtain money or things from people, as well as threatening to hurt someone to get them to have sex and making threatening nasty phone calls. Williams, et al., (1998) identified the same forms of violent threats in their study -i.e. for the purpose of stealing from someone, as well as forcing someone to perform sexual acts against their will, and threatening to hurt other young people who didn't fight back (Williams, et al., 1998).

#### 5.4.2 *Gun violence/ weapons carrying*

Apart from actually using guns and other weapons in physical fights, ten of the articles in this review added weapon carrying and threats made with weapons to their conceptualization of violence (Black & Hausman, 2008; Eddy, et al., 2004; Escobar-Chaves, et al., 2002; Franke, 2000; Herman, et al., 2012; Lodewijks, et al., 2010; Rennie, et al., 2010; Shepherd, et al., 2013; Spencer, et al., 2009; & Williams, 1998).

A few articles refer simply to weapons carrying/ threats made with weapons, and not specific types of weapons. The most referred to types of weapons are guns (Black et al., 2008; Escobar-Chaves, et al., 2002; Franke, 2000; Herrman, 2012; & Williams, 1998) and knives, (Escobar-Chaves, et al., 2002; Franke, 2000; & Williams, 1998). Examples of other types of objects which may be utilised as weapons identified in the articles include clubs, rocks, bottles, bricks, and bats (Escobar-Chaves, 2002; Spencer, 2009; & Williams, 1998).

Articles in the review stated that weapons could be used violently to threaten others when involved in a physical fight, such as pulling a knife or gun on someone (Franke, 2000; Lodewijks, et al., 2010; Rennie, et al., 2010; & Shepherd, et al., 2013), or using a weapon to force someone to give them money or things (Spencer, et al., 2009).

Black and Hausman, (2008) refer to gun violence in their definition of youth violence as access to, carrying, and the intentional use of handguns by adolescents. In their study on adolescents' view of guns in a high-violence community, youth reported that guns were used as a tool of the drug trade, as a mechanism for prestige, and for protection from minor and severe forms of aggression (Black & Hausman, 2008). A term known as 'Flossing' was defined as a way for adolescents to show off or release aggressive excitement and this includes dangerously mimicking gunplay seen in the media or shooting the gun in the air (Black & Hausman, 2008).

### 5.4.3 *Physical fighting*

The majority of the articles (13) under review include physical fighting in their conceptualization of youth violence within their studies (Almeida, et al., 2011; Eddy, et al., 2004; Escobar- Chaves, et al., 2002; Franke, 2000; Hemphill, et al., 2009; Herrman, et al., 2012; Lodewijks, et al., 2010; Rennie, et al., 2010; Shepherd, et al., 2013; Spencer, et al., 2009; Stevens et al., 2011; Wilman, et al., 2010 & Williams, 1998).. Examples of physical violence include pushing, shoving, or slapping someone and hitting, punching, kicking, or choking someone (Almeida, et al., 2011; Eddy, et al., 2004; Hemphill, et al., 2009; Spencer, et al., 2009; & Williams, et al., 1998).

Physical fighting includes attacking someone with the idea of seriously hurting them, sometimes to the point of requiring medical attention or killing that person (Eddy et al., 2004; Franke, 2000; Hemphill, et al., 2009; & Spencer, et al., 2009).

Franke, (2000), Williams, et al., (1998), and Stevens and Hardy (2011) include the use of weapons in their definitions of physical fighting, such as shooting or stabbing someone.

Williams, et al., (1998) state that being physically cruel to someone with the idea of causing them pain, as well as fighting due to drinking alcohol or substance use are also forms of physical violence.

Herrman, et al., (2012) and Stevens and Hardy (2011) describe situations within which physical fighting may occur in group settings. Steven and Hardy (2011) define violence as “fighting in a group setting that often involves the use of weapons or at least the intent to inflict serious physical harm to others”. Herrman et al., (2012) describe a process termed “banking” described by a participant in their study, in which individuals gang up against one person in order to fight with them (e.g. ten on one).



Three of the articles in the review made use of the definition of violence as defined in the Structured Assessment of Violence Risk in Youth (SAVRY) manual (Lodewijks, et al., 2010; Rennie, et al., 2010; & Shepherd, et al., 2013). This definition states that a violent offense is considered to be “an act of battery or physical violence that is sufficiently severe to cause injury to another person or persons (i.e., cuts, bruises, broken bones, death, etc.), regardless of whether injury actually occurs” (Lodewijks, et al., (2010); Rennie, et al., (2010); & Shepherd, et al., (2013).

#### *5.4.4 Sexual assault*

Sexual assault may fall under both physical violence, as well as violent criminal offenses. Seven of the articles being reviewed included some form of sexual assault within their conceptualization of youth violence (Eddy, et al., 2004; Herrman, et al., 2012; Lodewijks, et al., 2010; Rennie, et al., 2010; Shepherd, et al., 2013, Spencer et al., 2009; & Williams, et al., 1998).

According to the definition of the SAVRY manual, sexual violence is considered as being “any act of sexual assault” (Lodewijks, 2010; Rennie, 2010; & Shepherd, 2013). Eddy et al., (2004), and Herrman, et al., included rape as a form of youth violence in their conceptualization and Williams, et al., (1998) list forcing someone to do something sexual against their will as a form of violence. Similarly, Spencer, et al., (2009) identify physically hurting or threatening to hurt someone to get them to have sex as a form of violence.

#### *5.4.5 Violent criminal offenses*

Although, most of the forms of violence described by the articles in the review may be considered as criminal offenses, some may be considered as violent behaviour and not

necessarily criminal offenses, such as relational aggression (e.g. telling lies about someone, and spreading rumours).

Ten of the articles in the review include violent criminal offenses in their conceptualisations of youth violence, although not necessary describing it as such (Black & Hausman, 2008; Eddy, et al., 2004; Escobar-Chaves, 2002; Hart, et al., 2007; Herrman, et al., 2012; Lodewijks, et al., Rennie, et al., Shepherd, et al., Spencer, et al., 2009, & Williams, et al., 1998).

Unlawful weapons carrying and use by youth were identified in ten of the articles in this review in their conceptualization of violence (Black & Hausman, 2008; Eddy, et al., 2004; Escobar-Chaves, et al., 2002; Franke, 2000; Herman, et al., 2012; Lodewijks, et al., 2010; Rennie, et al., 2010; Shepherd, et al., 2013; Spencer, et al., 2009; & Williams, 1998).

In addition to unlawful weapons use, Eddy et al., (2004) identify violent criminal offenses as such and includes: assault, menacing, kidnapping, robbery, rape, sexual abuse, attempted murder, and murder. Hart et al., (2007) also identify violent juvenile offending as murder arrests, non-negligent manslaughter, aggravated assault arrests, and robbery arrests. Spencer et al., (2009) further add to this conceptualisation by adding arson, and gang fights.

## **5.5 Chapter summary**

This chapter served to analyse and summarise the conceptualisation of youth violence as found in research on the topic. The 15 articles included in this review each gave some form of conceptualization or definition of violence perpetrated by youth. These conceptualisations included harassment, threats, and relational aggression; guns/weapons carrying or threats with weapons; physical fighting; sexual assault; and violent criminal offenses (e.g. homicide, rape, arson). Some of the articles provided in the review included context/ settings within

which these types of violence may occur within their definitions, such as domestic violence, gang membership, school violence and after school violence (Eddy, et al., 2004; Herrman, et al., 2012; Spencer, et al., (2009) & Stevens, et al., (2011). Wilman & Marcelin (2010), on their study of violent youth in Cite' Soleil, Haiti described violence as occurring in a setting in which youth act in aggressive, destructive, and violently physically ways in response to a broader structural violence as a result of political struggles.



