UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

EFFECTS OF YOUTH VIOLENCE IN KASOA

ENOCH TAWIAH AKWETEY-WAYO

8170140002

**A thesis in the Department of social studies,
Faculty of Social Sciences, submitted to the School of
Graduate Studies in partial fulfilment**

**of the requirements for the award of
Master of Philosophy
(Social Studies)
in the University of Education, Winneba**

JULY, 2019

DECLARATION

I, **Tawiah Akwetey – Wayo Enoch** hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's signature………………………………..……

Date……………………………………………….…………

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertations laid down by University of Education, Winneba

NAME: Dr Vincent Adzhalie - Mensah

Supervisor's signature……………………..……….

Date…………………………………..………

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my wife, Evelyn Amaning and my children.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents   Pages

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

The study examined the effects of youth violence in Kasoa. It was aimed at analyzing the nature and effects of youth violence on the Kasoa Township. The study employed descriptive survey and explorative design using the quantitative research approach. A combination of Yamane formula and convenient sampling methods were adopted to select a sample size of 280 for the study. The result from this study showed that armed robbery/stealing, assault/fighting/harm, domestic violence, bullying, vandalism, gangsterism, rape/sexual harassment, defilement, drugs and narcotic possession, death threat and murder were the most common forms of youth violence in Kasoa. Also, the findings from the study have shown that the prevalence of violence and crime is high within Kasoa and its environs. The study also revealed that youth between the ages of 15 to 35 are the most perpetrators of these violence and crimes, and the major reason were illiteracy, financial needs, poor parental supervision, abuse and neglect of children among others. The study concluded by recommending the need for Government to continue partnering with NGOs and stakeholders to develop more employment programmes, directed at providing training and skills development for the youth. It was also recommended that efforts should be made to reduce access to gun as well as addressing the dangers involved in gang formation among the youth.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Over the past decades, youth violence and crime have received some attention of many scholars and authors within the academia, politics, economics, and traditional authorities, and have become one of the most significant aspects of sociology and criminology. Youth involvement in criminal and violence activities is a variety of social life, and usually found in our homes, schools, streets, and all places of social life, which hampers the stability and social command of our society; creating social disorder and destruction of moral values. In view of Barnie, Nyarko, Dapaah, Appiah, and Awuviry-Newton (2017), the development of any nation or community is largely dependent on how the youths are involved and its related security issues. The "Youth" is said to be the period of transition from dependence to independence and the awareness of interdependence as a member of a community. On the account of Barnie et al, (2017), the definition of a Youth is more fluid category than a fixed age-group. However, the UNESCO and the United Nations viewed age as the easiest component for defining "youth". The United Nation for statistical consistency across all regions defines 'youth', as those persons between the ages of 15 and 24 years, without prejudice to other definitions by Member States. All UN statistics on youth are based on this definition. However, the African Youth Charter of UNESCO defined "youth" as "every person between the ages of 15 and 35 years". In Ghana, The youth is said to be a period where the individual becomes an active and responsible member of the society.

The "National Youth Policy of Ghana" sees all persons of age 15 to 35 as youth, and they cumulatively account for 33.8% of the total population of the country (Ghana

1

Statistical Service (GSS), 2010; Appiah, Badu, Dapaah, Harriet & Abubakar 2015; Barnie et al, 2017).

Similarly, on the other hand, many scholars have attempted to define violence, however, the most accepted and widely used definition is the one by the World Health Organization in 1996. According to the World Health Organization (WHO 1996), violence is "the use of intentional physical, threats or actual force or power, by the youth, against oneself, against another person, or against a group or community, which either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development, or deprivation (WHO, 1996; WHO, 2002). This definition was affirmed by UNESCO in 2016. However UNESCO (2016) added by summarising this definition to "violence being any act or behaviour where human beings abuse each other" (p5).

That said, many researchers across Africa, especially in Uganda, Zimbabwe, Zambia, and Ghana, have conducted several studies into the occurrence of youth violence and its impact on the individual, family, peer, and community level. Such studies included; Erulkar (2004), Rudatsikira, Siziya, Kazembe and Muula (2007), Brown, Riley, Butchart, Meddings, Kann and Harvey, (2009), Breiding, Reza, Gulaid et al (2011), Swahn, Gressard, Palmier, Kasirye, Lynch, and Yao (2012), Ohene, Johnson, Atunah-Jay, Owusu and Borowsky (2015), and among others.

Youth violence is a global phenomenon, especially on public health. It includes a range of acts from bullying and physical fighting, to more severe sexual and physical assault to homicide. Many cities around the world are plagued with both random and organized crime and violence operations and those in Africa are no exception (Barnie et al, 2017). Significantly, many researchers and news anchors across the world have reported a

noticeable upsurge in the incidence violence and crimes, mostly in the urban centres less developed countries, particularly in the few decades (Huggins, 2000; European Union Settlement Scheme (EUSS), 2007).

In recent years, according to Ajayi (2013), several studies have identified higher levels of unemployment, poverty and inequality in major cities of the third world countries. This situation combined with poor governance, weak institutions and improper planning have led to negative socio-economic and political consequences; leading to the emergence of high levels of violence and social vices in most major cities.

A report by the European Union Settlement Scheme (EUSS) in 2007 estimated that at least 60% to 70% of all urban dwellers in developing countries, especially in Africa and some part of Latin American, have been victims of violence. In Ghana, youth violence has been one of the major issues confronting many societies and Kasoa is no exception. Therefore, the foremost concern of this study is to explore the incidence of youth violence in Kasoa, and its consequences on the individuals.

1.2 Statement of Research Problem

The increasing incidence of violence and crimes in many urban and peri-urban centres threatens the security and safety of many residents especially among children and women, and has gained a lot of attention from policy makers and security experts around the world. Security is an essential tool for the socio-economic development of any society in the world today. It is the wish of every society to raise people who are well socialized in order to be well integrated for peaceful coexistence as well as increase productivity.

The UNESCO (2016) reported that about 200,000 incidence of homicides occur among children and youth 10–29 years of age each year worldwide, accounting for 43% of the

3

total number of homicides globally each year. Youth violence has a serious, often lifelong, impact on a person's physical, psychological and social functioning.

Kasoa, in recent times, has been in the news for the wrong reasons, owing to the rampant nature of violence and crime. Over 2,703 incidences of violence and crime were recorded by the police from 2014 to 2018. More recently, some television and radio stations have reported several violent and crime cases mostly committed by the youth in Kasoa; land guards raped, killed a hairdresser and dumped the body in a dustbin (Atinkaonline.com, July 19th, 2018), a receptionist was raped and killed at a guest house (Myjoyonline.com, November 14th, 2017), Land guards attack Kasoa residents during communal labour (Adomonline.com, November 1st, 2018), three youths were arrested for illegally supplying weapons to criminals in Kasoa (Ghanaweb.com, 27th January 2018). Putting all together, Aning (2018) estimated about 50 crime hotspots will emerge in Kasoa by 2021.

Clearly, violence in Kasoa is somewhat becoming too alarming, making it difficult for dwellers to peacefully commute without fear of being killed, robbed, raped, molested or subjected to any other means of violence. However, very little has been done in academic research in the specific context on the consequences of youth violence and crime and its impact on the Ghanaian society, for that matter, Kasoa. This means that there is the need to understand the phenomenon and find solutions to this problem of youth violence and crime in the study community. This study, therefore, seeks to fill this gap in knowledge and contribute to the youth violence discourse.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to determine the nature, causes, and effects of youth violence in Kasoa

1.4 Research Objectives

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the following research questions were answered:

1. To determine the nature of youth violence in Kasoa

2. To examine the causes of youth violence in Kasoa.

3. To analyse the consequences of youth violence in Kasoa

4. To propose measures to reduce youth violence and crime in Kasoa

1.5 Research Questions

1. What is the nature of youth violence in Kasoa?

2. What are the causes of youth violence in Kasoa?

3. What are the consequences of youth violence on the Kasoa Township?

4. What are available measures to reduce youth violence and crime in Kasoa?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is designed to provide better understanding of the nature, causes, and effects of youth violence in Kasoa. Therefore, the findings in this study will have both theoretical and practical contribution to the field of social studies and legal studies (criminology). The results will be beneficial to criminologists, law makers/enforcers, educationists and youth activists on the social, psychological and other factors that causes youth violence, as well as the availability of appropriate measures in curbing and rehabilitation of delinquent youth. In essence, the information from this study will help sociologist, opinion leaders and law enforcement agencies to develop a society that is less prone to or susceptible to criminal and violent acts. Academically, the findings from this research will contribute to the existing knowledge on the nature, causes, and effects of youth violence. The information from this study will help students

5

of social studies in acquiring an in-depth understanding of the complexities of criminal, delinquent and deviant behavior, as well as society's reaction to crime and violence. It will also inform parents on the reasons to be more vigilant about their children, as well as alerting security personnel on the need to be more proactive. This study will also help to create the awareness on the need for residents to be cautious and observant. Finally, this study will serve as a guide to researchers and to provide data upon which further studies could be concluded.

1.7 Organization of the Study

The study is presented in five chapters. The first chapter entails the background of the study, problem statement, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, as well as the organization of the study. The second chapter reviewed extensive literature on youth violence, the concept of youth, theories of youth violence, broken window theory, youth bulge theory, coercion theory, causes of youth violence, effects of youth violence and Management of youth. The third chapter focused on the methodology, entailing the research design, the research population, sample and sampling technique, and data collection and analysis. The fourth chapter focused on data analysis, findings and discussions, and the fifth and final chapter dealt with the study summary, conclusions and recommendations drawn from the findings of this study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This section deals with relevant literature on youth violence in Kasoa. It therefore captures the concept of youth, theories of youth violence, causes, effects and management of youth violence.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

Theoretical perspectives give a framework for the research. All theories provide reasoning as why a phenomenon takes place or occurs in society and in the reflection of theory research can analyze the phenomenon in a specific direction to predict or find out the consequence of the phenomenon (Muhammed, Muhammed and Muhammed, 2015). Two theories underpinned this study, namely; Broken Window Theory and Youth Bulge theory.

2.1.1 Broken window theory

The broken windows theory is a criminological theory propounded by social scientists Wilson and Kelling (1982) to study the visible signs of crime, anti-social behavior, and civil disorder. This theory focused on the policing methods for combating minor crimes such as vandalism, public drinking, and fare evasion, as well as helps to create an atmosphere of order and lawfulness (Taylor, 2018). The broken windows theory gained popularity in the 1990s through the efforts of William Bratton and Mayor Rudy Giuliani, New York City police commissioners, whose policing policies were influenced by the theory. The New York City Police Department was virtually using broken windows as a police practices, and have established several themes under

7

the theory, such as the use of "Stop-and-Frisk", "Hot Spot Policing (Directed Patrol)", "Guns and Gangs (Specialized Police Gang Units)", "Rapid Response", "Community-Oriented Policing" and "Problem-Oriented Policing (POP)" (Herbert, 2001; Sousa & Kelling, 2006; Aiyer, Zimmerman, Morrel-Samuels & Reischl, 2015; Fagan, Geller, Davies & West, 2016).

According to Wilson and Kelling (1982) the proponents of the theory, broken window symbolizes a neighbourhoods' lack of social control, serving as an invitation for more broken windows. Thus, untended deterioration increases the likelihood of future vandalism, further increasing social disorganization. According to them, if the first broken window in a building is not repaired, the people who like breaking windows will assume that no one cares about the building and more windows will be broken. Soon the building will have no windows. In Shelden (2015), Erzen (2001), maintains that broken windows "reduces the city's quality of life and creates a culture that encourages more serious crime" This, in effect means that, in any community where the law is not effective, there is a higher likely hood for the rise in crime. Once physical and social signs of disorder become apparent, residents avoid walking on streets, which further reduces opportunities for informal social interactions, (Aiyer 2014).Anytime there is a disorder in the society, people end up doing their own thing. "Disorder" according to Kelling and Coles (1996) is "behaviour that violates widely accepted standards and norms of behaviour, and about which a broad consensus exists, in spite of racial, ethnic and class differences.

Social isolation subsequently leads to reduced community investment, residential mobility, and the loss of social capital required for effective social control of deviance and crime (Perkins & Taylor, 1996; Sampson & Raudenbush, 1999; Xue, Leventhal,

8

Brooks-Gunn, & Earls, 2005) Cited in Aiyer (2014). In delineating neighbourhood constructs further, Sampson and Raudenbush (2004) found that perceptions of neighbourhood disorder have a social meaning independent from objective physical conditions. Authors reported that neighbourhood racial composition was more strongly related to perceptions of disorder than systematic observations of disorder (Sampson & Raudenbush, 2004). Specifically, they found that the higher a neighbourhoods' ethnic minority population, the greater residents' reported perceptions of disorder, regardless of more objective measures of disorder such as the number of police incidents in the neighbourhood (Aiyer 2014).

2.1.2 Basic ideas of broken windows

Although one can find many of the core ideas of broken windows in earlier works by Wilson (1968) and Kelling et al (1981), as well as many other authors, however, three basic ideas can be deduce from the Broken Windows theory, namely;

1. Disorder and fear of crime are strongly linked:

2. Police (in the examples given, foot patrol officers) negotiate rules of the street. "Street people" are involved in the negotiation of those rules,

3. Different neighborhoods have different rules,

4. Untended disorder leads to breakdown of community controls;

5. Areas where community controls break down are vulnerable to criminal invasion;

6. The essence of the police role in maintaining order is to reinforce the informal control mechanisms of the community itself.

7. Problems arise not so much from individual disorderly persons as it does from the congregation of large numbers of disorderly persons; and,

9

8. Different neighborhoods have different capacities to manage disorder.

This theory was carefully chosen to form the basis for this research because, as mentioned earlier, any time that people with deviant behaviours are caught and left unpunished, it becomes yard stick for other members in the community to exhibit the same. This gradually, undermines the safety and security of the whole community. People therefore take the law into their own hand and then involve in further criminal activities. Broken window as a theoretical framework provides the hypothesis for establishing the relationship between disorder and fear or the association between incivilities and serious crime. It also helps to evaluates policies that are derived from or otherwise influenced by broken communities, such as quality-of-life programs or order maintenance enforcement practices.

This theory further explains that, in order to maintain peace, stability and a violent free society, perpetrators of crime should be punished to deter others from doing same. This assertion is therefore found useful for this study.

2.1.3 Youth bulge theory

The term was propounded by Gunnar Heinsohn (a German social scientist) in the mid-1990s but has gained greater popularity in recent years, due to the work of American political scientists Gary Fuller and Jack Goldstone (Urdal, 2012). According to Schomaker (2013), the term youth bulge is used to define a situation in which the population share of the 15-24 year-olds exceeds 20 per cent and the share of the 0-14 year-olds (often also referred to as the "children bulge" and a good predictor of future youth bulges) is higher than 30 per cent. "Youth bulge" is a demographic expressions frequently used to describe a population in which the share of young people is radically large in contrast to other, elder age groups (Muhammad, Muhammad,

10

Muhammad & Muhammad, 2015). Heinsohn (2000), believes that the main assumption is the large proportion of youth that are not involved in healthy and creative activities, government not providing them opportunities and not using their skills are involved into the violent conflict terrorism, crime, civil disorder and other forms of social unrest and conflict. Lia (2005) argues that youth bulge provides fertile ground for recruitment to terrorist organizations.

Application of youth bulge to youth violence in Kasoa (Ghana)

The socio-economic and political landscape of Ghana fronts a great challenge to the youth. Almost all the significant socio-economic indicators point to the frailty of the Ghanaian economy and the relatively poor well-being of the people (United States Agency for International Development (USAID), 2010). The economy of Ghana, for over sixty years of independence, still depends on the primary sector and foreign aids (Kwarteng, Dadzie & Famiyeh, 2016). There is high level of indebtedness, unemployment, poverty, infant and maternal mortality, illiteracy, and an entrenched culture of corruption (Fuseini & Kemp, 2016; Cooke, Hague & McKay, 2016). The absence of basic infrastructure in most rural parts of Ghana has left majority of Ghanaians with no access to basic amenities such as water supply, electricity, sanitation, housing, among other important basic means of survival (Daniels, Ahenkan & Poku, 2013; Obeng-Odoom, 2013; Kwarteng, Dadzie & Famiyeh, 2016). Thus, after many years of stable democratic governance, the country is still noted of poor governance, lack of proper accountability and transparency, and corruption, all of

which have implication for the meaningful participation of the youth population in the economic and governance arrangements of the country (Liedong & Rajwani, 2018).

Furthermore, the Ghana Statistical Service (2010) has it that, the proportion of the population up to 35 years has equally been high and has represented more than two-thirds of the total population of Ghana recorded in each of the censuses: 69% in 1984, 75.9% in 2000 and 75.3% in 2010. This increase in population creates more challenges for the state to provide education, shelter, healthcare, food, employment and other necessities of life. This means that if there are no proper means of education and economic opportunities for the large number of the youth population, youth bulge could just be a time bomb waiting to explode. This is because a large number of jobless youth could become a potential source of social and political instability, with dire consequences for economic development (Youth bulge theory).

Recent empirical studies suggest that youth bulges are associated with an increased risk of political violence (Schomaker, 2013). By 2050, the world will have undergone a dramatic shift in the age structure of the adult population compared to 1950. During 1950-1990, young people between the ages of 15 and 24 years made up more than 25 per cent of the adult population in Asia, Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean. By 2050, however, the United Nations (2011) predicts that only sub-Saharan Africa still has young adult shares above 25 per cent, while all other world regions are around or below 15 per cent (Urdal, 2012). This means that any country or society which does

not factor the youth in her decisions is likely to face challenges associated with violence and crime with time if the population of that society is youthful. The youth bulge theory is very is useful in this study due to the youthful nature of the population of Ghana.

2.2 The Concept of Youth

The definition of youth is carved with difficulties depending on the scope of its definition. The United Nations consider youth as a period between the ages of 15 and 24. In Ghana, The National Youth Policy (2010) sees all persons of age 15 to 35 as youth. The African Youth Charter (year) also has it that "youth" is "every person between the ages of 15 and 35 years". According to Mintah – Afari (2016), youth is defined as the state of the mind, meaning that, in spite of a person's age, he or she can be considered as youth if he or she exhibits the characteristics of a youth.

The Social Studies teaching syllabus of the Ghana Education Service (GES) for Senior High school (2010) also has the youth being referred to as the ''active and potential manpower before retiring age''. Eme and Idike (2015), opine that there is no universal definition of the youth population. They say "Youth" is traditionally defined as a period of transition from childhood to adulthood. In the African Youths Report 2009 (hereafter, the AYR) (UNECA 2009), "youths" are defined as people between 15 and 39 years of age. Several African countries define their youth population differently. For example, Ghana, Tanzania and South Africa define the youth population as those between 15 and 35 years of age; Nigeria and Swaziland define it as those between 12 and 30 years; and Botswana and Mauritius define it as those between 14 and 25 years (Eme & Idike, 2015). The various definitions show the perceptions of the concept of youth with regards to specific geographical location. This means that, age does not matter so far as there are young and energetic people capable of contributing

meaningfully to the development of their society. However, for the purpose of this study, the researcher agreed with Ansell, (2016) that "Youth" is said to be the period of transition from dependence to independence and the awareness of interdependence as a member of a community.

2.3 The Meaning of Youth Violence

The World Health Organization (2002) defines violence as "the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development, or deprivation. Violence is seen as any behaviour where human beings abuse each other.

Finkelhor, Ormrod and Turner, (2007) Cited in Seifert (2011), grouped violence into four categories thus, "violent and property crimes (e.g., assault, sexual assault, theft, and burglary), (2) child welfare violations (child abuse, family abduction), (3) the violence of warfare and civil disturbances, and (4) bullying victimization. It includes acts that would be considered crimes if committed between adults, although not necessarily considered criminal when occurring among children (e.g., hitting by peers and siblings). The complicated interplay of these various forms of violence; and their cumulative effect upon children; is still being studied. However, it is becoming clear that children need to be assessed for multiple forms of violence. The physical impact of violence can range from little to none (as in the case of emotional or psychological bullying) all the way to severe injury and/or death. Tolan and Guerra (1994) identify four types of violence: situational, relationship, predatory, and psychopathological.

14

- Situational violence refers to violence that occurs in response to certain situational factors, such as (but not limited to) the availability of weapons, use of alcohol or other drugs, or other setting or occasion-specific incidents.

- Relationship violence arises from interpersonal disputes between individuals.

- Predatory violence includes acts that are perpetrated for gain (i.e., violence that occurs during a robbery).

- Psychopathological violence, a relatively rare form, arises from an underlying pathological condition in the offender.

Some youths in Kasoa are found in most or all of the various types of violence explained above. Youth violence is a global public health problem. It includes a range of acts from bullying and physical fighting, to more severe sexual and physical assault to homicide (UNESCO 2016). Asamani et al (2017), opine that Youth violence is a fact of social life. According to them, it is found in homes, wards, streets, schools, organizations, and institutions. It has received attention within academics or domains such as economics, political science, transport planning, and architecture. For this purpose, youth violence is seen to be the involvement of any deliberate act by young people who have the tendency to harm other people or one's self for personal gains.

2.4 Causes of Youth Violence

It is very important to know why some of the youths are violent today. This helps in finding lasting solutions to curb the situation. Ayatulaahi (2017), believes that most youths are involved in violence because of ill-gotten wealth which does not last and its repercussion is very distasteful. Wortley (2013), adds that, it is widely believed that if we can only identify the cause or causes of criminality, we will be better able to prevent

violence in the first place, or at least be in a position to punish, treat, or rehabilitate those identified as violent offenders. Those who are promiscuous think someone might take their loved one away from them and this could induce violent behaviours. They cannot stand the sight of their partners mingling with other people and will go at all length including the use of violence to guard against that. In addition, participants explained that promiscuous people appear aggressive and will resort to threats and abuse to achieve their sexual desires (Asamani et al, 2017). Also, at the other end of the spectrum, structural theories propose that variables like poverty, oppression, social inequality and racism must be considered in any explanation of violent behaviour. Still others maintain that the source of violence lies in family dynamics, neighbourhood characteristics or peer socialization processes.

According to Elliot (1994) in Echezona et al (2011), research suggests that the absence of effective social bonds and controls, together with failure of parents to teach (and children to internalize conventional norms and values) put children at risk of later violence. Shell, the largest multinational player in Nigerian's oil industry, has identified political, social and environmental factors that precipitate community disturbances in Nigeria. At the social level, Shell noted that "Anger is growing and increasing militant groups are overthrowing traditional social order in some communities (Ukeje, 2001). Ukeje (2001), added that the state's neglect of social amenities and infrastructure, such as piped water, good roads, health care facilities and schools are some of the causes of violence. According to Corps (2011), unemployment and inability to generate income can be the causes of violence among young people. She says if young people are employed, then they will be less likely to join violent movements for economic gain. She explains the following below:

16

- Ability to satisfy basic needs: The less often young people have to go without food, water, and other basic needs, the less likely they are to engage in or be disposed towards political violence.

