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Changes in Beliefs about Aggression in Baton Rouge Youth Peace Olympics Participants

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Abstract

Changes in Beliefs about Aggression in Baton Rouge Youth Peace Olympics Participants

by

Shonta D. Manuel

MPH, Benedictine University, 2010

BS, Southern University and A&M College, 2001

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Health

Walden University

August 2018

Abstract

Youth violence in the Baton Rouge inner-city area continues to create heightened concerns for the communities as well as the financial and healthcare systems. Even though violence prevention programs are in place in the area, no decline has been recorded in those who are being affected by violence.   Due to lack of research in this field, a need for a sound research study exists to understand how Youth Peace Olympics (YPO) community-based program may be related to changes in attitudes about aggression and violence. A correlational cross-sectional research design was used to evaluate participants' beliefs about aggression, measured using the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument by the organization at the beginning and end of the summer program, in addition to secondary data that was provided to me (n=50). Social cognitive theory and the social development model were used as the theoretical framework for the study. Results showed a statistically significant decrease in retaliation approval of aggression scores (pretest $M = 2.24$, posttest $M = 1.91$; $t[49] = 4.07$, $p =.000$) and marginal statistically significant decrease in general approval of aggression scores (pretest $M = 1.48$, posttest $M = 1.31$; $t[49] = 1.96$, $p = .055$). Age, gender, and ethnicity were not found to be related to pretest attitudes or pretest/posttest changes in attitudes regarding retaliation approval or general approval of aggression at statistically significant levels. The potential for positive social change is to provide researchers and community-level stakeholders with preliminary program evaluation data related to attitudes about aggression/violence approval.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the countless youth in Baton Rouge, the state of Louisiana, the nation, and the world who live in poverty and inequality and feel that there is nowhere or no one to turn to. Please do not give up. I came from some of the same circumstances while living in foster care with no mother, father, or family. Keep your head up and know that you can do anything that you dream of, no matter how big or small. Always remember to focus on the things wanted, not the things unwanted.

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Chapter 1

Introduction to the Study

Millions of individuals die or are injured globally due to violence, and survivors can be left with permanent psychological damage and physical disabilities (World Health Organization [WHO], 2016b). Violence is preventable and results from the interplay of individual, relationship, community, and societal factors associated with aggression, harsh punitive discipline, impulsiveness, poor supervision and monitoring of children, association with delinquent peers, witnessing violence, access to firearms, drug trafficking, norms that support violence as a way to resolve conflict, and gender and income inequality (WHO, 2016b). Reza, Krug, and Mercy (2011) concluded that violence committed by youth is one of the most recognized forms of violence in society. The current study was conducted to further explore public health programs, specifically the Youth Peace Olympics (YPO) in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, that focus on violence prevention and are based on an understanding of behaviors and the contexts in which they occur (Glanz & Bishop, 2010). Studying a violence prevention program that is analyzed through the theory-driven lens of the social cognitive theory (SCT) and social development model (SDM) in a science-based public health approach (PHA) programmatic-based structure may assist in developing violence prevention programs that are replicable (Bandura, 1974; Blomberg, 2011; Bradshaw, Goldweber, & Garbarino, 2013; Catalano, Kosterman, Hawkins, Newcomb, & Abbott, 1996; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2015a; Choi, Harachi, Gillmore, & Catalano, 2005; Fleming, Catalano, Oxford, & Harachi, 2002; WHO, 2016a)

The Louisiana Center for Health Equity (Louisiana Center for Health Equity [LCHE], n.d.), which is a nonprofit community health organization, convened a small group of community members in 2011 to discuss the needs of adolescents in the Gardere Area of Baton Rouge. The public health initiative *Together We Are More* was launched in 2012 based off of this effort (LCHE, n.d.). That initiative developed the YPO (n.d.) based on the findings from an epidemiological study conducted by the Louisiana Department of Hospitals, which determined youth violence to be the number one health issue among youth. The intervention for the YPO program involves utilizing positive enrichment through the use of sports, music and art, youth development, health education, and mentorship (YPO, n.d.).

The goal of the LCHE, through the implementation of YPO, is to create social change by developing health promotion campaigns including school-based interventions, mental health and cognitive behavior services, and effective community-wide communications to decrease violence-related injuries and deaths committed by youth (LCHE, n.d.; YPO, n.d.). For this study, the intervention was participation in the YPO program from April 1, 2016 to August 31, 2016 (YPO, n.d.). Participants in this program, which was developed under the guidance of the PHA and community participation, are engaged in sports, the arts, health education, and professional development. The YPO participants were also evaluated by LCHE for their social interactions, although I did not use the data due to the lack of reliability of the instrument employed for this measurement (YPO, n.d.). The results from this study will be used for ongoing program and intervention assessment.

Another objective of the program was to utilize data to develop and implement a city-wide strategic plan including training and capacity building for duplication of the YPO as a school-based initiative, which also includes the use of data to continually improve the project (LCHE, n.d.; YPO, n.d.). The aim of the program was also to improve adolescent health by increasing the proportion of adolescents who are connected to parents and/or positive role models. Other goals included increasing the number of adolescents who participate in extracurricular activities, increase high school graduation rates, and implement programs to improve students' classroom behavior and social skills. Researchers have explored similar programs where sports and physical activity are utilized to promote health and wellness (Schinke, et al., 2016). This chapter will highlight the issues related to youth violence, the purpose of the study, the research questions and hypotheses, the study's theoretical and conceptual framework, the nature of the study, assumptions, scope of delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study.

Background

Researchers have asked what the associating factors are that contribute to urban Louisiana youth entering into the justice system as they become adults (Jaggers, Robison, Rhodes, Guan, & Church, 2016). High levels of poverty are experienced in households headed by single women in the state's inner cities (Morgan, 2013), and as a result of the stressors associated with living in poverty, poor children often have low levels of family support and encouragement (Jaggers et al., 2014), lack of attachment to school (Henry, Knight, & Thornberry, 2013; Niehaus, Rudasill, & Rakes, 2013), and have behavioral health problems (Moore, Redd, Burkhauser, Mbwana, & Collins, 2002). Louisiana was

ranked as having the second highest juvenile violent crime rate in the United States in

2014, with 445 out of every 100,000 Louisiana youth arrested for a violent offense such

as murder, rape, robbery, or aggravated assault (Puzzanchera, 2014; Robison, Blackmon,

& Rhodes, 2016). This high level of crime among youth in the Baton Rouge, Louisiana,

inner city areas spawned the Baton Rouge Alliance for Violence Elimination (BRAVE)

Project with a mission designed to reduce and eliminate violent crime committed by

juveniles in criminal "hot spots" by increasing policing through the implementation of the

National Network of Safe Communities Group Violence Reduction Strategy model

(Barthelemy, Chaney, Maccio, & Church, 2016; BRAVE, n.d.; White House, 2015).

This model addressed violent crimes committed by youth ages 12–21. There have been

various efforts to reduce crime and violence among youth in the Baton Rouge area.

Based on the Operation Ceasefire model implemented in Boston, Massachusetts, in 1996,

the BRAVE Project involves a strong collaboration between the mayor, district attorney,

police chief, sheriff, school superintendent, Louisiana State University, and faith-based

leaders (BRAVE, n.d.; Kennedy, Braga, Piehl, & Waring, 2001).

 My Brother's Keeper was a challenge launched by President Barack Obama to

promote a public-private partnership with the federal government that focuses on

utilizing civic leaders as a prevention mechanism to encourage young men of color to

address their challenges and promote racial justice (Bronston, 2015; White House, n.d.).

Mayor Kip Holden of Baton Rouge later took up this challenge in 2015 (White House,

2015). Another initiative called the Youth Empowerment Program Village that was

initiated by the United States Department of Minority Health provided resources for

summer and afterschool programs for fourth and fifth grade boys in two failing inner-city schools in Baton Rouge (Youth Today, n.d.). The goal for this program was to empower these young boys under the direction of an evidence-based curriculum called Positive Action and academic assistance called Academic All-Stars and provide enrichment activities. Families also attended monthly family engagement workshops conducted by effective Black parenting educators. This initiative provided the boys with tools to avoid risky behaviors (drugs, sex, and violence) and set goals for successful academic achievement and productive lives.

Similar to Operation Ceasefire, the BRAVE Project provided alternatives to group and gang violence through educational and community engagement activities with the hopes of increasing the social cohesion of the community, coordinating social services and educational partners to assist youth, implementing a focused deterrence approach to community-based policing, and forging the development of a community-police partnership (Braga, Hureau, & Papachristos, 2014; BRAVE, n.d.). Although these programs can set the stage for forums through policing and community collaboration, there is also a need for providing programs that allow for settings where youth can socialize with other peers in a controlled, positive environment (Bradshaw et al., 2013).

Musical activities oriented to youth in informal settings such as youth arts centers or community programs hold relevance and value for those youth (Rimmer, 2018). Confidence, competence, character, and connection are viewed as products of positive youth development in sports (Vierimaa, Bruner, & Côté, 2018). Through Shirly Brice Heath's work of a decade studying after-school programs involving sports, academics,

the arts (dance, music, theater, or other disciplines), and community involvement for disadvantaged youth, it was discovered that participating in arts programs promote development of self-confidence, self-esteem, organizational skills, collaboration, and language and lead to youth doing better in their personal lives and in school (Heath & Roach, 1999). Champions of Change, a program established in the United States during the Clinton administration under the direction of Edward B. "Ted" Fiske, former U.S. Secretary of Education, engages youth in arts as an avenue to develop their capabilities and contribute to the world around them by fostering achievement and growth through quality artistic expression (Fiske, 1999). Researchers also identified how the arts assist in the development of perceived self-worth, creativity, various dimensions of personal development, and original thinking (Burton, Horowitz & Abeles, 1999; Catterall, Chapleau & Iwanga, 1999). Müller, Naples, Cannon, Haffner, & Mullins (2018) studied a school-based, integrated arts program designed to facilitate social and emotional learning domains among youth who experience social-cognitive challenges. They discovered great gains in including self-management, self-awareness, social awareness, reasonable decision making, and relationship skills (Müller et al., 2018). The active participation in organized youth arts activities, such as music and art, is considered good for youth's social and emotional wellbeing. They join with others (as in choral performance), develop skills (as in learning about music octaves and tones), and become real performers in front of an audience (Ennis & Tonki, 2018). Chris "Kazi" Rolle was abandoned by his mother as a child and was placed in foster care; however, when he grew up, he created the Hip Hop Project (Silverman & Elliot, 2018). This program was created to create a

safe environment for at-risk youth to express their deep personal narratives through rap, narratives they would otherwise feel uncomfortable expressing (Silverman & Elliot, 2018). In other words, music or rap provided a creative outlet for them to express their pain (Silverman & Elliot, 2018).

Community youth sport programs are often utilized in an effort to support at-risk youth who are transitioning into adulthood or failing in school social alienation (Hutchesson, Dionigi, & Gottschall, 2018). Sports have been widely recognized to have the potential to increase personal and social development of vulnerable youth (Super, Verkooijen, & Koelen, 2016). Considered a key development, youth sports provide opportunities to build relationships with peers and support character development (Agans, Su, & Ettekal, 2018). Also, peers have the ability to shape motivation and influence the sports experience for adolescents (Agans et al., 2018). Program interventions that include physical activity are often developed to address delinquency (Khoury-Kassabri & Schneider, 2018). Khoury-Kassabri and Schneider (2018) studied Israeli adolescents aged 13-18 and provided information to support that such programs reduce adolescents' involvement in public disorder and crimes against property and persons. Furthermore, motivational climate is associated with antisocial and prosocial behavior in youth athletes through indirect and direct social assistance such as perspective, moral disengagement, and esteem and emotional support (Barry, Clarke, Morreale, & Field, 2018; Bortoli, Messina, Zorba, & Robazza, 2018; Stanger, Backhouse, Jennings, & McKenna, 2018).

Previous researchers have shown that the foundational platforms of the SCT (Bandura, 2001; Kunda, 1999; Pajares, 2002; Winters, Petosa, & Charleton, 2003) and SDM (Choi et al., 2005; Herrenkohl et al., 2001; Krug, Dahlberg, Mercy, Zwi, & Lozano, 2002; Maddox & Prinz, 2003; Smith, 2010) can provide an understanding of youth behavior. Combining these theoretical models with the implementation of the PHA can provide a scientifically based framework to address youth violence (Brundtland, 2002; CDC, 2015b; Hammond, Haegerich, & Saul, 2009; Powell, Mercy, Crosby, Dahlberg, & Simon, 1999; Prothrow-Stith, 1991, 1995, 2002; Walker & Shinn, 2002). Dr. Gro Harlem Bruntland, past Director-General of the World Health Organization from 1998 to 2003, was also a supporter of the theory-driven PHA (WHO, n.d.). Mentorship-focused youth violence prevention also provides experiences for youth who may be less experienced to be guided by a person who elicits positive behaviors while building a sense of trust (Allen, 2013; Briggs, 2014; Colvin & Ashman, 2010; Karcher, 2005, 2006, 2008; Price, 2004a, 2004b). The community-based participatory research (CBPR) approach is discussed in chapter 2 and demonstrates how community participation can create long lasting effects as well as a sense of ownership in addressing youth violence (Griffith et al., 2008; Israel et al., 2003; Israel, Schulz, Parker, Becker, 2001; Johnson et al, 2009; Leff, 2010a; Minkler & Wallerstein, 2003; Rogers, 2011). Finally, understanding protective factors and risk factors allow for the use of prevention strategies to address the phenomenon of youth violence (CDC, 2015a, 2015b; Choi, et al., 2005; Hawkins et al, 2000; Herrenkohl et al., 2003; Herrenkohl, Lee, & Hawkins, 2012; Maguire, Wells, Katz, 2011; Lösel & Farrington, 2012; Piko, Fitzpatrick, Wright, 2004).