## CHAPTER 6

### FINDINGS ON IDENTIFICATION OF COMMUNITY-LEVEL PROTECTIVE FACTORS

#### 6.1 Introduction

In addition to identifying the conceptualization of youth violence within the literature, this systematic review also aims to explore whether community-level protective factors are identified and explored within the research. Thus, the identification of community-level protective factors, as offered up by articles included in this review were analysed and synthesised. This chapter will address the findings of this analysis and synthesis.

#### 6.2 General characteristics of studies

Only six of the articles (40%) included in this systematic review offered some form of community-level protective factors associated with youth violence, although generally not identifying it as such. Two of the articles only discussed individual-level risk and protective factors (13.33%) (Almeida, et al., (2011) & Escobar-Chaves, et al., (2002). These two articles will therefore be excluded from this part of the review. The remaining 7 articles (46.66%) offered suggestions or recommendations for intervention or prevention measures which may be beneficial at the community level. Therefore, these articles will be included in this section of the findings. As mentioned in the previous chapter, eight of the 15 articles (53.33%) included in the review were conducted solely in cities in the United States of America (USA). One study was conducted in both the USA and Australia (6.66%). Within the remaining six articles, one was conducted in Australia, Netherlands, England, Hawaii, Samoa, and Haiti respectively (40%). The research designs of the articles being reviewed included 12 quantitative studies (80%): structured interviews, cross-sectional surveys, and a randomised

clinical trial; 2 qualitative studies (13.33%): semi-structured interviews and focus groups, and one mixed methods study (6.66%): formal survey and ethnographic data.

### **6.3 Identification of community – level protective factors**

Across the articles included in the systematic review, risk and protective factors are offered on varying levels (individual, family, community, etc.). Articles within the review discuss community-level risk factors as being deteriorated neighbourhoods, poverty, deteriorated schools; negative peer environment; exposure to community and domestic violence, lack of employment opportunities, social exclusion, social depravity, politics and political struggle (Franke, 2000; Williams, et al., 1998; and Wilman & Marcelin, 2010)

Most of the articles in the review focus on individual risk and protective factors, but make mention of an interaction with community-level protective factors, although generally not specifically delineating it as such. The articles under review identify community-level protective factors as environmental supports such as: community structure and the provision of accessible community resources; provision of economic opportunities; educational programmes; and prosocial interaction/ involvement or emotional bonding. The following table offers the identification of community-level protective factors as found within each article included in the review, and this will also be elaborated on in further detail below.

Table 4: Identification of Community-Level Protective Factors

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Identification of community-level protective factors
Almeida., Johnson, McNamara, & Gupta, (2011)	To generate prevalence estimates of peer violence perpetration across immigration related factors; examine whether risk factors for peer violence differed by these variables, and explore the contribution of risk factors to peer violence perpetration	USA: Boston	9 <sup>th</sup> -12 <sup>th</sup> grade students (13-19 yrs) in the Boston Public Schools district	2008 Boston Youths Survey	No community-level risk or protective factors identified. Results indicate that immigrant youth had a lower risk of peer violence, the protective effect was diminished among immigrants who had resided in the U.S. for >4 years. It was found that negative assimilation occurs <i>within</i> the first generation, not just across generations. Results suggest that perpetration of violence worsens with increased time in the U.S. Research is needed to identify factors that contribute to the acquisition of behaviours such as violence among recently arrived immigrant youth.
Black, & Hausman, (2008)	To discover why inner-city youth were tempted to carry a gun, their emotional reactions to gun handling, and how youth felt about peers who carried guns.	USA: Philadelphia	Youth (13-18 years of age) recruited in high-risk community	Qualitative: Semi-structured interviews and group interviews	Offers suggestions for gun violence prevention at primary level: producing meaningful roles and economic opportunity for inner city youths and providing culturally competent prevention education. Suggests integrating programs into existing community settings (recreational centers, health care clinics, religious institutions, and schools, etc.)

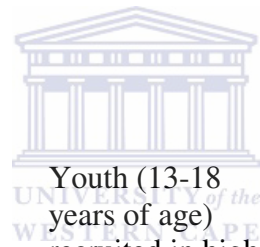


Table 4: Identification of Community-Level Protective Factors continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Identification of community-level protective factors
Eddy, Whaley, & Chamberlain, (2004)	To examine the ability of multidimensional treatment foster care (MTFC) to prevent subsequent violent offending relative to services as-usual group home care (GC)	USA: Pacific Northwest	Adolescent males averaged 14.9 years of age at study entry ( <i>SD</i> = 1.3, range = 12-17 years)	Randomized clinical trial	No community-level protective or risk factors identified. Results indicate the ability of structured, problem-focused, multimodal interventions to change antisocial trajectories of juvenile offenders. These programs appear to influence offending via the relationships that youth have with parents and peers, as well as through the behaviours of treatment providers, such as therapists and foster parents.
Escobar-Chaves, Tortolero, Markham, Kelder, & Kapadia, (2002)	To examine violent behaviour and aggression among youth attending 10 alternative schools	USA: Houston, Texas	494 male and female 8 <sup>th</sup> and 9 <sup>th</sup> grade students (12-20 years old) at alternative schools	Cross-sectional survey	No community-level protective factors identified, focuses on individual-level risk factors for the development of violent behaviour (age, gender, race, grades at school, etc.)
Franke, (2000)	To identify predictors across and within racial/ethnic groups; to examine the relationship between family factors and race/ethnicity and how these relationships influence the likelihood of youth violence in order to assist in development of effective prevention programs	USA	6362 adolescents grade 7 through 12 (age range 12-20)	Survey (Add Health: Longitudinal Study)	Mentoring, peer mediation, and training in conflict resolution offered up as intervention measures. Neighbourhood/community risk factors - examples of poverty, and lack of employment opportunities mentioned. Report that approaches to prevention/intervention should combine strategies across the various settings and have the flexibility and comprehensiveness to address youth's needs across the systems (e.g., individual, neighbourhood/community)

Table 4: Identification of Community-Level Protective Factors continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Identification of community-level protective factors
Hart, O'Toole, Price- Sharps, & Shaffer, (2007)	To gain a better understanding of adolescent delinquent and violent behaviour through examining multiple risk and protective factors with the aim of informing prevention measures.	USA: Central California	32 adolescents between ages 14 and 18 years recruited from 3 high schools and a juvenile correction camp	Quantitative : Survey	Community-level protective factors identified in the findings: extracurricular activities, caring adult in the community (e.g. school), structured after-school activities, mentoring programmes
Hemphill, Smith, Toumbourou, Herrenkohl, Catalano, McMorris, & Romaniuk, (2009)	To compare the prevalence or predictors of youth violence in Australia and the United States with the aim of informing appropriate contextual interventions	Australia: Victoria and USA: Washington	4000 students aged 12-16 years in Australia and USA	Longitudinal study: Self-report survey	Community-level protective factors identified in findings for later violent behaviour: opportunities and recognition for prosocial involvement at school, and opportunities for prosocial involvement in the community
Herrman, & Silverstein, (2012)	To assess and analyse the perceptions of adolescent women about violence and their thoughts on prevention	USA	Young women (12-18yrs) either incarcerated, involved in judicial system, or affiliated with services designated for at-risk youth	Qualitative: Focus group	Findings indicate factors such as classes about relationships, positive people in their world, positive media portrayals, and recreational activities. The strategies noted by the participants included addressing systems issues, such as employment, economic distress, and marginalization. This sample called for environmental supports and addressing the needs of the community in alleviating violence. Neighbourhoods that foster strength and personal power and deemphasize violence and coercion was also mentioned as a possible protective factor.