- Employment status: Having a full or part time job that provides cash income increases young people's likelihood to disapprove of the use of violence.

2.4.1 Media influence

The media can influence youth violence. "Media" here refers to the internet, television, magazines, movies, games, advertising, etc. According to Wood (2001),the presence of violent images scenes in movies, video games, television, advertising and music unequivocally increases the likelihood of aggressive and violent behaviour in teens both immediate and long-term contexts. Wood (2001) positioned that though there is a public debate on the relations between media and youth violence, however, in most of the violence cases, the perpetrator puts on a uniform (e.g., mask, trench coat, movie costume, military uniform), as scenes from films or media scripts.

That said, a number of studies have shown that exposure to media violence is a significant risk factor for aggressive behaviour in youth. Bushman and Huesmann (2006) conducted a meta-analytic review and experimental studies on the "Short-term and long-term effects of violent media on aggression in children and adults". The result from this study indicated that that parents who set limits on the amount and content of media their children are exposed to, are able to control and protect children from aggression behaviour. Similarly, Gentile and Bushman (2012) carried out a one year longitudinal study of 430 children 7- to 11-year-old children in the USA and found out that parental involvement in the media consumption among the surveyed children, helped to reduce the likelihood of getting into a fight from 44% to 35%. Gentile and

17

Bushman (2012) established the exposure to media violence is significantly related to violent criminal behaviour. A related meta-analysis by Paik and Comstock (1994) using 58 studies found that the exposure to TV violence had significant effect of on criminal violence. In a separate study, Savage and Yancey (2008) also carried out a meta-analysis of 271 studies, and found exposure of TV violence to have significant effect on "physical violence against a person (non-illegal behaviour)". Adding more to literature, several other studies have shown that exposure to violent media predicts later aggressive and violent behaviour. (Cantor & Wilson, 2003; Funk, 2005; Liang, Goodman, Tummala-Narra & Weintraub, 2005; Bogat, Leahy, Von Eye, Maxwell, Levendosky & Davidson, 2005; Escobar-Chaves & Anderson, 2008; Ray & Jat, 2010; Weaver, 2011; Vagi, Rothman, Latzman, Tharp, Hall & Breiding, 2013; McGinty, Webster, Jarlenski & Barry, 2014; Benjamin, 2015; Buckholdt, Weiss, Young & Gratz, 2015; Allen, Anderson & Bushman, 2018).

However, the psychoanalytic theory by Brenner in (1973), the exposure to media violence can be revised at a safety valve by releasing violent impulses into harmless channels through catharsis. Nevertheless, scientific evidence contradicts this catharsis hypothesis (Bushman, 2002; Bushman, Baumeister, & Stack, 1999; Geen & Quanty, 1977). Also, there is another school of thought that media violence may reduce violent crime by keeping the youth off the street (Dahl & DellaVigna, 2009), but more evidence is needed before firm conclusions can be drawn.

2.4.2 Domestic and child abuse

Finkelhor (1984) defined Child abuse as the physical, sexual or emotional maltreatment or neglect of a child or children. Similarly, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and the Department for Children and Families (DCF), both in the

USA, defined child maltreatment as the acts or series of acts of commission or omission that results in harm, potential for harm, or threat of harm to a child (Leeb, Paulozzi, Melanson, Simon & Arias, 2008). However, the World Health Organization (WHO) definition for child abuse included all form of physical and/or emotional maltreatment, sexual abuse, neglect and negligent treatment and exploitation (Finkelhor, 2008; Crosson-Tower, 2010). From the above definitions, child abuse can be broken down into four major categories, namely; neglect, physical abuse, psychological or emotional abuse, and sexual abuse. According to Finkelhor, (2008), Child abuse is a social and public health problem that can occur in the child's home, schools or the child's community, and subsequently comes with serious life-long consequences. Many studies have been conducted around the globe, using a variety of methodologies, in line with the consequences associated with child labour and have concluded that Children who experience maltreatment are at increased risk of engaging in delinquent behaviour. Although little is known about the mechanisms responsible for this increased risk, the use of substitute care placement and placement instability are often identified as correlates.

Crooks, Scott, Ellis and Wolfe (2011), carried out a study on the impact of a universal school-based violence prevention program on violent delinquency. The researchers followed children who had been abused and/or neglected approximately 25 years earlier through an examination of official criminal records, then compared them with a matched control group of children of the same age, sex, race, and approximate social class.The results indicated that substantiated victims of maltreatment had average 47% delinquency rates. In addition, approximately 16% of children placed into substitute care, experience at least one delinquency petition compared to 7% of all maltreatment victims who are not removed from their family. Placement instability further increases

the risk of delinquency for male foster children, but not for female foster children. Other characteristics related to delinquency include race, age, and recurrence of maltreatment.

Also, the United States Department of Health and Human Services (2002) found similar results. This study was carried out within the metropolitan county in the Midwest using cases of child abuse and neglect that came to the attention of the courts from 1967 through 1971. An assessment of criminal behaviour of the crime perpetrators found that early child abuse and neglect increased the risk of arrest as a juvenile by 55% and increased the risk of being arrested for a violent crime as a juvenile by 96%. The Midwest study also found that child abuse and neglect was associated with earlier onset of juvenile violence. Abused and neglected children were first arrested about a year earlier than their matched non-abused and non-neglected peers and were more likely to become recidivists and chronic offenders.

In addition, a Rochester Youth Development Study, by Smith and Thornberry (1995) collected information on child abuse and neglect for their cohort of youth in upstate New York from the Department of Social Services in Rochester. They extended prior research by comparing official arrest records to youths' self-reports. Despite differences in geographic region, time period, and assessment technique, the findings from the Rochester youth study confirmed a significant relationship between child maltreatment and delinquency (self-reported and official). These youth were approximately 17 years old at the time of the study and, thus, information on adult criminal behaviour was not yet available.

2.4.3 Insufficient parental supervision

Hoeve, Blokland, Dubas, Loeber, Gerris and Vander (2008) used meta-analysis to examine the various parenting dimensions. The main of the study was to explore the

relationship between parenting and child delinquency. Findings from this study indicated that the best predictors of delinquency included a lack of parental supervision and a lack of parental and parental/child involvement.

A study by Alexander, Sexton and Robins (2002) found that family disruption and poor parental supervision do impact child recidivism. They positioned that household crowding, family instability, and low socioeconomic status, do influence the informal social control of the family, thus, resulting in delinquent behaviour by adolescents. On the contrary, Alexander, Sexton and Robins (2002), found out that parental rejection, hostility toward adolescents, poor communication, and ineffective supervision of children were found to be significant risk factors associated with delinquent behaviour by adolescents. Also, a study by Farrington and Welsh (20017) described how youth violence is associated with social bonds such as those formed with family, peers, school, and communities. In view of Farrington and Welsh (20017) youth resorts to violence when these bonds are weakened.

Similarly, Johnson, Smailes, Cohen, Kasen and Brook (2004) examined the impact of poor family management practices among a known sample of parents with a history of antisocial parental behaviours. This study established that parents who were identified as having a history of antisocial behaviour were significantly more likely to engage in problematic parenting behaviours. Johnson et al (2004) outlined the problematic parenting behaviours to include; inconsistent supervision of their children, a lack of enforcement of household rules, a lack of educational aspirations for their children, problems controlling their anger towards their children, little affection showed towards their children, limited communication with the children, and little family support for the children.

21

2.4.4 Peer pressure

Calvó-Armengol and Jackson (2010) defined Peer pressure as the direct or indirect influence on people by their peers. According to Shim and Shin (2015), Peer pressure may include the encouragements to follow or to conform to the attitudes, values or behaviors of one's peers. Peer pressure can either result in a positive or negative outcome or both (Kandel & Lazear, 2002). Patterson, Dishion and Yoerger (2000) suggested that the exposure to bad or atypical peers may have particular salience to adolescents, and subsequently initiate them into violence behavior. Similarly, Moffitt (1993) proposed that considerable evidence exists to support the hypothesis that deviant peer influences play important roles in both the initiation and exacerbation of youth crime and violence. However, the findings by Keenan, Loeber, Zhang, Stouthamer-Loeber and van Kammen (1995), using data from the Pittsburgh Youth Study found that deviant peer associations predict subsequent delinquency in early starters even after controlling for early disruptive and aggressive behavior. That notwithstanding other authors have established that the relation between deviant peers and tendencies of youth violence and crime (Tremblay, Masse, Vitaro & Dobkin, 1995; Bradshaw, Waasdorp, Goldweber & Johnson, 2013; van Geel, Vedder & MTanilon, 2014).

2.4.5 Substance abuse

Mosher and Akins (2018) described substance abuse as the chronic use of alcohol and drugs. According to Center for Substance Abuse Treatment (2004), an individual who abuses alcohol has a greater risk of using at least one other hard substance, such as marijuana, cocaine and heroin. However, prolonged consumption of drugs and alcohol increases addiction and the urge to consume more of the substance. Herrenkohl, Lee and Hawkins (2012), Loeber and Farrington (2012) and Whiteside et al., (2013) in separate studies, suggested that alcohol and substance abuse have long been associated

22

with risk for youth violence. Keegan (1993) argued that youth who takes hard drugs are more likely to exhibit violence behavior. Keegan (1993) traced the evolution of substance abuse to the centuries of wars where soldiers takes alcohol and other hard drugs before going into battle, both to increase aggression and to decrease fear (Keegan, 1993).

2.4.6 Traumatic events

A traumatic event is an incident that causes physical, emotional, spiritual, or psychological harm (Copeland, Keeler, Angold, & Costello, 2007). The person experiencing the distressing event may feel threatened, anxious, frightened as a result (Christianson & Loftus, 1987). In some cases, they may not know how to respond, or may be in denial about the effect such an event has had on them (Bower & Sivers, 1998). According to Falk, Thompson and Sanford (2014), dealing with traumatic events can cause violent behaviour among teens. Some authors have linked many case of youth violence toTraumatic Events.

2.4.7 Poverty and social distrust

In urban areas of concentrated poverty, youth violence can become a form of rough street justice in response to failures by the formal justice system to secure neighbourhoods, increasing social distrust of the police by youth of colour (especially African American youth), and limited opportunities for youth to generate respect and dignity among peers (Harding, 2010). Under these conditions, how youth see themselves and are seen by peers can become linked to "campaigns for respect" organized around the capacity to repel or commit violence (Anderson, 1999; Jones, 2010). Strong neighbourhood identities can lodge such campaigns in the defence of "turf" by youth groups and gangs, which escalates violence collectively, leaving urban

23

spaces as "danger zones" of zealously protected territories (Harding, 2010). In these contexts, parents still can play important roles, but youth (especially those of colour) have to navigate a street reality that often models and supports violence, and a broader society where they must contend with radicalized stereotypes of criminality (Eberhardt, Goff, Purdie, & Davies, 2004). As a consequence, parenting youth who are embedded in a violent street context can be particularly challenging, and even the type of parenting that typically promotes healthy development might not be sufficient to protect against youth violence (De Coster, Heimer, & Wittrock, 2006).

2.4.8 Mental illness

Mental illness is also another cause of violence among teens. Mental health issues like ADHD, bipolar, ODD, conduct disorder or many of the others that are being diagnosed today all have aggressive behaviours or angry feelings as common symptoms (Schubert & Mulvey, 2014). Mental illness sometimes hides behind other causes of youth violence. For instance, a teen with bipolar disorder may be using drugs. If this teen becomes violent, the drug use could hide the fact that the bipolar illness is part of the cause. A lifetime diagnosis of a severe mental illness may add little additional risk of violence, especially if the individual is in remission or is receiving treatment (Appelbaum & Swanson, 2010). The factors predictive of future violence among the severely mentally ill are similar to those that predict violence in the general population (Van Dorn, Volavka, & Johnson, 2012). Despite these caveats regarding mental illness as a cause of violence, some forms of mental illness that characterize either rampage or street shooters could be targeted for prevention purposes. Early identification of suicidal youth in schools and other settings could be a target of intervention for school shooters (Cooper, Clements, & Holt, 2011). This is especially true if suicidal thoughts are expressed in conjunction with intense hostility toward others. For street shooters,

heavy exposure to violence in the home and neighbourhood predisposes youth to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and substance use disorder, both of which could be targeted especially among youth already involved in the criminal justice system (Schubert & Mulvey, 2014).

2.4.9 Family influences

Families appear to play multiple roles that may increase or decrease the risk of youth violence. Many of the best-established risk factors for youth violence are based in the family, including harsh and rejecting parents, inter-parental violence, child abuse and neglect, chaotic family life, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring by parents of children showing early signs of aggression (Dodge, Greenberg, & Malone, 2008; Loeber & Farrington, 1998, 2012; Lösel & Farrington, 2012; Stoddard et al., 2013). Risk factors for youth violence often co-occur and also predict multiple negative outcomes in addition to violence, including related anti-social behaviours, substance abuse, mental health problems, and health-risk behaviours. Evidence on factors associated with lower risk for youth violence often implicate similar factors, including close attachment bonds with consistently supportive caregivers, effective and developmentally sensitive parenting (including consistent disciplinary practices and monitoring), and families operating in ways that children experience as safe, stable, well-managed, and well-regulated (David-Ferdon & Simon, 2014; Loeber & Farrington, 1998, 2012).

2.4.10 Neurobiological factors

Neurobiological risk factors have long been implicated in youth violence. These include neuro-cognitive deficits, prenatal complications, genetic risks, and psycho-physiological differences (low resting heart rate), among others (Glenn & Raine, 2014).

There is now a greater understanding about how chronic and traumatic stress resulting from adverse childhood experiences (e.g., family violence and conflict, child physical abuse and neglect, sexual abuse, traumatic separation from caretakers) can shape the development and functioning of the hypothalamic-pituitary adrenocortical axis in ways that compromise adaptive responses to stress (Lupien, McEwen, Gunnar, & Heim, 2009). Research using animal models is shedding light on how the development of the hypothalamic-pituitary adrenocortical axis is associated with aggression and impulsiveness in humans (Veenema, 2009). There is also emerging evidence of gene-environment interaction effects in humans that alter the developing brain in ways that moderate the risk of antisocial outcomes, including violence (Caspi et al., 2002; Dodge, 2009).

2.4.11 Academic achievement

Data from multiple longitudinal studies suggest that school readiness and academic achievement during the school years, along with school engagement, predict lower rates of youth violence (Herrenkohl, Lee, & Hawkins, 2012; Resnick, Ireland, & Borowsky, 2004). For example, in the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Resnick et al., 2004), boys with a grade point average (GPA) in the top quartile (high GPA) at Time 1 (students in Grades 7 to 11) had a 26.6% probability (15.2% for girls) of reporting any Time 2 violent behaviour (about 11 months later) compared to 43.9% of the boys (27.9% of the girls) in the bottom quartile (low GPA). Among boys in this study with multiple risk factors for violence, those with higher GPAs had a predicted probability of 52.6% (38.8% for girls) for falling in the top quintile of violent behaviour compared to a probability of 70.5% (60.8% for girls) for those with lower GPAs. Such findings may reflect a variety of cognitive and emotional self-control skills associated with school readiness and success, as well as the effectiveness of schools in engaging

children and preventing dropout (Herrenkohl et al., 2012; Lösel & Farrington, 2012). Poor academic achievement could lead to school dropout, and subsequently be a predictor of youth violence (Vossekuil et al., 2002).

2.4.12 Personality traits and individual differences

One of the best predictors of future behaviour is past behaviour. Thus, it is not surprising that individuals who are characteristically aggressive or impulsive with difficulties in self-control are more likely to engage in later acts of aggression, violence, delinquency, and crime (Loeber & Farrington, 1998). Individual differences in self-control (the inverse of impulsivity) are among the strongest and most consistent observed individual correlates of crime, delinquency, violence, and other problem behaviours (Gottfredson, 2005; Loeber & Farrington, 2012; Moffitt et al., 2011). A study of a large birth cohort of males in New Zealand found that persons convicted of violent crimes scored significantly lower on measures of self-control than those without history of convicted violent crimes (Caspi et al., 1994). Another study found that low self-control was correlated with both psychological (r =0.47) and physical (r = 0.38) bullying among adolescents (Moon & Alarid, 2015). Violent behaviour often is short-sighted, producing little longer-term gain at the risk of considerable long-term cost for the perpetrator. Many acts of violence among youth erupt so suddenly that they seem to be nearly spontaneous (even to the offender, in hindsight). In contrast, youth violence tends to be planned and deliberate (Cornell et al., 2013; Newman et al., 2004). Three other personality traits are broadly related to aggression and violence, the so-called Dark Triad of Personality-psychopathy, narcissism, and Machiavellianism (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Psychopaths show a pervasive disregard for, and violation of, the rights of others. They are callous and unemotional individuals who mainly focus on obtaining their own goals, regardless of whether they hurt others in the process.

27

A meta-analysis indicates that "callous-unemotional" traits that are the antithesis of empathy in youth are associated with more severe antisocial and aggressive behaviour (Frick, Ray, Thornton, & Kahn, 2014). People high in narcissism have a grandiose sense of who they are and of the recognition and status to which they are entitled. When narcissists do not get the special treatment they think they deserve, they may lash out aggressively against others (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). It is a common myth that violent people have low self-esteem (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996). One meta-analysis found that violent criminals had much higher levels of narcissism than other young men (Bushman & Baumeister, 2002), but their self-esteem scores did not differ (Bushman & Baumeister, 2002). "Machiavellianism" refers to using any means necessary to get power, including manipulation, aggression and violence. Machiavellianism is positively related to bullying in school (Andreou, 2004). Taken together, these three dispositional qualities embody the lack of empathy, sense of entitlement, and motivation to gain power that appears to facilitate involvement in violence.

2.4.13 Access to guns

In the United States in 2011, 84% of homicide victims ages 15–24 were killed with guns (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2011). The frequent involvement of guns in fatal youth violence, and the ability of guns to inflict more fatal wounds than other personal weapons, suggests that gun availability is an important cause of youth homicides. There are methodological challenges to making causal inferences about the positive association between gun availability and homicide risks (National Research Council, 2005); nonetheless, three types of evidence point in the direction of causation. First, high levels of gun ownership and much more lax gun control laws can likely make unsupervised access to handguns more available to youth

(Richardson & Hemenway, 2011). Secondly, a study comparing homicide rates across U.S. states, which controlled for other risk factors for youth violence (e.g., economic and social resource deprivation, racial composition, alcohol use, rates of nonlethal violent crime), found that for every 1% increase in household gun ownership youth homicides committed with guns increased by 2.4% (Miller, Hemenway & Azrael, 2007). Thirdly, temporal changes in illegal gun availability to youth coincide with temporal changes in youth homicide. The extraordinary increase in youth homicides of young African American males that were committed with guns during the late 1980s and early 1990s mirrored trends in arrests for illegally carrying guns and deaths due to gun suicides and accidental shootings (Blumstein & Cork, 1996). Similarly, Young men may be particularly sensitive to cultural influences on masculinity in adolescence when they are physically maturing, particularly in the context of popular media that glorify violence and domination of others (Kimmel & Mahler, 2003). The least physically developed young boys may lose out in pecking orders that value height, big muscles, athletic prowess, and mature looks (Newman et al., 2004). Guns could become a great equalizer in this tournament of recognition (Harcourt, 2006).

In summary, according to Moris (2007), the causes of violence among the youths today can be attributed to so many factors ranging from the individual, the family, community and the nation at large. He summed this up in the diagram below;
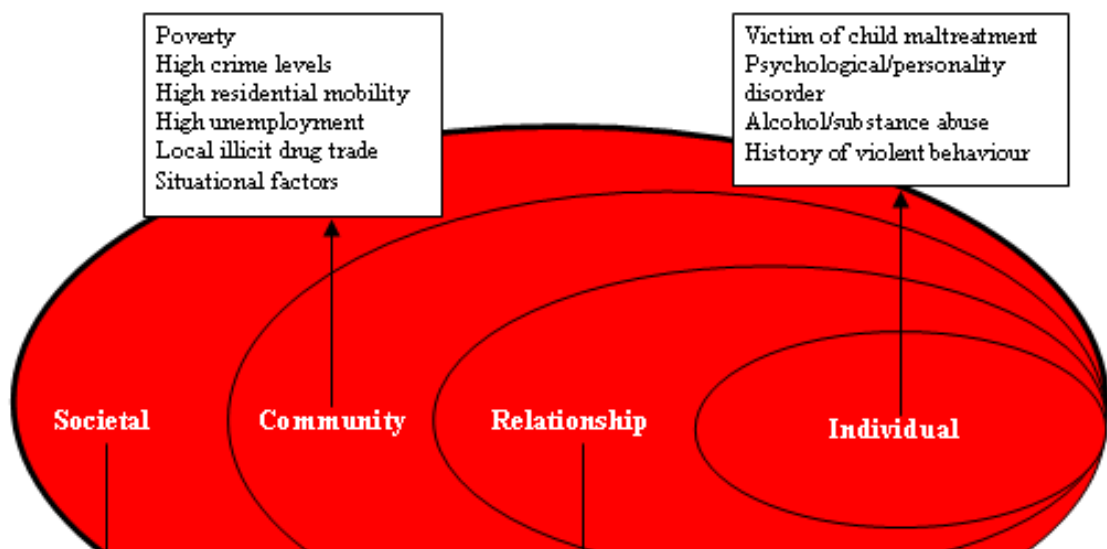
Figure 1: Causes of Youth Violence

Sources: (Moris, 2007)

From the figure. 1, the causative factors of youth violence can be identified or grouped under four interrelated levels, namely; societal; community; relationships; and individual. At the Societal level, several societal factors may create conditions conducive to violence among young people. Some examples of risk factors at this level are weak or poor economic policies, poverty, inequality, youth unemployment, an ineffective criminal justice system, and drug trafficking. At the societal level in general, weak or poor economic policies may increase the spat of youth aggression and delinquency. Moris (2007), identified unemployment, poverty and inequality as economic factors to youth violence. According to Moris (2007), the youth raised in poverty have the highest likelihood of involvements in crime and violence, due to the increased stress and feelings of hopelessness that may arise from chronic unemployment and other associated factors - Other societal factors that contribute to youth violence rural-urban migration and poor rule of law.

At the Community level: according to Moris (2007), some of the common factors that causes youth violence include poverty, high levels of mobility, higher rate of unemployment, local illicit of drug trade, situational factors and higher levels of crime. The inadequate availability of access to schools, bad school policies, easy accessibilities

30

to guns and other weapons, prevalence of hard drugs, the abuse of criminal justice system and ineffective policing constitutes some of the factors influencing the rate of crime and youth violence at the local or community level (IADB, 2002; Weaver & Maddeleno, 1999).