Although there are a number of previous researchers who have shown how the SCT and SDM are applied in violence prevention as well as related programs (Bandura, 2001; Choi et al., 2005; Herrenkohl et al., 2001; Krug et al., 2002; Kunda, 1999; Maddox & Prinz, 2003; Pajares, 2002; Smith 2010; Winters et al., 2003), there is a gap in research that supports the use of the PHA coupled with the arts, sports activities extracurricular activities, and professional development in programs similar to the YPO violence prevention program (Bandura, 2001; Choi et al., 2005; Herrenkohl et al., 2001; Krug et al., 2002; Kunda, 1999; Maddox & Prinz, 2003; Pajares, 2002; Smith 2010; Winters et al., 2003). This study supports the need for developing an effective theory-driven youth violence prevention program that can be replicated to assist in reducing the phenomenon of youth violence. In Chapter 2 I address this gap and further explain how the YPO violence prevention program implements the SCT, SDM, and PHA.

Problem Statement

According to the 2013 Youth Risk Behavior Survey (Kann et al., 2014), 24.7% of high school students reported being in a physical fight one or more times. In 2017 there were 861 juveniles incarcerated for felony crimes (Louisiana State Department of Juvenile Services, 2017). It's important to understand how the domains of developing cognitive and social characteristics along with understanding behavioral patterns can be useful in addressing this problem (Bandura, 1974, 1991; 2006; Blomberg, 2011; Bryan, Glynn & Kittleson, 2011; Thornton, Craft, Dahlberg, Lynch, & Baer, 2002).

In East Baton Rouge, there are 48,455 or 48% single-parent households where there is a male or female parent with no spouse according to the County Health Rankings

(2017a), which suggests a higher risk of adverse health effects, including emotional and behavioral problems (County Health Rankings, 2017a). Between 2011 and 2015, poverty by race/ethnicity was 23.2% Black or African American, 20.0% two or more races, 19.0% Hispanic or Latino, 13.3% overall, 11.8% Asian, 10% other, 3.9% White, non-Hispanic, and 2.0% American Indian or Alaska Native (U.S. Census Bureau, 2015). According to the County Health Rankings (2017b), 71% of ninth grade cohorts graduate in 4 years. There were 701violent crimes per 100,000 reported in this area compared to 536 violent crimes per 100,000 for the state of Louisiana (County Health Rankings, 2017b) and a 62.5% increase in homicides (Law Enforcement and Administration of Criminal Justice Uniform Crime Report, 2017). Improper supervision was the highest occurrence for offenses against juveniles at 14.6%, which was the highest percent reported for the 5-year period for followed by cruelty to juveniles at 13.3% (Baton Rouge Office of the Mayor, n.d.). Nineteen youth between 12 months to 21 years were victims of homicide in 2017 (The Advocate, 2018).

Therefore, the problem that was addressed in this study was the occurrence of youth violence in Baton Rouge, LA. Prevention specialists and researchers are under pressure to identify effective violence prevention strategies in youth (BRAVE, n.d.; Brundtland, 2002; CDC, 2015b; Hammond et al., 2009; LCHE, n.d.; Powell et al., 1999; Prothrow-Stith, 1991, 1995, 2002; Walker & Shinn, 2002; White House, 2015). While research has been done in this area (Allen, 2013; Briggs, 2014; Labbe, 2015; Smith 2010), I was not able to find research that has addressed the effectiveness of the YPO program used in the Baton Rouge area, which is one of the programs that has been

implemented to address this problem. The data collected from this study was used to

serve as an instrument to evaluate ongoing efforts of the intervention being used for the

YPO program.

Purpose of the Study

Although there have been efforts towards the implementation of youth violence

prevention programs that aim to address youth's needs towards the elimination of violent

behavior in the Baton Rouge area (BRAVE, n.d., White House, n.d.), I had not been able

to find previous researchers who had studied the effectiveness of the YPO program

(YPO, n.d.). This quantitative study describes and explores the YPO and can be used to

provide other programs with an analysis of a youth violence prevention program that,

guided by the PHA and structured using community-based participation, utilizes youth

taking part in sports, creative arts, and mentoring/coaching geared toward enriching

socialization, youth development, community collaboration, and healthy living to

demonstrate if these activities resulted in positive changes to the beliefs that youth have

about aggression, violence, and engaging in violent behavior (YPO, n.d.).

Prevention strategies at this level are aimed to promote attitudes, beliefs, and

behaviors that may include life skills training and education (CDC, 2015b). The youth

were assessed to determine if being in the program affected their beliefs about aggression

that can lead to violence. Their behavior was also assessed as they socialized and

interacted; however, that information was not shared with for this research because the

instrument used was not tested for validity. There is also the potential for the results of

this study to assist in the process of designing effective youth violence prevention

program models that can be duplicated. Finally, the evidence discovered has the potential

to assist in developing social change through policies and programs for a community-

based approach while illustrating the effectiveness of these types of programs in order to

potentially continue to secure funding.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: What are the predictive relationships between age, gender, ethnicity,

general beliefs towards aggression, and retaliation beliefs towards aggression held

in youth who will be participating in a youth violence prevention program,

measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument (pretest)?

$H_0 1$: There are no statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, general beliefs towards aggression, and retaliation beliefs

towards aggression held in youth who will be participating in a youth violence

prevention program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression

instrument (pretest).

$H_a 1$: There are statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, general beliefs towards aggression, and retaliation beliefs

towards aggression held in youth who will be participating in a youth violence

prevention program, measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression

instrument (pretest).

RQ2: What is the effect of participation in a youth violence prevention program

on the general beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards

aggression held in youth who participated in a youth violence prevention

program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument

(pretest/posttest)?

$H_0 2$: There is no statistically significant differences in the measures of general

beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in

youth who participated in a youth violence prevention program, as measured

by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest).

$H_a 2$: There is a statistically significant difference in the measures of general

beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in

youth who participated in a youth violence prevention program, as measured

by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest).

RQ3: What are the predictive relationships between age, gender, ethnicity, and

changes in general beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards

aggression held in youth who participated in a youth violence prevention

program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument

(pretest/posttest differences)?

$H_0 3$: There are no statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, and changes in general beliefs towards aggression and

retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in youth who participated in a

youth violence prevention program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs

about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest differences).

$H_a 3$: There are statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, and changes in general beliefs towards aggression and

retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in youth who participated in a

youth violence prevention program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs

about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest differences).

Theoretical Framework for the Study

Addressing youth violence is a public health issue and requires strategy and

collaboration though a multidisciplinary approach rooted in theory (CDC, 2015b; Glanz

& Bishop, 2010; WHO, 2016a; Winett, 1999). Also, implementing a program through

the scope of public health further enhances the possibility of its effectiveness (Prothrow-

Stith, 1991, 1995). The theoretical approaches often used to address youth violence are

the SCT and the SDM.

Social Cognitive Theory

The SCT is used in psychology, education, and communication research and

holds that portions of an individual's knowledge acquisition can be directly related to

observing others and is based on what individuals perceive is occurring in their

environment guided through cognitive processes (i.e. thinking, decision making, etc.)

(Bandura, 1977, 1989; Blomberg, 2011; Skinner, 1938). The key constructs of this

theory are influenced by behavioral (self-regulatory practices), personal (cognition,

affect, and biological events), and environmental factors (home, family, friends, school,

community, media, and political factors) (Bandura, 1991; Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Employing this strategy can instill social interactions skills that can build positive social

relationships (Thornton et al, 2002). This study explores the youth's beliefs about

aggression as a result of participating in YPO youth violence prevention program where

they interact with peers, coaches, and mentors (social environment) and gain knowledge from professional development activities.

The SCT can be examined through understanding how youth may have a fear of interacting with others. In other words, if youth are around other individuals who are confident while interacting with others they are more prone to behave in the same way. On the other hand, if they are in an environment with individuals who lack confidence while socializing with others they may elicit that behavior (James & Jones, 1980). The SCT stresses the importance of observational learning, imitation, and modeling and integrates a continuous interaction between behaviors, personal factors including cognition, and the environment and is often referred to as reciprocal causation (James & Jones, 1980).

Bandura did not suggest that the three factors may equal contribution to behavior and that the influence of behavior, environment, and person depends on which factor is strongest at any particular moment (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Behavior refers to things such as complexity, duration, and skill, environment is comprised of the situation, roles, models, and relationships and person is comprised of cognition and also other personal factors such as self-efficacy, motives, and personality. In this study, the environment influences cognition (Bandura, 1977, 1982, 1997). For the current study the environment is the place where the youth gather each month to listen to speakers and participate in athletic and artistic activities. Youth who offer suggestions or have questions for speakers may raise their hand and the speaker answers illustrating how personal factors influence behavior. It also demonstrates how behavior influences the environment.

Bandura along with Aletha Huston and later with Dorothea Ross and Sheila Ross

conducted an experiment called the Bobo Doll Study. In the study, a video was shown to

a group of children where a woman was being aggressive to a bobo doll where she was

hitting and shouting at it (Bandura & Huston, 1961; Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961).

Afterwards, the children who were allowed to play in the room with the same doll began

imitating the model by beating up the doll and using similar aggressive words (Bandura

& Huston, 1961; Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961). The study was significant because it

departed from behaviorism instances that not all behavior is directed by reinforcement or

rewards since children received no encouragement or incentives to beat up the doll but

rather were simply imitating the behavior they had observed (Bandura, Ross, & Ross,

1961, 1963). Though the bobo doll experiment Bandura grounded his understanding of a

model's primary function, which was to transmit information to the observer, and occurs

in any of three ways including the idea that model behavior serves as cues to initiate

similar behaviors, to strengthen or weaken the learner's existing restraints against the

performance of a modeled behavior, and demonstrate new patterns of behavior (Bandura,

Ross, & Ross, 1961; Lansford, 2016).

An example of behavior serving as a social prompt for this study is the instructor

for the art class. One of the youth is unfamiliar with how to perform an artistic technique

and observes the instructor perform it properly. Another example for strengthening or

weakening behavior is when an observer's restraints against imitating a behavior are

strengthened when the model is punished (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961; Lansford,

2016). For example, if one of the youth violates a rule established within the program

during a Saturday meet-up session and is punished, this will make the observer (the other

youth) think twice before attempting to break the rule. In contrast, observers' restraints

are weakened due to lack of punishment for reprehensible behaviors or the modeling of

defensible violence which adds legitimacy to the use of violence as a solution to a

problem and if the observer sees violence on a regular basis this may weaken the

observer's behavioral restraint toward violent behavior (Lansford, 2016).

The third influence of modeling is to demonstrate new patterns of behavior where

models are particularly important in the socialization of both children and adults in which

language, social values and family customs as well as educational, social, and political

practices are modeled in situations (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961). Examples for children

include symbolic models that portray both socially appropriate behaviors and sensitivity

to others are the mentors, coaches, and administrators behaving in an appropriate and

professional manner while the youth are engaged in activities and socializing together

(Lansford, 2016). In summary, Albert Bandura's SCT doesn't suggest that learning is not

facilitated by reinforcement but rather is enacted by others.

Social Development Model

The SDM incorporates the principle that social interaction comes before social

development and consciousness is the result of socialization and social behavior

(Catalano et al., 1996; Zavershneva, 2012). This model also utilized control theory, social

learning and differential association theory to explain individual and group attachments

or bonds (Choi et al., 2005; Maddox & Prinz, 2003). Further explained in chapter 2, the

SDM also embodies the idea youth will accept the behavioral and belief patterns of their social unit (Peers, family, or neighborhood) (Catalano et al., 1996).

One may ask how does a child develop socially, interact with others, and what is the process that gets them there? In order to answer these questions, researchers and psychologists have examined children based on the SDM (Catalano et al., 1996; Choi et al., 2005; Maddox & Prinz, 2003; Zavershneva, 2012). Spawned from Bandura's social learning theory, the SDM is geared toward how children learn based on what is observed (Bandura, 1977, 1982). Adolescence is a unique time and is a stage between childhood and adulthood when many teenagers are trying to figure out who they are, what they are about, and is a time when they feel they should be given more responsibility than they had when they were kids but do not feel ready for the duties as an adult (Erickson, 1956; Marcia, 1966; Phinney, 1989; Rosenthal, Gurney, & Moore, 1981).