Table 4: Identification of Community-Level Protective Factors continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Identification of community-level protective factors
Lodewijks, De Ruiter, & Doreleijers, (2010)	To examine the impact of protective factors on desistance from violent reoffending in adolescents.	Netherlands	224 male adolescents in different stages of judicial process (Age: <i>M</i> 15.3; 14.4; 17.5)	Quantitative (Structured Assessment of Violence Risk in Youth – SAVRY)	No specific community-level protective factors outlined but it was found that when assessing the social support item (P2) - protective factor (at least one individual (peer or adult) who provides emotional support and concrete assistance) - In times of distress and need strong social support and strong attachments to prosocial adults were significant predictors of desistance of violent reoffending
Rennie, & Dolan, (2010)	To examine the significance of protective factors in assessment of risk using the SAVRY	UK: England North West Region	135 male adolescents in custody in the UK	Quantitative (SAVRY)	No specific community-level protective factors indicated. Findings note that the most common protective item was an enduring positive attachment with at least one prosocial adult (87, 64.4%) of participants.
Shepherd, Luebbers, & Dolan, (2013)	To identify and examine gender differences in risk factors for violence in an Australian juvenile context.	Australia: Victoria	213 male and female youths held in Youth Justice Centers (age <i>M</i> = 16.84)	Quantitative (SAVRY)	No specific community-level protective factors identified. Findings indicate that female offenders have significantly lower levels of prosocial involvement compared with males. The findings appear to suggest that deviant social peers may have a greater influence on offending behaviour in Australian female offenders and that the development of more prosocial bonds will be critical in reducing offending behaviour. Also multifaceted gender responsive treatment programs focusing on connectivity and emotional guidance, empowerment, repairing relationships, and specific services providing support for trauma, abuse, child care, employment opportunities, and drug dependency was suggested.

Table 4: Identification of Community-Level Protective Factors continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Identification of community-level protective factors
Spencer, Irwin, Umemoto, Garcia-Santiago, Nishimura, Hishinuma, & Choi-Misailidis, (2009)	To contribute to a better understanding of culture and ethnicity in youth violence among Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders by quantifying ethnic forms of social capital	Hawaii: Oahu	326 sample of three API groups of high school students (9 <sup>th</sup> -12 <sup>th</sup> grade)	Quantitative: cross-sectional survey	Ethnic social capital and ethnic practice: the mechanisms of formal education and language preservation and acquisition, membership in an ethnic organization, (within-group bonding), and seeking emotional assistance from a pastor seen as possible protective factors. Based on analysis, refined hypothesis: proposes that positive forms of social capital may be those forms of group-level bonding that allow for and promote individual choice. Also community structure was found to be important: strong sense of community structure of a matai (chief) reduces violence risk for Samoans, and the less formal community structure at a large, extra-curricular event may be associated with Hawaiian youth of higher risk.
Stevens, & Hardy, (2011)	To explore individual, family, and peer predictors of involvement and psychological investment in fights among Samoan youth	Samoa	310 adolescents ages 13 through 19 in a public high school	Quantitative: Self-report surveys	No specific community-level protective factors identified. Findings indicated that for youth invested and involved in violence, and those who were not, the only two protective factors that significantly differentiated the groups were school engagement and religious commitment. This represents aspects of adolescence that entail involvement in positive behaviours that might pull youth away from fighting.



Table 4: Identification of Community-Level Protective Factors continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Identification of community-level protective factors
Williams, Stiffman, & O’Neal, (1998)	To investigate environmental and behavioural risk factors as predictors of involvement in violent behaviour among African American youths.	USA: St. Louis, Missouri	684 African American youths (ages 14-17)	Quantitative (Structured Interviews)	No community-level protective factors identified. Environmental risk factors identified: Exposure to violence; deteriorated neighbourhoods, deteriorated schools; family instability; negative peer environment; and traumatic experiences
Wilman & Marcelin (2010)	To understand the community level drivers of youth violence and contribute to policy approaches going beyond stabilization methods toward addressing structural violence	Haiti – Cite’ Soleil	Citizens of Cite’ Soleil aged 18-24	Formal survey and ethnographic data	Identifies exposure to domestic and community violence as risk factor for normalizing violence; social exclusion and social disrespect (depravity of living conditions); politics and political struggle (marginalization, hunger, lack of access to social wellbeing, joblessness). Suggests addressing these factors by replacing what is “missing”: economic possibility, social recognition, and respect – youth violence is suggested as being a problem of the broader society and that they should be reintegrated into society by mobilizing them as agents of positive social change



## **6.4 Identified community – level protective factors:**

### *6.4.1 Community structure and Access to community – level resources*

Community structure could be considered as the protective factor, which buffers the neighbourhood/community risk factors of disorganized communities, such as poverty, deteriorated neighbourhoods, deteriorated schools, and social disorganization.

Three of the articles in this review discuss community-level factors which may provide community structure and act as protective factors (Franke, 2000; Herrman, et al., 2012; & Spencer, et al., (2009).

Franke, (2000) reports that approaches to prevention/intervention should combine strategies across the various settings and have the flexibility and comprehensiveness to address youth's needs across the systems (e.g., individual, neighbourhood/community).

Similarly, the sample population in the study by Herrman, et al., (2012) called for environmental supports and addressing the needs of the community in alleviating violence. Neighbourhoods that foster strength and personal power and deemphasize violence and coercion was mentioned as a possible protective factor (Herrman, et al., 2012).

Spencer, et al., (2009) found in their study of ethnic social capital, that community structure played a part in reducing violent risk for Samoan youth. They report that a strong sense of community structure of a 'matai' (chief/leader) influenced violence risk behaviour in youth, whereas the less formal community structure at a large, extra-curricular event seemed to be associated with Hawaiian youth of higher risk.

Five of the articles included in the review identify community-level resources which may act as protective factors related to youth violence, most of which refer to the provision of extracurricular or recreational activities within community settings, possibly resulting in involving youth in positive activities as opposed to violence engagement (Black & Hausman, 2008; Hart, et al., 2007; Herrman, et al., 2012; Shepherd, et al., 2013; & Stevens, et al., 2011).

Black and Hausman (2008), suggest the provision of integrated violence intervention programs in existing community settings, such as recreational centers, health care clinics, religious institutions, and schools. Similarly, Hart et al., (2007) and Herrman, et al., (2012) suggest the provision of extracurricular/ recreational activities in the community and structured after-school programs.

Over and above the provision of recreational opportunities within the community, Shepherd, et al., (2013) suggest the provision of specific services providing support for trauma, abuse, child care, employment opportunities, and drug dependency within community settings.

#### *6.4.2 Provision of economic opportunities*

Five of the articles presented in the review discuss providing economic opportunities for youth who are at risk of/ engaging in violence perpetration (Black & Hausman, 2008; Franke, 2000; Herrman, 2012; Shepherd, 2013; & Wilman & Marcelin, 2010). These articles suggest accomplishing this by providing employment opportunities for youth within communities rife with unemployment.