The relationship level has to do with the interpersonal relationship with family, peers and neighborhood. The most important actors at this level are the family, peer groups, and teachers, each of which can act as protective and risk factors. Some of the factors that foster youth delinquency as per the views of Moris (2007) includes, poor parenting, marital discord, violent parental conflicts, low socioeconomic household, status, and friends that engage in violence. According to Caceres (2004), Domestic violence, child abuse and corporal punishment serve as the risks factors that push children to abandoning their homes; making them subtle to the bad influence of their peers, which in turns promotes future violent behaviour.

At the individual level, Maoris (2007) identified some of the most influential risk factors for youth violence to large include biological factors (victims of child maltreatment, gender, violence family etc.); psychological/behavioural (personality disorder, degree of self-regulation and self-esteem; low intelligence and low educational achievement, early sexual initiation); and environmental (exposure to violence and conflict in the family; involvement with drugs, alcohol, and tobacco).

In conclusion, this conceptualisation of youth violence tries to present an ecosystem showing that youth violence encompasses some micro (relationship and individual issues) and macro (societal and community issues) affecting the youth. Therefore, this research explores the wide range of issues underpinning youth violence in Kasoa.

2.5 Effects of Youth Violence

Youth violence is expensive both financially and in terms of the immeasurable pain and suffering it causes youth, their families, peers, and communities (Seifert, 2012). With few exceptions, crime and violence always have negative physical and emotional consequences (Elliott, 1994). These negative consequences can be very devastating for the individual victims, families of the victims, communities and the country as a whole (Moylan, Herrenkohl, Sousa, Tajima, Herrenkohl & Russo, 2010; Elliott, 1994). In view of Short and Hughes (2008), the exposure to violent events can be traumatic and can have negative impact on multiple factors such as development, academic functioning, coping skills and relationships. Below are some of the effects of youth violence on the individual and community at large.

2.5.1 Effects of youth violence on the individual

Exposure to violent incidents can be traumatic and have adverse consequences on both victim and perpetrator's personal developments, academic functioning, coping skills and relationships. Youth violence has serious and lasting effects on the physical, mental, and social health of young people (Williams, Rivera, Neighbours & Reznik, 2007). The impact of youth violence goes beyond physical consequences (Short & Hughes, 2008). The adverse childhood experiences, leads to negative health and well-being outcomes (Loeber & Hay, 1997). Per the research findings of Williams, Rivera, Neighbours and Reznik (2007), on the topic "Youth Violence Prevention Comes of Age", youth violence increases the risk for behavioral and mental health difficulties, including future violence perpetration and victimization, smoking, substance use, obesity, high-risk sexual behavior, depression, academic difficulties, school dropout, and suicide. Children and adolescents do not have to be the victim of a violent crime to experience trauma (Williams et al., 2007). This can come from multiple sources for

32

example like exposure to gang activity, witnessing a shooting or other violent crime or the death of a friend or family member. On the individual level, youth violence can have negative Psychological, Cognitive and behavioral Impact (ibid).

Psychological impact

According to Benjamin (1998), youth violence can also have impact on the psychology of the individuals involved. This can be rippled directly to the exposed individuals (like victims, perpetrators, family members or friend), as well as those who are not directly exposed (like neighbors, community/society, school etc). Benjamin (1998), further posited that some of the natural psychological reactions or consequences of youth violence included; stress, anxiety, insecurity, vulnerable, helplessness, feeling of anger and outrage.

Additionally, Pathirana (2000) argued that victims and/or witness of violence may experience chronic nightmares and flashbacks, insomnia, feel numb or display hyper-vigilance, have memory blocks regarding the incident, lose interest in activities, avoid places or things that remind them of the incident and have angry outbursts. Other possible reactions are withdrawal, disassociation, amnesia, and depression (Busby, Lambert & Ialongo, 2013; Ratti, Laini, Ardenghi & Salvarani, 2016). According to Ratti et al., (2016), children will have similar reactions as adults but they may also have other extreme reactions such as bedwetting (in toilet-trained individuals); they may stop talking, stutter or become clingy. Some may develop the thoughts of revenge or may feel guilt. These are all natural reactions to being a victims or a witness of violence. Prolong psychological complications may lead to Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) (ibid).

Cognitive and behavioral effect

33

Also, many studies have similarly shown that violence can adversely have cognitive and behavioral impact, especially among youths (eg: Lynch, 2003; Guerra, Huesmann & Rowell, 2003; Irwin & Gross, 1995; McMahon, Todd, Martinez & Coker, 2013; Easton, Mandel & Hunkele, 2007). In view of Guerra, Huesmann and Rowell (2003), the exposure to youth violence may arouse the state of fear and cognitive deficiency, in the ability of the affected youth to properly process information, especially in schools and other institution of learning. They may also find it difficult to learn and recall information, and as well follow directions (Jain & Cohen, 2013; Matthews and Saywitz, 1992). Similarly, the exposure to youth violence may also trigger behavioral changes such as insomnia, aggression and agitations (Irwin & Gross, 1995). Furthermore, poor problem solving skills and damaged self-esteem have been directly associated with linked to youth violence and crime (Stein and Kendell, 2004; LeDoux, 2002; Schore, 2001; Teicher, 2000; Yang and Clum, 2000).

2.5.2 Effect of youth violence on the community

Additionally, according to Fowler, Tompsett, Braciszewski, Jacques-Tiur & Baltes (2009), the exposure to youth violence can have dire effects on the entire communities. Fowler et al., (2009) argued that violence have the tendencies to impede social services, stall community developments, increase in the cost of healthcare services and decreases in community values. Fowler et al., (2009) further established a strong relationship that youth violence negatively has impacts on community safety, peoples' willingness to participate in community events, youth's school attendance, and viability of businesses. In all, Fowler et al., (2009) concluded that the consequences of youth violence strains community's resources and limits the resources targeted to address other needed goals, or social amenities.

34

2.6 Measures to Control Youth Violence

Moris (2007) believes that for proper control of violence among the youth, policies should be made to enhance poverty alleviation by providing job to the youths. He added that the laws must be enforced to curb the situation. Therefore, Moris (2007) outlines the following general principles as measures to curb the menace:

- Increase education and opportunities, poverty reduction

- Reduce social disruption, teen pregnancy, improved parenting

- Greater community involvement and security

- Decreased access to guns and alcohol

- Educational enrichment, extracurricular and vocational activities For example, preschool has been shown to be particularly effective, likely secondary to improved social and academic skills and increased involvement in school and society.

On this, Aiyeret et al (2014) argues that there should be a programme designed to focus enhancing a better relationship between parents and their wards. According to them, the said program should focuses on relationship building between fathers and their preadolescent and adolescent sons. The program is designed to improve parenting skills, promote parent–child bonding, and to improve communication overall. Fathers and Sons builds on existing research evidence suggesting that parent–child bonding, positive parenting, and close parent–child relationships are critical pathways through which parents influence the attitudes and behaviours of their children (Caldwell, Rafferty, Reischl, DeLoney, & Brooks, 2010).

2.6.1 Social competence skills

The likelihood of violence also may be reduced by interventions focused on developing social– cognitive and behavioural skills intended to increase empathy, social problem-solving, perspective taking, the effective management of interpersonal conflict, anger management, and alternative ways of interpreting social cues and coping with rejection and disappointment. Schools must implemented universal violence prevention through classroom interventions that improve conduct and reduce risks for violence, such as the Good Behaviour Game (Kellam et al., 2011). Effective pre-school programs for disadvantaged children and promoting school readiness can also reduce later repeated involvement with the criminal behaviour (Heckman, 2013).

2.6.2 Strengthen effective parenting and family-based protective factors

Prevention studies targeting risk and protective factors among children at high risk for anti-social behaviour provide corroborative evidence that improving parenting and family management can reduce aggression and violence in youth (Piquero et al., 2009; Welsh et al., 2012). One meta-analysis reviewed randomized, controlled experiments that included pre–post evaluations of family programs (excluding qualitative studies), with families that had children under age 5, for which child behavioural delinquency outcomes were obtained and parent training was part of the program studied (including, but not limited to home visitation programs) and for which sufficient data were available to calculate effect sizes. Among the 55 studies meeting these criteria, they result showed that effective parenting program reduces childhood delinquency and anti-social problems (Piquero et al., 2009). The Child–Parent Center Preschool Program in Chicago, Illinois, for example, implemented family-based protective programs in early childhood, and reduced the risk for violent arrests by 40% by age 18 (Reynolds, Temple, Robertson, & Mann, 2001). However, it is not yet clear how effective even

36

well-validated prevention programs may be for preventing specific and contrasting forms of youth violence, including street violence, school shootings, and violent forms of bullying

2.6.3 Self-control skills

Although some early risk factors related to youth violence are difficult to alter, others are more amenable to change. Growing evidence suggest that self-regulation skills are malleable in children, beginning in early childhood (Diamond & Lee, 2011). Self-control training delivered directly to children can increase self-control and decrease delinquency. For example, a meta-analytic review of 34 studies involving randomized controlled experimental designs with participants up to age 10 and with post-test measures of self-control and child behaviour problems for both experimental and control groups, found that self-control reduces delinquency amongst the youth (Piquero, Jennings, & Farrington, 2010).

2.6.4 Minimizing violent media effects

With regards to violent media, parents can help reduce the negative impact of violent media on their children. Typically, parental interventions are placed in one of three groups: (a) instructive mediation, (b) restrictive mediation, and (c) social co-viewing (Valkenburg, Krcmar, Peeters, & Marseille, 1999). Instructive mediation, which involves parents talking to their children about violent media content (e.g., alternative means of solving conflict besides aggression, why it is unrealistic, why guns are dangerous), can reduce the harmful effect of violent media on children (Nathanson, 2004). Restrictive mediation involves restricting access to violent media (Valkenburg et al., 1999). Parents can use filtering devices to restrict violent content on TV sets and computers. Parents can also restrict the sheer amount of media exposure. The American

Academy of Paediatrics recommends that parents limit their children's overall screen time for entertainment purposes and establish "screen-free" zones at home by making sure that there are no televisions, computers, or video games in children's bedrooms (Committee on Public Education, 2001, Council on Communications and Media, 2011). Social co-viewing involves parents consuming violent media with their children without discussing it; this approach can backfire because children may assume that violent media must not be harmful if their parents watch it with them and do not say anything bad about it (Nathanson, 1999). The American Council on Communications and Media, in 2011 recommend the establishing of an easy-to-understand universal ratings system for all forms of media, with ratings assigned by child development experts rather than the industry. Though in many countries, however, the rating system is like alphabet soup, with different forms of media using different letters and different content codes (e.g., PG, FV, V, S, L, D, AC, AL, GL, MV, V, GV, BN, N, SSC, RP),many parents do not always understand these ratings. For example, only 3% of parents surveyed knew that FV meant "fantasy violence and some even though it meant "family viewing" (Kaiser Family Foundation, 1999). In addition, ratings are assigned by the industry. Many other countries uses age-based ratings (e.g., "12" for children who are 12 years and older) and easy to understand symbols for content-based ratings (e.g., a fist for violence) for TV programs, movies, and video games (Valkenburg, Beentjes, Nikken, & Tan, 2002).

Media literacy programs can also help children become more intelligent and critical media consumers (Bickham & Slaby, 2012), and can even help reduce aggression and violence in youth.

38

2.6.5 Reduce youth access to guns

Approximately two thirds of U.S. homicides are committed with guns (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2013). Although one can certainly kill people with other weapons (knives), one can kill more people much faster with guns than with other weapons. Guns increases the physical and psychological distance between the killer and the victims, which makes killing easier (Baumeister, 1997). A broader body of research suggests that high standards for legal gun ownership and certain policies to deter transfers of guns to prohibited persons (e.g., universal background checks, permit-to-purchase laws) reduce gun availability to criminals and reduce violence (Webster & Wintemute, 2015). However, few studies have examined the effects of these policies of youth-focused firearm restrictions on juvenile's access and criminal misuse of guns. Reducing firearm access to youth by legally requiring or encouraging gun owners to lock up guns to keep them from underage youth reduces suicides and unintentional shootings (Webster, Vernick, Zeoli & Manganello, 2004; Hepburn, Azrael, Miller & Hemenway, 2006; Grossman et al., 2012). Policing strategies designed to detect and deter illegal gun carrying in high-risk settings have consistently been shown to reduce gun violence (Koper & Mayo-Wilson, 2006). Broader initiatives such as "stop and frisk" in New York City, New York, have proven to be very contentious because they are vulnerable to racial bias in their application (Gelman, Fagan, & Kiss, 2007). If these approaches lead to harassment and racial profiling, they could decrease community trust of police officers. College age rampage shooters who are at least age 21 are often able to acquire guns from licensed gun dealers or from unlicensed private sellers who they find online or at gun shows (Newman & Fox, 2009). Federal gun laws and the laws in most U.S. states prohibit a relatively small number of individuals with mental illnesses (i.e., those who, through a legal proceeding, were found to represent a serious

threat to themselves or others as a result of a mental illness) from possessing guns. The records for these mental health disqualifications often are not made available to law enforcement agencies conducting pre-gun-sale background checks (Newman & Fox, 2009). Although gun safety is an important part of prevention, it is critical not to place too much confidence in this strategy.

2.6.6 Reduce alcohol and substance abuse in youth

Many findings have linking alcohol and substance abuse to aggression and violence among youth. These studies suggest that interventions to reduce substance use by youth would also lower risk for violence in subgroups of high-risk youth (David-Ferdon & Simon, 2014). Findings from the Pittsburgh Youth Study suggest that it may also be important to simultaneously address contextual influences, because they found that increases in drug and alcohol use within individuals were more strongly linked to increases in aggression among boys with attitudes favouring violence and living in high-crime neighbourhoods (White, Fite, Pardini, Mun, & Loeber, 2013). Changing drug and alcohol-related polices can also help reduce youth violence rates. For example, surveillance data analyzed by researchers at the Clark-Hill Institute for Positive Youth Development found that single-serve alcohol beverages were associated with increased violence rates. Local policymakers used these data to develop a new alcohol licensing policy, and found that violence-related ambulance pick-ups in the community where the intervention took place decreased from 19.6 per 1,000 youth 15–24 years, in the 18 months prior to the intervention to 0 per 1,000 in the 18 months after the intervention. The study included an 18-month baseline period, a 6-month intervention period, and an 18-month post intervention period. Another study found that reducing the density of alcohol outlets and sales significantly reduced violence rates (Elder et al., 2010).

2.6.7 Improving school climates

Improving school climate has been found as a way of controlling youth violence (Carter, 2012). General efforts in schools should focus on creating climates where students feel engaged and feel a sense of belonging. Of particular importance is the development of mechanisms that can build social trust between youth and adults, both in schools and in communities, for social trust has been demonstrated to be an important aspect of school climates that leads away from peer violence (Williams & Guerra, 2011). On campuses, ensuring that culturally diverse students have access to all academic and extracurricular opportunities can break down negative stereotypes among groups and create trust among peers (Carter, 2012). There is also a need to recognize and cultivate informal practices of peer conflict management that youth use to solve problems in nonaggressive ways that are supported and reinforced by an inclusive and trusting climate (Morrill & Musheno, in press). School police forces emphasizing suspension and expulsion of youth exhibiting behavioural difficulties (e.g., "zero tolerance" or some forms of "safe schools" policies) can undermine positive school climates, marginalizing already challenged children, even propelling them on a trajectory toward prison (Bahena, Cooc, Currie-Rubin, Kuttner, & Ng, 2012). Moreover, a Department of Education report based on statistics from 72,000 schools in 7,000 school districts across the country found that although African American students accounted for 35% of those suspended once and 39% of all expulsions, they made up only 18% of those enrolled (Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010; Koon, 2013).

2.6.8 Youth empowerment solutions

Youth Empowerment Solutions (YES) is designed to strengthen peer and community relationships among middle-school adolescents through community improvement projects (Reischl et al., 2011). YES trains youth in leadership, community building, and

41

project development. Youth participants also work with adult volunteers to plan and implement their projects (e.g., community gardens, murals, community celebration events). Thus, YES focuses on building cohesion and a sense of community among youth through engagement in community development projects.

2.7 Conceptual Framework
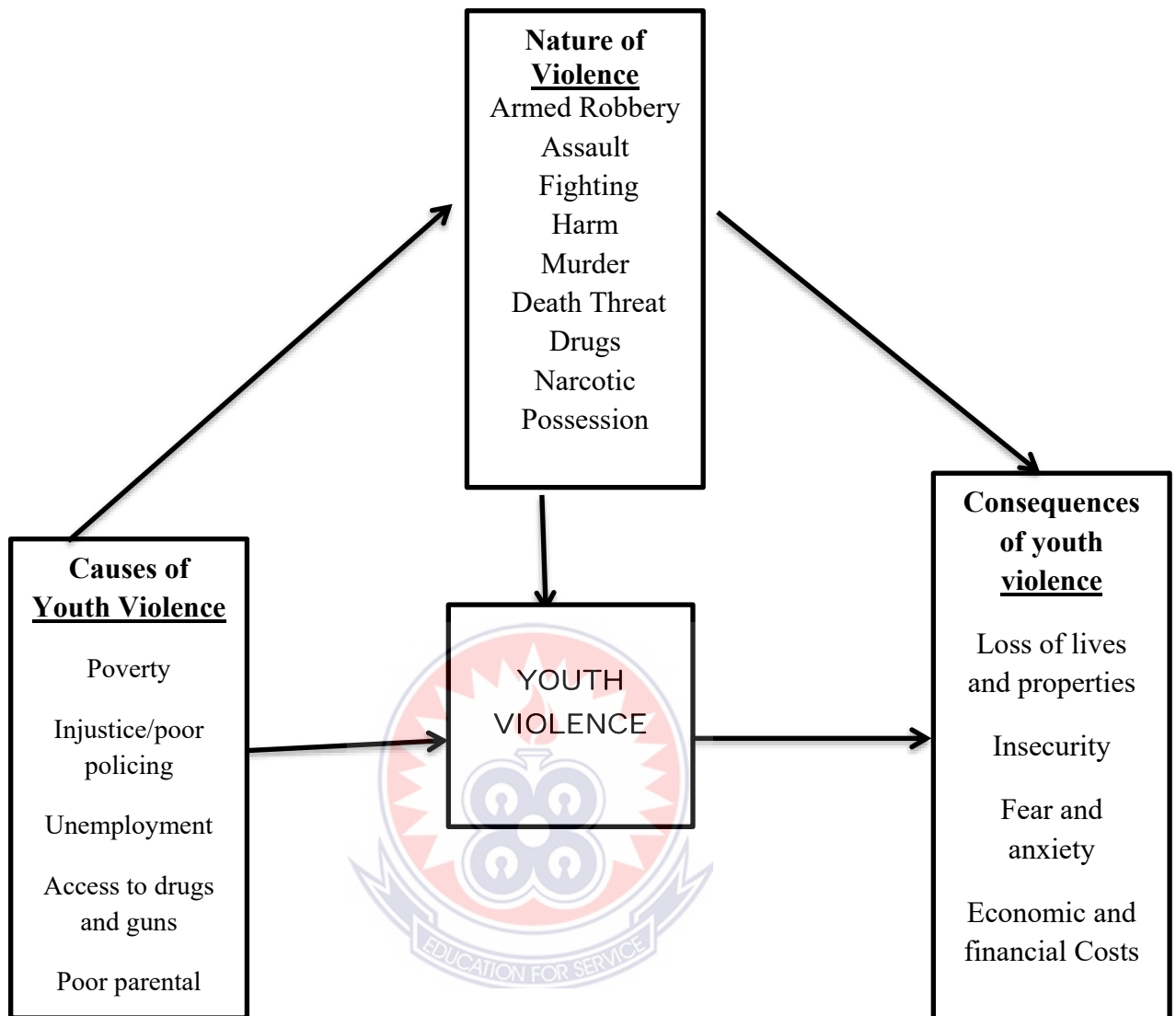
Figure 2: Conceptual Framework

Source: Researcher's own construct (2019)

2.8 Summary

This section reviewed the relevant literature on youth violence necessary for this study in Kasoa. This chapter captures topics related to the concept of youth, theories of youth violence, causes of youth violence, effects of youth violence and Management of youth violence. The next chapter explains the methodology and methods employed for this study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology followed in carrying out the study. It gives a description of the study design, research strategy, target population, data collection method and data analysis procedures.

3.1 Research Approach

In conducting research or a study, there are two basic approaches that can be used; these are the Quantitative and the Qualitative approach or combination of the two (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). However, this study applied quantitative research method to collect and analyze data. According to Hopkins (2000) quantitative research method focuses on gathering numerical data through polls and questionnaires or by manipulating pre-existing statistical data using computational techniques.

Quantitative research calls for typical research designs where the focus of research is to describe, explain and predict phenomena that uses probability sampling and relies on larger sample sizes as compared to qualitative research designs (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). Quantitative methods are used explicitly in both survey and experimental researches that relate to identifying a sample and population, specifying the type of design, collecting and analyzing data, presenting the results, making an interpretation, and writing the research in a manner consistent with a survey or experimental study (Creswell, 2013).

3.2 Research Design

Research design is the overall strategy that provides linkage or connection between the conceptual research problems to the pertinent (and achievable) empirical research Toledo-Pereyra, 2012). In other words, Chaiklin (2006) defined research design as a blueprint for a study, which provides the strategies for collecting and analyzing data. Nevertheless, MacMillan and Schumacher (2001) defined it as the design that establishes the procedures for collecting data to answer the research question(s). They further indicated that the foremost objective of any research design is to provide credible results. For Caldas (2009), a research design is a basic plan that guides the data collection and analysis segment of a research. From the above definitions, research design can be termed as the blueprint or plan that outlines or specifies the type of information to be collected, the sources of information and the information collection procedures pertinent to the objectives of the research.

There are many frameworks of research design; however this study adopted exploratory descriptive research design. In the views of Robson (2002), exploratory research is used to explore the specific nature of a problem by means of finding out what is happening, to seek in-depth knowledge of the problem, to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light. On the other hand, descriptive research, according to Sunders (2009), reveals an accurate profile of events, persons or situations. Shields and Rangarajan (2013) portrayed descriptive research as a research design used to describe the characteristics of a population. Therefore, this study utilizes two research approaches; exploratory and descriptive, which according to Sunders (2009), are best suited when there is limited existing information available on a topic.

3.3 Study Population

According to Polit and Hungler (1999) population refers to the aggregate or total number of all the objects, subjects or members that conform to a set of specifications. Therefore, in this study the targeted population is the general population of people living within the Kasoa Township. According to GSS, (2018) the total projected population of Kasoa is 88,204. However, since all cannot be involved in the research, a fair representation of the population was selected as the sample size.

3.4 Sample Size Determination

A sample is a group in a research study on which information is obtained. The sample is always smaller than the population; this is because the researcher can rarely have time to access all members of the population. Sampling therefore refers to the process of selecting individuals in the sample. Sampling is necessary because population interest is large, diverse and scattered over a large geographic area (Kothari 2008).