With activities, school, home life, and planning for their future, adolescence can be a turbulent but exciting time for teens to learn about themselves. Part of the development of adolescence is the development of their self-concept (Callero, 2003). Self-concept refers to a set of abilities, opinions, and thoughts by which we define and categorize ourselves. For adolescents, the development of self-concept is much more complex than it was when they were children (Callero, 2003). Adolescents also focus on how they are viewed by others which can affect their self-esteem and self-concept whereas a teen may point out their values and morals according to who they are by talking about careers or goals, what school they want to attend, awards they have received or activities they excel in (Callero, 2003). Other teens may point out that they

don't know yet who they are or that they're still getting to know themselves and are much

more focused on what is expected of them and how they can compare to others than they

were as children (Callero, 2003). An individual's identity is based on eight stages (trust

versus mistrust – infancy, autonomy versus shame and doubt – toddlerhood, initiative

versus guilt – preschoolers, industry versus inferiority – school aged, identity versus role

confusion – adolescence, intimacy versus isolation – early adulthood, generativity versus

stagnation – middle aged, and integrity versus despair – maturity) (Erickson, 1956;

Valkenburg, Peter, & Schouten, 2006).

James Marcia set up a framework for understanding how adolescents and young

adults deal with the problems they face during the conflicts of identity versus role

confusion and intimacy versus isolation. In Marcia's system, there are four different

statuses (identity diffusion – individuals who don't know where they will end up and

don't care, foreclosure – individuals who commit to an identity that has been handed to

them, moratorium – individuals who are exploring their identity but have not yet

committed to any certain ideology, and identity achievement – individuals who have

achieved their explored options and have committed to a certain ideology that fits them

(Marcia, 1980).

Although common individuals may view the aforementioned characteristics and

behaviors that are associated with individuals as the mature from infancy, Bandura and

Walters (1977), Marcia (1980), and Erickson (1956) have presented models and concepts

that can be used to establish theoretical constructs when studying youth. For this study,

the explanation of why the youth hold particular beliefs was assessed through their social

cognition and development. In other words, the goal was to examine the youth's beliefs about aggression as a result of participating in the YPO youth violence prevention program. Chapter 2 will provide more details for the theoretical framework for both SDM and the SCT.

Nature of the Study

A quantitative pre-test/post-test research design was used to (a) determine the predictive relationships between demographic factors of youth who participate in the YPO program (age, gender, ethnicity) and their preparticipation general beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards aggression (as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument); (b) evaluate the changes in the dependent variables of their general beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards aggression (as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument) in youth that participated in the YPO program; and (c) determine the predictive relationships between the demographic factors of youth you participated in the YPO program (age, gender, ethnicity) and the changes (pre-test/post-test score changes) in their general beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards aggression (as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument).

The data (demographic and Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument) was gathered by YPO staff and provided to me as secondary data. Data analyses included descriptive/frequency analyses, *t* tests (differences in scores), and multiple linear regressions in order to determine predictive relationships between independent (demographics) and dependent (instrument scores) variables.

Definitions

Community-Based Participatory Research (CBPR): CPBR is determined by a community's planning, implementation and evaluation phases, is a community level strategy for improving health (Israel et al., 2001). The CBPR approach is achieved by researchers in public health who have focused on social, physical and structural, environmental inequities by way of active involvement of organizational representatives, community members, and researchers in all aspects of the research process (Israel et al., 2001; Minkler and Wallerstein, 2003).

Dependent variables: The dependent variables were the general approval of aggression, approval of retaliation, and total approval of aggression.

Family risk factors: Family risk factors are examples include family risk factors such as history of parent substance abuse, low parent involvement, and domestic violence in the home (Hawkins et al., 2000; Herrenkohl, et al., 2012; Piko et al., 2004).

Independent variables: The independent variables were age, gender, and ethnicity.

Louisiana Center for Health Equity (LCHE): LCHE is a non-profit organization that focused on addressing health equity and disparities in Louisiana by promoting the elimination of lack of access to quality health care, unhealthy environmental conditions with a focus on community health and wellness, and health disparities caused by poverty (LCHE, n.d.).

Predictive factors: Predictive factors are factors that can decrease a youth's chances of developing antisocial behavior and consequently committing violent acts (i.e.

parental involvement, high level of involvement in academics, being identified for behavior that can lead to violence) (Bradshaw et al., 2013).

Public health approach (PHA): PHA is a four-step public health model which includes defining and monitoring the public health problem, identifying risk and protective factors, developing and testing prevention strategies, and assuring widespread adoption (CDC, 2015a, 2015b)

Risk factors: Risk factors are characteristic or condition that increases an individual's likelihood of an individual becoming a victim or perpetrator of violence (CDC, 2015a). Hawkins et al, 2000) explain how risk factors also increase one's disposition towards antisocial behavior. The individual factors include early depression, aggression, individual beliefs regarding violence, and low self-esteem (Hawkins et al., 2000; Piko et al., 2004).

Social cognitive theory (SCT): SCT indicates that experience of learning is believed to be based on what a person thinks is happening in their environment (Bandura, 1974).

Social development model (SDM): SDM indicates that the social interaction precedes development and that cognition and consciousness are the result of social behavior and socialization (Zavershneva, 2012)

Social ecological model (SEM): SEM demonstrates the scientific explanation of the relation between one's behavior (individual) and environmental influence (community and interpersonal) and is used to address the various ways in which to

facilitate identified aggressive behaviors by organizing the environments in congruence with the situations (Bronfenbrenner, 1977).

Youth Peace Olympics (YPO) Youth Violence Prevention Program: The YPO Youth Violence Prevention Program was founded by Mary Wade of Wayland Temple in Philadelphia and is a community organization that promotes spiritual education and recreation activities with a focus on respect, peace, and nonviolence. Adopted by the Louisiana Center for Health Equity under the direction of Alma Stewart, this youth violence prevention program is now located in Baton Rouge, LA and is implemented based on the PHA. The Baton Rouge YPO program exposes youth to extracurricular activities including sports, the arts, and professional development over a four month period during the summer. Mentorship is also a focus for the program (LCHE, n.d.; YPO, n.d.).

Assumptions

Assumptions are ideas the researcher holds concerning how the data is distributed and collected and how the data that is collected can change over time (Lindel & Whitney, 2001). Also, there is the idea that one observation can depend on another (Lindel & Whitney, 2001). For this study, it was the assumption that the youth who participated in the YPO and had been exposed to or committed any violent related incidence could possibly show aggressive behavior while in the program (YPO, n.d.). On the contrary, it was assumed that after having been exposed to positive role models in an enriching environment there would a change in their beliefs about eliciting aggressive behavior from the beginning to the end of the program. Another assumption was that the

participants would understand the surveys, answer all items truthfully, and all would be collected. The validity of the instruments was established based on the literature review. The nature of the study is exploratory which eliminates the potential for causation. It was important to consider these assumptions because the data analysis outcome was determined by the level of feedback from the participants. The statistical analysis determined the relationships between variables. Also, since the effectiveness of the youth violence prevention program was dependent on the responses to the surveys, inadequacy could have affect the evaluation.

Scope and Delimitations

The problem selected for the study was due to the literature review discussing the relationship of providing youth with positive environments that allow effective socialization and mentorship and how it influences their perceptions and behaviors, which in this case was their approval of aggression (Allen, 2013; Briggs, 2014; Colvin & Ashman, 2010; Karcher, 2005, 2006, 2008; Price, 2004a, 2004b). The research question, variables, and population, and research design were selected based on feasibility and nature of the problem being faced in the Baton Rouge area (Puzzanchera, 2014; Robison et al., 2016). The program selected to work with was due to the ability to have synergy throughout the process of gathering information related to the history and overall goals of the program along with how it was designed to address the youth violence problem from various perspectives (socialization, mentorship, community, etc.) while utilizing a community-based multisector PHA (LCHE, n.d.; YPO, n.d.). To control the potential for internal validity regarding misunderstanding the items of the survey, the instrument used

was shown to be age appropriate (Huesmann, Guerra, Miller & Zelli, 1992). To assure

that all surveys were collected, the participants filled out surveys under the supervision of

YPO leadership members at the on-site location for the program who administered and

were responsible for collecting from each participant (YPO, n.d.).

The population included in the study were the individuals who fit characteristics

of those who were included in the predictive population to commit violent acts. The

excluded population included those who did not fall into the age group to be considered

youth and those who were not participants in the YPO program (YPO, n.d.). The study

only included participants who volunteered to participate which reduced the potential for

participation bias (Ćirković, Sandberg, Bostrom, 2010). It was also predicted that

generalizability may be affected based on the sample size being only those participants in

the program.

Limitations

There were limitations to the study. One limitation was related to time as it was

limited to only the four months that the youth were participating in the program and the

survey only portrayed a snapshot of the population during that point in time (Christ,

2007). Based on a power analysis it is suggested that there be 74 participants, however

generalizability was affected based on the sample size being only those 58 participants

enrolled in the program (see discussion in Chapter 3; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner,

2007). Also, the survey was not designed to demonstrate trends in beliefs about

aggression over time (Huesmann et al., 1992). These limitations could be overcome by

conducting a follow-up study for the next summer cycles and comparing the data for

multiple years to follow among a larger sample size. Also, the participants were not

obligated stay in the program so they could potentially drop out at any time causing a

threat to mortality (Christ, 2007). Participation mortality could have been reduced by

encouraging the participants to remain in the study while ensuing them that it was strictly

volunteer. There was also the potential for there to be a threat to testing causing potential

effects of a pretest on posttest (Dimitrov & Rumrill, 2003). This was decreased since

there were four months between the pretest and posttest. Another limitation was that

many of the youth were impacted by the Louisiana Great Flood that occurred in August

resulting in many youth participants being displaced or indirectly affected thus

preventing some from attending the last monthly meeting and also causing them to miss

taking the posttest.

Significance

The findings from this study were used to determine the effectiveness in the YPO

violence prevention program (YPO, n.d.). It also serves as a tool to capture how theory-

driven research can produce more effective programs that can be replicated (YPO, n.d.).

Additionally, the results can demonstrate how socialization in a positive environment

through peer interaction while participating in extracurricular activities combined

coupled with mentorship can affect youth's approval of aggression. The research and data

can also be used to share through collaboration by building coalitions that can approach

violence prevention utilizing a theoretical, data-driven approach. This information will

not only be shared with the leaders of current initiatives that focus on youth violence

prevention but those in the education, public health, and judicial systems to promote a

conversation about utilizing such techniques as social development by utilizing the public

health models to promote behavioral change and the need for collaboration between

multisector organizations. Finally, the evidence discovered has the potential to assist in

developing other local, state, and national policies to focus on theory-based youth

violence prevention programs and illustrate the need for the effectiveness of these types

of programs in order to potentially promote social change and secure funding.

Summary

With the prevalence of violence among and committed by youth in the world,

there lies a need to develop effective violence prevention programs that target this

population on an individual and group level. Often, there aren't parents and guardians in

the lives of the youth to provide support and enrichment to assist them in social

development which is essential to peer interaction and positive behavior enforcement.

This study explored how the YPO youth violence prevention program in evaluated from

the theoretical perspective of the SCT and the SDM can be used to best explain how

youth participating in the violence prevention program influences their beliefs about

violence as it relates to approval of aggression. The assumptions, delimitations, and

limitations were assessed and were taken into account as data was collected, analyzed,

and reported. Chapter 2 will provide this study's literature search strategy, theoretical

foundation and liter review related to the key variables.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

According to Wilkinson and Pickett (2006, 2008), poverty and lack of education are correlated to higher levels of violent behavior. Youth violence refers to damaging behaviors that can begin early and remain into young adulthood (CDC, 2015a). The young individual can be a victim, an offender, or a witness to the violence. Some violent acts, such as bullying, slapping, or hitting, can cause more emotional harm than physical harm (Batsche & Knoff, 1994; CDC, 2016a; Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Olweus, 1991) while others, such as robbery and assault (with or without weapons), can lead to serious injury or even death (CDC, 2015a, 2015c).

In 2015, there were 701 per 100,000 violent crime offenses in East Baton Rouge Parish area, which indicates the need for effective prevention and intervention programs (County Health Rankings, 2015). Programs that focus on youth development and improved socialization can lead to reduced aggressive behavior, improved attitudes, and improved interpersonal/emotional skills (Catalano et al., 2004; Chernis, Extein, Goleman, & Weissberg, 2006; Forster, Grigsby, Unger, & Sussman, 2015). Violence prevention programs that utilize extracurricular activities, such as sports and the arts, have been demonstrated to improve social development, behavior, and academics (Hartmann & Massoglia, 2007; Hoffman, 2006; Kreager, 2007; Rhea & Lantz, 2004; Smith, 2010; Stinson, 2009). Evaluating historical strategies that have been implemented can assist in providing evidence-based information that will increase generalizability (Brownson, Fielding, & Maylahn, 2009). Several prevention strategies have been identified that are

driven by theoretical and conceptual frameworks; these will be discussed throughout this chapter.