Franke, (2000) lists a lack of employment opportunities as a community-level risk factor related to youth violence. Black and Hausman (2008), suggest producing meaningful roles for youth and providing economic opportunity. Similarly, Herman, et al., (2012), and Shepherd,

et al., (2013) discuss addressing systems issues such as economic distress, and providing employment opportunities for youth.

Wilman and Marcelin (2010), suggest addressing community-level risk factors such as social exclusion and social disrespect (depravity of living conditions); and politics and political struggle (marginalization, hunger, lack of access to social wellbeing, joblessness) by providing economic possibility, social recognition, and respect. They state that youth violence is a problem of the broader society and that the youth should be reintegrated into society by mobilizing them as agents of positive, social change (Wilman & Marcelin, 2010).

#### *6.4.3 Educational and mentoring programmes*

Educational and mentoring programmes implemented in community settings were suggested by five of the articles in this review as intervention/prevention strategies (Black & Hausman, 2008; Franke, 2000; Hart, et al., 2007; Herrman et al., 2012; & Spencer et al., 2009).

Black and Hausman, (2008) suggest the provision of culturally competent prevention education for gun violence that can be integrated into community settings (e.g. recreational centres, schools, health care clinics, religious institutions, etc.).

Franke, (2000) recommends mentoring programmes, peer mediation, and training in conflict resolution which should occur across various settings (i.e. school and neighbourhood).

Similarly Hart et al., (2007) mentions the implementation of mentoring programmes, and Herrman et al., (2012) suggests classes about relationships.

Spencer, et al., (2009) in their study on ethnic social capital and ethnic practice related to youth violence found the mechanisms of formal education on ethnic practices within communities and language preservation and acquisition to be protective factors.

#### 6.4.4 *Prosocial interaction/involvement and emotional bonding*

The majority of the articles presented in this section of the review (11), included some aspect of prosocial involvement or bonding in their identification of community-level protective factors or suggestions for interventions at the community level (Eddy, et al., 2004; Franke, 2000; Hart et al., 2007; Hemphill, et al., 2009; Herrman, et al., 2012; Lodewijks, et al., 2010; Rennie, et al., 2010; Shepherd, et al., 2013; Spencer et al., 2009; Stevens, et al., 2011; & Wilman, et al., 2010).

Eddy, et al., (2004) found in their study that structured, problem-focused, multimodal interventions had the ability to change antisocial trajectories of juvenile offenders. These programs reportedly appear to influence offending via the relationships that youth have with parents and peers, as well as through the behaviours of treatment providers, such as therapists and foster parents (Eddy, et al., 2004).

Franke, (2004) and Hart, et al., (2007) suggest mentoring, peer mediation, having a caring adult in the community, and the engagement in extracurricular activities as community-level interventions. Similarly, Herman et al., (2012) mentions youth being involved in recreational activities and having positive role models in their environments (e.g., teacher, mentor, etc.) as protective factors. These factors are referred to as opportunities for prosocial involvement and recognition and can occur in different settings – school, community, religious institutions, etc. (Hemphill, et al., 2009).

Furthermore, three articles in this review that used the SAVRY as an assessment measure, found that the social support item (P2) protective factor was a possible determinant for whether youth engage in violent behaviours or not (Lodewijks, et al., 2010; Rennie, et al., 2010; & Shepherd, et al., 2013). This item is a protective factor that refers to at least one individual (peer or adult) who provides emotional support and concrete assistance

(Lodewijks, et al., 2010). Lodewijks, et al., (2010) found in their study that in times of distress and need, strong social support and strong attachments to prosocial adults were significant predictors of desistance in violent reoffending. Rennie et al., (2010) report in their findings that the most common protective item amongst participants (n=87, 64.4%) was an enduring positive attachment with at least one prosocial adult.

In their study on gender differences in a youth offender population, Shepherd, et al., (2013) found that female offenders had significantly lower levels of prosocial involvement compared with males. They report that the findings appear to suggest that deviant social peers may have a greater influence on offending behaviour in Australian female offenders and suggest that the development of more prosocial bonds is critical in reducing offending behaviour (Shepherd, et al., 2013).

Spencer, et al., (2009) refer to membership in an ethnic organization, (within-group bonding), and seeking emotional assistance from a pastor as possible protective factors in their study. Based on their analysis and findings, they refined their hypothesis to propose that positive forms of social capital may be those forms of group-level bonding that allow for and promote individual choice (Spencer, et al., 2009).

Similarly, Stevens et al., (2011) report in their findings that for youth invested and involved in violence, and those who were not, the only two protective factors that significantly differentiated the groups were school engagement and religious commitment. This represents aspects of adolescence that entail involvement in positive behaviours that might pull youth away from fighting (Stevens, et al., 2011).

Wilman & Marcelin, (2010) discuss social exclusion and social disrespect (depravity of living conditions); as well as marginalization, and lack of access to social wellbeing as community-level risk factors. They suggest addressing these factors by replacing this with the



provision of social recognition, and respect and report that youth violence is a problem of the broader society and that prosocial involvement can be developed with their reintegration into society by mobilizing them as agents of positive social change (Wilman, & Marcelin, 2010).

## **6.5 Chapter summary**

This chapter provided a summary and analysis of community-level protective factors associated with youth violence as they were identified within the articles being reviewed.

Less than half of the articles (n=6, 40%) identified community-level protective factors within their studies. The majority of the articles discussed risk and protective factors at the individual level. Almost half of the articles under review (n=7, 46.66%) did not identify community-level protective factors as such, but suggested intervention/prevention programmes which may be implemented at the community level.

The analysis and synthesis of community-level protective factors within this chapter, yielded community structure, access to community-level resources, the provision of economic opportunities, education and peer mentoring programmes, and prosocial involvement/interaction as possible protective factors at the community level.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### FINDINGS ON THE INTERACTION BETWEEN COMMUNITY-LEVEL RISK AND COMMUNITY-LEVEL PROTECTIVE FACTORS

#### 7.1 Introduction

This systematic review also sought to establish the extent to which community-level risk and protective factors are discussed interactively within the research. This chapter will discuss the analysis and synthesis of articles in the review which provide such a discussion.

#### 7.2 General characteristics of studies

As mentioned in the previous chapter, only six of the articles (40%) included in this systematic review offered some form of community-level protective factors associated with youth violence, although generally not identifying it as such (Franke, 2000; Hart et al., 2007; Hemphill, et al., 2009; Herrman, et al., 2012; Spencer, et al., 2009, & Wilman et, al., 2009). For this reason, only these six articles will be included in this section of the review, in order to establish the extent to which these community-level protective factors are discussed interactively with community-level risk factors in the literature.

Three of the 6 articles (50%) included in this chapter of the review were conducted solely in cities in the United States of America (USA). One study was conducted in both the USA and Australia (16.66%). Within the remaining two articles, one was conducted in Hawaii, and Haiti respectively (16.66%). Table 5 below presents the findings of this analysis and this will also be discussed further below.