The researcher employed a statistical model by Yamane (1964) to settle on the sample size at a 95% confidence level with 5% margin of error. The sample size for this study included the total number of households within the study area.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(\partial^2)}$$

Where n= the sample size, N= the sample frame, 1= a constant, and $\partial = 0.05$

However, the Awutu Senya East projected the population size for Kasoa main township (Odukponkpehe) to be around 88,204 people. Therefore,

$$n = \frac{88,204}{1+88,204(0.05^2)} = \textbf{398}$$

46

3.5 Sample and Sampling Technique

After, employing the statistical model by Yamane (1964) to obtain 398 sample-size for the study, the researcher using Convenience sampling technique was able to employ 280 respondents (instead of 398) within the Kasoa main township (Odukponkpehe). The researcher was not able to sample all 398 respondents due to time constraints. Nevertheless, convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique used to select or sample people who are the "convenient", well-situated or suitable sources of data for the research (Sedgwick, 2013; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012; Wilmot, 2005; Dudovskiy, 2012; Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016). In other words, this sampling method involves getting participants wherever you can find them and typically wherever is convenient (Marshall, 1996). In its basic form, convenience sampling method can be applied by stopping random people on the street and asking questionnaire questions without any discrimination (Hultsch, MacDonald, Hunter, Maitland & Dixon, 2002). This type of sampling techniques was adopted for this research because it is the easiest and the most convenient way of recruiting the sources of the primary data for explorative researches (Landers & Behrend, 2015).

3.6 Instrument for Data Collection

This study collected primary data through an open ended questionnaire. A structured questionnaire was used to collect data for this research. The questionnaire was administered to respondents by way of face-to-face or physical contact. For those respondents who were free and had the time to provide answers by themselves were allowed to complete the questionnaire at their own convenient time. Thus, primary data were largely collected through the use of structured questionnaire. By using this instrument, the researcher had the opportunity to seek clarification from the respondents to ascertain their feelings and experiences of the various subjects understudy.

Following the identification of the relevant respondents who met the research criteria, efforts were made to make initial contact with them, however, those were not reached physically, were sent copies of the question through the various online platforms. Altinay and Wang (2009) suggested that research access is a crucial element of research design for every study. It is also very important to carefully plan well ahead of time, what data to collect, where to locate the data and how much time might be needed for the process (Altinay and Wang, 2009).

More so, the questionnaire for this research had two sections. The first section collected demographic data of respondents consisting of variables such as sex, educational level, and place of stay. The second section involved questionnaires that sought find answers to the research question pertinent to this study. In addition, this study relied on secondary data from the Kasoa District Police Headquarters and Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court.

3.7 Analysis

Aral, Dellarocas, and Godes (2002) outlined three steps involved in data analysis as: organizing, interpreting and summarizing data. The result for the study was analysed with the help of Statistical Product and service solution (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel. The data was analysed using descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages and means).

3.8 Ethical Considerations

In view of David and Resnik (2009), ethical considerations refer to the discipline, standards of conduct, such as philosophy, theology, law, psychology or sociology guiding a research or a study. Thus in this study, the researcher sought the consent of the respondents before the data collection. In doing so, the general purpose and specific objectives of the study was extensively explained to the participants. However, for those who were contacted through online platforms, a brief statement outlining the purpose and objectives of the study were added to the questionnaire. Protection of participants and their responses were assured by obtaining informed consent, protecting privacy and ensuring confidentiality. However, the researcher permitted participants to freely withdraw or leave at any time if they deemed it fit.

In addition, this study is solely for academic purposes; therefore participants were not identified by their names. All information or data provided by the respondents will be kept confidential. Finally, the respondents' involvement and participation in the study was purely based on voluntary term and were coerced or induced with any form of monetary or kind of reward.

3.9 Summary

This chapter outlined the research design, study area, population and sample characteristics, Sampling procedure and technique, data collection instrument, data collection procedure, data Analysis and ethical consideration, response rate and demographic characteristics of the respondent. The next chapter presents the data analysis and discussion.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the analysis conducted for this study. It covers the response rate, demographics of the respondents and the analysis of the findings with regard to the objective of the research.

4.1 Response Rate

In any research survey, the response rate, otherwise known as the return rate, is the total number of people who answered the survey divided by the total number of people in the research sample (The American Association of Public Opinion Research, 2015).

$$\frac{\text{Number of Complete Surveys}}{\text{Number of Participants Contacted}} \times 100 = \text{Response Rat}e$$

In other words, response rate is the percentage of people who responded to a study (Deutskens, De Ruyter, Wetzels & Oosterveld, 2004). According to Baruch and Holtom (2008), a survey's response rate is the critical indicator or gauge of the survey's quality and it is generally communicated in the form of a percentage. In view of Baruch and Holtom (2008), a higher response rate helps to ensure that the survey results are representative of the entire study population. Table 4.1 below illustrates the response rate for this study.

Table 1: Response Rate

50

Response Rate	Frequency	Percent.
Questionnaires completed and returned	280	70.4
Questionnaires returned incomplete	34	8.5
Questionnaires never returned	84	21.1
Total	**398**	**100**

Source: Field work, 2019

From Table 1 above, the researcher dispatched 398 questionnaires for this study; however, only 280 questionnaires were retuned complete, yielding a satisfactory response rate of 70.4%, 34 questionnaires, representing 8.5%, returned incomplete, whereas 84 (21.1%) questionnaires never returned. Therefore, the researcher proceeded to analyse the data collected from the 280 respondents. According to Kothari (2004) 70% and above response rate is perfectly within the acceptable rate for a survey. However, many scholars and researchers have argued that there is no threshold or acceptable response rate in research (Krosnik & Presser, 2010). That notwithstanding, many other researchers and authors have positioned that a higher response rates assures a reasonable representation of the study population, and also guarantees the accuracy of the survey results (Johnson & Wislar, 2012; Baruch & Holtom, 2008; Chater & Simpson, 1987; Edwards, 2002; Babbie, 1990; Porter, 2004). According to Krosnik and Presser (2010), a 60% responds rate would be marginal, 70% is reasonable, 80% would be good, 90% would be excellent and 100% perfect. Therefore, in this study, a 70.4% response rate is a reasonable representation of the targeted study sample.

4.2 Demographics Characteristics of Respondents

The responses from the questionnaires provided the following background information about the respondents. This was used to determine the suitability of the respondents for the study.

51

4.2.1 Gender of the respondents

The question was posed to the respondents about their gender; the aim of analysing gender of respondent is to determine the gender background of the respondents for this study.

Table 2: Gender of the Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	136	48.6
Female	144	51.4
Total	**280**	**100**

Source: Field work, 2019

From Table 2, the findings show that the Males were 136, presenting 48.6% whiles Females were 144, presenting 51.4%. This data shows that there were considerably more female participants than male in this survey. This could be the consequence of the population structure of Kasoa (Odukponkpehe). As per the projected population for Awutu Senya East Municipal Assembly (ASEMA) by the statistical service department for 2018, the total population for women within the municipality stood at 71,475 people, representing 51.9% of the total population, whereas their men counterparts stood at 66,355 illustrating 48.1% of the total population. Obviously, it can be concluded that the gender distribution for this study is the clear representation of the gender balance within the Awutu Senya East Municipal Assembly (ASEMA), extensively, Kasoa (Odukponkpehe).

4.2.2 Age Group of respondent

Table 3: Age Group of Respondent

Age	Frequency	Percent

18 – 25yrs	84	30.0
26 – 35yrs	91	32.5
36 – 45yrs	59	21.1
46 – 55yrs	34	12.1
56yrs and above	12	4.3
Total	**280**	**100**

Source: Field work, 2019

Table 3 describes the age of the respondents for this study. It was revealed that 30.0% of the respondents were between 18 to 25 years, 32.5% fell between the ages of 26 to 35 years, 21.1% were between the ages of 36 to 45 years and rest of 16.4% aged 46 years and above. This results shows that majority (83.6) of the respondents are between the ages of 18 to 45 years old. The above result indicates that the population of the study area is excessively dominated by youth; this is very significant as the main purpose of this study is to investigate the youth participation in violence. This result also confirms the 2018 projected age distribution for the Awutu Senya East Municipal Assembly (ASEMA), of which 87.7% representation of the youth between the ages of 0-44 years (Ghana statistical service, 2018).

4.2.3 Highest academic qualification

Table 4: Academic level of Respondents

Response	Frequency	Percent
No formal Education	84	30.0
Basic Education level	93	33.2
Secondary School level	76	27.1
Tertiary level	27	9.6
Total	**280**	**100**

Source: Field work, 2019

The educational background of the respondents ranges from Basic education, Secondary school level and tertiary. The result from Table 4 shows that majority (33.2%) of the respondents have Basic level of educational qualification, 27.1% of the respondents had Secondary level of education and only 9.6% had tertiary level education. However, 30.4% of the respondents had no formal education. This revealed that at least each respondent had some form of education. However, majority (65.4%) of the respondents had secondary and tertiary level of education. This is apparent that the respondents had sufficient intellect to be able to respond to the questionnaires, making them suitable for the study. Thus the findings for this study represent the perception of people with a higher degree of intellectual capacity.

4.2. 4 Location of respondents

Table 5: Respondents place of living within Kasoa (Odukponkpehe)

Response	Frequency	Percent
Bawjiase Road – New Market enclave	44	15.7
C.P, – Roman –Walantu enclave	37	13.2
Okrudu – Iron city enclave	22	7.9
Newtown enclave	41	14.6
Obom road – Lamptey Mills enclave	46	16.4
Second – Pentecost enclave	35	12.5
Zongo – 94 – Second enclave	55	19.6
Total	**280**	**100**

Source: Field work, 2019

Table 5 presented the Respondents place of living within Kasoa (Odukponkpehe). It was revealed that 15.7% of the respondents for this study lived around Bawjiase Road – New Market enclave of the Kasoa Township, 13.2% of the respondent lived around C.P – Roman – enclave, Okrudu – Iron city enclave constituted 14.6%, the Newtown enclave had 14.6%, Obom road – Lamptey Mills enclave 16.4%, Second – Pentecost enclave constituted 12.5% and Zongo – 94 – Second enclave constituted 19.6% of the respondents. The result from Table 5 shows that the respondents for this study were selected across the length and breadth of Kasoa (Odukponkpehe), thus, all surrounding communities had somewhat of representation.

4.2.5 Respondents length of stay within Kasoa

Table 6: Respondents' length of stay within Kasoa

length of stay	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 year	17	6.1
2 – 5years	103	36.8
6 – 10years	81	28.9
11 – 15years	34	12.1
16 – 20years	19	6.8
21 years and above	26	9.3
Total	**280**	**100**

Source: Field work, 2019

Table 6 illustrate the number of year the respondents have lived or stayed within Kasoa (Odukponkpehe), precisely, their current location. The results from Table 4.6 depicts that only 6.1% of the respondents have lived at their current location for less than one (1) year, however, 36.8% have lived for 2 – 5years, 32.5% have lived between 6 – 10years, 12.5% for 11 – 15years, 12.1% for 16 – 20years and 9.3% have lived for 21 years and above. This result shows that majority (66.4%) of the respondents have lived in Kasoa for 10 years and above, and thus, may be conversant with the nature of violent immanent within the Kasoa township, that the information gathered from them are valid and true reflection of the situation on ground. It can also be concluded that the findings for this study represent the perception of people who have lived within the area of study for considerably between 2 to 20 years, and had the experience, information and knowledge on the dynamic of youth participation in violence within the study area.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics on the Nature of Violence at Kasoa

The data for this section were obtained from the responses to items 6 to 8 in the questionnaire, as well as the data from the Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court and Kasoa District Headquarters of Police. The findings of section are presented in the Table 7, to Table 12 below.

4.3.1 The forms of violence prevalent at Kasoa

In respect of the general identifications of the forms or types of violence that are mostly involved by the youth in Kasoa Township, the respondents were asked to list or identify one or more forms of violence that are eminent within their localities. Table 7 illustrates the findings below

Table 7: Forms of violence Prevalent at Kasoa

Forms of violence	Multiple Response	
	Frequency	**Percent**
Stealing/ Pick pocketing	280	16.3
Armed Robbery	233	13.6
Assault/ Fighting/Harm	278	16.2
Domestic Violent	210	12.2
Bullying/ vandalism/ Gangsterism	201	11.7
Political Violence and Vigilantism	98	5.7
Rape/Sexual Harassment/Defilement	196	11.4
Drugs And Narcotic Possession	172	10.0
Murder/ Death Threat	51	3.0
Total	**1719***	100

Source: Field work, 2019
*Multiple choices

Table 4 depicts a summary of the various violence that are engaged by the youth within the Kasoa Township. All the 280 respondents indicated armed Robbery/Stealing as the

57

most prevailing form of violent crimes perpetrated by the youth with Kasoa, and this accounted for 16.3% of the total sample. This was followed by Assault/Fighting/Harm, accounting for 16.2%. The other forms of violence included Domestic Violent (12.2%), Bullying/ vandalism/ Gangsterism (11.7%), Rape/Sexual Harassment/Defilement (11.4%). Drugs and Narcotic Possession (10.0%) and Murder/Death Threat (3.0%) were the least of form of violence as reported by the respondents.

From the results, Stealing, Armed Robbery and Assault/Fighting/Harm constituted the most dominant violence committed within Kasoa Township. However, with the exception of Armed Robbery, Stealing, and Assault/Fighting/Harm are minor crimes; as established by the criminal code of Ghana (1960 and 2012). That withstanding, this result coincides with the finding of Short and Hughes (2010), Kyamana (2015), Murray Cerqueira, de and Kahn, (2013), and Lewis, (2012) in separate studies on crimes and violence amongst youth in USA, Kenya, Brazil and Yemen, respectively. Their studies found armed robbery, assaults, gang and vigilantism, robbery, stealing, threatening, bullying, hitting, obscene gestures, rape and prostitution as some of the violence and crime perpetrated by the youth.

Also, this finding upholds the data from the Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court and that of Kasoa District Headquarters of Police, which indicated that Robbery and Stealing constituted the most dominated act of violence and crime within the municipal assembly.

Table 8: Crime and Violence Statistics at Kasoa Court (2016-2018)

Forms of violence	Frequency	Percent
Robbery / Stealing	82	40.8
Drugs and Narcotic Possession	67	33.3
Defilement	34	16.9
Assault / Harm	17	8.5
Death Threat	1	0.5
Total	**201**	**100**

Source: Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court data, 2019

Table 8 presents the data on the cases of crime and violence filed at from the Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court. From the above table, Robbery and Stealing constituted the most prevalence of crime and violence in Kasoa, and is made up 40.8% of the total acts of crimes recorded by the court within the period of 2016 to 2018. This was followed up by Drugs and Narcotic Possession, which also recorded 33.3% of the total acts of crimes recorded from 2016 to 2018. The rest included Defilement (16.9%); Assault and Harm (8.5%) and death threat (0.5%). However, the data from Kasoa District Police Headquarters suggest otherwise. This also shows that robbery/stealing and doing drugs were the most frequently sources of crimes.

Table 8: Crime and Violence Statistic from the Police (2016 – 2018)

Crime Statistic	Frequency	Percent
Robbery/ Stealing	722	44.6
Assault/ Harm	693	42.8
Murder	74	4.6
Rape /Defilement	131	8.1
Total	**1620**	**100.0**

Source: Kasoa District Police Headquarters, 2019

From Table 9, the data presents the crime statistics as recorded by the District Police Headquarters of Kasoa from the period between of 2016 to 2018**.** Similar to the data

59

from Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court, robbery/ stealing recoded the most prevalence violence case reported at the Kasoa police station. This variable recorded 44.6% of all total reported cases from 2016 to 2018. This was followed by Assault/ Harm (42.8%), Rape/defilement (8.1%), with Murder as the least recoded violence crime (4.6%).

Analysis from Table 9 and Table 10 suggests that, in all, a total of 1,620cases of crime and violence was reported between the periods of 2016 to 2018, as compared to the 201 cases recorded by the Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court between the exact or same period. This signifies 1,419 cases more than what was captured by the Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court. In other words, this means that only about 12.4% of the total reported case of crime and violence were prosecuted at the law court from 2016 to 2018.

4.3.2 Age Bracket of violence perpetrators

Table 9. Age bracket of violence Perpetrators

Age	Frequency	Percent
Below 13 years	11	3.9
13 – 17 years	73	26.1
18 – 35 year	108	38.6
36 and above	65	23.2
No Idea (N/A)	23	8.2
Total	**280**	**100**

Source: Field work, 2019

Table 10 describes the age bracket of violence perpetrators within Kasoa (Odukponkpehe) township, from the table, 11 (3.9%) and 73 (26.1 %) of the respondents respectively held the views that juveniles below 13 and between 13 – 17 years respectfully are the most common perpetrators of crime of violence in Kasoa. However, majority 108 (38.6%) of respondents stated that adults between the bracket

60

of 18 to 35 are the most common perpetrators of violence within Kasoa township. Nevertheless, 65 (23.2%) put forward adults of 36 years and above are the most common perpetrators of crime of violence in Kasoa. Whereas only 23 (8.2%) of the respondents could not state their views.

From the result, there is an indication that majority (64.7%) of the perpetrators of violence within Kasoa (Odukponkpehe) township are likely to be youth within the age bracket of 13 to 35 years. As per the latest figures from the Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court, the youth within the age group of 15 -35 were responsible for the heinous crimes and violence within the municipality (Kasoa court, 2019).

Ghana, like many other developing countries, is endowed active youthful population. Unfortunately, the unemployment rate among the youth is very high. According to the 2015 Ghana Labour Force Survey (LFS), one-third (1/3) of the total working population is aged between 15 and 24 whiles two-thirds (2/3) are between the ages of 15 and 35. Thus, the youth population is growing at a faster rate than the national population. However, the results from the 2010 Population and Housing Census showed that 42.7 percent of the unemployed population are aged 15-24 years, and 46.2 percent are aged 25-44 years. This was also established by the LFS (2015) report, stating that "about 41% youthful population of Ghana, 15 and 35 years, are unemployed". A study conducted by the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) in 2015 also revealed that over one million Ghanaian youth, constituting about 12 per cent of the labour force, are unemployed. Similarly, a recent report by the World Bank dubbed the "Landscape of Jobs in Ghana," (2016) revealed that about 48% of the youth in the country, who are between 15-24 years do not have jobs.

The foregoing analysis suggests that the rate of unemployment among the youth in Ghana is increasing; therefore, it is not surprising that in the question to finding means of survival, they are found in this study to be the common perpetrators of violence, especially within Kasoa (Odukponkpehe) township. The finding also supports the findings of many researchers who similarly found that most of the incidences of crimes and violence are committed by youth in the urban areas (Short & Hughes, 2010; McAra & McVie, 2010; Sweeten, Piquero & Steinberg, 2013; Gómez, Johnson, Selva & Sallis, 2004; Deming, 2011; Banks, 2013; Machin, Marie & Vujić, 2012; Finkelhor, Turner, Shattuck & Hamby, 2015).

4.3.3 The prevalence of youth violence in Kasoa

This paper sought to highlight the respondents' perceptions of the level of youth violence in Kasoa. The results are presents on Table 11 below

Table 10: Perceived Level of Youth Violence in Kasoa

Rate	Frequency	Percent
Low	91	32.5
Average	61	21.8
High	99	35.4
No Idea (N/A)	29	10.4
Total	**280**	**100**

Source: Field work, 2019

Table 11 illustrate the number the prevalence of youth violence in Kasoa within Kasoa (Odukponkpehe). From the table, 91 (32.5%) of respondents disclosed that the level of youth violence is relatively low, 61 (21.8%) stated moderate or average rate of youth violence crime levels and 99 (35.4%) of respondents indicated that of youth violence

in Kasoa was high. However, only few of 29 (10.4%) of the respondents could not specify whether of youth violence was low or high within the Kasoa township.

Aggregating the resounding responses from the table above, there is the general view that youth violence in Kasoa is high. This view was support by the report from the Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court and Kasoa District Police Headquarters. See Table 12 and Table 13 below

Table 11: Crime Trends in Kasoa from Courts Records (2016 – 2018)

Years/ violence	Defilement	Assault / Harm	Robbery / Stealing	Drugs And Narcotic Possession	Death Threat	Total
2016	8	0	6	2	0	**16**
2017	21	9	32	15	0	**77**
2018	5	8	44	50	1	**108**
Total	**34**	**17**	**82**	**67**	**1**	**201**

Source: Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court, 2019

Table 12 explains the incidence of violence and crime as captured by the Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court from 2016 to 2018. The data indicates that total violence and crimes within the Kasoa municipality increased from 16 in 2016 to 108 incidents in 2018.

Table 12: Police Data on Crimes and Violence in Kasoa 2016 – 2018

Crime /Violence	**2016**	**2017**	**2018**	**Total**
Robbery /Stealing	213	271	238	722
Assault/ Harm	243	227	223	693
Murder	23	24	27	74
Rape /defilement	45	44	42	131
Total	**524**	**566**	**530**	**1620**

Source: Kasoa District Police Headquarters, 2019

Table 13 explains the incidence of violence and crime as captured by the Kasoa District Police Headquarters from 2016 to 2018. The data shows that total violence and crimes within the Kasoa municipality increased from 524 in 2016 to 566 in 2017 then reduced to 530 in 2018. On the average, the incidence of crime between 2016 and 2019 stood at 540 cases a year. Figure 1 below give out the pictorial illustration of the rate of violence as captured by Kasoa District Police Headquarters and Kasoa/Ofaankor Circuit Court from 2016 to 2018.This confirms the result in Table 13 that general outlook or overview of youth violence in Kasoa is relatively high.