The current study was conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of a sport- and art-focused violence prevention program in the Baton Rouge area that aims to alter youth's beliefs about aggression. Such prevention and treatment efforts may promote social and emotional skills, and encourage consistency in norms across social settings (Herrenkohl et al., 2012; Lösel & Farrington, 2012; Vaughn, Salas-Wright, DeLisi, & Maynard, 2013). These efforts are further enhanced when combined with increased parenting interventions to promote stable positive relationships in the home and reduce conflict and poor family management in school settings and afterschool programs (Herrenkohl et al., 2012; Lösel & Farrington, 2012; Vaughn et al., 2013). Successful violence prevention programs are influenced by focusing on the fundamental components, implementation features, and methodological designs (Herrenkohl et al., 2012; Lösel & Farrington, 2012; Vaughn et al., 2013).

The goal of the study was to evaluate the Baton Rouge YPO (n.d.) violence prevention program to determine its effect on at-risk youth's beliefs about aggression. This chapter highlights the literature review strategy, theoretical and conceptual foundations for addressing youth violence, and ways in which the previous literature and research have been applied in similar studies. I state definitions for key terms as well as the rationale for the chosen theoretical methodology in relation to successes and challenges from past research.

Literature Search Strategy

The information for this literature review was retrieved by searching the Walden University library databases, peer reviewed journals, online dissertations and thesis abstracts, and reference lists related to the articles. The databases used were Expanded, ASAP, Academic, ProQuest Central, Thoreau, Sage Premier, and Web of Science. Key terms and combinations of terms used to access relevant youth violence related literature included *violent/violence* along with prevent*/prevents/prevented/preventing/prevention, adolescent violence, youth violence prevention, youth violence prevention program evaluation, youth development, youth violence prevention using sports, youth violence prevention using art, mentorship, community-based participatory research (CBPR), Baton Rouge youth violence, Youth Peace Olympics, social cognitive theory,* and *youth violence theoretical construct.* Because the topic of youth violence was so broad, these key terms provided access to the evidence-based research and literature that was specific to the study design.

The range of years under review were from 1969–2017; however, some resources lead to literature as far back as 1938. When there was saturation or difficulty in the aforementioned databases, I also conducted searches through supplemental databases such as Google scholar and Google search engines using terms including *public health, criminology, behavioral psychology, social science, criminal behavior and mental health, human behavior,* and *social environment*. I also held conversations with community leaders associated with youth violence and consulted unpublished studies in the Baton Rouge area. The information gained allowed for the connection to additional references

and an overall prospective of real-life experiences associated with youth violence in the area.

Theoretical Foundation

The two theories utilized in this study were the SCT and the SDM.

Social Cognitive Theory

Developed by Albert Bandura in the mid-1960s, the SCT indicates that experience of learning is believed to be based on what a person thinks is happening in their environment (Bandura, 1974, 1977). The key to the theory is that the learner's cognitive behaviors are guided by their cognitive processes, the mental action of acquiring knowledge and understanding through experience, thought, and the senses consisting of processes such as memory, knowledge, attention, judgment, working memory, evaluation, reasoning and computation, decision making, and problem solving. (Bandura, 1974; Blomberg, 2011). In order to explain the environmental influence (as illustrated by Bronfenbrenner's social ecological model in Figure 1), the SCT demonstrates the scientific explanation of the relation between a person's behavior (individual) and environmental influence (community and interpersonal) and is used to address the various ways to identify aggressive behaviors by organizing the environments in

congruence with the situations (Bandura, 1974; Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

Figure 1. The social ecological model. Adapted from Bronfenbrenner (1977). Environments in developmental perspective: Theoretical and operational models. In S. L. Friedman & T. D. Wachs (Eds.), *Measuring environment across the life span: Emerging methods and concepts* (pp. 3–28). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association Press.

Key constructs of SCT. The complex constructs of the SCT embody the interrelated influence of personal, behavioral, and environmental factors (Glanz & Bishop, 2010). These concepts include reciprocal determinism, outcome expectations, self-efficacy, collective efficacy, self-regulation, observational learning, incentive motivation, and moral disengagement (Glanz & Bishop, 2010; Semple, Patterson, Shaw, Pedlow, & Grant, 1999). Reciprocal determinism is the change in behavior resulting from interactions between the person and the environment (Glanz & Bishop, 2010). Outcome expectations are the beliefs about the value and likelihood of behavioral choices for the

SCT construct. (Glanz & Bishop, 2010; Semple et al., 1999). Self-efficacy is the ability

of an individual to perform a certain behavior based on their belief and level of

confidence, whereas the ability of a group to perform actions that result in a desired

change is collective efficacy (Cohen, Finch, Bower, & Sastry, 2006; Glanz & Bishop,

2010; Semple et al., 1999). Self-regulation is the ability of persons to control themselves

by goal-setting, self-monitoring, self-reward, feedback, enlistment of social support, and

social support (Winters et al., 2003).

The concept of self-efficacy (a person'sconfidence in their ability to control

outcomes) and self-regulation (exercise over a person's own motivation, emotional states,

thought processes, and patterns of behavior) are integral factors in social cognition (the

way in which individuals respond and interpret their world), as the resulting behavior of

an individual's cognitive process is linked to their observation within an environment

(Bandura, 1974, 2001; Bryan et al., 2011; Thornton et al., 2002). Change in behavior is

also related to the environment and the situation a person is in along with self-regulation

by self-reactive influence, and self-reflectiveness about the person's own capabilities,

quality of functioning, and the meaning and purpose of the person's life pursuits

(Bandura, 1989, 2001). Although environment plays a vital role in behavioral change,

self-efficacy is the single most imperative facet of the sense of self and thus determines

an individual's effort to change (Bandura, 1974; Glanz & Bishop, 2010). The concept of

incentive motivation is defined as the utilization of punishments and rewards to change

behavior (Kane, Johnson, Town, & Butler, 2004). The concept of moral disengagement is

the method by which a person who thinks about harmful behaviors and those being

harmed and becomes accepting of suffering and infliction by disengaging from self-

regulating moral standards (Bandura, 1989).

The SCT also includes the theoretical construct of defining human behavior. The

sense of personal agency (the ability of an individual to behave in an environment) plays

a vital role in cognitive development, including a person's mentality and self-awareness

(Bandura, 1989). Personal agency operates within an extensive system of sociostructural

influences, and for there to be change, the individual they must be in the optimal

environmental setting or situation before they experience transformation (Bandura,

2001). As discussed earlier, reciprocal determinism is the construct of personal,

behavioral, and environmental factors that continuously interact and are being influenced

and influencing each other. Figure 2 demonstrates how a person learns based on the

interrelations of behavior, environment, and personal characteristics (Charmaz, 2011).

Behavior

Personal   **Environmental**
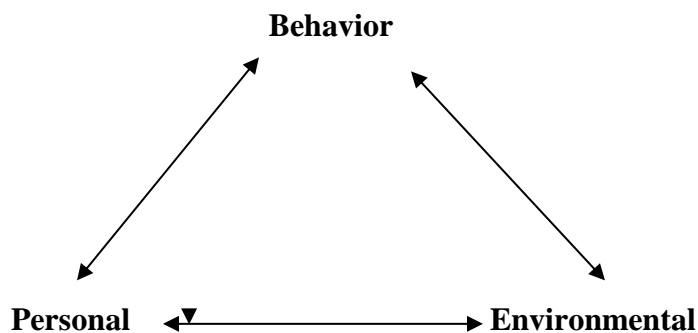
Figure 2. Reciprocal determinism triadic diagram. This triadic diagram demonstrates the
construct called Reciprocal Determinism or how an individual's learning process is
determined by the interactions of behavior, personal characteristics, and their
environment.

Application of SCT. The use of the SCT assisted in addressing the social

psychological factors which could cause and prevent youth violence for the current

research. The social environmental factors including social experiences, social

relationships, the community environment and societal-level factors are considered when

aiming to elucidate the relationship between the principles of SCT and the practice of

developing coherent and effective interventions (Glanz & Bishop, 2010). Utilizing this

theoretical approach can adversely affect self-perception, condition attitude, emotions,

and the ability to deal with behaviors such as self-denigrating thoughts (Bandura, 1997).

The strategies that have proven to be of assistance for youth violence prevention are those

which are social-cognitive based, family/parenting based, and involve home visits and

mentoring as described in the *CDC's Best Practices of Youth Violence Prevention: A*

Sourcebook for Community Action (Thornton et al., 2002). The main goal for this

research was to link the theory-driven model of SCT with an assessment of beliefs about

aggression for youth participating the YPO youth violence prevention program.

The social-cognitive strategy can instill social interaction skills by imparting the

assumption that if youth are equipped with the strategies to avoid violence they can also

learn how to build positive social relationships, thus allowing the habits and temptation of

violent behavior to decrease (Thornton et al, 2002).   A good social-cognitive program

also attempts to build a child's resources in the areas of social, emotional, cognitive,

behavioral, and moral competence (Catalano et al., 2002). For example, some effective

strategies have centered on teaching children to recognize their own emotions, as well as

those of others. This instruction can be used to help children learn how to act in social

situations, and increases their overall social competence (Domitrovich & Greenberg,

2000). This kind of skill building helps many social-cognitive programs to increase their

effectiveness where the strategies involve mentoring and are matched with positive role models who can accept them for who they are and where they are while assisting with them in dealing with existing problems they face in social relationships (Pajares, 2002).

As described by Bryan et al. (2011), if the level of self-efficacy is low in an individual, they may abstain from challenging tasks, give up quickly when faced with setbacks or failure, have lower aspirations and goals and experience higher levels of social isolation, stress, and depression. Dr. Bandura noted in his research that the level of self-efficacy can be a predictor of an individual's level of success (Bandura & Locke, 2003). The goal of this research was to evaluate the violence prevention program to determine if the youth's beliefs changed about aggression which could affect their socialization patterns.

Bradshaw, et al. (2013) explored the roles of social cognitive mediators (community violence exposure, teacher report of aggressive behavior, hostile attribution bias, response generation, and beliefs about aggression) among 184 youth, with an average age of 14, and their homeroom teachers at a suburban high school in New York. The authors found an association of teacher-reported aggressive behavior and total community violence which was mediated by social information processing and the effects of social-environmental risk factors which cause aggression in youth (Bradshaw et al., 2013). These researchers showed that even relatively low levels of social rejection and community violence exposure can put youth at an increased risk for problems with aggression.

Social Development Model

  The SDM indicates that the social interaction precedes development and that cognition and consciousness are the result of social behavior and socialization (Zavershneva, 2012). The three SDM themes are social interaction (influences the process of cognitive development), More Knowledge Other (MKO) (anyone who has more knowledge or understanding of a higher level or ability than another and may include a coach, mentor, teacher, adult, other peers, or computer technology) and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (the distance between a student's capacity to accomplish a task under peer collaboration or adult guidance and the students' ability to independently solve the problem). This model integrates the knowledge based effects of risk factors (predictors that lead to the development of antisocial behavior) and multiple levels of psychological, social and biological factors (such as the individual within the structure of family, school, peer group, and community) that contribute to the development of unwanted behavior such as violence or drug use (Catalano et al., 1996)

  The SDM was developed from the social development theory by the University of Washington--School of Social Work--Social Development Research Group (Kosterman, Hawking, Spoth, Haggerty, & Zhu, 1997). The tools developed for the SDM are utilized by criminologists, educators, and child psychologists for identifying and providing early intervention for youth who are likely to develop antisocial dispositions (Kosterman et al., 1997). This model utilizes a combination of social learning, control theory, and differential association theory to describe how the interactions between individuals and groups form bonds or attachments (Choi et al., 2005; Maddox & Prinz, 2003).

Researchers also described a hypothesis of the SDM being that youth accept the beliefs and behavioral patterns of their social unit (peers, family, or neighborhood) (Catalano et al., 1996).