Table 5: Interaction between community-level risk and protective factors

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Interaction between community-level risk and protective factors
Franke, (2000)	To identify predictors across and within racial/ethnic groups; to examine the relationship between family factors and race/ethnicity and how these relationships influence the likelihood of youth violence in order to assist in development of effective prevention programs	USA	6362 adolescents grade 7 through 12 (age range 12-20)	Survey (Add Health: Longitudinal Study)	Suggests the provision of community-level protective factors in relation to community-level risk factors: Mentoring, peer mediation, and training in conflict resolution offered up as intervention measures. Neighbourhood/community risk factors - examples of poverty, and lack of employment opportunities mentioned. Report that approaches to prevention/intervention should combine strategies across the various settings and have the flexibility and comprehensiveness to address youth's needs across the systems (e.g., individual, neighbourhood/community).
Hart, O'Toole, Price-Sharps, & Shaffer, (2007)	To gain a better understanding of adolescent delinquent and violent behaviour through examining multiple risk and protective factors with the aim of informing prevention measures.	USA: Central California	32 adolescents between ages 14 and 18 years recruited from 3 high schools and a juvenile correction camp	Quantitative: Survey	Suggests the provision of community-level protective factors in relation to community-level risk factors: Findings highlight the need for provision of services for struggling adolescents (trouble at school, exposure to drugs, violence, lacking caring role models; etc.): extracurricular activities, caring adult in the community (e.g. school), structured after-school activities, mentoring programmes



Table 5: Interaction between community-level risk and protective factors continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Interaction between community-level risk and protective factors
Hemphill, Smith, Toumbourou, Herrenkohl, Catalano, McMorris, & Romaniuk, (2009)	To compare the prevalence or predictors of youth violence in Australia and the United States with the aim of informing appropriate contextual interventions	Australia: Victoria and USA: Washington	4000 students aged 12-16 years in Australia and USA	Longitudinal study: Self-report survey	Suggests the provision of community-level protective factors in relation to community-level risk factors: risk factors: association with violent peers, community disorganisation and community norms favourable to drug use. Protective factors: opportunities and recognition for prosocial involvement at school, and opportunities for prosocial involvement in the community - providing young people with supervised activities in which young people with a range of backgrounds participate, providing young people with safe, positive environments in which to live.
Herrman, & Silverstein, (2012)	To assess and analyse the perceptions of adolescent women about violence and their thoughts on prevention	USA	Young women (12-18yrs) either incarcerated, involved in judicial system, or affiliated with services designated for at-risk youth	Qualitative: Focus group	Suggests the provision of community-level protective factors in relation to community-level risk factors: risk factors: marginalization and poverty, exposure to community violence, lack of employment, economic distress. Protective factors: classes about relationships, positive people in their world, positive media portrayals, and recreational activities, provision of economic opportunities. Called for interventions that cultivate hope in youth, including individual setting of obtainable and realistic goals for the future, adults who nurture prosocial behaviours, and neighbourhoods that foster strength and personal power and deemphasize violence and coercion.



Table 5: Interaction between community-level risk and protective factors continued

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Interaction between community-level risk and protective factors
Spencer, Irwin, Umemoto, Garcia-Santiago, Nishimura, Hishinuma, & Choi-Misailidis, (2009)	To contribute to a better understanding of culture and ethnicity in youth violence among Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders by quantifying ethnic forms of social capital	Hawaii: Oahu	326 sample of three API groups of high school students (9 <sup>th</sup> -12 <sup>th</sup> grade)	Quantitative: cross-sectional survey	Discusses community-level risk and protective factors in terms of ‘social capital’. Which is reportedly simultaneously positive and negative regarding youth violence, and varies by type of violence. Propose two characteristics of ethnic practice that seem to be important regarding violence: individuality and structure. Based on analysis, refined hypothesis: proposes that positive forms of social capital may be those forms of group-level bonding that allow for and promote individual choice. Also community structure was found to be important: strong sense of community structure of a matai (chief) reduces violence risk for Samoans, and the less formal community structure at a large, extra-curricular event may be associated with Hawaiian youth of higher risk.
Wilman & Marcelin (2010)	To understand the community level drivers of youth violence and contribute to policy approaches going beyond stabilization methods toward addressing structural violence	Haiti – Cite’ Soleil	Citizens of Cite Soleil aged 18-24	Formal survey and ethnographic data	Discuss community-level protective factors as a response to community-level risk factors: breakdown of common cultural norms and values consequent to socioeconomic privation, coupled with the absence of any viable institutions for security or protection from predation, inevitably leads to a kind of anarchy, a vacuum in which power goes to the strongest. Violence and aggression among these youth, is both an expression of their frustration and a tool for redressing their marginalization. It is, obviously, fertile ground for manipulation whether by politicians, drug dealers, or common criminals. These conditions could, alternately, be ground for positive social change. Indeed, this social breakdown cannot be countered with more violence—you can’t fight fire with fire. It can only be addressed through replacing what is missing: economic possibility, social recognition, and respect. The message is that youth violence in Haiti and elsewhere is not “just” a problem of youth. It is a problem of the broader society and the ways youth are integrated into society.

### **7.3 Interaction between community-level risk and community-level protective factors**

The extent to which community-level protective factors is discussed in relation to community-level risk factors in each of the articles addressed in this part of the review, is to offer suggestions for community-level interventions addressing youth violence as a solution to community-level risk factors.

Community-level risk factors, such as exposure to community violence; poverty; unemployment; association with violent peers, community disorganisation; community norms favourable to drug use; marginalization; economic distress, etc., were identified (Franke, 2000; Hart, et al., 2007; Hemphill, et al., 2009; Herman, et al., 2012; & Wilman, et al.; 2010).

Community-level protective factors suggested in response to these risk factors were access to community structure; community-level resources; provision of prosocial bonding/involvement or opportunities; provision of economic opportunities; educational and mentoring programmes, etc., (Franke, 2000; Hart, et al., 2007; Hemphill, et al., 2009; Herman, et al., 2012; & Wilman, et al.; 2010).

Wilman and Marcelin, (2010) in their discussion on the interaction of community-level risk and protective factors, identify risk factors as a structural breakdown of common cultural norms, which can only be addressed by replacing what is missing: economic possibility, social recognition, and respect. It is stated that the message is that youth violence in Haiti and elsewhere is not “just” a problem of youth, but a problem of the broader society and the ways youth are integrated into society (Wilman, & Marcelin, 2010).

#### 7.4 Chapter summary

Within the articles offered in this review, less than half of the articles (n=6, 40%) discussed protective factors at the community/ neighbourhood level. Those articles that did were analysed in this chapter of the review to determine the extent to which the interaction between community – level risk and community – level protective factors were discussed. Many of the articles identify risk and protective factors at the community-level, but do not explore these phenomena in detail. Community-level protective factors are suggested as solutions to identified community-level risk factors within the literature. The article by Wilman and Marcelin (2010) implements a structural perspective within their study of youth violence and discuss the interaction between risk and protective factors at a community level in more depth, as opposed to the other articles.



## CHAPTER EIGHT

# FINDINGS ON THE EXTENT TO WHICH COMMUNITY-LEVEL PROTECTIVE FACTORS ARE CONCEPTUALISED WITHIN A COMMUNITY RESILIENCE FRAMEWORK

### 8.1 Introduction

The fourth and final aim of this systematic review was to establish the extent to which community-level protective factors are conceptualised within a community resilience framework. The following chapter will address the analysis and synthesis of these findings.

### 8.2 General characteristics of studies

One of the questions on the critical appraisal tool (#15) of this review assessed the extent to which risk and protective factors were integrated with resilience theory in the articles being appraised. Of the 15 articles included in the review, only 3 of the studies (20%) achieved a score on this item (Lodewijks, et al., 2010; Rennie, & Dolan, 2010; & Stevens, & Hardy, 2011). Therefore, only these three articles were included in this section of the review.

### 8.3 Conceptualisation of community-level risk and protective factors within a community resilience framework

Lodewijks, et al., (2010) does not specify particular levels of protective factors in their discussion of resilience theory. Rennie, et al., (2010), and Wilman, et al., (2010), however, note that protective factors at both the individual, and community/environmental level can protect the individual and facilitate healing, decreasing the propensity for violence. The following table outlines the conceptualisation of protective factors within resilience theory as found within these three articles, which will be elaborated on further below.