Comparative Analysis of Crime Records
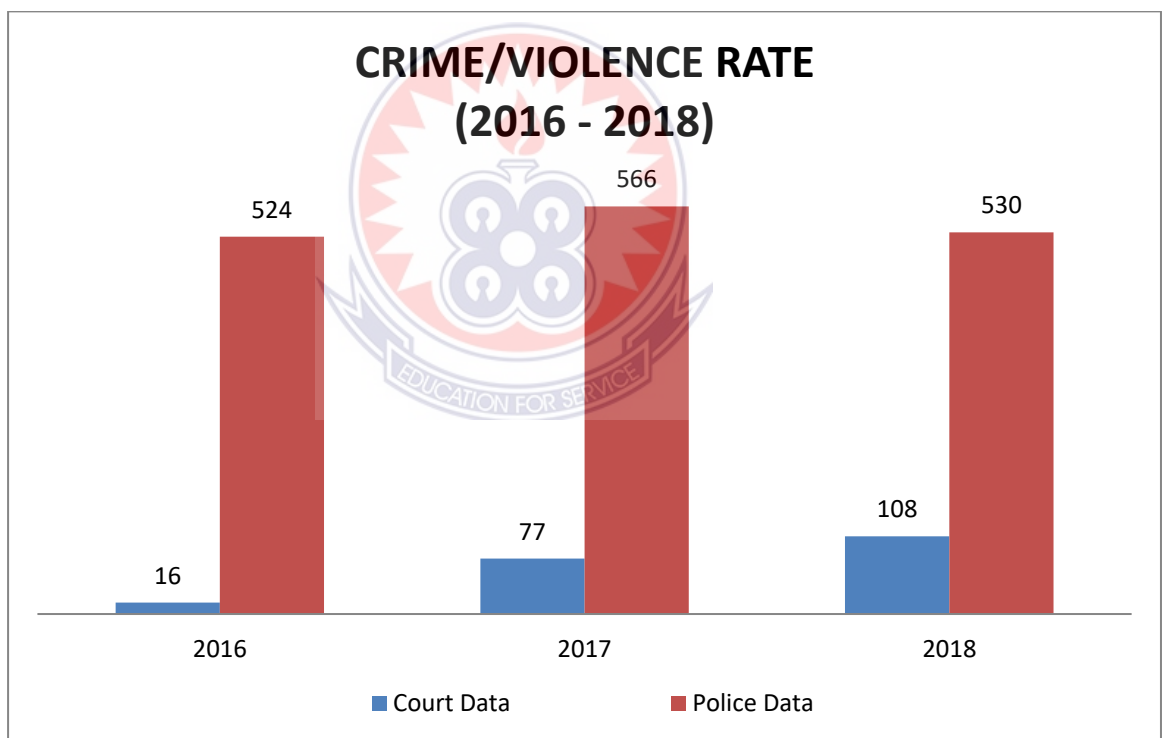

Figure 3: Crime/Violence Rate (2016 - 2018)

Source: Kasoa/Ofakor Circuit Court and Kasoa District Police (2016 -2018)

Figure. 2 presents the comparative analysis of crime records from the police and court at Kasoa. From the graph, it can be observed that the crime rate from the records of the police vastly outnumber the records available at the law court. Taking 2016 in

perspective, out of 524 reported cases violence and crime at the police station, only 16 cases representing three percent (3.0%) were duly pursued at the law court. Similarly in 2017, only 13.6% of the total cases from the police records were prosecuted. However, in 2018 though the number violent cases recorded by the dropped to 530 cases from 566 in 2017, nevertheless, appreciable, 20.4% of the reported cases at the police station were duly pursued at the law court.

That notwithstanding, the overall outlook of figure. 2 signifies that only few cases recorded at the police stations were duly prosecuted at the court. There are many factors that could lead to this situation. The very common ones include; the interventions of chiefs, opinion leaders and senior citizens to release detained criminals or perpetrators of violence, political influence (order from above), lack of expert knowledge on the part of police to conduct intensive/extensive forensic instigation, and to process perpetrators for court, and weak criminal justice system. This is consistent with the broken window theory as chosen for this study. In effect, as conceived by the proponents of the broken window theory, crime and violence are likely to be higher in communities where the laws are not effectively enforced. The proponents of broken window theory envisioned that any time that people with deviant behaviours are caught and left unpunished; it becomes yard stick for other members in the community to exhibit the same (Wilson & Kelling 1982; Taylor, 2018). People therefore take the law into their own hand and then involve in further criminal activities. This gradually, undermines the safety and security of the whole community. Therefore, based on the concept of broken window theory, it can be concluded that crimes and violence are on the rise in Kasoa probably because of the weak criminal justice system eminent within that particular jurisdiction.

4.4 Major Factors Contributing to Youth Violence in Kasoa

This section examines the respondent's perceptions of major factors that contribute to youth violence in Kasoa. The results are presented in Table 14 below;

Table 13: Contributory Factors to Youth Violence in Kasoa

	Multiple Choice	
	Frequency	Percent
Economic Situation		
Poverty and Inequality	280	7.8
Unemployment	280	7.8
Social Factors		
Easy availability of drugs/ drug abuse	276	7.7
Corruption and weak crime prevention system	249	7.0
Crime Opportunities	199	5.6
Lack of leadership in communities	201	5.6
corruption and weak crime prevention system	261	7.3
Low value placed on children	78	2.2
Overexposure to television as a means of recreation.	126	3.5
Weak Law Enforcing Agencies	257	7.2
Family Structures		
Abuse and neglect of children	211	5.9
Poor parental supervision	236	6.6
Low levels of parental involvement	38	1.1
Poor Family or low family income	107	3.0
Delinquent siblings	11	0.3
Parents are involved in crime	48	1.3
Broken home/ Breakdown of family	266	7.4
Other Contributing Factors		
Satanic/demonic influence	185	5.2
School drop- out	201	5.6
Don't know	64	1.8

Source: Field work, 2019
*Multiple choices

Table 13 describes the Contributory factors to youth violence in Kasoa (Odukponkpehe). The respondent's perceptions of major factors or causes of Youth violence were categorised under economic, social, and family conditions. That notwithstanding, this study fund Economic Situation like Poverty (7.8%) and Unemployment (7.8%) to be the major contributory factors of youth violence in Kasoa; this was each indicated by 280 respondents, respectively. With regards the social factors, easy access to drugs or drug abuse had 7.7%, corruption and weak crime prevention system had 7.0%, and the availability of Crime Opportunities had 5.6% and Low value placed on children (2.2%).

Furthermore, the Family structures as the means of contributing factors to violence constituted; Broken home or Breakdown family (7.4%), Poor parental supervision (6.6%), Abuse and neglect of children (5.9%) other family structure factors included Poor Family or low family income (3.0%) and Parents are involved in crime (1.3%).

The finding of this study is consisted with many other research findings who found unemployment and crime to be closely related (Hagan, 1993; Burdett, Lagos & Wright, 2003; Edmark, 2005; Cantor & Land, 2006; Baron, 2008; Fougère, Pouget & Kramarz, 2009; Hooghe, Vanhoutte, Hardyns & Bircan, 2011; Altindag, 2012; Andresen, 2012; Anderberg, Rainer, Wadsworth & Wilson, 2016).

Hooghe, Vanhoutte, Hardyns and Bircan (2011) found poverty, inequality and unemployment to be some of the contributory factors to crime and violence in Belgium. According to their findings, majority of the persons who are involved in violence and criminal activities, are people with somewhat financial stress. They argued that poverty or financial stress lead many people to perpetrate crime and violence. Hooghe, Vanhoutte, Hardyns and Bircan (2011) also found that lack of employment

opportunities leads to criminal activities amongst the unemployed; they indulged in unfair means of earning.

Similarly, Cashmore, (1979) discovered that joblessness or unemployment consistently increase crimes and violence amongst youth. According to Cashmore, (1979) the youth who lack opportunities to achieve financial success, are more likely encouraged to engage in criminal means of survival. Cashmore (1979) contended that young people are drawn into criminality when faced with a circumstance where their desires cannot be matched by the reality of their economic or financial positions.

Indeed, conversely, a number of studies found significant negative effects of unemployment on youth violence and crime. Chiricos (1987), in his study, reviewed 68 studies and demonstrated that more than half of those studies found negative and insignificant effects of aggregate unemployment rates on crime rates. Nevertheless, Gumus (2004) states that, 'as individuals become jobless, they would, in the short term, search for new jobs. However, In the long run, if they do not find good or better jobs, they tend to be criminals'.

Furthermore, the finding of this study also corresponds with the study of Sampson and Groves (2002) who found that the social factors or problems to have links with violence among youth. They identified low interest in education, dropout, truancy, and poor school quality as some of the social factors that may contribute to crime and violence. Several other researchers found substance abuse as a risk factor for violent behaviour (Lochner, 2004; Lochner, 2010; United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010; Machin, Marie & Vujić, 2012; Cook, Ludwig, McCrary & Lochner, 2014; United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2017). Results from thestudy of Nordstrom and Dackis, 2011) found that the use of drug during early adolescence was associated with

delinquency (criminal behaviour). Alcoholism was also found to be as much of a risk factor as drug use, which directly have positive and significant impact on crime and violence (Parker & Auerhahn, 2002; Jewkes, 2002; Boles & Miotto, 2003; Foran & O'Leary, 2008; McNaughton, Campbell, Hahn, Elder, Brewer, Chattopadhyay, Fielding, & Middleton, 2009; Foshee, Bauer & Ennett, 2012; Okano, Langille, & Walsh, 2016). Zablotska, Gray, Koenig, Serwadda, Nalugoda, Kigoziand & Wawer (2009), using a sample of 3,422 women aged 15-24 from the Rakai cohort in Uganda, found the rate of physical violence and sexual coercion to significantly be higher among adolescents who abuse alcohol in Uganda.

More so, the availability of crime opportunities such as firearms and Gangs were found by Clarke (1999) to influence the crime rate, especially the proliferation of weapons in the hands of teen. Clarke (1999 built up the proof that the more firearms than ever before are finding their way into the hands of young people. Therefore, as the number of gun-toting teens increases so does the seriousness of violent crime (Clarke, 1999)

Additionally, this study found family structures such as single-parent families, poor family or low family income, poor parental supervision and broken home as some contributing factors to violence. This is consistent with the finding of many studies, including Capaldi and Patterson (1996), Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber (2005); Murray, Loeber and Pardini, (2012), who found that parental failure is inability to set clear expectations for their children's behaviour, poor parental monitoring and supervision of children, and excessively severe and inconsistent parental discipline of children represent a constellation of family management practices that predicts later delinquency and substance abuse. Extreme overly strict or overly permissive and inconsistent disciplines have been associated with increased risk for violence in

adolescence (Centre, INSERM Collective Expertise, 2005; Bowles, DeHart & Webb, 2012; Silva & Sandström, 2017).

The practices Poor child raising, broken home, parental conflict or misunderstanding on child raising, and poor child supervision were all found to be associated with the increased in youth violence and crime (Wells & Rankin, 1986; Farrington, 1996; Lanclos, 2002; McInerney & O'Hara, 2006; Rodriguez & Tucker, 2011; Young, Fitzgibbon & Silverstone, 2014; Adegoke, 2015; Bezin, Verdier & Zenou, 2018). Moreover, low or poor communication between parents and child, and the kind of parental involvements during puberty tends to increase the chances for violent behaviour of the child, though this appears to be more grounded for males than for females (Smith, 2013).

In addition, the finding from this study corresponds with a number of other studies that found family and parental related behaviour and problems to have some connections the vicious conducts among youth. Walters (2013) found parental criminality increases the risk for violent crime among children and adolescents. Walters, (2013) argued that young people with criminal parents or guardians are more likely to indulge in violent behaviours than those with non-criminal parents. This position, similarly, agrees with the findings of Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber (2005), Murray, Janson and Farrington (2007) and Murray and Farrington (2012), however, in a direct contrast with the finding of Moffitt (1987), who found that with children with criminal parents, were not much more likely to be arrested for violent related offenses than their peers with non-criminal parents. Nevertheless, further studies in this area are imperative to understand the relationship between parental criminality and child behaviour.

Also, this study found Abuse and neglect of children to be associated with the increased risk for violence among youth. Prior studies have similarly found child abuse, neglects, discrimination and victimization to have somewhat relationship with the likelihood youth violence and crime (Lanclos, 2002; Loeber, & Stouthamer-Loeber, 2005; Rodriguez & Tucker, 2011; Smith, 2013; Adegoke, 2015).

Rodriguez and Tucker (2011), and Murray and Farrington (2012), in a separate studies found that youth with the history of abuse, victimization and maltreatment are more likely to engage or indulge in violence. In view of Rodriguez and Tucker (2011), being a victim of abuse stimulate the experiences to replicate the violence and/or reinforce or reward violence. However, the work of Widom (1989) suggests otherwise. Widom (1989) established that victims of sexual abuse were marginally less likely to indulge or replicate the violence against them, than those with no history of abuse. Nonetheless, the findings from Widom's (1989) study also suggests that the victims of physical abuse as well as neglect, were marginally more likely to demonstrate the utmost increase in risk of indulging in violent and crime. Also, Rodriguez and Tucker (2011) concluded that Abuse and neglect increases the chances of later delinquency and criminality by 40%.

In conclusion, the result from 4.14 is consistent with the Youth Bulge Theory as discussed in chapter two of this research. Per the youth bulge theory, the increases in youth population creates more challenges for states to provide education, shelter, healthcare, food, employment and other necessities of life. Therefore, if there are no proper means of education and economic opportunities, basic infrastructure and social amenities for the large number of the youth population, many of the youth would turn

to violence mean of survival (Fuseini & Kemp, 2016; Cooke, Hague & McKay, 2016), as established in table 4.14.

4.5 General Consequence of Youth Violence and Crime in Kasoa

As part of the study objectives, this study sought to analyse the consequences of youth violence on the lives of the inhabitants of Kasoa. Therefore, this section basically discusses the respondents' views on the effects of violence on the livelihood of people living within the Kasoa Township.

Table. 14: General Consequence of Youth Violence and Crime in Kasoa

Consequence	Multiple choices	
	Frequency	Percent
Loss of lives and properties	280	17.8
Insecurity, fear and anxiety	278	17.6
Disrupts Order and Creates Chaos	221	14.0
Impeded Community Collaboration and Trust	176	11.2
Generates Stress	218	13.8
Economic and financial Costs	204	12.9
Poor Academic and Cognitive Functioning	199	12.6
Total	**1576***	**100.0**

Source: Field work, 2019
*Multiple choices

Loss of lives and properties

Analysis from the Table 15 revealed that one of the major consequences of violence in Kasoa is the loss of lives and properties. The respondents to this study indicated that many youth have lost their lives to violence and crimes. This was affirmed by all 280 of the respondents, representing 17.8%. This finding is consisted with the finding of Short and Hughes (2010) that the incidences of youth violence have caused the lost or damage of properties and in some cases loss of lives of either or both victims and

perpetrators. Short and Hughes (2010) further argued that most victims of crime and violence had suffered some physical effects such visible wounds/scars and disability.

Insecurity, fear and anxiety

Also, analysis from Table 15 indicated that the incidence of crime and violence have increased the rate of insecurity, fear and anxiety amongst the residents of Kasoa. This was indicated by 278 (17.6%) of the total respondents. In addition, this result confirmed the finding of Grinshteyn, Cunningham, Eisenman, Andersen and Ettner (2017) who found that crime and violence go in hand with safety. According to their finding, criminal activities have negative impact on the safety and security, and that where criminal activities are high or increases, the safety and security typically low or decreases in response. Similarly, Desjarlais and Kleinman (1997) and Magaly Sanchez (2006) in separate studies found insecurities and mishaps to be integral consequences of youth violence, especially on the victims. According to Sanchez (2006), people living in high pervasive violence areas or have experience some form of violence are livid with fear and insecure, making them anxious, miserable and vulnerable. Davis, (2006) argued that people would ordinarily feel unsafe when they find persistent or consistent incidence of crime within their area or locality, and thus may take action as a result, which consequences may put themselves and others in danger care is not taken. The Presidential Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in the U. S. A. in 1967 established that the fear of crime was assumed by the many researchers to be a consequence of personal victimization and representing a distinct concern clearly separable from other anxieties. The commission however concluded that personal experiences of crime, victimization, vicarious victimizations and aggregate crime rates seemed to exercise a decisive influence on the extent of fear, anxiety and insecurity (Warr, 2000; Boers, 2003).

Similarly, series of studies have repeatedly found the violence and crime to have consequence on people's senses of change, decay, optimism and foreboding in their neighbourhoods, towns, cities and wider political communities in which they live (Jackson, 2004; Jackson and Sunshine, 2007; Farrall et al., 2009). Hope and Sparks (2000) suggest that violence effect peoples stability and continuity of livelihood, predictability of relationships, feeling safe and belonging to a social group. In view of Pratt, (2007), the negative consequences of crime and violence extend well beyond victims and offenders. Being a victim of violence may damage individual health and community cohesion, heightens the attractiveness of hard-line crime control strategies and contributes more broadly to the highly politicized and emotively represented nature of crime and justice in some communities.

In Ghana, a study by Tornuxi (2015) found that victims of violence suffered some emotional effects due to crime. Such effect includes living in excessive fear of being attacked (again), fear to go out sometimes, having sleepless nights, and suspicious of other people, over thinking and some other indicated to have lost hope in the criminal justice system/police.

Disrupts community order and creates chaos

Also, the result from Table 15 indicated that crime and violence disrupts order and creates chaos within the Kasoa Township. This was affirmed by 221 (14.0%) of the total respondents to this study. This finding concurs with the findings of Morris, (2007) that violence and crime naturally goes against the established social rules, and which prevent communities to properly function. Morris (2007) positioned that violence and criminal activities turns the social order upside down, and it has historically been a favoured tactic of criminal organizations.

74

Impedes community collaboration and trust

Furthermore, the respondents ascribed violence and crime to have impeded the trust of the respondents to their communities. Fitzpatrick and Boldizar (1993) found that any action that impeded public safety have impact on the trust present throughout the community. Specifically, Fitzpatrick and Boldizar (1993) argued the people are protected by the trust they have in the things, institution and authorities in the community that are supposed to protect them. These things, institutions and authorities could include community leadership and practices, public services like law enforcement, and even trust shared amongst peers (Lutenbacher, Cooper & Faccia, 2002; McDonald, Deatrick & Kassam-Adams, 2011; Miao, Umemoto & Gonda, 2011). However, Carter (2000) believes that when there is a lack of trust in a community, its ability to collaborate is impeded. Consequently, people naturally would not necessarily want to work or relate with people they do not trust, or feel safe around and the outcome of their refusal to collaborate can have negative impact on the community's socioeconomic development (ibid.).

Generates stress

Also, the result from Table 15 indicated that crime and violence generates stress amongst the residents of Kasoa. This was indicated by 218 (13.8%) of the total respondents. A great deal of research has been conducted into the correlates of violence against stress. Such studies included Bureau of National Affairs (1990), Crofford (2007), Bolden (2008), Carillo (2011),Lauvrud (2013) and Bounds and Jenkins (2018). According to the findings of Spidel, Greaves, Nicholls, and Goldenson (2013), people are concerned about their safety and the safety of their loved ones, and thus, the incidence of crime and violence would be a source of worry and a threat safety. In other words, crime and violence causes people to worry, especially the victims, and prolong

75

worry lead to stress. Bounds and Jenkins (2018) found that the prevalence of crime and violence can be worrisome and stressful, more so when they closer to home. Therefore, when crime rates cause stress throughout a community, those effects are amplified and can impact negatively on the functionality of the community.

Negative economic and financial costs

Table 15 further revealed that crime and violence have had negative economic and financial consequence on the people of Kasoa. This was indicated by 204 (12.9%) of the total respondents. A great deal of researchers have conducted a number studies into the relation or the impact of crime and violence and have found it to correlates to dire economic and financial consequences (Dubourg, Hamed & Thorns, 2003; Gibbons, 2004; Waters, Hyder, Rajkotia, Basu & Butchart, 2005; Dolan & Peasgood, 2007; Aisenberg & Herrenkohl, 2008; Patel & Taylor, 2012; Pinotti, 2015; Reed, Roe, Grimshaw & Oliver, 2018).

Pinotti (2015) posited that crime is expensive and can put a lot of added strain on the local economy. Likewise, Morris (2007) established that that crime and violence places a huge financial burden on communities in the quest to prevent and combat violence or criminal activities. A research by Miller et al. (2001) indicated that crime prevention constitute significant portion of budgets for crime and violence prone communities and countries. Miller, Fisher and Cohen (2001) assessed that lost profit, mental expenses, and the opportunity cost of victims' time, over and above the costs of policing, incarceration, and life insurance in the Pennsylvania State, equalled $14.2 billion annually. In a separate study, Miller, Cohen and Wiersema (1996) found a total annual cost of $507 billion to victims of personal crime in the United States. This included domestic violence, sexual assault, rape, and child abuse. According to Miller et al.

76

(1996), his estimate included the costs of psychological pain and suffering and is equivalent to 6.5% of GDP, or $1,100 per person in the United States as at 1996.

Also, in a similar study Brand and Price (2000) in their study "The economic and social costs of crime" assessed the total costs from crime in England and Wales. They discovered a total cost of $63.8 billion. Nonetheless, 63% of this sum was inferable to violence resulting from homicide and sexual assault. This amount also included both direct costs (such as police and legal costs) and indirect costs (such as physical and emotional costs).

In Australia, the Australian Institute of Criminology in 2003 reported announced national yearly expenditure for assault to $159 million, an estimation exclude indirect cost and was largely depended on the costs of prosecuting offenders (Australian Institute of Criminology, 2003).

However, in Ghana, with the exceptional of cyber crime, the statistics of economic and financial cost to crime and violence is not readily available, although successive governments has over the years spent substantial amount on crime and violence prevention. That notwithstanding, few studies in Ghana have found crime and violence to have negative impact on tourism and businesses development in some violence prone communities of Ghana. Such studies included Boakye (2010), Dorkenoo (2013), Marfo (2014) and Tornuxi (2015). These studies noticed a drop in tourism, productivity and sales in areas associated with criminal and violence activities.

On the interpersonal level, many researchers have established that the victims of crime and violence are often affected financially. Hornick, Paetsch and Bertrand (2002) divided interpersonal financial cost of crime and violence into two broadly categories; that it, direct costs and indirect costs. In view of Hornick, Paetsch and Bertrand (2002),

77

direct financial costs of crime and violence includes the cost of medical care counselling services and that of judicial and penal systems (policing and incarceration). Indirect costs included the long-term effects of acts of violence on perpetrators and victims, such as lost wages and psychological costs, also referred to as pain and suffering (Hornick et al., 2002).

New and Berliner (2000) in their studies "Mental health service utilization by victims of crime" examined the medical claims paid by the Crime Victims Compensation program in Washington State and calculated mental health treatment costs of $2,921 per child, with counselling services costing between $70 and $90 per hour. These figures excluded hospitalization or other healthcare expenses. A similar study by Mendonca, Alves, Filho and Cabral (2002) on "Hospital costs due to violence against children and adolescents" in, measured hospital costs incurred by victims of violence in Pernambuco State of Brazil. Mendonca, Alves, Filho and Cabral (2002) found the mean cost of hospitalization of victims to be $184, and however accounted for 65.1% of hospital admissions and 77.9% of hospital costs in greater metropolitan Recife (the principal city in the state).

The study by Tornuxi (2015) on the "Perception of Crime and Women's Safety in Urban Low-Income Communities" in Ghana, found that most of victims of crime in the Nima have had to spend money on their health due to the degree crime and violence experiences they suffered. Furthermore, Dorkenoo (2013) also found that many have lost their trading capital, investments and properties to crime and violence.

Poor academic and cognitive functioning

Also, the result from Table 4.15 indicated that crime and violence generates Poor Academic and Cognitive Functioning among the children or youth within Kasoa Township. This was affirmed by 199 (12.6%) of the total respondents. This is consist with the many researched on the cognitive, academic achievement, and educational effects of violence exposure on children. Numerous studies have shown a relationship between high-crime communities and the academic performance of children who live within them. (Fleming, Barner, Hudson & Rosignon-Carmouche, 2000; Birnbaum, Lytle, Hannan, Murray, Perry & Forster, 2003; Maguin & Loeber, 2005; Cooley-Strickland, Quille, Griffin, Stuart, Bradshaw & Furr-Holden, 2009; Basch, 2011; Lepore & Kliewer, 2013; McGaha-Garnett, 2017; Savage, Ferguson & Flores, 2017; King & Mrug, 2018). Cooley-Strickland et al (2009) found that experience from the exposure to violence disrupts cognitive development of children. Though the long term effect are still underexplored, however, Swanson (2004) found crime and violence to constitute nearly 50% of dropout rates of high school students from the slum areas of Columbia.