The SDM works by synthesizing the three concepts used to describe antisocial behavior by utilizing Bandura's social learning theory (the incorporation of both cognitive theories of learning and behaviorism) and the association of taking the path to elicit either antisocial or prosocial behavior (Bandura, 1993; Catalano et al, 1996). The first concept is the role of social interaction in cognitive development. The social development theory maintains that social interaction plays a major role on cognitive development. The more knowledge other (MKO) is the second concept illustrating how any individual having higher level of understanding or ability than the learner will have the power to process or grasp the concept of a task. Often times MKOs are considered older adults, experts, or teachers. The zone of proximal development (ZPD) is the final concept and is the distance between that is known and unknown by the learner. In other words, it's the difference between the learner's ability to accomplish a task independently and the ability to accomplish a task under the guidance of his or her MKO.   It's suggested that use of this theory can transform antisocial behavior by placing individuals in environments promoting social interaction (Catalano et al., 1996). This theory also explains why individuals, more particularly youth, make the decision to elicit prosocial or antisocial behavioral patterns as they age (Catalano et al., 1996). The SDM is implemented in the studies of social phenomenon based on risk, socialization, and prosocial or antisocial behavioral patterns (Catalano et al., 1996; Fleming et al., 2002;

Choi et al., 2005). The SDM also addresses the environmental influences by predicting how the influences of anti-social communities can influence youth who are from various family backgrounds coupled with transitional stages or the aging of at-risk youth who are most likely to escalate or manifest problem behaviors (Catalano et al., 1996).

With regards to violence prevention and the use of the SDM, it is suggested that when youth have skills for conflict resolution they will have other options rather than choose violence and it's also useful for youth who elicit concurrent violent behavior by identifying chronic offenders predicting those who would be most at risk (Ayers et al., 1999; Choi et al., 2005; Herrenkohl et al., 2001; Nadel et al., 1996;). Also, by utilizing the SDM, it was discovered that there was a relationship between school bonding and lower violent behavior but participation in high school sports had no relationship with school bonding or lower violent behavior (Smith, 2010). It was also identified that both posttraumatic stress symptoms and attitudes toward violence mediate the relation between exposure to violence and aggression (Ozkol, Zucker, & Spinazzola, 2011). It was also discovered that youth raised in communities with highly mobile tenants experience lack of collective efficacy and less trust among their neighbors resulting in less social control and more social disorganization at the macro-level and that social bonding is best implemented at an individual-level approach for juvenile delinquency prevention (Domino, 2011). It was also explained how youth who engage in truancy are more likely to engage in substance abuse and vandalism (Choi et al., 2005). The power of the SDM was examined among 590 Seattle, Washington youth ages 9 – 10 and 13 – 14 and demonstrated the prediction of drug use among ages 17 -18 revealing, with a

confidence interval of .90, that an effective social-cognitive program can build a child's

emotional, social, behavioral, cognitive, and moral competence in drug prevention

(Catalano et al., 2002).

       Social cognition. The social psychologist Kunda (1999) discovered that social

cognition can be defined as the way in which individuals make sense of and respond to

their social environment or world and that the two main components of social cognition

are social information processing and general knowledge structures. An individual's

perception of themselves or others can also be considered associated social schemes,

suggesting that an individual's social interaction and situation is perceived based on

judgements about other's motives and intent while those affected respond and make

decisions based on these situations (Crick and Dodge, 1994).

       Youth violence and the SDM: Global impact. The study of youth violence

cannot only be observed within the confinements of the United States and understanding

how youth violence is addressed on the global level can shed light on how to effectively

implement a program based on various cultures, locations, and ethnicities (Brownson et

al., 2009). This section will provide data, methodology and other information to explain

the impact of utilizing the SDM to address youth violence on an international, state, and

local level. For instance, the SDM was utilized by Catalano et al (1996) to equip youth

with tools that contribute to social development in order to accept the beliefs and

behavioral patterns of their social unit (peers, family, or neighborhood) (Catalano et al.,

1996). In an effort to identify that risk and protective factors should be addressed in

preventive interventions and determine that these factors are shared towards ethnic

groups, Choi et al. (2005) utilized the SDM to target the behavioral problems of African American, Asian Pacific Islanders, Multiracial, and European Americans and found several common risk factors for adolescent violent behaviors and substance use across race and ethnic groups.

After focusing more on the international effect of utilizing the SDM, Maguire et al. (2011) discovered that, although the model was tailored after the one used in the United States, there were weak measures of validity suggesting the need to take caution when transplanting the mechanisms of protective and risk factors from developed to developing countries.   The impact of the SDM was also investigated in Hong Kong, China to examine the effects of differential social bonding in predicting their likeness to commit violent crime and the protective factors of health parent-child bonding and strong commitment to school and the legal system deter violent acts (Chui & Chan, 2012). They showed that with increased involvement in organizational activities, they were less likely to become involved in delinquent activities and conducts. Various researchers provided information that show how it is important to focus on multiple techniques since what may work for one population may not work for another such as in the case of ethnicity, culture, and demographic features (Choi et al., 2005; Chui & Chan, 2012; Smith, 2010). There is also a consensus among researchers that when youth are placed in organized interactive environments and are provided positively motivating activities there is an increased chance for positive outcomes (Ayers et al., 1999; Herrenkohl et al., 2001; Nadel et al., 1996).

The national impact of the SDM was examined by Kosterman et al. (1997) and O'Donnell, Michalak, and Ames (1997) who found that much of the problematic behaviors affecting urban, suburban, and rural youth are related to risk factors based on their location. In rural areas, there is a great lack of resources as is the case for urban communities stricken with poverty, in poor urban communities there is a lack of trust due to community disorganization and therefore the development of antisocial traits among the people (Kosterman et al., 1997). There is also evidence to show that transition from home to pre-school, from elementary to middle school, and from middle to high school there is a likelihood for youth to develop antisocial and problematic behaviors (Ayers et al., 1999; Kosterman et al., 1997). Social bonding was identified to be achievable in afterschool programs and having such programs can shed light on how neighborhood effects can have significant negative impact on the lives of those children who are raised among multiple generations in the same neighborhood (Newgren, 2009). Following the Catalano et al.'s (2002; 2004) effective strategies of utilizing a child's areas related to emotional, social, behavioral, moral, and cognitive competence, Newgren (2009) found that by evaluating the program its effectiveness was identified to be appropriate based on the positive youth development model (promoting positive identity, bonding with family, school, peer groups and community, fostering resilience, competencies, positive identity, spirituality, prosocial behavior and belief in the future).

The lessons learned from the international and national level can be used to support violence prevention programs in order to address this phenomenon among youth and create effective prevention strategies in the Baton Rouge area. In an attempt to

develop such strategies various researchers put forth studies which involved bonding through social groups. Smith (2010) found that there is a relationship between youth bonding in social groups and lower incidence of violent behavior for youth living in the Baton Rouge poverty stricken neighborhoods. Similarly, Labbe (2015) conducted research among youth in the same city and discovered through the research using data concerning law-intervention programs where at-risk youth were connected to law official (policemen, lawyers, and judges), parents, program volunteers, and community leaders that youth with more supportive home environments and more social capital exhibited more engagement. Youth with less parental involvement from lower social groups were at times more distracted and less engaged (Labbe, 2015).

Labbe (2015) was informed by the theories of the Chicago school's social disorganization (often described as the Ecological Schools and is related to the ecological theories in that place matters and that crime rate is related to the characteristics of a neighborhood), social class, and juvenile delinquency to explore law-related educational activities in after-school and summer programs in a South Louisiana black community. In light of addressing the topic from a different point of view, Self-Brown et al. (2006) showed there to be a relationship between psychological issues and a history of exposure to violence among Baton Rouge area youth.

Risk and protective factors. The SDM is a general theory of human behavior which aims to explain antisocial behaviors through specifications of predictive developmental relationships by incorporating the effects of protective factors and risk factors risk factors in determining antisocial behavior (Bradshaw et al., 2013).

Herrenkohl et al. (2003) explained how the SDM allows adolescent the opportunity to elicit either the antisocial or prosocial behavior whereas adolescents with prosocial behaviors are less likely to have externalizing issues and those with antisocial behaviors tend to have conduct disorders and aggressive behaviors. It was identified that the risk of violence increased among youth with early antisocial and attention problems, family conflict, low school commitment, and living in neighborhoods with other children who were in trouble; whereas when direct protective factors were involved there was the opposite effect (Herrenkohl et al., 2012). After testing the effects of Preparing for the Drug Free Years (PDFY) curriculum based on the SDM, there showed improvement in parental behavior and family interaction by increasing protective factors while reducing risk factors for drug prevention (Kosterman et al., 1997; O'Donnell et al., 1997).

Risk factors. The sooner youth are identified by public health and educational professionals for violent behavior, the sooner there can be efforts placed at violence prevention (Lösel & Farrington, 2012; Vaughn et al., 2013). There are several risk factors that can often increase a youth's chance of committing an offense (Herrenkohl et al., 2012; Lösel & Farrington, 2012; Vaughn et al., 2013). For example, the theoretical and methodological discussions set empirical evidence for studies to be conducted demonstrating the application of basic concepts to determine if risk factors (person or social characteristics of an individual that predict a high probability of a future behavior problem such as antisocial tendencies, enhanced anxiety, truancy, etc.) affect the onset of violent behavior among youth (Herrenkohl et al., 2012; Lösel & Farrington, 2012; Vaughn et al., 2013). Various theoretical models have been used to describe the

relationship between variables and outcomes and researchers have determined that there is no one particular path to delinquency (Catalano et al., 2002, 2004; Kosterman et al., 1997; Labbe, 2015; Newgren, 2009; O'Donnell et al., 1997; Smith, 2010).

While exploring the level of socialization in suburban communities, Bradshaw et al. (2013) explored the roles of social cognitive mediators and how they affect social-environmental risk factors which cause aggression in youth and found that even relatively low levels of social rejection and community violence exposure characterizing suburban as being at increased risk for problems with aggression. To further analyze how risk factors promote social and deviant behaviors, Hawkins et al. (2000) and Choi et al. (2005) discussed how individual, (family, school, peer-related, and neighborhood factors) can affect social development. Hawkins et al. (2000) described how there is a relationship between the SDM and the identified risk factors of anti-social or deviant behavior which can lead to violent behavior in youth and that of the predictive or risk factors examined (general offenses, substance use, gender, family socioeconomic status, antisocial parents and/or peers, aggression, ethnicity, psychological condition, parent-child relationships, social ties, problem behavior, school attitude/performance, medical/physical characteristics, IQ, broken home abusive parents). The most significant predicting factors for adolescent violence were being male, problems in school attitudes and performance, lack of social ties, and poor parent child relationships (Hawkins et al., 2000). Social detachment and alienation can be associated with living in low income neighborhoods that have high criminal activities and interacting with antisocial peers and these factors

can also be linked to the increased likelihood that youth will contribute to youth violence incidents (Hawkins et al., 2000).

Protective factors. There are risk factors which increase the chances of youth committing violent behavior but there are also direct protective factors (i.e. parental involvement, high level of involvement in academics) which can cause the low probability of violence among youth (Lösel & Farrington, 2012). This is due to intelligence/cognitive competencies, social cognitions, temperament factors, biological factors, school factors, peer factors, neighborhood and community factors, dose-response relationship, family factors, parent-child relationships, parenting behavior, and other family factors (Harrenkohl et al., 2012; Lösel & Farrington, 2012). Protective factors can be identified in five categories including social, community, family, school, peer, and individual (Herrenkohl, et al., 2003). These factors along with social development can also support the exhibition of positive behaviors when there is interaction with peers who show positive behavior and relationships with prosocial adults (mentors or coaches) (Herrenkohl et al., 2003; Jones, 2007). With regards to individual protective factors, it was reported the there is a relationship between high self-esteem and belonging to better behavior groups thus increasing youth's likelihood of attaching to positive peers and school (King, Vidourek, Davis, & McClellan, 2002). The utilization of school-based programs and afterschool programs can also provide and environment for the elicitation of protective factors as shown through data collected from and evaluation of a school-based arts and sports program for at-risk youth (Stinson, 2009). These programs showed implications for the continuation of practices involving programs that serve

disadvantaged youth during after-school and summer breaks which are often considered the times when at-risk behavior is likely to occur for both urban and rural areas. Rural sports programs have served as a central part of the community contrary to that of urban setting where there is more completion for various forms of entertainment therefore not receiving much community attention (Stinson, 2009). For the current study, the YPO provided the youth with an environment where they were able to employ social skills as they interacted with their mentors and other youth performing sports and artistic activities.

Literature Review Related to Key Variables and/or Concepts

This section will focus on identifying the global impact of youth violence as well as strategies to combat this issue including recognizing protective and risk factors, mentoring, and community engagement. The aim of the current study was to discover the effectiveness of the YPO, a Baton Rouge youth violence prevention program and how it affects the participants' beliefs about aggression. The discoveries based on the literature review illustrate how a youth violence prevention programs rooted in effective mentor/mentee relationships can influence youth's social and emotional wellbeing as well as improve academic outcomes. This literature review will explain the types of youth violence, international/national/state/local comparison in terms of cost (monetary and non-monetary) impact and how these costs (monetary and non-monetary) impact society and individuals. Also, there is a discussion on the effectiveness of how this method of trying to curb violence utilizing social development effects the juvenile justice systems,

how these methods have been utilized in the past, and a description of how the YPO

utilizes the PHA in the violence prevention program for the current study.