Table 6: Community-level Risk and Protective Factors within Community Resilience Theory

Author	Study Aims	Setting/ Context	Population Sample	Research Design	Community-level risk and protective factors discussed within community resilience theory
Lodewijks, De Ruiter, & Doreleijers, (2010)	To examine the impact of protective factors on desistance from violent reoffending in adolescents.	Netherlands	224 male adolescents in different stages of judicial process (Age: <i>M</i> 15.3; 14.4; 17.5)	Quantitative (Structured Assessment of Violence Risk in Youth – SAVRY)	Resilience process conceptualized in terms of protective model: describes a relationship in which the addition of each protective factor reduces the impact of risk on negative outcome; that is, it moderates the effect of exposure to risk.
Rennie, & Dolan, (2010)	To examine the significance of protective factors in assessment of risk using the SAVRY	UK: England North West Region	135 male adolescents in custody in the UK	Quantitative (SAVRY)	Note that the concepts of resilience and protective factors are important. Protective factors can be environmental or personal factors that protect the individual against the effect of various stressors and thus prevent him/her from developing deviant behaviour. Resilience can be conceptualized as a dynamic process involving an interaction between both risk and protective processes.
Stevens, & Hardy, (2011)	To explore individual, family, and peer predictors of involvement and psychological investment in fights among Samoan youth	Samoa	310 adolescents ages 13 through 19 in a public high school	Quantitative: Self-report surveys	States that the accumulation of protective factors can facilitate healing and decrease the propensity for violence. i.e., “risk accumulates; opportunity ameliorates” If, however, the particular individual’s community is one where violence is common, where the social infrastructure of schools and families has broken down, and which is marginalized from the rest of society, his or her chances of recovery and adopting positive social behaviour are slim. Violent behaviour tends to concentrate in particular geographic areas, where risk factors accumulate without the compensatory, support structures of community and family to counterbalance them.

### 8.3.1 *Protective model of resiliency*

In their study of protective factors in desistance from violent reoffending, Lodewijks, et al., (2010) conceptualised the resiliency process in terms of the protective model. Lodewijks, et al., (2010) note that the protective model was one of three models identified by Masten, and Tellegen (1984) to describe the impact of stress on the quality of adaptation, namely the compensatory model; the challenge model; and the protective factor model. The protective model reportedly describes a relationship in which the addition of each protective factor reduces the impact of risk on negative outcome i.e., moderating the effect of exposure to risk (Lodewyk, et al., 2010). It is reported that the protective model of resiliency is different from the compensatory model and the challenge model, as it operates indirectly to influence outcomes (Lodewijks, et al., 2010). Protective factors were discussed in general terms, and a specific focus on community-level protective factors was not offered.

### 8.3.2 *Resilience as a dynamic process*

Rennie, et al., (2010) do not offer a particular model of resiliency, but note that resilience can be conceptualised as a dynamic process which involves both the interaction of risk and protective processes. It is reported that resilience is a concept which explains the unexpectedness of prosocial outcomes in the face of adverse circumstances (Rennie, et al., 2010). It is mentioned that protective factors which may have an impact on the development of resilience, could be both, environmental or personal, but specific types of environmental/ community-level protective factors are not mentioned (Rennie, et al., 2010). Rennie, et al., (2010) highlight the fact that research on protective factors and resilience is in its infancy compared with research on risk factors.

It was reported in the findings and conclusion of their study that protective factors could possibly act as a buffer for the effects of risk factors (Rennie, et al., 2010). Particularly, resilient personality was found to be a significant predictor as an individual protective factor,

but specific community-level protective factors fostering resilience was not discussed (Rennie, et al., 2010).

### 8.3.3 *Structural perspective on youth violence and resilience*

Of the three articles discussed in this section of the review, Wilman and Marcelin, (2010) was the only one that placed emphasis on factors affecting the development of resilience at the community-level. This particular study was positioned within a structural perspective (Wilman, & Marcelin, 2010). The discussion focussed on an interaction between community-level risk factors, and community-level protective factors. A particular model of resilience is not offered, but rather discussed generally as it is found in the literature.

Wilman and Marcelin (2010), report that the volume of literature examining the relation between youth and violence focuses on the understanding of risk and protective factors at the individual level. It was also mentioned that, included in the protective factors, a sense of family connectedness as well as a stable relationship with at least one adult or parent, has been found to be a key element in resilience to violence (Wilman, & Marcelin, 2010).

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Wilman & Marcelin, (2010) report on studies which suggest that the accumulation of risk and protective factors can have a buffering effect on each other, facilitating healing and decreasing the tendency for violence – “risk accumulates; opportunity ameliorates”.

According to Wilman, & Marcelin (2010), negative home experiences can quite often be alleviated by positive support at school, community groups, etc. It is reported that studies have found that a sense of social connection, including opportunities for participation in social and economic life, assists in protecting against violent behaviour (Wilman, & Marcelin, 2010).

It is, however, noted that if this particular child’s community is riddled with violence; deteriorated infrastructure, schools, and families; and is marginalized from the rest of society, then his or her chances of recovery and adopting positive social behaviour are slim (Wilman,

& Marcelin, 2010). It is reported that in these communities, youth are exposed to the direct physical violence around them, as well as to structural violence in the form of exclusion from opportunities and services, impacting youth in various forms such as depression and harm directed at themselves and aggression and violence directed at others (Wilman, & Marcelin, 2010). In studies of urban youth, even the presence of strong family support has been found incapable of alleviating the impact of consistent exposure to community violence (Wilman, & Marcelin, 2010).

Wilman and Marcelin, (2010) note that this sheds light on why violent behaviour tends to concentrate in particular geographical areas, where risk factors tend to accumulate without the compensatory, support structures of community and family to buffer them.

For these reasons, Wilman and Marcelin (2010), argue that a structural view of youth violence is needed, whereby youth are not conceptualized as individual delinquents in need of rehabilitation, but rather as products of their families and communities. Youth violence, is thus described by Wilman and Marcelin, (2010) as violent behaviour in response to broader structural violence, and reportedly reflects a broader social conflict between not only youth and adults, but between the “included” and the “excluded”.

#### **8.4 Chapter summary**

Of the 15 articles included in this review, less than a quarter (n=3, 20%) conceptualised risk or protective factors within a resilience framework. Two of the articles mentioned in this section discussed protective factors in general, and did not specifically focus on community-level protective factors, although one of the articles did indicate that factors at the environmental level may have an effect on the development of resilience.

Only one of these articles offered a discussion on community-level risk and protective factors in the development of resilience. This article suggested that risk and protective factors for youth violence be viewed at the structural level, rather than the individual level in order to

develop positive opportunities, and community infrastructure, and thus foster community resilience.



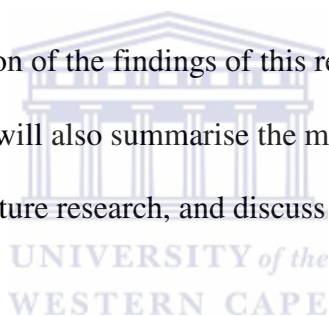
## CHAPTER NINE

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

#### 9.1 Introduction

The aims of this study was to explore the conceptualisation of youth violence perpetration within the research, to determine the types of community-level protective factors identified in the research associated with this phenomenon, to explore the interaction between community-level risk and protective factors as discussed within the research and, to establish the extent to which community-level protective factors are conceptualised within a community resilience framework.