A study by Alexander, Basch (2011) found that the violence exposure to be associated with attentional impairment declines in cognitive performance and diminished academic performance/achievement. In view of Basch (2011),these academic difficulties may have been a result from lowered social and emotional competence due to the distraction and intrusive thoughts concerning violent events that may accumulate over time and with repeated exposure. King and Mrug (2018) positioned that the exposure to violent contributes to both reduced academic progress and increased disruptive or unfocused classroom behaviour for children, adolescents, and teenagers. King and Mrug (2018) further suggested that the exposures to violence may interfere

79

with children's developing capacities for self-regulation and behavioural control. Similarly, a study conducted by Lepore and Kliewer (2013) has shown a positive relationship between violence and school removal (i.e., school suspensions, expulsions).

Generally, the findings from Table 15 indicate that a large proportion of victims of various crimes and violence in Kasoa have suffered emotional, psychological, mental, physical and financial effects as a result of the experience of crime. Foregoing analysis point out that youth violence can have immediate and life-long physical, emotional, and economic consequences. It takes a huge toll on the victims, the aggressors, witness, and the community at large. Regarding emotional effect, some of the respondents indicated to suffer excessive fears whenever there is any incidence of crime or violence around them. For the psychological and mental effect, some of the respondents indicated to have been left with excessive thinking about the recurrence of the crime or violence all the time. Others indicated to have been left with some visible wounds/scars as the result of physical effects of the incidents of crime and violence.

4.6 Measures to Reduce Youth Violence and Crime in Kasoa

This section discuses the respondent's perception on how youth violence and crime should be tackled. Table 4.15 below displays the results

Table 15 : Measures To Reduce Youth Violence and Crime

Measures	Multiple Response	
	Frequency	Percent
Making available Youth employment avenues	280	10.5
Strengthen crime prevention system and Law Enforcing Agencies	280	10.5
Active parental supervision	277	10.4
Environmental Improvements (street light, schools, social amenities)	148	5.6
Prevention of drug use and treatment of drug dependence	279	10.5
Public education and sensitization on youth violence	280	10.5
Guidance and counselling	274	10.3
Higher levels of parental involvement in child up brings	241	9.1
Incarceration /punishment Of Culprits	280	10.5
Community solidarity	174	6.6
Prayer/other religious options	58	2.2
Nothing N/A	84	3.2
Total	**2655***	**100.0**

Source: Field work, 2019
*Multiple choices

The result from the table 16 above presents the respondents perception on the possible prevention measure to curb the growing incidence of crime and violence at Kasoa. The results of this survey revealed that there are varied measures in the views of the respondents to prevent crime and violence. Some of these measures may be carried out at the individual level, community level, institutional and at the national level. Each of the measures are put forward by the respondents are discussed below.

81

- **Youth employment opportunities**

From Table 16 above, the respondents indicated the need to create more employments avenue and programs for the youth, to help curb the menace of violence and crime within their locality. Indeed many researchers and authors, as discussed above, have liked unemployment to be one of the major causes of youth delinquency (Hagan, 1993; Burdett, Lagos & Wright, 2003; Edmark, 2005; Cantor & Land, 2006; Baron, 2008; Fougère, Pouget & Kramarz, 2009; Hooghe, Vanhoutte, Hardyns & Bircan, 2011; Altindag, 2012; Andresen, 2012; Anderberg, Rainer, Wadsworth & Wilson, 2016). Therefore, making available employment opportunities to youth has the tendencies of reducing poverty, inequality, financial stress and largely decreases criminal activities and intentions of the youth at risk of becoming involved in violence or crime activity, thus, by not indulging in unfair means of earning.

More so, providing employment resources to youth has been proven to be best promising strategy for tackling youth delinquency. For this reason, the government of Ghana has over the years introduced several modules for youth employment, christen under the National Youth Employment Agency (YEA), The Nation Builders Corps (*NABCO*), National Entrepreneurship and Innovation Plan (NEIP), among others. It is hoped that these interventions would as matter of urgency provide youth with professional skills, a sense of responsibility, and financial incentive; to help address the issues of youth delinquency, especially within Kasoa environs.

- **Law enforcement**

Also, the respondents indicated the need to strengthen crime prevention system and law enforcing agencies to help control the danger of youth violence and crime within their locality. This was affirmed by all the 280 (10.5%) respondents for this study. Strengthening crime prevention system and law enforcing agencies could include the

enactments of the legal and regulatory framework on the use of force and firearms, recruitment and deployment of police personnel to crime/violence prone areas, provision of incentives to law enforcement agencies, incarceration of offenders, as well as making available all security installations and resources needed to equip law enforcement officers to properly handle the different aspects of crime in the community.

- **Environmental improvements**

Further analysis of Table 16 above indicated the need for improving on environmental conditions to help curb the menace of violence and crime within Kasoa. Improving on environmental conditions may include improving on the available social amenities and other environmental factors that foster peace and security. From the researcher's observation, Kasoa, like any other community in Ghana is faced with the challenge of adequate good social amenities such as; good public schools, good street lighting, youth counselling and mentorship centres, sports and recreational space/facilities, health centres, Police Posts, among other facilities. Recreational space/facilities have been established by many researchers to promote youth development that subsequently reduces the rate of youth in violence (Young, 2013; Pérez, 2013; Washington, Peterson, 2013; Meyers, Smith, Serna & Belon, 2013; Barnes & Watts, 2014; Mayeza, 2015; Carlson & Gallagher, 2015; Burk, Shinew & Son, 2015; Ozen, 2015; Vandell, Larson & Mahone, 2015; Byrdsong, Devan & Yamatani 2016; Stelko-Pereira, 2016; Cid, 2017). Recreational space in the urban environment encompasses those areas which are publicly accessible and conducive to citizens refreshing their mind or body through passive or active activity (Mayeza, 2015). Therefore, in view of Carlson and Gallagher (2015), certain environmental conditions can deter or encourage crime. For example, areas with poor visibility or unmonitored areas may likely to be the safe Heaven for

criminals and criminal activities. Hence, the provision of good lighting system, patrols, and security cameras can act as deterrents crimes and violence in those areas.

- **Prevention and treatment**

In addition, the respondents indicated that prevention of the use of drugs and providing treatments for drug dependence youth may help to control the dangers of youth violence and crime within Kasoa (10.5%). Prevention of drug use and treatment of drug dependence are generally considered by some researchers and authors to be positive interventionary responses to youth violence (Testa, & Smith, 2009; Sloboda, Stephens, Stephens, Grey, Teasdale, Hawthorne & Marquette, 2009; National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2012; IDA, 2018). Prevention and treatment of drug abuse may include taking the youth throw designed programmes and counselling sections to effectively deal with addictive pressure and desires to abuse drug (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2012). Additionally, in schools, random drug testing, sensitisation programs and strip-searching may be employed to check the use of drugs amongst student (Testa, & Smith, 2009). However, aside the challenges relating to effectiveness these methods, child rights advocacy and welfare groups have raises concern on child rights, ethical, privacy and practical issues on the various prevention and treatment interventions (Sloboda et al, 2009). Strip-searching, for example, has been flagged and criticized by child rights groups and condemned by the U.S. Supreme Court as a violations, degrading and humiliating to child right. The use of random drug testing in schools though also raises some privacy concerns, however, it has been the largest used by many schools drug and have had some impact on the preventionary measures to drug use by youth (Sloboda et al, 2009).

- **Other measures**

More so, from Table 16 other possible prevention measure to curb the growing incidence of crime and violence at Kasoa, as postulated by the respondent included; Public education and sensitization on youth violence (10.5%), Guidance and counselling (10.3%), higher levels of parental involvement in child up brings (9.1%), Incarceration /punishment Of Culprits (10.5); Community solidarity (6.6%), Prayer/other religious options (2.2%) and those who indicate nothing or could not respond to question constituted only 3.2%.

Considerably, a number of studies been conducted in the past decades to examine the methods that can be utilized to help tackle the menace of youth crime and violence in the urban centres (Sherman, et al., 1989; Eck and Weisburd 1995; Farrell, 1995; Spelman, 1995), and have provided a number of crime and violence preventionary measures and methods for reducing a variety of criminal ad violence activities and disorders (Eck, 2002; Poyner, 1993; Welsh and Farrington, 2002; Welsh and Farrington, 2004). That notwithstanding, a host of sociologists and criminologists have suggested that there is not one fit for all solution for crime prevention, thus, there always the need to generate and review more crime prevention measures problems (Rezaei, 2013).

4.7 Summary

In summary, this chapter presented the empirical findings for this study, by highlighting issues on the Personal information of respondents, the forms of violence prevalent at Kasoa, bracket of violence perpetrators, major factors contributing to youth violence in Kasoa, general consequence of youth violence and crime in Kasoa and measures to reduce youth violence and crime in Kasoa. The next chapter summarizes the study's major findings, draws conclusions and makes relevant recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY

5.0 Introduction

This chapter provides the summery, conclusions and recommendations of the study. This study investigated the consequence of youth violence in Kasoa, with the basic objectives of finding out the nature of youth violence in Kasoa, the causes of youth violence in Kasoa and analysis the consequences of youth violence in Kasoa. This study adopted exploratory descriptive research design with open- ended questionnaires to collect and analyze data. This study also employed Yamane (1964) formula and simple random sampling technique to select 398 respondents for the study. All the respondents were administered with a structured open-ended questionnaire. Answers to the research questions were sought analyzed using SPSS 16.V. In general, a total of 280 people participated in this study, representing a response rate of 70.4%

5.1. Summary of the Key Findings

This section presents the key findings of the research. The findings are organised based on the main research objectives. The main objectives were;

5.1.1 The forms of youth violence prevalent at Kasoa

Under the first objective, that sought to find out the nature of youth violence in Kasoa, the findings from both the survey, and data from the police and court show that armed robbery/stealing constituted the most prevailing form of violence and crime perpetrated by the youth within Kasoa. This was followed by Assault/Fighting/Harm, Domestic Violent, Bullying/vandalism/Gangsterism, Rape/Sexual Harassment/Defilement, Drugs and Narcotic Possession, and Murder/Death Threat in that particular order. In

addition to this same objective, this study found that majority of the perpetrators of violence and crime within Kasoa (Odukponkpehe) township fall within the age bracket of 13 to 35 years. Also, there was the general view that youth violence in Kasoa is high. This view was also supported by the data from the Kasoa / Ofaankor Circuit Court and Kasoa District Police Headquarters.

5.1.2 Major factors contributing to youth violence in Kasoa

Furthermore, the second objective was to examine the factors that contribute to youth violence in Kasoa. The findings from this section was grouped under four (4) main category, namely, economic factors, social factors, family structure and other structures. However, the economic factors like poverty and unemployment was found to be the major causes of youth violence in Kasoa; this was unanimously indicated by all 280 respondents recruited for this research. The social factors that contribute to the prevalence of youth violence as found by this study included; easy access to drugs or drug abuse, corruption and weak crime prevention system, and the availability of Crime Opportunities. Whereas broken home, poor parental supervision, abuse and neglect of children, and low family income constituted some of the family related issues that was found by this research to cause youth violence in Kasoa.

The finding of this study is consisted with many other research findings who found unemployment and crime to be closely related (Hagan, 1993; Burdett, Lagos & Wright, 2003; Edmark, 2005; Cantor & Land, 2006; Baron, 2008; Fougère, Pouget & Kramarz, 2009; Hooghe, Vanhoutte, Hardyns & Bircan, 2011; Altindag, 2012; Andresen, 2012; Anderberg, Rainer, Wadsworth & Wilson, 2016).

5.1.3 General consequence of youth violence and crime in Kasoa

The third objective of this research was to find out the general consequence of youth violence in Kasoa. The finding from the study showed that violence has had adverse effect on the lives of people in Kasoa. The General Consequence of Youth Violence as found by this study included loss of lives and properties, insecurity, fear and anxiety, disruption of community order, stress, economic and financial costs, and poor academic and cognitive functioning. From this result, the general consequence of youth violence can be grouped under emotional, psychological, mental, physical and financial effects. The impact of youth violence can lead to traumatical outcomes, and even last long after the acute trauma and negatively affect long-term outcomes related to school, health and success in life.

5.1.4 Measures to reduce youth violence and crime in Kasoa

This study found a number of Measures that may directly or indirectly help reduce the prevalence of youth violence in Kasoa. Such Measures included; creation of employment avenues, strengthen crime prevention system and law enforcing agencies, active parental supervision, environmental improvements (street light, schools, social amenities), prevention of drug use and treatment of drug dependence, public education and sensitization on youth violence among other factors. Notably, these Measures included other factors such as, guidance and counseling, incarceration/imprisonments of culprits and community solitaries. However, this finding is consistent with many of the discussed literature reviewed in this study, and the bulk of the evidence in this regard is largely in favor of provision quality education, sustainable employment avenues and environmental improvements (such as, street light, schools, social amenities) as most reliable and sustainable means of curbing the menace of youth violence.

In summary, the findings from the study have shown that the prevalence of violence and crime is high within Kasoa and its environs. The study also revealed that young people between the ages of 13 to 35 are the mostly perpetrators of these violence and crimes, and the major reason were illiteracy, financial needs, poor parental supervision, abuse and neglect of children among other.

Furthermore, since Ghana has a youthful population, with the majority of them unemployed as shown by the 2010 population and Housing Census, therefore given that there is a positive relationship between unemployment and crime, then, there is the need for pragmatic measures to remedy the situation. As many of the youth continue to remain unemployed, coupled with the increasing standard of living in the country, especially in the urban areas in terms of rent (housing), food, clothing and other basic necessities of life, the exuberant youth are more likely to take every means to meet their daily needs, therefore the resort to crime. It is therefore not surprising that the national dailies continue to report incidence, of which culprits are mostly youth.

5.2 Conclusions

Youth violence is high within Kasoa. Although murder, death threat, political violence and vigilantism are the least per the findings, armed robbery/stealing, assault/fighting/harm, domestic violence, bullying/vandalism/gangsterism, rape/sexual harassment/defilement and murder/death threat being common.Young people within the ages of 13 and 35 years are mostly, the perpetrators of these violence and crimes.
The major factors contributing to youth violence in Kasoa are illiteracy, poverty, poor parental supervision, drug abuse and neglect of children. Easy access to guns also contributes to the rise of violence in Kasoa.

Youth violence is the reason some people are living in fear, anxiety, stress and insecurity. Easton (2007), throws more light on this that, victims of any form of abuse are often left with perpetual social, physical and psychological trauma.

5.3 Recommendations

It is recommended that government through the education ministry should partner with NGOs and stakeholders to beef up the educational system thereby making technical and vocational education more attractive and effective directed at providing training and skills development for the youth.

The youth should be encouraged to enrol and trained into the community policing department of the Ghana Police Service which will help fight youth violence as well as providing employment opportunities for them.

Furthermore, strict laws should be enforced to reduce access to gun and illicit drugs among the youth. Also, the guidance and counseling units in our schools should be made effective to engage students. This can be complemented by building rehabilitation centres within the Kasoa Township. This will help to treat or manage victims who may be traumatized.

Conscious efforts must be made to provide employment opportunities for the youth. Government must continue to partner with other NGOs and stakeholders to develop more employment programmes. The youth should also take advantage of the National Youth Employment Program (NYEP), other youth directed employment programms by the Government. The youth centred employment and entrepreneurial programms like YEA, Nation Builders Corps (NABCO) and the rest are designed primarily for both tertiary and non-tertiary graduates including junior high school leavers, graduates of technical and vocational institutes, school dropouts and those without formal education.

91

This initiative is very advantageous to the youth from low-income communities and families. Once young people are employed and able to meet the basic needs, the incidence of violence and crime will drastically reduce.

Here is the need for the Ghana Police Service to introduce Bicycle Patrol Unit under the Community Policing Unit if not in existence, to help curb community related violence and crimes especially in low-income and slum community, with poor road networks.

The municipal assembly through the religious bodies should also come out with strategies of creating the awareness for good parenting. This will help parents to gain the requisite knowledge for effective parental control.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

Further research can be conducted to look at the impact of community policing in combating violence in Kasoa. Additional research can also help determine why some cases reordered at the police station are not prosecuted at the law court.
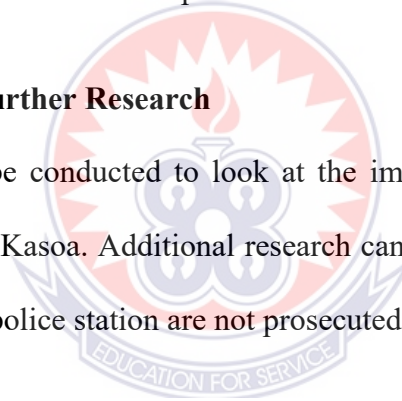
REFERENCES

Adegoke, N. (2015). *Factors responsible for juvenile delinquency in Nigeria*: A Case study of selected primary schools in Ikorodu, Lagos State, Nigeria.

Adomonline.com (2018). Land guards attack Kasoa residents during communal labour. Retrieved from; https://www.adomonline.com/land-guards-attack-kasoa-residents-during-communal-labour/ (on 11th January, 2019).

Airport Security Council of United States of America (1980). *Reducing opportunities for crime.*, ncjrs.gov

Aisenberg, E. & Herrenkohl, T. (2008). Community violence in context: Risk and resilience in children and families. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence.* https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260507312287

Aiyer, S. M., Zimmerman, M. A., Morrel-Samuels, S. & Reischl, T. M. (2015). Broken Windows to Busy Streets: A Community Empowerment Perspective. *Health Education and Behavior*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1090198114558590

Alexander, J. F., Sexton, T. L. & Robins, L. (2002). Family-based empirically supported treatment interventions. *The Counseling Psychologist 30*(2) (2002): 238-61.

Alexander, K. L., Entwisle, D. R. & Kabbani, N. S. (2001). The dropout process in life course perspective: Early risk factors at home and school. *Teachers College Record, 103*, 760–822.Google Scholar

Allen, J. J., Anderson, C. A. & Bushman, B. J. (2018).The general aggression model. *Current Opinion in Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2017.03.034

Altindag, D. T. (2012). Crime and unemployment: Evidence from Europe. *International Review of Law and Economics*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.irle.2011.10.003

Amanchukwu, R. N. & Ezekiel-Hart, J. (2013). Youth conflict challenges and management for self-actualization in a developing nation. *International Journal of Educational Foundations …*

Anderberg, D., Rainer, H., Wadsworth, J. & Wilson, T. (2016). Unemployment and Domestic Violence: Theory and Evidence. *Economic Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1111/ecoj.12246

Anderson, C. A., Berkowitz, L., Donnerstein, E., Huesmann, L. R., Johnson, J. D., Linz, D. & Wartella, E. (2003). The influence of media violence on youth. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest* .https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1529-1006.2003.pspi_1433.x

Andresen, M. A. (2012). Unemployment and crime: A neighborhood level panel data approach. *Social Science Research*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2012.07.003

Andvig, J. C. & Fjeldstad, O. H. (2008).Crime, poverty and police corruption in developing countries. *Working Paper - Chr. Michelsen Institute*.

Appiah, E. Badu, J., Dapaah, M., Harriet, T. & M. Abubakar, (2015) "Youth friendliness of sexual and reproductive health service delivery and reproductive health service utilization in Ghana," *International Journal of Innovation and Applied Studies*. 2(716–725),

Atinkaonline.com (2018). *Hairdresser raped, killed and dumped in dustbin*. Retrieved from;https://www.atinkaonline.com/tv/kasoa-hairdresser-raped-killed-and-dumped-in-dustbin/ (On 11th January, 2019).

Australian Institute of Criminology (2003). *Australian crime: Facts and figures*. Canberra: The Australian Government; 2003.

Banks, C. (2013). *Youth, crime and justice*. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203583968

Barnie, A. J., Nyarko, A. S., Dapaah, J. M., Appiah, S. C. Y. & Awuviry-Newton, K. (2017). Understanding youth violence in Kumasi: Does community socialization matter? A Cross-Sectional Study. *Urban Studies Research*. https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/1565602

Baron, S. W. (2008). Street youth, unemployment, and crime: Is it that simple? Using general strain theory to untangle the relationship. *Canadian Journal of Criminology and Criminal Justice*. https://doi.org/10.3138/cjccj.50.4.399

Baruch, Y. & Holtom, B. C. (2008).Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research. *Human Relations*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726708094863

Basch, C. E. (2011). Aggression and violence and the achievement gap among Urban Minority Youth. *Journal of School Health*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1746-1561.2011.00636.x

Benjamin, A. J. (2015). Aggression. In *encyclopedia of mental health(2nd ed)*. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-397045-9.00198-1

Benjamin, M. P. (1998). The psychological impact of violence on children and families: Assessment and service system strategies. *Promoting cultural competence in children's mental …*

Bezin, E., Verdier, T. & Zenou, Y. (2018). Crime, broken families, and punishment. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3200773

Bharadwaj, A. (2014). Is poverty the mother of crime ? Empirical evidence of the impact of socio-economic factors on crime in India. *Atlantic Review of Economics*.

Bifulco, A., Schimmenti, A., Moran, P., Jacobs, C., Bunn, A. & Rusu, A. C. (2014). Problem parental care and teenage deliberate self-harm in young community adults. *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic*. https://doi.org/10.1521/bumc.2014.78.2.9

Birnbaum, A. S., Lytle, L. A., Hannan, P. J., Murray, D. M., Perry, C. L. & Forster, J. L. (2003). School functioning and violent behavior among young adolescents: A contextual analysis. *Health Education Research*. https://doi.org/10.1093/her/cyf036

Black, B. M, Chido, L. M. & Preble, K. M. (2015).Violence exposure and teen dating violence among African American youth.… *violence, journals.sagepub.com*

Boakye, K. A. (2010). Studying tourists' suitability as crime targets. *Annals of Tourism Research*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2010.01.002

Bogat, G. A., Leahy, K., Von Eye, A., Maxwell, C., Levendosky, A. A. & Davidson, W. S. (2005). The influence of community violence on the functioning of women experiencing domestic violence. *American Journal of Community Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-005-6237-2

Bolden, M. A. (2008). *Stress and violence exposure as predictors of substance use among African Americans*: Exploring the moderating effects of family cohesion and family violence. search.proquest.com

Boles, S. M. & Miotto, K. (2003). Substance abuse and violence: A review of the literature. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789(01)00057-X

Bounds, C. & Jenkins, L. N. (2018). Teacher-directed violence and stress: The role of school setting. *Contemporary School Psychology*, Springer

Bower, G. H. & Sivers, H. (1998).Cognitive impact of traumatic events. *Development and Psychopathology*. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0954579498001795

Bowles, M. A., DeHart, D. & Webb, J. R. (2012). Family Influences on Female Offenders' Substance Use: The Role of Adverse Childhood Events among Incarcerated Women. *Journal of Family Violence*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-012-9450-4

Brand, S. & Price, R. (2000). *The economic and social costs of crime, home office research study* 217. London: Home Office; 2000.