Youth Violence

Youth violence is the act of behaving in a harmful manner and can start early in

age and continue into young adulthood (CDC, 2016a). Youth can be an offender or a

victim and the various youth violence behaviors include bullying, dating violence,

domestic violence & child abuse, gun violence, school shootings, and suicide & self-

harm (CDC, 2016a; DeCamp & Ferguson, 2017; Domino, 2011). Approximately one

third of children who live in urban environments will experience violence and having

early exposure to can cause adolescents to have long-term psychological or physical

consequences such as having a high risk for depression, attempt suicide, abuse

substances, have eating disorders, have poor school performance, and have further

victimization (CDC, 2016a, 2016b; Margolin & Gordis, 2000; Snyder & Sickmond,

2006). Teen victims also report higher rates of antisocial behavior, school absences, and

interpersonal conflict with peers (Herrenkohl et al., 2016; Miller et al., 1999).

Types of Youth Violence

Defining the types of violence and abuse can be useful in researchers'

understanding of how certain patterns of abuse can create the establishment of control

and maintenance over individuals or groups. (The Line, n.d.). Abuse and violence can

involve multiple tactics of manipulation or could occur frequently and increase over time.

The foundation of all forms of violence are founded in the many types of inequality that

continue to thrive and expand in society (Newfoundland Labrador, 2015). The following

passages will describe various types of violence and how they affect individuals and society.

Bullying. Considered to be the most prevalent form of youth violence in school settings, bullying is defined as an aggressive behavior that is either intentional or mean that occurs within the context of a power imbalance or repeatedly over time (Evans-Lacko et al., 2016). There is a distinct difference between bullying and aggression whereas aggression is occasional conflict or fighting between two children of equal size, strength, or social status and bulling is imbalanced, intentional behavior to cause harm (Stanley et al., 2016). According to researchers, bullying increases during late childhood ages and usually takes place in settings considered to be unstructured such as hallways, cafeteria, and playground areas (Chen, Ho, & Lwin, 2016; Juvonen, Schacter, Sainio, & Salmivalli, 2016). The three types of bullying are physical, relational, and cyber bullying (CDC, 2016a). The physical form of bullying includes behaviors of kicking, hitting, and using a threatening voice and is most often prevalent in boys. The second type of bullying is relational, occurs most often among girls, and is described as those behaviors that include social exclusion and starting rumors (CDC, 2016a). The third form of bullying is cyber bullying and is the elicitation of harm through the use of electronic devices such as cell phones and computers (internet) (CDC, 2016a; Kowalski & Limber, 2007; Wolak, Mitchell, & Finkelhor, 2006; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004). Considered especially harmful, with this form of bullying it can be more difficult to identify the perpetrator, the physical evidence can't be easily erased, and it can spread to larger

audiences more impulsively and quickly (Chen et al, 2016; Ybarra, Prescott, & Espelage, 2016).

Dating violence. Often time called intimate partner violence (IPV), this form of behavior includes sexual, emotional, physical, or verbal abuse from a dating partner (Leff et al., 2010b; Livingston, Eiden, & Leonard, 2016; MacDonald, 2016). This form of violence is common among young adults and adolescents ages 10 - 24 and is considered to be the most prevalent form of violence among youth where a reported annual rate of 1.5 million high school students in the United States would be physically abused by their partner (Leff, Costigan, & Power, 2004). Common factors that contribute to becoming a victim of dating violence are having prior injury sustained from a dating partner, having a history of physical, emotional, sexual, verbal abuse, being abused as a child, or having a history of drug or alcohol use by either partner (Leff et al., 2010b; MacDonald, 2016). By identifying and understanding risk factors for victimization of perpetration of IPV, families, public health professionals, and educators can assist youth at risk (Leff et al., 2009; Reidy et al., 2016). The factors that lead to a person perpetrating violence towards a partner include having the belief that dating violence is acceptable, witnessing violence in the home, child abuse, using alcohol or drugs, being exposed to violent media, having experienced trauma, knowing friends who are involved in dating violence, or being engaged in peer violence (Hawley, Black, Hoefer, & Barnett, 2016; Foshee, Linder, MacDougall, & Bangdiwala, 2016; Leff et al., 2010b. Also, the contribution of IPV is associated with a combination of individual, relational, community, and societal factors (Leff et al., 2010b).

Domestic violence and child abuse. Similar to IPV, domestic violence is considered to be a widespread epidemic that impacts children and families with an estimated 15.5 million children exposed to adult IPV annually at home making it the major make up of violence young children are involved with where there is police involvement due to families or concerned citizens seeking assistance (Foshee et al., 2016; Smith-Darden, Kernsmith, Reidy, & Cortina, 2016). The combination of socioeconomic status, parental violence history, neighborhood characteristics (i.e. abandoned building, trashy neighborhoods, high crime, etc.), and substance use, are significant predictors of IPV in and child abuse in homes (Foshee et al., 2016; Smith-Darden, Kernsmith, Reidy, & Cortina, 2016). The negative effects of youth exposed to IPV where caregivers/parents are involved cause serious consequences including physical outcomes such as substance use or poor physical health, opposing mental health outcomes like depression, post-traumatic stress, and anxiety (Herrenkohl et al., 2016). Other symptoms include children acting out aggressively or the family isolating themselves from other family and friends (Herrenkohl et al., 2016).

Child maltreatment is often linked with IPV is considered to be both neglect and abuse, encompasses neglect on the part of a parent or caregiver, and in doing so results in harm to the child (Herrenkohl et al.2016). Such behavior may include serious emotional or physical harm, exploitation or sexual abuse, or death (Herrenkohl et al., 2016). According to the World Health Organization, nearly 25% of all adults report to having been physically abused as children and consequences of this include lifelong impaired

mental and physical health leading to occupational and social outcomes that can slow a nation's social and economic development (WHO, 2016a).

Gun violence and school shootings. Death and injury related to firearms is an important public health issue and according to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2016a) an average of 87 Americans die by gunfire each day. Individuals who witness a school shottingcan experience traumatic stress symptoms such as the expression and anxiety or overall concern for their safety which can lead to the further development of chronic psychiatric disorders (Berkowitz et al., 2010). The permeation of overall danger can saturate the school and have profound effect on emotional growth and academic achievement (Webster, Cerda, Wintemute, & Cook, 2016). The impact of school shooting has impact beyond those who work and attend there (Leary, Kowalski, Smith, & Phillips, 2003). Despite whether shootings occur in a school or community setting, there can be long-lasting ramifications for the individuals who experienced or witnessed the event but can also impact their families and relationships within the community (parent/school/law enforcement/local government/public health) (Berkowitz et al., 2010; Tsou & Barnes, 2016).

Suicide and self-harm. Suicide, the act of taking one's own life, is considered a desperate attempt to escape when one is suffering (Bevans, Diamond, Levy, 2012). It is explained that most individuals who have suicidal thoughts don't want to end their lives but rather want to stop their pain when they feel blinded with despair and see no other option (Bevans et al, 2012). This phenomenon is becoming an increasing problem among youth and young adults. A reported 157,000 youth between the ages of 10 and 24 receive

medical care due to self-inflicted injuries in United States emergency departments and is considered to be one of the top three leading causes of deaths for adolescents (CDC, 2016b). Thoughts of suicide is not necessarily considered to be a sign of mental illness but rather extreme emotional destress (CDC, 2016b). Bullying, abuse, sexual orientation and family issues are risk factors especially among teenagers (CDC, 2016b; Diamond et al., 2010).

Severe emotional pain and distress may also manifest in other ways such as the elicitation of self-harm, or inflicting pain intentionally on one's self as a negative emotional outlet or coping mechanism (Fein et al., 2010; Selvaraj, Saravanan, & Manigandan, 2016). Many of the reasons for youth behaving this way can be associated with anxiety, the desire to feel 'something' when they feel 'numb', anger, desperation, relief from overwhelming negative feeling, or a simple cry for help (Diamond et al., 2010). Self-harm or suicidal thoughts result from extreme emotional distress and are not necessarily signs of mental illness (Fein et al, 2010). This is a common misconception (Fein et al, 2010). Abuse, bullying, family stress and sexual orientation are all risk factors for suicide, especially among teenagers (Pallier & Fein, 2009; Fein et al, 2010).

International, National, State, and Local Consequences of Youth Violence

The consequences of youth violence can be felt on a global level as it relates to the costs of both lives and society and will be explained in the following passages. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2016a, b), violence is a major public health problem worldwide and there are approximately 200,000 homicides which occur among youth aged 10 – 29 years old each year, which is 43% of the total number of

homicides each year. Homicide is identified as the fourth leading cause of death among this age group and 83% of these homicides involve male (WHO, 2016a). Physical fighting and bullying are also common among youth and an average of 42% of boys and 37% of girls are exposed to bullying (WHO, 2016a).

Youth homicide and non-fatal violence not only contribute greatly to the global burden of premature death, disability, and injury, but also have a serious, often lifelong, impact on a person's social and psychological functioning in the United States. (WHO, 2016a). This can affect victims' families, friends, and communities. Youth violence also increases the costs of health, welfare, and criminal justice services, reduces productivity, and decreases the value of property (WHO, 2016a). According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Injury Prevention and Control data and statistics the medical cost of homicide for 2010 was $177,932,000 of which the total for both sexes ages 10 - 19 totaled $23,145,000 (WISQARS, 2015). The 2014 United States homicide/legal intervention injury for ages 10 - 19 was 1,578 per 100,000 (CDC, 2014). In 2013, there was an estimated 800,000 youth between the ages of 10 and 24 who were treated in emergency departments due to injuries sustained as a result of violence-related assaults and there is an average of 12 murdered each day in the United States (CDC, 2013). In 2014 there was a reported 7% who, due to feeling unsafe on their way to school or at school, did not go to school on either one or more days within the 30 days of completing a survey for the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Injury Prevention & Control Division of Violence Prevention (CDC, 2014). Additional to youth violence causing injury and death, it also affects communities by increasing the cost of healthcare, a

reduction in productivity, disrupting social services, and decreasing property values

(Mercy, Butchart, Farrington, & Cerda, 2002)

The statewide and local impact of youth violence is illustrated through the

Louisiana Commission of Law Enforcement Crime in Louisiana (2015) where it is

reported that the number of murders and non-negligent homicides in Baton Rouge, La

(population 230,212) to total 489 per 100,000 in 2012 and 498 per 100,000 in 2013 and a

total of 15,737 per 100,000 in 2012 compared to 16,319 in 2013. Violent crimes totaled

2,127 per 100,000 and aggravated manslaughter totaled 1,030 per 100,000 (Louisiana

Commission of Law Enforcement Crime in Louisiana, 2015).   The 2013 Youth Risk

Behavior Surveillance System found that a total of 1,040 per 100,000 carried a weapon

such as a knife, or club on at least one day during 30 days before the survey and 1,102

per 100,000 were threatened or injured by a weapon such as a gun, knife, or club on

school property at least one day during the 12 months before the survey (CDC, 2015c).

Youth violence can leave long-term acute, traumatic impact on one's health, education,

and overall success in life (CDC, 2016a). The increase in these violent offenses and

behaviors has created a need to address this phenomenon among youth to create

prevention strategies in the Baton Rouge area.

Juvenile Justice System and Violence Prevention

Designed to address youth caught, charged, and convicted of crimes, the

American Juvenile Justice System intervenes in the delinquent behavior through the

involvement of police, court, and correctional involvement (OJJDP, n.d.). The Office of

Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention reported in 2011 that a total or 1,236,200

delinquent cases were handled by the juvenile courts in the United States with the most prominent age being between the ages of 13 and 15 and of this age 410,900 were those involving African Americans (Sickmund, Sladky, & Kang, 2014). Enacted in 1974, the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act (JJDPA) focuses on providing federal assistance to state and local juvenile justice and delinquency programs while emphasizing prevention and treatment, community-based gang intervention, gang-free schools and communities, mentoring, and treatment of juvenile offenders who are victims of neglect and child abuse, and boot camps (US Department of Justice, 2016). According to the 2014 National Report, the Louisiana JJDPA requires that there be true and sound separation between youth and adult inmates (OJJDP, 2014).

JJPDA historical interventions. Historically, empirically based strategies for preventing juvenile delinquency include being knowledgeable on causal factors and why youth have serious conduct problems and delinquency (Finley & Finley, 2007; Matz, 2014). The existing therapeutic interventions for youth who elicit antisocial problems result in small to medium effects which can be maintained over several years (Finley & Finley, 2007; Matz, 2014; Pardini, 2016). The treatments being used are based on cognitive-behavioral techniques such as contingency management; especially when administered to high risk youth, while interventions which are peer group focused are more effective with young children when administered to youth who reinforce each other's antisocial behavior (Finley & Finley, 2007; Pardini, 2016; Matz, 2014). Although this illustrates how such strategies can be effective, there is still the need to

further develop those that promote the adoption of evidence-based practices to address

juvenile delinquencies within communities as well as the juvenile system (Pardini, 2016).