Therefore, this chapter will conclude the review with a discussion section of this study looking at an integrated exploration of the findings of this review and the abovementioned research objectives. This chapter will also summarise the major findings of the review, look at implications for practice and future research, and discuss the limitations and significance of this study.



#### 9.2 Discussion

##### 9.2.1 *What is youth violence perpetration?*

The findings of this review indicate that there is a general consensus within the literature on the conceptualisation of youth violence perpetration. All of the articles included in the review offered some form of conceptualisation of violence perpetrated by youth. The articles under review each researched some aspect of youth violence, identifying the age categories of ‘youth’ as being between the ages of 12 and 25 which is the target population of this study. Youth within these age ranges, were identified as boys, girls, adolescents, teenagers, high school students, young people, young adults, young men, young women, youth offenders, and juvenile delinquents.

Forms of violence perpetration as found within this review ranged from descriptions of violent behaviour - harassment, threats, and relational aggression; etc. to violent criminal offenses- guns/weapons carrying or threats with weapons; physical fighting; sexual assault; homicide, rape, arson etc. With the inclusion of harassment, threats, relational aggression, and weapons carrying, it is an indication that youth violence perpetration within the literature is not only considered to be a physical assault or attack on someone, but any kind of behaviour towards others which may harm them or cause them to act in a fearful way.

Some of the articles under review suggested contexts or settings within which youth violence perpetration may occur, such as domestic violence (hitting/punching a family member), gang membership, school violence and after school violence (Eddy, et al., 2004; Herrman, et al., 2012; Spencer, et al., 2009& Stevens, et al., 2011).

Wilman & Marcelin (2010), on their study of violent youth in Cite' Soleil, Haiti discuss youth violence perpetration as a response to a broader structural violence, – a result of environmental and political struggles which reportedly reflects a broader social conflict between the “included and the “excluded”. This finding is in keeping with Pelsers (2008) argument that youth violence in South Africa is a role of the development and reproduction of a “culture of violence”, spawned by the structural violence of Apartheid. Pelsers (2008) states that crime in South Africa is normalised amongst an “underclass of negatively socialised and socially, excluded youth”. Accordingly, Coser's (1957) theory of social conflict states that violence develops as a successful method to compete for scarce resources in a socially disadvantaged environment.

Therefore the conceptualisation of youth violence perpetration as found in this review of youth violence literature can be considered as young people between the ages of 12 and 25 adopting roles as perpetrators of violence. This violence perpetration may take the form of milder violent behaviour such as harassment, threats, and relational aggression; to violent criminal offenses- guns/weapons carrying or threats with weapons; physical fighting; sexual assault; homicide, rape, arson etc. It can be defined as not only physical assault or attacks on others, but any kind of behaviour towards them which may harm them or cause them to act in a fearful way.

These forms of violence may occur in settings with peers (e.g. school), with family members (e.g. domestic violence), and within the community (e.g. gang membership). Furthermore, youth violence perpetration occurring within socially disadvantaged communities is said to have developed as a result of competing for scarce resources within the environment (Closer, 1957).



#### 9.2.2 *Which community-level protective factors are identified in research on youth violence?*

The findings of this study indicate that more than half of the studies included in the review did not identify community-level protective factors associated with youth violence. Most of the articles in the review placed emphasis on individual risk and protective factors, although sometimes acknowledging an interaction of various levels of protective factors associated with violence perpetration.

These findings are consistent with previous literature which indicates that most research on youth violence focus on risk and protective factors at the individual level and that studies on other levels of risk and protective factors, particularly community-level protective factors, are in its' infancy (Farrington, 2000; Mitchell, 2009).



The analysis and synthesis of community-level protective factors within this review identified community structure and access to community-level resources, the provision of economic opportunities, education and peer mentoring programmes, as well as prosocial involvement/interaction as possible protective factors at the community level. These findings confirm previously identified concepts of community-level protective factors within the literature such as community infrastructure, and the provision of basic services that support child and youth-oriented programmes and reduces group conflict and economic inequality (Graham, Bruce, & Perold, 2010; Leoschut, & Burton, 2009; OECD, 2011).

The most commonly identified protective factor at the community level, across the articles reviewed was the provision of prosocial opportunities/involvement. Eleven (73.33%) of the articles reviewed included some form of prosocial involvement in their findings on protective factors associated with youth violence perpetration. This protective factor may be provided with the implementation of some of the other identified community-level factors. Prosocial involvement can be developed by providing youth with safe environmental opportunities such as safer schools and communities, recreational/extracurricular activities, opportunities for employment, and education or mentoring programmes. These factors may assist youth in increasing their skills and self-confidence, as well as contribute to the community (OECD, 2011). This may serve to reintegrate at-risk/ violent youth into society by mobilizing them as agents of positive social change (Wilman, & Marcelin, 2010).

### *9.2.3 Is the interaction between community-level risk and protective factors discussed?*

The interaction between community-level risk and protective factors are discussed to a certain extent within the articles reviewed. Less than half of the articles (n=6, 40%) discussed protective factors at the community/ neighbourhood level. Within these articles, many of

them identify risk and protective factors at the community-level, but do not explore these phenomena in detail.

The extent to which this interaction is discussed within the literature is to suggest community-level protective factors as solutions to identified community-level risk factors. Community-level risk factors, such as exposure to community violence; poverty; unemployment; association with violent peers, community disorganisation; community norms favourable to drug use; marginalization; economic distress, etc., were identified (Franke, 2000; Hart, et al., 2007; Hemphill, et al., 2009; Herman, et al., 2012; & Wilman, et al.; 2010).

Community-level protective factors suggested in response to these risk factors were access to community structure; community-level resources; provision of prosocial bonding/ involvement or opportunities; provision of economic opportunities; educational and mentoring programmes, etc., (Franke, 2000; Hart, et al., 2007; Hemphill, et al., 2009; Herman, et al., 2012; & Wilman, et al.; 2010).

Wilman and Marcelin, (2010) in their discussion on the interaction of community-level risk and protective factors, discuss the influence of community structure on youth violence more in-depth than the other articles. Within this study, youth violence perpetration is viewed within a structural perspective, viewing the phenomenon as a result of a structural breakdown of common cultural norms, which can only be addressed by replacing what is missing: economic possibility, social recognition, and respect. It is stated that the message is that youth violence in Haiti and elsewhere is not “just” a problem of youth, but a problem of the broader society and the ways youth are integrated into society (Wilman, & Marcelin, 2010).

Once again, these findings indicate that not much focus is given to community-level risk and protective factors within the literature on youth violence, particularly community-level protective factors.

9.2.4 *To what extent are the community-level protective factors conceptualised within a community resilience framework?*

Only three of the articles (20%) included in this review conceptualised risk or protective factors within a resilience framework, none of which offered a community resilience model. Two of the articles discussed protective factors in general, and did not specifically focus on community-level protective factors, although one of these articles did indicate that factors at the environmental level may have an effect on the development of resilience.

One of these articles discussed the protective model of resiliency which describes a relationship in which the addition of each protective factor reduces the impact of risk on negative outcome i.e., moderating the effect of exposure to risk (Lodewijks, et al., 2010). The other article discussed resilience as a dynamic process involving both the interaction of risk and protective factors (Rennie, et al., 2010)

Only one of these articles offered a discussion on community-level risk and protective factors in the development of resilience, although not specifying a particular model of resilience.