Breiding, A. Reza, J. & Gulaid, T. (2011) "Risk factors associated with sexual violence towards girls in Swaziland," *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, *89*(3) 203–210,

Brenner, C. (1973). *An elementary textbook of psychoanalysis (rev. ed.)*. New York: International Universities

Brown, L., Riley, A., Butchart, D. R., Meddings, L., Kann, A. & Harvey, P. (2009). Exposure to physical and sexual violence and adverse health behaviours in African children: Results from the Global School-based Student Health Survey. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 87(6) 447–455.

Buckholdt, K. E., Weiss, N. H., Young, J. & Gratz, K. L. (2015). Exposure to violence, posttraumatic stress symptoms, and borderline Pprsonality pathology among adolescents in residential psychiatric treatment: The Influence of emotion dysregulation. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10578-014-0528-5

Burdett, K., Lagos, R. & Wright, R. (2003).Crime, inequality, and unemployment. *American Economic Review*. https://doi.org/10.1257/000282803322655536

Bureau of National Affairs (1990). Violence and stress: The work/family connection. *The BNA Special Report on Work and Family.*

Burk, B. N., Shinew, K. J. & Son, J. S. (2015).Social problems that limit participation in recreation activities among rural residents. *Leisure/Loisir*, Taylor & Francis

Busby, D. R., Lambert, S. F. & Ialongo, N. S. (2013). Psychological symptoms linking exposure to community violence and academic functioning in African American adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-012-9895-z

Bushman, B. J. & Huesmann, L. R. (2006).Short-term and long-term effects of violent media on aggression in children and adults. *Archives of Pediatric.* jamanetwork.com

Byrdsong, T. R., Devan, A. & Yamatani, H. (2016). A ground-up model for gun violence reduction: a community-based public health approach. *Journal of evidence-informed …*, Taylor & Francis

Caldas, M. P. (2009). Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. *Revista de Administração ContemporâNea*. https://doi.org/10.1590/s1415-65552003000100015

Call, C. (2000). Sustainable development in Central America: The challenges of violence, injustice and insecurity.

Calvó-Armengol, A. & Jackson, M. O. (2010). Peer pressure. *Journal of the European Economic Association*. https://doi.org/10.1162/jeea.2010.8.1.62

Campbell, C. A., Hahn, R. A., Elder, R., Brewer, R., Chattopadhyay, S., Fielding, J. & Middleton, J. C. (2009). The effectiveness of limiting Aacohol outlet density as a means of reducing excessive alcohol consumption and alcohol-related harms. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2009.09.028

Cantor, D. & Land, K. C. (2006). Unemployment and crime rates in the post-world War II United States: A theoretical and empirical analysis. *American Sociological Review*. https://doi.org/10.2307/2095542

Cantor, J. & Wilson, B. J. (2003). Media and violence: Intervention strategies for reducing aggression. *Media Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1207/S1532785XMEP0504_03

Carillo, C. (2011). Aggression, violence and stress. *Soins; la revue de reference infirmiere*, europepmc.org

Carlson, E. & Gallagher, A. M. (2015). Humanitarian protection for children fleeing gang-based violence in the Americas. *Journal on Migration and Human Security*. https://doi.org/10.14240/jmhs.v3i2.47

Carter, J. (2000). Domestic violence, child abuse, and youth violence: strategies for prevention and early intervention. *Californie (Etats-Unisd'Amérique), Family Violence ...*, ncjrs.gov

Center for Substance Abuse Treatment (2004). *Substance abuse treatment and family therapy*. *A Treatment Improvement Protocol TIP Report*.

Centre, INSERM Collective Expertise (2005). Conduct: Disorder in children and adolescents. *INSERM Collective Expert ...*, ncbi.nlm.nih.gov

Chaiklin, H. (2006). Case Study Research: Design and Methods. *The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*. https://doi.org/10.1097/00005053-199102000-00025

Chandler, C. R. & Tsai, Y. M. (2001). Social factors influencing immigration attitudes: An analysis of data from the General Social Survey. *Social Science Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0362-3319(01)00106-9

Chater, S. N. & Simpson, K. H. (1987).Response rates. *Anaesthesia*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2044.1987.tb03071.x

Chen, K. & Kandel, D. B. (1995). The natural history of drug use from adolescence to the mid-thirties in a general population sample. *American journal of public health*, ajph.aphapublications.org

Child Welfare Information Gateway (2014). Definitions of child abuse and neglect. *Children's Bureau/ACYF/ACF/HHS*.

Christianson, S. & Loftus, E. F. (1987).Memory for traumatic events .*Applied Cognitive Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1002/acp.2350010402

Cid, A. (2017). Interventions using regular activities to engage high-risk school-age youth: a review of after-school programs in Latin America and the Caribbean. *Prevention science*, Springer

Clarke, R. V. (1999). Reducing opportunities for crime. *A paper prepared for the UN Workshop on Community.*

Collins, M. E., Augsberger, A. & Gecker, W. (2016). Youth councils in municipal government: Examination of activities, impact and barriers. *Children and Youth Services Review*, Elsevier

Cook, P. J., Ludwig, J., McCrary, J. & Lochner, L. (2014). Education Policy and Crime. *Controlling Crime.* https://doi.org/10.7208/chicago/9780226115139.003.0011

Cooke, E., Hague, S. & McKay, A. (2016). The Ghana Poverty and Inequality Report. *Unicef.*

Cooley-Strickland, M., Quille, T. J., Griffin, R. S., Stuart, E. A., Bradshaw, C. P. & Furr-Holden, D. (2009). Community violence and youth: Affect, behavior, substance use, and academics. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review.* https://doi.org/10.1007/s10567-009-0051-6

Copeland, W. E., Keeler, G., Angold, A. & Costello, E. J. (2007). Traumatic events and posttraumatic stress in childhood. *Archives of General Psychiatry.* https://doi.org/10.1001/archpsyc.64.5.577

Crofford, L. J. (2007). Violence, stress, and somatic syndromes.*Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*.https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838007303196

Crooks, C. V., Scott, K., Ellis, W. & Wolfe, D. A. (2011). Impact of a universal school-based violence prevention program on violent delinquency: Distinctive benefits for youth with maltreatment histories. *Child Abuse and Neglect.* https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2011.03.002

Crosson-Tower, C. (2010). Understanding Child Abuse and Neglect. Bostan, MA., Pearson Education Inc *ISBN 978-0-205-50326-1*. OCLC 150902303.

Cutts, T, Olivier, J, Lazarus, S. & Taliep, N. (2016). Community asset mapping for violence prevention: A comparison of views in Erijaville, South Africa and Memphis, USA. *Journal of Injury and Violence.* ajol.info

Daniels, A. A., Ahenkan, A. & Poku, K. A. (2013). Factors influencing the utilisation of maternal health services: The perspective of rural women in Ghana. *Journal of Public Administration and Governance*. https://doi.org/10.5296/jpag.v3i2.3468

Davis, A. (2014). Violence-related mild traumatic brain injury in women: identifying a triad of post injury disorders. *Journal of Trauma Nursing*, journals.lww.com

Davis, D. E. (2006). *The age of insecurity*: violence and social disorder in the new Latin America., JSTOR

Deanda, D. & Becerra, R. M. (2014). *Violence*: Diverse populations and communities., taylorfrancis.com

Deming, D. J. (2011). Better schools, less crime? *Quarterly Journal of Economics*. https://doi.org/10.1093/qje/qjr036

Department of Education (2011). Prevention and Reduction: A Review of Strategies for Intervening Early to Prevent or Reduce Youth Crime and Anti-Social Behaviour. *Centre for Analysis of Youth Transitions (CAYT)*. https://doi.org/10.1037/e603692011-001

Desjarlais, R. & Kleinman, A. (1997). Violence and well-being. *Social Science and Medicine*. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0277-9536(97)00021-X

Deutskens, E., De Ruyter, K., Wetzels, M. & Oosterveld, P. (2004). Response rate and response quality of Internet-based surveys: An experimental study. *Marketing Letters*. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:MARK.0000021968.86465.00

DeVore, E. R. & Ginsburg, K. R. (2005). The protective effects of good parenting on adolescents. *Current Opinion in Pediatrics*. https://doi.org/10.1097/01.mop.0000170514.27649.c9

Dolan, P. & Peasgood, T. (2007). Estimating the economic and social costs of the fear of crime. *British Journal of Criminology*. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjc/azl015

Dorkenoo, B. F. (2013). *Exploring the way forward for Ghana's tourism industry through domestic tourism*. air.ashesi.edu.gh

Dubourg, R., Hamed, J. & Thorns, J. (2003). The Economic and Social Costs of Crime Against Individuals and Households 2003/04. *Home Office Online Report*.

Dudovskiy, J. (2012). *Convenience sampling - Research Methodology*.

Easton, C. J, Mandel, D. L. & Hunkele, K. A. (2007). A cognitive behavioral therapy for alcohol-dependent domestic violence offenders: an Integrated Substance Abuse–Domestic Violence Treatment Approach (SADV). *… American Journal on …*, Wiley Online Library

Edmark, K. (2005). Unemployment and crime: Is there a connection? *Scandinavian Journal of Economics*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9442.2005.00412.x

Edwards, P. (2002). Increasing response rates to postal questionnaires: *Systematic review*. *BMJ*. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.324.7347.1183

Eiseman, S, Wingard, J. A. & Huba, G. J. (2019). *Drug abuse: Foundation for a psychosocial approach*. Routledge

Enamorado, T., López-Calva, L. F., Rodríguez-Castelán, C. & Winkler, H. (2016). Income inequality and violent crime: Evidence from Mexico's drug war. *Journal of Development Economics*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdeveco.2015.12.004

Erulkar, T. (2004). The experience of sexual coercion among young people in Kenya. *International Family Planning Perspectives*, *30*(4) 182–189.Escobar-Chaves, S.

L. & Anderson, C. A. (2008). Media and risky behaviors. *Future of Children*. https://doi.org/10.1353/foc.0.0007

Etikan, I., Musa, S. A. & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*. https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11

Fagan, J. A., Geller, A., Davies, G. & West, V. (2016). Street Stops and Broken Windows Revisited. In *Race, Ethnicity, and Policing*. https://doi.org/10.18574/nyu/9780814776155.003.0013

FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations).(2015). *Socio-economic context and role of agriculture*. Country fact sheet on food and agriculture policy trends.

Farrington, D. (1996). Understanding and preventing youth crime. *Social Policy Research*.

Farrington, D. P. & Welsh, B. C. (20017).Saving Our Children from a Life of Crime: Early Risk Factors and Effective Intervention. *Victims and Offenders*, 1- 20.

Farrington, D. P. (1994). Early developmental prevention of juvenile delinquency. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health*. https://doi.org/10.1002/cbm.1994.4.3.209

Feiring, C., Miller-Johnson, S. & Cleland, C. M. (2007). Potential pathways from stigmatization and internalizing symptoms to delinquency in sexually abused youth. *Child Maltreatment*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559507301840

Fella, G. & Gallipoli, G. (2014).Education and crime over the life cycle. *Review of Economic Studies*. https://doi.org/10.1093/restud/rdu014

Fergusson, D. M., Horwood, L. J. & Swain-Campbell, N. (2002).Cannabis use and psychosocial adjustment in adolescence and young adulthood. *Addiction*. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1360-0443.2002.00103.x

Finkelhor, D. (1984). *Child sexual abuse*. New York, academia.edu

Finkelhor, D. (2008). *Childhood victimization*: Violence, crime, and abuse in the lives of young people. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press. *ISBN 978-0-19-534285-7. OCLC 162501989*

Finkelhor, D., Turner, H. A., Shattuck, A. & Hamby, S. L. (2015). Prevalence of childhood exposure to violence, crime, and abuse: Results from the National Survey of Children's Exposure to Violence. *JAMA Pediatrics*. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamapediatrics.2015.0676

Fischer, K. N. & Teutsch, S. M. (2014). Safe summer parks programs reduce violence and improve health in Los Angeles County., nam.edu

Fitzpatrick, K. M. & Boldizar, J. P. (1993).The prevalence and consequences of exposure to violence among African-American youth. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & …*, Elsevier

Fleming, J., Barner, C., Hudson, B. & Rosignon-Carmouche, L. A. (2000). Anger, violence, and academic performance: A study of troubled minority youth. *Urban Education*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085900352004

Foran, H. M. & O'Leary, K. D. (2008). Alcohol and intimate partner violence: A meta-analytic review. *Clinical Psychology Review*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2008.05.001

Forero-Pineda, C., Herrera., E. & Wills. (2014). Violence, insecurity and hybrid organisational forms: A study in conflict-ridden zones in Colombia. *Journal of …*, Taylor & Francis

Fougère, D., Pouget, J. & Kramarz, F. (2009).Youth unemployment and crime in France. *Journal of the European Economic Association*. https://doi.org/10.1162/JEEA.2009.7.5.909

Fowler, P. J., Tompsett, C. J., Braciszewski, J. M., Jacques-Tiura, A. J. & Baltes, B. B. (2009). Community violence: A meta-analysis on the effect of exposure and mental health outcomes of children and adolescents. *Development and Psychopathology*. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579409000145

Frempong, F. & Deichmann, J. I. (2017). Ghanaian hospitality professionals' perceptions of international tourism impacts. *Geo Journal*, Springer

Funk, J. B. (2005). Children's exposure to violent video games and desensitization to violence. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Clinics of North America*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chc.2005.02.009

Fuseini, I. & Kemp, J. (2016). Characterising urban growth in Tamale, Ghana: An analysis of urban governance response in infrastructure and service provision. *Habitat International*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.habitatint.2016.05.002

García, J. L., Heckman, J. J. & Ziff, A. L. (2019).Early childhood education and crime. *Infant Mental Health Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1002/imhj.21759

Gentile, D. A. & Bushman, B. J (2012). Reassessing media violence effects using a risk and resilience approach to understanding aggression. .*Psychology of Popular Media Culture*, psycnet.apa.org

Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) (2010) Population and Housing Census: National Analytical Report, GSS, Accra, Ghana, 2013

Ghanaweb.com (2018). 3 arrested in Kasoa for supplying weapons to criminals. Retrieved from; https://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomePage/NewsArchive/3-arrested-in-Kasoa-for-supplying-weapons-to-criminals-621285 (on 11th January, 2019).

Gibbons, S. (2004). The costs of urban property crime.*Economic Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0297.2004.00254.x

Gómez, J. E., Johnson, B. A., Selva, M. & Sallis, J. F. (2004).Violent crime and outdoor physical activity among inner-city youth. *Preventive Medicine*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2004.03.019

Grinshteyn, E. G., Cunningham, W. E., Eisenman, D. P., Andersen, R. & Ettner, S. L. (2017). Fear of violent crime and anxiety/depression among adolescents. *Mental Health and Prevention*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mhp.2017.07.002

Guerra, N. G, Huesmann, L, & Rowell, T. (2003). Community violence exposure, social cognition, and aggression among urban elementary school children. *Child …*, Wiley Online Library

Hagan, J. (1993). The social embeddedness of crime and unemployment. *Criminology*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-9125.1993.tb01138.x

Haj-Yahia, M. M., Leshem, B. & Guterman, N. B. (2013). The rates and characteristics of the exposure of palestinian youth to community violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260512475309

Hansen-Nord, NS, Kjaerulf, F. & Almendarez, J. (2016). Reducing violence in poor urban areas of Honduras by building community resilience through community-based interventions. *International journal of criminology.* Springer

Hayes, L., Hudson, A. & Matthews, J. (2004). Parental monitoring behaviors: A model of rules, supervision, and conflict. *Behavior Therapy*. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0005-7894(04)80033-9

Heller, S. B. (2014). Summer jobs reduce violence among disadvantaged youth. *Science*. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1257809

Herbert, S. (2001). Policing the contemporary city: fixing broken windows or shoring up neo-liberalism? *Theoretical criminology*, journals.sagepub.com

Hernandez. R. (2013, March 4). Organizers want jobs for youth to curb gang violence. Retrieved from http://missionlocal.org/2013/03/organizers-want-jobs-for-youth-to-curb-gang-violence/

Herrenkohl, T. I., Lee, J. & Hawkins, J. D. (2012). Risk versus direct protective factors and youth violence: Seattle Social Development Project. *American journal of preventive medicine*, Elsevier

Herrera, V. M. & McCloskey, L. A. (2003). Sexual abuse, family violence, and female delinquency: Findings from a longitudinal study. *Violence and victims*. https://doi.org/10.1891/vivi.2003.18.3.319

Hildyard, K. L. & Wolfe, D. A. (2002). Child neglect: Developmental issues and outcomes. *Child Abuse and Neglect*. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0145-2134(02)00341-1

Hoeve, M., Blokland, A., Dubas, J. S., Loeber, R., Gerris, J. M. & Vander, P. H. (2008). Trajectories of delinquency and parenting styles. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology 36*(2) 223–35.

Hoeve, M., Dubas, J. S., Eichelsheim, V. I., Van Der Laan, P. H., Smeenk, W. & Gerris, J. R. M. (2009). The relationship between parenting and delinquency: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-009-9310-8

Hooghe, M., Vanhoutte, B., Hardyns, W. & Bircan, T. (2011). Unemployment, inequality, poverty and crime: Spatial distribution patterns of criminal acts in Belgium, 2001-06. *British Journal of Criminology*. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjc/azq067

Hornick J., Paetsch J. & Bertrand L (2002). *A manual on conducting economic analysis of crime prevention programs*. Ottawa, Canada: National Crime Prevention Centre; 2002.

Hornor, G. (2010). Child Sexual Abuse: Consequences and Implications. *Journal of Pediatric Health Care*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pedhc.2009.07.003

Huh, D., Tristan, J., Wade, E. & Stice, E. (2006). Does problem behavior elicit poor parenting? A prospective study of adolescent girls. *Journal of Adolescent Research* 185–204

Hultsch, D. F., MacDonald, S. W. S., Hunter, M. A., Maitland, S. B. & Dixon, R. A. (2002). Sampling and generalisability in developmental research: Comparison of random and convenience samples of older adults. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*. https://doi.org/10.1080/01650250143000247

Ibabe, I., Jaureguizar, J. & Bentler, P. M. (2013). Protective factors for adolescent violence against authority. *Spanish Journal of Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1017/sjp.2013.72

Imbusch, P., Misse, M., & Carrión, F. (2011). Violence research in Latin America and the caribbean: A literature review. *International Journal of Conflict and Violence*.\

Irwin, A. R. & Gross, A. M. (1995). Cognitive tempo, violent video games, and aggressive behavior in young boys. *Journal of family violence*, Springer

Jewkes, R. K. (2002). Violence against women III. Intimate partner violence: Causes and prevention. *The Lancet*. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(02)08357-

Jewkes, R., Levin, J. & Penn-Kekana, L. (2002). Risk factors for domestic violence: Findings from a South African cross-sectional study. *Social Science and Medicine*. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0277-9536(01)00294-5

103

Johnson, J., Smailes, E., Cohen, P., Kasen, S. & Brook, J. (2004). Anti-Social Parental Behaviour, Problematic parenting and aggressive offspring behaviour during adulthood: A 25-Year longitudinal investigation. *The British Journal of Criminology* 44(6), (2004): 915-20.

Johnson, T. P. & Wislar, J. S. (2012).Response rates and non-response errors in surveys. *JAMA - Journal of the American Medical Association*. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2012.3532

Jolley, S. E. & Welsh, D. A. (2019). Substance use is independently associated with pneumonia severity in persons living with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). *Substance abuse*, Taylor & Francis

Kandel, E. & Lazear, E. P. (2002). Peer pressure and partnerships. *Journal of Political Economy*. https://doi.org/10.1086/261840

Keenan, K., Loeber, R., Zhang, Q., Stouthamer-Loeber, M. & van Kammen, W. B. (1995). The influence of deviant peers on the development of boys' disruptive and delinquent behavior: A temporal analysis. *Development and Psychopathology*. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0954579400006805

King, V. L. & Mrug, S. (2018). The relationship between violence exposure and academic achievement in African American adolescents is moderated by emotion regulation. *Journal of Early Adolescence*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431616675973

Krosnik, J. A. & Presser, S. (2010). Question and questionnaire design. *Handbook of Survey Research*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1432-1033.1976.tb10115.x

Kwarteng, A., Dadzie, S. A. & Famiyeh, S. (2016). Sustainability and competitive advantage from a developing economy. *Journal of Global Responsibility*. https://doi.org/10.1108/JGR-02-2016-0003

Lalor, K. & McElvaney, R. (2010). Child sexual abuse, links to later sexual exploitation/high-risk sexual behavior, and prevention/treatment programs. *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838010378299

Lanclos, N. F. (2002). Parenting practices as a moderator of exposure to community violence. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*.

Landers, R. N. & Behrend, T. S. (2015). An inconvenient truth: Arbitrary distinctions between organizational, mechanical turk, and other convenience samples. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2015.13

Lansford, J. E., Miller-Johnson, S., Berlin, L. J., Dodge, K. A., Bates, J. E. & Pettit, G. S. (2007). Early physical abuse and later violent delinquency: A prospective longitudinal study. *Child Maltreatment*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559507301841

Lauvrud, C. (2013). Post-traumatic stress symptoms, professional quality of life and exposure to violence among milieu therapists in child and adolescent mental health care units:

Leeb, R. T., Paulozzi, L. J., Melanson, C., Simon, T. R. & Arias, I. (2008). Child maltreatment surveillance: Uniform definitions for public health and recommended data elements. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559599004001005

Lepore, S. J. & Kliewer, W. (2013). Violence exposure, sleep disturbance, and poor academic performance in middle school. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-013-9709-0

Lesneskie, E. & Block, S. (2017). School violence: the role of parental and community involvement. *Journal of school violence*, Taylor & Francis

Liang, B., Goodman, L., Tummala-Narra, P. & Weintraub, S. (2005). A theoretical framework for understanding help-seeking processes among survivors of intimate partner violence. *American Journal of Community Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-005-6233-6

Liedong, T. A. & Rajwani, T. (2018). The impact of managerial political ties on corporate governance and debt financing: Evidence from Ghana. *Long Range Planning*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2017.06.006

Lilleston, P., Winograd, L. & Ahmed, S. (2018). Evaluation of a mobile approach to gender-based violence service delivery among Syrian refugees in Lebanon. *Health policy and ...*, academic.oup.com

Lipsey & Derzon, J. H. (1998). *Predictors of violent and serious delinquency in adolescence and early adulthood*: a synthesis of longitudinal research, in Serious and violent juvenile offenders: Risk factors and successful Iinterventions, R. Loeber & D. P. Farrington, Eds., pp. 86–105, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, Calif, USA, 1998.