  Another issue surrounding juvenile delinquency is that there is disparity in which

social characteristics (socioeconomic status and race) affect sentencing and is often

referred to as disproportionate minority contact (Fix, Fix, Totura, & Burkhart, 2017;

Piquero, 2008; Sickmund, Sladky, Kang, Puzzanchera, 2013; Pope, Lovell, & Hsia,

2002). For example, it is concluded that causes and consequences of mass-incarceration

is linked to those who are of lower socioeconomic status, blacks were treated more

harshly than their counterpart and these differences are more evident at the levels of the

juvenile court sentence and police referral to juvenile courts (Leiber & Peck, 2015;

OJJDP, 2014; Piquero, 2008; Pope et al., 2002; Thornberry, 1979). Findings from various

researchers have been used to explain disproportionate minority incarceration caused by

discrimination, socioeconomic status but few have explained how violence exposure in

the schools, homes, neighborhoods and peer attachment or the role of the family factor

impact of violence exposure across home, school, or neighborhood settings (Bishop,

Leiber, & Johnson, 2010; Pope et al., 2002; Tonry, 2016). The development of new

programs that serve as alternatives to incarceration, such as boot camps, is not prevalent

leading there to be high incarcerations suggesting a need to provide more programs that

are based on assisting youth in changing their lives before they are consumed by the

judicial system, especially for young, nonviolent, first time offenders (Mauer, 2016).

Mentoring Focused Programs

Youth are largely influenced by their peers which is why there is a need to surround them with individuals who inspire while promoting social development in an environment that promotes social interaction and brings about change in attitude and beliefs about violent behavior that could lead to imprisonment. Mentoring programs provide opportunities for youth to interact under the guidance of someone who sets a positive example in which to follow. According to Roberts (1999), mentoring is defined as a role-model, advisor, tutor, counselor, or teacher and is suggested to have characteristic traits that include consistency, availability, professionalism, honesty, assertiveness, resourcefulness, effective communication, and reliability. Although there are effective strategies that promote social development in mentor/mentee relationships, there are also ineffective ones including mentors being unfriendly and distant, unreliable, unapproachable, unpredictable, overprotective and intimidating (Allen, 2013; Anderson, 2011; Price, 2004a, 2004b). It is suggested that best practice qualities of mentors include those who remain consistent, accessible, honest, assertive, professional, and connected to youth long-term (Karcher, 2005, 2006, 2008; Kirp, 2011; Price, 2004a;) and effective mentor/mentee connections can lead to a decrease in truancy as well as first time drug and alcohol use (Allen, 2013; Kirp, 2011).   Brofenbrenner related social relationship systems to an individual's life (Allen, 2013; Bronfenbrenner, 1977) and to further make the connection with his Social Ecological Model, mentoring and programs related to mentoring provide environments that assist establishing effective microsystems (environment and setting where the program's activities are implemented), mesosystems

(relationships developed between mentors and mentees in the program), exosystems
(informal and formal activities set for mentees and mentors), and macrosystems (program
values and goals set forth by administrators) (Allen, 2013; Bronfenbrenner, 1977).

Mentorship program evaluation. Although previous researchers have
suggested that mentorship programs serve as a positive support system, there are
considerable variations in approaches to programmatic structure, context, and goals of the
intervention (Briggs, 2014; Dubois, Holloway, Valentine, & Cooper, 2002; Karcher et al.,
2006). Rather than simply focus on school- or peer-based mentoring as the key elements,
having a closer examination of the goals, context, and structure can be accomplished by
conducting an evaluation which tests hypothesis related to the influences of such
programs based on theory-driven expectations related to the phenomena being addressed
(violence prevention) (Dubois et al., 2002). Utilizing mentoring for youth violence
prevention has been evaluated and it has been revealed that by implanting cross-age
mentoring in schools and afterschool programs there was an in increase in mentees'
academic performance, emotional stability, social acceptance and connectedness to
school (Karcher, 2006, 2008). Similarly, peer-mentoring involving high school aged
youth serving as role models to younger mentees results in positive outcomes and is
encouraged by educators (Karcher, 2006, 2008).

Both peer and cross-aged mentoring programs can result in positive engagement
between the mentors and mentees and thus improved social skills in mentees (Karcher,
2006, 2008).   While exploring the effectiveness of large mentoring programs including
adult guides, researchers further enhance the idea to illustrate focused outcome

assessments, social, emotional, and academic achievements, and demonstrating how important is to identify specific process dynamics rather than outcome assessments (Higginbotham, MacArthur, & Dart, 2010). It also demonstrates the association between the improvement in the mentees' social and academic and quality of mentoring intervention and illustrates how there is an association between dependent relationships, close relationships and unrealistic mentoring success and expectations (Higginbotham et al., 2010).

Mentoring was explored based on leadership, self-advocacy, self-esteem, and leadership for elementary aged youth being mentored by high school students participating in a mentoring program and it was revealed that there was a need to design a professional development program that would inform administrators and teachers how important it is to have mentoring program thus promoting positive social change in teachers' support and awareness of effective mentoring strategies (Higginbotham et al, 2010). It was explained by Maton, Domingo, and King (2005) how mentoring serves to assist youth in overcoming obstacles in order to flourish such as combatting peer pressure which can be lead to negative behaviors while improving positive behaviors such as improved decision-making skills and communication along with getting along with others.

There are often difficulties to measuring the impact of mentoring and limitations to such intervention the youth received perceived based on assistance from mentors in terms of loyalty, respect, and affection which demonstrates the benefits of providing programs that support and advise on how to establish relationships built on respect and

trust (Allen, 2013; Rogers, 2011; U. S. Department of Education, 2016). Other issues

discovered through this research are that although school-based mentoring has been

known to aid and improve many school efforts by increasing attendance, self-esteem, and

student achievement, school systems are faced with decreased resources resulting in

increased achievement gaps and dropout rates (Allen, 2013; Morgan, 2013). Even when

finances are obtained, often through federal funding, they are misappropriated by

ineffective professional administrators and programs that maintain high spending but

illustrate minimal outcomes suggest that most of the variance in academic performance is

based not only on lack of or management of resources, but also ethnicity and race (Allen,

2013; Morgan, 2013). Racial minority students often fall as victims of lowered

expectations from teachers and are often expelled due to infractions where other students

may not receive punishment (Allen, 2013; Morgan, 2013). In situations like these, there

is a need to counter such mistreatment by incorporating strategies used to provide

cooperation, vision, trust and persistence and mentors can bridge the gap for such

mistreated youth.

  Theory-based mentoring. Theory-based mentoring is known to have greater

impact due to the use of empirically based best practices and is considered to be one of

the best approaches as suggested by researchers (Dubois et al., 2002; Karcher, 2005,

2008, McQuillin & Lyons, 2016). One best practice approach, as suggested by Dubois et

al. (2002), was to match mutual interest, race/ethnicity, and gender where others include

providing ongoing training for mentors, monitoring the implementation of the programs,

providing activities structured for mentees and mentors, establishing the guidelines for

the frequency of participant's meetings and including parents in activities (McQuillin & Lyons, 2016). The social-cognitive strategy for reducing youth violence along with the CDC's Best Practices of Violence and Prevention and parenting programs were implemented in a Los Angeles County community revealing that working together towards a common goal promotes a more promising starting point to build successful mentoring relationships with older adolescents (Hamilton, Hamilton, Dubois, Seller, 2016; Newgren, 2009). Bronfenbrenner's Social Ecological Model approach to instrumental mentoring proved to be more effective when goals are implemented to foster youth development where youth spend quality time working with adults who are later called coaches, if a sound relationship is built learning to work on related skills and tasks, strong relationships are built between mentors and mentees that are goal-oriented provide emotional connections where personal and social skills are gained (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Hamilton et al., 2016).

Mentoring programs, whether involving adolescents, adults/parents, or organizations can have a profound effect on youth's emotional and social performance that will ultimately make a positive difference. Evidence based prevention suggests that youth's risk for violence can be reduced by implanting in their lives safe and healthy stable relationships with caregivers and adults (Corrado, Peters, Hodgkinson, & Mathesius, 2016). Regardless of the available resources, the experiences and perceptions of mentorship programs are more successful when the relationships are close, best matched, long-term and built on theory.

Parental relationships. Focusing on parents as mentors and increased self-worth in youth can be attributed to quality of parent/child relationship and not only does relationship play a key role but also parents serve as role models in areas of work ethics and level of education when evaluating youth's academic performance (Pittman & Richmond, 2007). The positive attitude of youth and sense of belonging can be associated with the level of parent/child relationships (Pittman & Richmond, 2007). Bostrom (2001) discovered that adults with teens in the 1960s and 1970s attempted to compensate moral values with giving them material objects resulting in a negative impact of decreasing self-actualization, leadership skills, and community connectivity due to the focus on materialism, while Martin and Martin (2012) later discovered that youth equipped with moral values have relationships that are considered to be diverse and interpersonal and are related to self-worth, self-efficacy, self-determination, self-esteem, and thus positive behavior and self-cognition. These researchers also suggest that having positive relationships foster thriving human behavior (Bostrom, 2001; Martin and Martin, 2012). Wagner (2008) found that there is a need to develop and master skills which involve not only effective communication with others but the ability to analyze, reason and solve problems and that these lifelong skills can increase relationships and community involvement.

After-school and summer enrichment mentoring programs. After-school and summer enrichment programs can be mechanisms to youth violence prevention. The YPO aims to expose youth to extracurricular activities including sports, the arts, and professional development over a four month period during the summer. The participants

in the YPO meet from April to August once a month on a Saturday. They are exposed to educational training centered on topics including mental health, sexual pressure and workforce training, although topics varied. They are involved in extracurricular activities including art, dance, music, flag football, volley ball, and tennis. Field trips were also inclusive in the daily activities. Staff, volunteers, mentors, and professional trainers (police officers etc.) are trained and given background checks. Some volunteers provided mentorship, training, and perform administrative duties. Although, only a component of the program in 2015, mentors were asked to commit to at least one youth for one year (although this time period may be extended beyond one year if desired) for whom they will offer guidance on matters inside and outside of school and model positive behavior and decision-making skills. During the time frame of mentorship, they were asked to maintain contact and communications with the youth. The amount of time necessary for meeting/activities depended on the needs of the youth. Communication would be at least twice a month minimally. The time commitment was about three to four hours a month on average. Examples of how mentoring coaches might spend time with the youth included building conflict resolution skills, helping address obstacles that may be hindering the youth's progress, and exploring recreational activities and community service opportunities or resources.

Not only do afterschool and summer enrichment programs provide youth with safe-havens to deter them from violence, street life, and gangs, but it can also provide a place for them to develop new skills and interact with their peers positively. Lee and Smith-Adcock (2005) found that school bonding can be influential in self-perception,

while Hoffman (2006) showed how such bonding through the participation in extracurricular activities allows for the reaping of various social benefits. Hoffman (2006) also discovered that participation in athletic activities improves the opportunities for socialization with peers. Social bonding environments are those which involve activities that practice interpersonal skills, develop new relationships, and teach effective communication; thus allowing the understanding of social norms within group settings and broadens experiences (Hoffmann, 2006).

In an attempt to overcome these deficits, Riley and Coleman (2011) suggested that when youth are placed in positive environments which include peers and positive role models they are given the opportunity gain skills to also connect them with community. Afterschool programs serves as an additional support system (Reisner et al. 2007) and assist in improved social outcomes and increased academic skills (Bostrom, 2001; David, 2001). Not only do afterschool and summer programs provide enrichment to equip youth with social development skills but so do extracurricular activities. It was discovered by Karcher (2008) that youth involved in in-service learning and extracurricular activities have similar outcomes as youth in peer-mentoring programs where there is improvement in both connectedness to family, school, and community, and improved communication skills.

The commonalities of peer mentoring can be categorized as either action learning lifelong relationships or involvement (O'Neil & Marsick, 2007). Currently the new terms for commonalities of peer mentoring are learning communities and collaboration (Briggs, 2014). Also, clarity is important with regards to communication boundaries and

expectations for both the mentors' and mentees' roles and relationships (Briggs, 2014; Colvin and Ashman, 2010; O'Neil & Marsick, 2007). Competence and character are important when making the connection of mentors to mentees for there to be successful relationships (Briggs, 2014; Tracy, 2008). It's also important to establish goals for both parties.

Global Impact of Mentorship Programs

International. Various mentorship programs designed to promote youth's success have been established on the local, state, national and international level. One program, the New Look Foundation, fosters youth's connectedness to community while focusing on education, business, service, and leadership (Briggs, 2014). After being noticed by the Clinton Administration, the New Look Foundation became involved with Bill Clinton's Clinton Global Initiative (CGI) to make a global impact (Clinton Foundation, 2016). The CGI was initiated in 2005 by President Bill Clinton and was geared around the peer-mentoring program of encouraging not only community but global connectedness. Points of Light, the youth initiative of GenerationOn, serves as a global initiative implanted in over 16 countries to empower, inspire, mobilize, and equip youth for the next generation (David, 2011; GenerationOn, 2016; Points of Light, 2016). With 3,000,000 where volunteers serve over 30 million annual hours, this initiative's goal is to also promote self-advocacy, self-esteem, and leadership skills while promoting community connectedness (David, 2011; GenerationOn, 2016; and Points of Light, 2016).