This article suggested that risk and protective factors for youth violence be viewed at the structural level, rather than the individual level in order to develop positive opportunities, and community infrastructure, and thus foster community resilience (Wilman, & Marcelin, 2010).

Wilman and Marcelin (2010), argue that a structural view of youth violence is needed, whereby youth are not conceptualized as individual delinquents in need of rehabilitation, but rather as products of their families and communities. Youth violence, is thus described by Wilman and Marcelin, (2010) as violent behaviour in response to broader structural violence, and reportedly reflects a broader social conflict between not only youth and adults, but between the “included” and the “excluded”.

This structural view of resilience is similar to the basic principles of the Linking Human Systems (LINC) community resilience model which states that increased social support and secure attachment decrease the risk of major sequelae of trauma and increase access to internal and external resilience (Landau, 2007).

The LINC model proposes the following principles for application to intervention strategies: (Landau, 2007; Walsh & McGoldrick, 2004)

- Adopting an ecosystemic approach which acknowledges that communities encompass numerous intertwined social networks and that it is important to access all hierarchies and engage as many networks as possible.
- The utilization of diverse maps, including genograms, geographic, and sociological maps to assess community structure, resources, and histories.
- The reliance on esteemed community members, and community links to attain various levels (grassroots to official levels) and serve as natural agents for change.
- The employment of community links who are responsible for initiating and maintaining change within their communities, thus ensuring that the community takes ownership of its' solutions and gets commended for change, increasing the possibility that change will be maintained over time.

### **9.3 Summary and major findings of the review**

The findings of this review indicate that youth violence perpetration is conceptualised within the research as various forms of violence committed by young people, spanning from early adolescence to young adulthood. It is considered as being any kind of behaviour directed towards others which may harm them or cause them to act in a fearful way and this can occur in various settings/contexts.

In general the articles in this review did not focus much on community-level protective factors associated with youth violence perpetration. The extent to which community-level protective factors was discussed was in relation to community-level risk factors as intervention strategies. In most of the articles, the focus on risk and protective factors was at the individual level. Also, none of the articles conceptualised community resilience within a community resilience framework, although one of the articles did emphasise the importance of community level factors on the development of resilience within disorganised communities.

It has, however, been indicated in these findings that community-level factors may play an integral part in the intervention/prevention strategies associated with youth violence perpetration. The literature has suggested that youth violence perpetration may be as a result of a lack of social infrastructure and opportunities within impoverished communities. For this reason the provision of community resources, economic opportunity, educational and mentoring programmes, and subsequently the development of prosocial involvement/interaction was suggested as strategies for intervention at a community level.

#### **9.4 Implications for practice**

The findings of this review have indicated that intervention or prevention strategies at a community or societal level aimed at youth violence perpetration may have a largely, positive effect on the problem. Strategies that focus on more than just the individual may not be effective in contexts within which individuals are faced with structural challenges, such as the South African context wherein citizens are largely living in poverty and disorganized, unsafe communities.

For this reason intervention strategies should focus on the alleviation of structural challenges within communities, which may be fostering a sense of exclusion and marginalization amongst youth at-risk for violence perpetration. This may be accomplished by providing

prosocial opportunities for youth, resulting in a reintegration into society by mobilizing them as agents of positive social change, thus fostering community resilience.

### **9.5 Implications for further research**

The findings of this study have shown that not much focus is given to community-level factors which may impact on the development or maintenance of youth violence, thus it is recommended that further research explore the impact of community-level factors on youth violence perpetration, and the development of community resilience. Future studies may also explore the interaction between community-level risk and community-level protective factors.

Also, this study focussed solely on community-level protective factors associated with violence perpetration and not youth violence victimization. There may not be much of a disparity between community-level protective factors associated with perpetration and victimization, but further research may be beneficial in exploring this.

### **9.6 Limitations of the study**

The effects of publication bias, as well as other internal and external biases needs to be considered. The studies that have been reviewed varied in terms of study size, study quality, source of funding and publication bias and this may have had an effect on the results of the primary studies included in this review and may subsequently have had an effect on this review. The current study has been limited to reviewing articles and studies published between Jan 1994 and Jan 2014. This review has also only focussed on youth violence perpetration, and not youth violence victimization.

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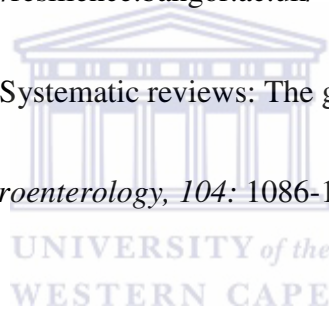
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**APPENDIX B – Title Summary Sheet**


Title reading extraction tool (based on keywords search)

Author	Date	Title	Database (UWC)	Outcome (excluded/included)



### APPENDIX C – Abstract Summary Sheet

Abstract reading tool (based on inclusion and exclusion criteria)

Author	Title	Aims relevant to current study: addressing aspects of youth violence (prevention/ intervention programmes, risk/protective factors, etc.)	Target population: youth between the ages of 12-25 (adolescents, juveniles, delinquents, young adults, high school (gr.7-12)/ college/ university students), adopting roles as perpetrators/offenders of violence	Presence of key words: youth violence, youth offenders/ violent perpetrators, community-level protective factors, resilience/ community resilience
		 UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE		

## APPENDIX D

### Critical Appraisal Tool for Qualitative and Quantitative studies

<b>Author :</b>			
<b>Title :</b>			
<b>KEY QUESTIONS</b>	<b>STUDY RATING:</b>		
	<u>NO (0)</u>	<u>YES (1)</u>	
1. Are the aims of the study clearly stated?			
2. Is the research design of the study stated?			
3. Is the sampling procedure clearly specified?			
4. Is the data collection procedure clearly specified?			
5. Is the data analysis procedure clearly specified?			
6. Are the reported findings supported by the data?			
7. Is the potential impact of diverse contexts on the relevance of the findings discussed?			
8. Are future directions for research discussed?			
9. Are the implications for interventions discussed?			
<b>TOTAL</b>			
<b>TOTAL SCORE YES/NO ( /9 Max pts.)</b>	<b>/9</b>		
	<u>Not at all</u>  <u>(0)</u>	<u>To some extent</u>  <u>(1)</u>	<u>To a great extent</u>  <u>(2)</u>
10. To what extent is the rationale for the methodology discussed?			
11. To what extent are the key findings of the study clearly stated?			
12. To what extent are the limitations of the study discussed?			
13. To what extent are sources of bias in methodology (sampling, procedure, instruments, design, analysis) identified and discussed?			
14. To what extent is an integrated discussion of the findings presented (the extent to which the current results are integrated with the literature in the area)?			
15. To what extent is the discussion of risk and protective factors integrated with resilience theory?			
<b>TOTALS:</b>			
<b>TOTAL SCORE LIKERT SCALE ( /12 Max pts.)</b>	<b>/12</b>		
<b>TOTAL ACCUMULATED SCORE ( /21Max pts.)</b>	<b>/21</b>		
<b>Average % (across both scales)</b>	<b>%</b>		
<b>Weak (&lt; 40%) Moderate (41 – 60%) Strong (61-80%) Excellent (&gt;80%)</b>			

(Studies will be excluded from the systematic review if the quality of evidence was rated as weak <50%)

Adapted from: Long AF, Godfrey M, Randall T, Brettle AJ and Grant MJ (2002) *Developing Evidence Based Social Care Policy and Practice. Part 3: Feasibility of Undertaking Systematic Reviews in Social Care*. Leeds: Nuffield Institute for Health