Lochner, L. (2004). Education, work, and crime: A human capital approach. *International Economic Review*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0020-6598.2004.00288.x

Lochner, L. (2010). Education and crime. *International Encyclopedia of Education*. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-044894-7.01229-X

Loeber, R. & Farrington, D. P. (2012). *From juvenile delinquency to adult crime*: Criminal careers, justice policy and prevention. https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199828166.001.0001

Loeber, R. & Stouthamer-Loeber, M. (2005). Family factors as correlates and predictors of juvenile conduct problems and delinquency. *Crime and Justice*. https://doi.org/10.1086/449112

Lutenbacher, M., Cooper, W. O. & Faccia, K. (2002). Planning youth violence prevention efforts: Decision-making across community sectors. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, Elsevier

Lynch, M (2003). Consequences of children's exposure to community violence. *Clinical child and family psychology review*, Springer

Machin, S., Marie, O. & Vujić, S. (2012). Youth crime and education expansion. *German Economic Review*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0475.2012.00576.x

Magaly Sanchez, R. (2006). Insecurity and violence as a new power relation in Latin America.*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716206288571

Maguin, E. & Loeber, R. (2005). Academic performance and delinquency. *Crime and Justice*. https://doi.org/10.1086/449243

Marfo, A. K. (2014). Tourism development and its effects on host community: a case study of Kakum National Park in the Central Region of Ghana., dspace.knust.edu.gh

Marshall, M. N. (1996). Sampling for qualitative research. *Family Practice*. https://doi.org/10.1093/fampra/13.6.522

Mayeza, E. (2015). Exclusionary violence and bullying in the playground: Football and gender "policing" at school. *African Safety Promotion Journal Original Contributions African Safety Promotion Journal*.

McAra, L. & McVie, S. (2010). Youth crime and justice: Key messages from the Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions and Crime. *Criminology and Criminal Justice*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1748895809360971

McDonald, C. C., Deatrick, J. A. & Kassam-Adams, N. (2011).Community violence exposure and positive youth development in urban youth. *Journal of community*. Springer

McGaha-Garnett, V. (2017). The effects of violence on academic progress and classroom behavior: From a Parent's perspective. *Ideas and Research You Can Use: VISTAS 2013*.

McGinty, E. E., Webster, D. W., Jarlenski, M. & Barry, C. L. (2014). News media framing of serious mental illness and gun violence in the United States, 1997-2012. *American Journal of Public Health*. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2013.301557

McInerney, C. A. & O'Hara, C. E. (2006). Fundamentals of criminal investigation. *The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science*. https://doi.org/10.2307/1140076

McMahon, SD, Todd, NR, Martinez, A. & Coker, C. (2013). Aggressive and prosocial behavior: Community violence, cognitive, and behavioral predictors among urban African American youth. *American Journal of ...*, Springer

McNaughton Reyes, H. L., Foshee, V. A., Bauer, D. J. & Ennett, S. T. (2012). Heavy alcohol use and dating violence perpetration during adolescence: Family, peer and neighborhood violence as moderators. *Prevention Science*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-011-0215-8

Meyers, R. J., Smith, J. E., Serna, B. & Belon, K. E. (2013). Community reinforcement approaches: CRA and CRAFT. *Interventions for Addiction*, Elsevier

Miao, T. A., Umemoto, K. & Gonda, D. (2011). Essential elements for community engagement in evidence-based youth violence prevention. *journal of community*. Springer

Miller T. R. & Cohen M. A. (1996), Wiersema B. *Victim costs and consequences*: A new look. 1996. National Institute of Justice Research Report, U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs.

Miller, T. R., Fisher, D. A. & Cohen, M. A. (2004). Costs of juvenile violence: Policy implications. *Pediatrics*. https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.107.1.e3

Mmari, K., Lantos, H., Brahmbhatt, H., Delany-Moretlwe, S., Lou, C., Acharya, R. & Sangowawa, A. (2014). How adolescents perceive their communities: A qualitative study that explores the relationship between health and the physical environment. *BMC Public Health*. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-14-349

Moffitt, T. E. (1993). Life-course-persistent and adolescence-limited antisocial behavior: A developmental taxonomy. *Psychological review.*

Morris, S. C. (2007). The causes of violence and the effects of violence on community and individual health. *Global Health Education Consortium*, Citeseer

Moser, C. O. N. (2004). Urban violence and insecurity: An introductory roadmap. *Environment and Urbanization*. https://doi.org/10.1630/0956247042309847

Mosher, C. & Akins, S. (2018). Substance abuse. *The Cambridge Handbook of Social Problems*. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108550710.004

Murray, J. & Farrington, D. P. (2012).The effects of parental imprisonment on children. *Crime and Justice*. https://doi.org/10.1086/520070

Murray, J., Cerqueira, D. R. de C. & Kahn, T. (2013). Crime and violence in Brazil: Systematic review of time trends, prevalence rates and risk factors. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2013.07.003

Murray, J., Janson, C. G. & Farrington, D. P. (2007). Crime in adult offspring of prisoners: A cross-national comparison of two longitudinal samples. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854806289549

Murray, J., Loeber, R. & Pardini, D. (2012).Parental involvement in the criminal justice system and the development of youth theft, marijuana use, depression, and poor academic performance. *Criminology*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-9125.2011.00257.x

MyJoyOnline.com (2017). Receptionist raped, killed at Kasoa guest house. Retrieved from;https://www.myjoyonline.com/news/2017/november-14th/receptionist-raped-killed-at-kasoa-guesthouse.php (on 11th January, 2019).

National Institute on Drug Abuse (2012). *Principles of drug addiction treatment: A Research-Based Guide*. National Institute on Drug Abuse. https://doi.org/NIH Publication No. 12–4180

National Institute on Drug Abuse (2018). *Drugs, brains, and behavior: The Science of Addiction*. *NIDA*. https://doi.org/10.1097/01.NME.0000531870.46498.da

Neckerman, K. M. & Torche, F. (2007). Inequality: Causes and consequences. *Annual Review of Sociology*. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.33.040406.131755

Neigh, G. N., Gillespie, C. F. & Nemeroff, C. B. (2009). The neurobiological toll of child abuse and neglect. *Trauma, violence, and abuse*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838009339758

New, M. & Berliner, L. (2000). Mental health service utilization by victims of crime. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1007818402277

Nordstrom, B. R. & Dackis, C. A. (2011).Drugs and crime. *Journal of Psychiatry and Law*. https://doi.org/10.1177/009318531103900407

Norman, H. J. (1936). Alcholism, crime, and manic depressive disorder. *British Journal of Inebriety*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1360-0443.1936.tb04890.x

Obeng-Odoom, F. (2013). Governance for pro-poor urban development: Lessons from Ghana. Governance for Pro-poor Urban Development: Lessons from Ghana. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203362723

Ohene, S. A., Johnson, K., Atunah-Jay, S., Owusu, A. & Borowsky, I. W. (2015). Sexual and physical violence victimization among senior high school students in Ghana: Risk and protective factors. *Social Science and Medicine*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2015.10.019

Okano, M., Langille, J. & Walsh, Z. (2016). Psychopathy, alcohol use, and intimate partner violence: Evidence from two samples. *Law and Human Behavior*. https://doi.org/10.1037/lhb0000192

Ozen, G. (2015). The effect of climbing community activities as a leisure on University students' social anxiety. *The Anthropologist*, Taylor & Francis

Pagani, L., Boulerice, B., Vitaro, F. & Tremblay, R. E. (1999). Effects of poverty on academic failure and delinquency in boys: A change and process model approach.

Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0021963099004783

Paik, H. & Comstock, G. (1994). The effects of television violence on antisocial behavior: a meta-analysis. *Communication research*, journals.sagepub.com

Parker, R. N. & Auerhahn, K. (2002). Alcohol, drugs, and violence. *Annual Review of Sociology*. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.24.1.291

Patel, D. M. & Taylor, R. M. (2012). *Social and economic costs of violence*: Workshop summary, books.google.com

Patel, D. M. & Taylor, R. M. (2012).*Social and economic costs of violence*: Workshop Summary. Medicine.

Pathirana, M. (2000). Psychological impact of violence and abuse in the lives of street children in Sri Lanka. *J Hum Growth Development.*

Patterson, G. R., Dishion, T. J. & Yoerger, K. (2000). Adolescent growth in new forms of problem behavior: Macro-and micro-peer dynamics. *Prevention science*, Springer

Pérez, O. J. (2013). Gang violence and insecurity in contemporary Central America. *Bulletin of Latin American Research*, Wiley Online Library

Peterson, M. (2013). Street gangs: Coping with violence in schools. *Crisis counseling for a quality school community: Applying Wm. Glasser's choice theory.*

Pinotti, P. (2015). The economic costs of organised crime: Evidence from Southern Italy. *Economic Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1111/ecoj.12235

Plawecki, A., Bobian, M., Kandinov, A., Svider, P. F., Folbe, A. J., Eloy, J. A. & Carron, M. (2017). Recreational activity and facial trauma among older adults. *JAMA Facial Plastic Surgery*. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamafacial.2017.0332

Porter, S. R. (2004). Raising response rates: What works? *New Directions for Institutional Research*. https://doi.org/10.1002/ir.97

Rajkumar, A. S. & French, M. T. (1997). Drug abuse, crime costs, and the economic benefits of treatment. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02221094

Ratti, M, Laini, C, Ardenghi, S. & Salvarani, V. (2016). Psychological impact of violence, adversity and social marginality. *... della sezione di ...*, boa.unimib.it

Ray, M. & Jat, K. R. (2010).Effect of electronic media on children. *Indian Pediatrics*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13312-010-0128-9

Reed, S., Roe, S., Grimshaw, J. & Oliver, R. (2018). The economic and social costs of crime. *Home Office Research Study 217*.

Reichenheim, M. E., De Souza, E. R., Moraes, C. L., De Mello Jorge, M. H. P., Da Silva, C. M. F. P. & De Souza Minayo, M. C. (2011). Violence and injuries in Brazil: The effect, progress made, and challenges ahead. *The Lancet*. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(11)60053-6

Resnick, M. D., Ireland, M. & Borowsky, I. (2004). Youth violence perpetration: what protects? What predicts? Findings from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health. *Journal of Adolescent Health*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2004.01.011

Reyes, J. E., Kelcey, J. & Varela, A. D. (2013). Transformative resilience guide: Gender, violence, and education. *Open knowledge*.worldbank.org

Rodriguez, C. M. & Tucker, M. C. (2011). Behind the cycle of violence, beyond abuse history: A Brief Report on the Association of Parental Attachment to Physical Child Abuse Potential. *Violence and Victims*. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.26.2.246

Roper, E. A. (2016). Concerns for personal safety among female recreational runners. *Women in Sport and Physical Activity.* journals.humankinetics.com

Rudatsikira, E., Siziya, S., Kazembe, L. N. & Muula, A. S. (2007). Prevalence and associated factors of physical fighting among school-going adolescents in Namibia. *Annals of General Psychiatry*. https://doi.org/10.1186/1744-859X-6-18

Ruiz-Casares, M. & Heymann, J. (2009). Children home alone unsupervised: Modeling parental decisions and associated factors in Botswana, Mexico, and Vietnam. *Child Abuse and Neglect*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2008.09.010

Rutter, M. (1979). Protective factors in children's responses to stress and disadvantage. *Annals of the Academy of Medicine Singapore*.

Ryan, J. P. & Testa, M. F. (2005). Child maltreatment and juvenile delinquency: Investigating the role of placement and placement instability. *Children and Youth Services Review*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2004.05.007

Ryan, J. P., Williams, A. B. & Courtney, M. E. (2013). Adolescent neglect, juvenile delinquency and the risk of recidivism. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-9906-8

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2012). Research methods for business students. 6th edition, Pearson Education Limited

Savage, J. & Yancey, C (2008). The effects of media violence exposure on criminal aggression: A meta-analysis. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, journals.sagepub.com

Savage, J., Ferguson, C. J. & Flores, L. (2017). The effect of academic achievement on aggression and violent behavior: A meta-analysis. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2017.08.002

Sedgwick, P. (2013). Convenience sampling. *BMJ*. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.f6304

Seedat, M., Van Niekerk, A., Jewkes, R., Suffla, S. & Ratele, K. (2009). Violence and injuries in South Africa: prioritising an agenda for prevention. *The Lancet*. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(09)60948-X

Shalloo, J. P. (1937). Youth and crime. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. https://doi.org/10.1177/000271623719400112

Shields, L. & Twycross, A. (2008). Sampling in quantitative research. *Paediatric Nursing*. https://doi.org/10.7748/paed.20.5.37.s30

Shim, H. & Shin, E. (2015).Peer-group pressure as a moderator of the relationship between attitude toward cyber bullying and cyber bullying behaviors on mobile instant messengers. *Telematics and Informatics*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2015.06.002

Short, J. F. & Hughes, L. A. (2008). Youth violence. In *Encyclopedia of Violence, Peace, and Conflict*. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012373985-8.00206-3

Short, J. F. & Hughes, L. A. (2010).Youth violence. *Encyclopedia of Violence, Peace, and Conflict*. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012373985-8.00206-3

Silva, T. & Sandström, P. (2018). Parenting difficult children and adolescents. In *Parenting - Empirical Advances and Intervention Resources*. https://doi.org/10.5772/67319

Simons, R. L., Wu, C. I., Conger, R. D. & Lorenz, F. O. (1994). Two routes to delinquency: Differences between early and late starters in the impact of parenting and deviant peers. *Criminology*, Wiley Online Library

Sloboda, Z., Stephens, R. C., Stephens, P. C., Grey, S. F., Teasdale, B., Hawthorne, R. D. & Marquette, J. F. (2009). The Adolescent Substance Abuse Prevention Study: A randomized field trial of a universal substance abuse prevention program. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2009.01.015

Smallbone, S. & Rayment-McHugh, S. (2013). Preventing youth sexual violence and abuse: Problems and solutions in the Australian context. *Australian Psychologist*, Wiley Online Library

Smith, A. K. (2013). Factors and symptoms contributing to parent stress in raising an ADHD child. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*.

Smith, C. & Thornberry, T. P. (1995).The relationship between childhood maltreatment and adolescent involvement in delinquency. *Criminology*, Wiley Online Library

Social and Economic Costs of Violence. (2015). *Social and Economic Costs of Violence*. https://doi.org/10.17226/13254

Song, S. & Shaheen, M. (2013).Assessing the impact of violence and war on youth in Low-and Middle-Income Countries. *Child & Youth Care Forum*, Springer

Sousa, W. H. & Kelling, G. L. (2006). Advocate: Of "broken windows," criminology, and criminal justice. In *Police Innovation: Contrasting Perspectives*. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511489334.004

Stelko-Pereira, A. C. & Williams, L. C. de A. (2016). Evaluation of a Brazilian school violence prevention programm (Violência Nota Zero). *Pensamiento Psicológico*. https://doi.org/10.11144/javerianacali.ppsi14-1.ebsv

Stephen, C. & Morris, M. D. (2007). The causes of violence and effect of violence on community and individuals health. *Global Health Education Continuum*

Stewart, M., Meinke, D. K., Snyders, J. K. & Howerton, K. (2014). Shooting habits of youth recreational firearm users. *International Journal of Audiology*. https://doi.org/10.3109/14992027.2013.857437

Swahn, L., Gressard, J., Palmier, R., Kasirye, C., Lynch, C. & Yao, H. (2012). Serious violence victimization and perpetration among youth living in the slums of Kampala, Uganda," *Western Journal of Emergency Medicine*, vol. 13, no. 3, pp. 253–259, 2012.

Swanson, C. B. (2004). Projections of 2003–04 high school graduates: Supplemental analyses based on findings from *who graduates? who doesn't?*. Retrieved April 20, 2019, http://www.urban.org/publications/411019.html.

Sweeten, G., Piquero, A. R. & Steinberg, L. (2013). Age and the explanation of crime, revisited. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-9926-4

Taherkhani, S., Negarandeh, R., Simbar, M. & Ahmadi, F. (2015). Effect of contextual factors on women coping strategies against domestic violence: a qualitative study. *Koomesh*, cabdirect.org

Taylor, R. B. (2018). Breaking away from broken windows: Baltimore neighborhoods and the nationwide fight against crime, grime, fear, and decline. Breaking away from broken windows: Baltimore Neighborhoods and the nationwide fight against crime, grime, fear, and decline. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429502019

Testa, M. F. & Smith, B. (2009). Prevention and drug treatment. *Future of Children*. https://doi.org/10.1353/foc.0.0033

Thu, H., Nguyen Thi & Minh, T. N. T. T. (2013). *School violence: Evidence from young lives in Vietnam*., ora.ox.ac.uk

Toledo-Pereyra, L. H. (2012). Research design. *Journal of Investigative Surgery*. https://doi.org/10.3109/08941939.2012.723954

Tornuxi, J. A. (2015). *Perception of crime and women's safety in urban low-income communities*: A case study of Nima, Accra., ugspace.ug.edu.gh

UNESCO (2016). *Connect with respect*: Presenting gender – based violence in Schools. Classroom Programme for Students in Early Secondary School (ages 11- 14)., UNESCO

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2010). Drug statistics and trends. *United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime*. https://doi.org/9781616688516

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2017). World Drug Report 2017: Executive summary conclusions and policy implications. *World Drug Report 2017*.

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, & World Bank (2007). Crime, violence, and development: Trends, costs, and policy options in the Caribbean. *United Nation's Office on Drugs and Crime*.

United States Agency for International Development (USAID) (2010). Country Profile: *Property Rights and Resource Governance (BURMA)*. *USAID Country Profile*.

Urdal, H. (2012). Youth bulges and violence. *Political demography*. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022002708316741

Vagi, K. J., Rothman, E. F., Latzman, N. E., Tharp, A. T., Hall, D. M. & Breiding, M. J. (2013). Beyond correlates: A review of risk and protective factors for adolescent dating violence perpetration. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-9907-7

Vandell, D. L., Larson, R. W., Mahoney, J. L. & Watts, T. W. (2015). Children's organized activities. *Handbook of Child Psychology and Developmental Science*. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118963418.childpsy408

Walters, G. D. (2013). Delinquency, parental involvement, early adult criminality, and sex: Evidence of moderated mediation. *Journal of Adolescence*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2013.03.011

Washington, G., Barnes, D. & Watts, R. J. (2014). Reducing risk for youth violence by promoting healthy development with pyramid mentoring: A proposal for a culturally centered group mentoring. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*. https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2014.922789

Waters, H. R., Hyder, A. A., Rajkotia, Y., Basu, S. & Butchart, A. (2005). The costs of interpersonal violence - An international review. *Health Policy*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthpol.2004.11.022

Waters, H., Hyder, A., Rajkotia, Y., Basu, S., Rehwinkel, J. & Butchart, A. (2004). The economic dimensions of interpersonal violence. *World Health Organization*.

Weaver, A. J. (2011). A Meta-Analytical review of selective exposure to and the enjoyment of media Violence. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media*. https://doi.org/10.1080/08838151.2011.570826

Wells, L. E. & Rankin, J. H. (1986). The broken homes model of delinquency: Analytic issues. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022427886023001005

Whiteside, L. K., Ranney, M. L., Chermack, S. T., Zimmerman, M. A., Cunningham, R. M. & Walton, M. A. (2015). The overlap of youth violence among aggressive adolescents with past-year alcohol use - A latent class analysis: Aggression and victimization in peer and dating violence in an inner city emergency department sample. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol and Drugs*. https://doi.org/10.15288/jsad.2013.74.125

WHO, World Health Organization. (2002). World report on violence and health, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, 2002.

Williams, K., Rivera, L., Neighbours, R. & Reznik, V. (2007). Youth violence prevention comes of age: Research, Training and Future Directions. *Annual Review of Public Health*. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.publhealth.28.021406.144111

Wilmot, A. (2005). Designing sampling strategies for qualitative social research: with particular reference to the office for national statistics' Qualitative Respondent Register. *Survey Methodology Bulletin-Office for National Statistics*.

Wilson, G. (2013). The politics of youth violence in Rumuekpe and its impact on Rumuekpe community development, 2004-2010. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, mcser.org

Wilson, J. Q. & Kelling, G. L. (1982). Broken windows Atlantic monthly, lakeclaire.org

Wood, J. (2001). Gendered Media: The influence of media on views of gender. *Applied Physics Letters*. https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1409274

Yazdani, M., Bercovitch, D. & Charles-Voltaire, J. (2014). Knowledge transfer on urban violence: from Brazil to Haiti. *Environment and Urbanization*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0956247814544884

Young, K. (2013). Sport, violence and society. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203874615

Young, T., Fitzgibbon, W. & Silverstone, D. (2014). A question of family? Youth and gangs. *Youth Justice*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1473225414537569

Zablotska, I. B., Gray, R. H., Koenig, M. A., Serwadda, D., Nalugoda, F., Kigozi, G. & Wawer, M. (2009). Alcohol use, intimate partner violence, sexual coercion and HIV among women aged 15-24 in Rakai, Uganda. *AIDS and Behaviour*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10461-007-9333-5

APPENDIX A

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Prospective Participant,

My name is Tawiah Akwetey-Wayo Enoch of the University Of Education, Winneba. I am writing my thesis on the topic Youth Violence in Kasoa.

I believe you are a reliable source of information needed in this study. You are therefore entreated to respond to the questions presented in this questionnaire with sufficient degree of precision and accuracy based on your experience. Rest assured that your responses shall be treated confidentially.

I humbly want information:

1. Gender?
    a. Male [ ]
    b. Female [ ]

2. Age of respondent
    a. 18 – 25 years [ ]
    b. 26 – 35 years [ ]
    c. 36 – 45 years [ ]
    d. 46 – 55 years [ ]
    e. 56 years and above [ ]

3. What is your level of education?
    a. Basic education and below
    b. Secondary education
    c. Tertiary education
    d. No formal education

4. Place of stay within kasoa …………………………………………………..

5. Length of stay within kasoa…………………………………………………

6. What are the forms of violence common in your area?

………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………

116

7. How prevalent is youth violence in your area?
    a. Low
    b. Average
    c. High

8. What are the age brackets of youths involved in your area?
    a. Below 13 years
    b. 13 – 17 years
    c. 18 – 35 years
    d. Above 35 years

What violence do you think the youths are mostly involved in?

Assault

Fighting

    a. Sexual harassment /Rape
    b. Murder
    c. Other (please specify)……………………………………………

9. What are some of the causes of youth violence in your area?
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    …………………………………………..

10. How is youth violence affecting lives in Kasoa?

    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    …………………………………………..

11. What should be done to reduce youth violence in Kasoa?
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    …………………………………………..

12. Any other comments?

    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    ……………………………..

117