National. An initiative called America's Promise Alliance, established by General Colin Powell in 1997, consists of more than 400 for profit and non-profit corporations whose mission was to inspire and influence the lives of youth (America's Promise Alliance, 2016). Additionally, this initiative aims to increase graduation rates with a goal of up to 1.9% by 2020 (America's Promise Alliance, 2016). Committed to providing leadership skills into young adults' successful futures, this program promises to create a forum for youth to transition into the workforce through its mission to provide a healthy start, care for adults, provide safe places, provide effective education opportunities, and assist others (America's Promise Alliance, 2016).

The Boys and Girls Club was established by Elizabeth Hammersley, Allice Goodwin, and Mary Goodwin in Hartford, Connecticut in 1860 and was designed to promote the ideas that young male should have positive opportunities rather than be walking the streets (Boys and Girls Club, 2016). In 1990 Congress recognized girls to be a part of this program which resulted in a name change to be the Boys and Girls Club (2016). This establishment is geared towards building youth's character through the improvement of behavior, goal setting, leadership development, promoting decision making skills, and developing personal expectations (Boys and Girls Club, 2016). The success of the Boys and Girls Club provided a forum for partnership opportunities with schools, police departments, and justice agencies to combat teen pregnancy, alcohol and drug abuse, and violence and gang activity (Boys and Girls Club, 2016).

State and local. GenerationOn, along with Points of Light, Louisiana's division leader, developed a component used for training high school students called Character

Counts (CC) which aims to introduce personal life skills and leadership development so as to equip youth with the ability to apply real life experiences in their communities (Briggs, 2014; GenerationOn, 2016; Phelps & Kotrlik, 2007; Points of Light, 2016). The Boys and Girls Clubs not only is an influence on the national level but also serves as a prominent organization in the Baton Rouge, area. In 2005, a study conducted in this area lasting 20 years was ended showing how though the utilization of the Boys and Girls Club there was an increase in positive relationships (Arbreton, Sheldon, & Herrera, 2005).

Established in the late 1800's, 4-H is delivered by Cooperative Extensions and is comprised of a community of over 100 public universities across the nation that provide youth with experiences such as hands-on projects in areas of science, health, citizenship, and agriculture in a positive environment under the guidance of adult mentorship (Louisiana State University Agricultural Research and Extension Center, 2016). The 4-H program for the Baton Rouge area was established under the Louisiana State University Agricultural Research and Extension Center (2016) and operates to provide youth development based on applied research to include the elements of independence, generosity, mastery, and belonging.

The Volunteers for Youth Justice was established in 1981 by the Juvenile Court of Caddo Parish due to the overload of youth arrests due to minor offenses (Volunteers for Youth Justice, 2016a). Initialized by Shreveport, Louisiana's First Presbyterian Church, this initiative provides programs that focus on life-skill training, advocacy, and mentoring (Volunteers for Youth Justice, 2016a). The primary programs under this

initiative are Court Appointed Special Advocates (CASA), Jumpstart, Gems and Gents

Mentoring, Teen Court and Conflict Resolution, and Court Program: Families in Need of

Services and Truancy (FINS) (CASA, n.d.; Louisiana CASA, n.d.; Volunteers for Youth

Justice, 2016a, 2016b). The national program called the Court Appointed Special

Advocate (CASA), is also located in Baton Rouge and is geared towards providing foster

care children with a supervised, court appointed, specially trained volunteers charged to

monitor and investigate children in foster care homes for potential abuse and neglect

(Juvenile Court of Caddo Parish, 2016; CASA, n.d.; Louisiana CASA, n.d.; Louisiana

State University Health, 2016; Volunteer for Youth Justice, 2016a). Jumpstart is a

Louisiana State University initiative that exposes high school students in research

activities and serves as a mentoring program allowing youth to work for 40 hours per

week for eight weeks over the summer on research enrichment programs including

healthcare, they have access to the university library, attend lectures by health care

professionals, go on animal tours, and watch motivational films (Louisiana State

University Health, 2016). They are also charged to present a Poster Paper demonstrating

their ability to evaluate scientific data related to their research. The program is also noted

for encouraging youth to pursue careers in research or allied health professions and

medicine (Louisiana State University Health, 2016). The Shreveport, Louisiana based,

Gems & Gents Youth Mentoring programs falls under the Volunteers for Justice Program

and focuses on youth ages 13 – 18 providing educational learning experiences for

mentees involved in the program (Volunteers for Youth Justice, 2016b). With the primary

goal of assisting high-risk boys and girls with supportive adult role models, self-esteem

and improved academic performance, this program aims to assist youth by encouraging

their potential for a successful life (Volunteers for Youth Justice, 2016b). Ultimately,

their aim is to eliminate or reduce involvement in the court system (Volunteers for Youth

Justice, 2016b).

   Louisiana Leadership Institute. Another Baton Rouge mentorship program

founded in 1988 by State Senator Cleo Fields, the Louisiana Leadership Institute, is a

non-profit organization providing programs and services designed to develop leadership

skills in youth (Louisiana Leadership Institute, n.d.). This is accompanied by

encouraging intellectual development, supporting a positive self-image, promoting

professionalism, encouraging social interactions, and instilling a broad world view.

Youth participating in an auxiliary capacity follow a four-point plan of action in which

the Institute seeks to positively impact overall members by effectively preparing them to

undertake leadership roles in society (Louisiana Leadership Institute, n.d.). The

program's character development focuses on each member's internal development,

instilling self-confidence, encouraging independent thinking, improving personal

presentation in terms of manners, hygiene, and appearance and self-determination

(Leadership Institute, n.d.). The knowledge acquisition component covers afterschool and

weekend tutoring, creative expression through music, dance, theater, the visual arts and

professional skills development programs such as student mentoring and internships

(Louisiana Leadership Institute, n.d.). Social interaction covers topics including

interpersonal communication, teamwork, and conflict resolution (Louisiana Leadership

Institute, n.d.). Finally, the global viewpoints expose youth members to the rest of their

world through broadening youth's concept of community by encouraging a sense of

communal responsibility through volunteerism and activism, cultural awareness, helping

other youth members understand historical context and consciousness, and political

awareness (Leadership Institute, n.d.). The facility environment includes classroom

space, a technology laboratory, a performance stage, a football field, and a basketball

court (Leadership Institute, n.d.).

Having someone to turn to for support can lead to better outcomes throughout life.

The international, national, statewide, and local initiatives used to promote youth based

peer-mentoring can assist in their development of self-confidence, community

connectedness, leadership skills and overall successful citizens. Having an approach

which includes community involvement can provide a forum for expanding resources and

establishing sustainment due to community ownership.

Community Participation

Often, it is suggested to expand resources by utilizing the community

multidisciplinary approach to addressing youth violence. Although this may seem like the

best thing to do, a community's efforts can often times lack adequate resources, be

uncoordinated, or disconnected (Griffith et al., 2008). The focus on organizational

processes and structures and organizational empowerment framework can illustrate how

important it is that structures provide foundations in which the efforts of community

mobilization can build and focus on the important illustration of incorporating and

recognizing organizational systems (Griffith, et al., 2008). Griffith et al (2008), who

studied the Youth Violence Prevention Center in Flint, Michigan, showed that inter- and

intra-organizational infrastructure membership networking and practices along with organizing activities that facilitate community mobilization efforts can be attractive.

Community-based participatory research (CBPR). The CBPR in public health focuses on social, physical and structural, environmental inequities by way of active involvement of organizational representatives, community members, and researchers in all aspects of the research process (Israel et al., 2001; Minkler and Wallerstein, 2003). This form of research stems from the participatory action research (an approach that emphasizes action and participation by attempting to understand global change through collaboration and reflection) and was developed by German Psychologist, Kurt Lewin (1890 – 1947) and Colombian sociologist and researcher Orlando Fals Borda (1925 – 2008) along with the educational movement associated with educator and philosopher Paulo Freire (1921 – 1997) in Latin America (Wallerstein & Duran, 2003; Minkler & Wallerstein, 2003). The partners involved in (CBPR) contribute their expertise to improve the understanding of a given phenomenon while integrating the gained knowledge to benefit the involved community (Israel et al., 2001; Minkler & Wallerstein, 2003). Key principles include recognizing the community as a unit of identity, building on resources and strengths within a community, equitable facilitation, collaborative involvement of all partners in all phases of the research, integrating action and knowledge for mutual benefit of all involved partners, promoting a powerful and co-learning process that addresses social inequalities, involving an iterative and cyclical process, addressing positive and ecological health perspectives, and disseminating knowledge and findings gathered to all partners who are committed long-term (Israel et al., 2001; Minkler & Wallerstein, 2003).

An example of a large CBPR project focused on youth violence prevention was illustrated by Leff et al. (2010a). These researchers provided information based on a study representing the work of the multi-institutional Philadelphia Collaborative Violence Prevention Center (PCVPC) founded in 2006 (Leff et al., 2010a). Representatives of the collaborative included Drexel University, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, the University of Pennsylvania, Temple University, and the Philadelphia Area Research Community Coalition (PARCC) (Leff et al., 2010a).

The purpose was to highlight the diversity of community and academic researchers as applied by the CBPR (Johnson et al., 2009; Nastasi et al., 2000; Leff et al., 2010a). Other goals included ensuring community members and researchers worked together as complementary equal partners while addressing youth violence as an issue within an urban, economically disadvantaged, minority communities (Johnson et al., 2009; Nastasi et al., 2000; Leff et al., 2010a). The increased requirements of funders to require grantees to utilize the CBPR shows a sense of success of this approach (Jagosh et al., 2011; Pizzi et al., 2014). A phenomenological study was conducted to address the application of CBPR based on the perspectives of six community leaders and seven academic researchers (Kanko, 2017). It was revealed that CBPR research allows the academic community access to experiences of community, allows good community engagement when there is collaboration, and can benefit all involved partners, however can be intimidated by community leaders (Kanko, 2017).

The primary research project, PARTNERS, was the main research project for the initiative as was based on several theoretical models including a Bronfenbrenner's

developmental-ecological approach and problem-solving approach to violence prevention (Brofenbrenner, 1986; Crick & Dodge, 1994; Leff et al., 2010a). All members of the initiative had equal powers for decision making (Leff et al., 2010a). The program consisted of ten sessions with learning objectives including anger management and leadership promotion (Leff et al, 2010a). Through seven phases (meeting to guide planning for focus groups, focus groups, conducting literature reviews, developing a draft intervention program, pilot testing of initial youth intervention as a local recreation center, retreat to finalize all intervention materials, community symposia, organizational assessments and site selection) the program was able to develop sustainable and mutually beneficial collaboration between community members and academic researchers using a multicomponent, comprehensive violence prevention approach (Leff et al., 2010a). There were limitations to this the PARTNERS program including difficulties in testing an intervention that was empirically proven while at the same time adapting to fit the community's capabilities and immediate needs, and monitoring the integrity of the intervention was difficult as suggested for there to be generalizability and scientific success (Leff et al., 2009, 2010a). Also, there was difficulty in deciding whether or not to place limitations on the sites for the afterschool sites in order to achieve homogeneity and easy comparisons between groups (Leff et al., 2009, 2010a). Conducted solely for boys, this program was unable to impact girls. Finally, there was not a youth focus group developed for the program since there was reportedly previous multiple groups conducted resulting in the program team collaborating with another organization in order to over-tax the local community (Leff et al., 2009, 2010a).

Whether a youth violence prevention program is developed on a global scale, through community collaboration, or by way of school, church, or after-school program, the impact can mean a great deal in terms of reaching the target population in order to decrease violence while enhancing the individual social development and providing a since of ownership to the community. Although difficult to be considered generalizable, programs that are theory driven can not only maintain consistency during the implementation, but also increase the chances of its success. Having a program evaluation can be useful in determining any shortfalls as well as accomplishments which can serve as a great tool for it to become generalizable.

Youth Peace Olympics and the Public Health Approach

The PHA was utilized in the current study as a programmatic strategic guide to implement the youth violence prevention program. Public health is the focus on entire population's health, well-being, and safety (CDC, 2015a). For nearly three decades, various propositions have been focused on addressing violence as a public health issue (CDC, 2015b; Hammond et al., 2009; Mercy & O'Carroll, 1988; Mercy et al., 1993; Powell et al., 1999; Prothrow-Stith, 1991, 2002; Walker & Shinn, 2002; WHO, 2016a). In the past, Prothrow-Stith (1991, 2002) and Walker and Shinn (2002) utilized the public health model under the primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention stages. The primary stage included activities that prevent initial perpetration driven by theory, strategy, and evaluation. The secondary stages provided immediate response due to the occurrence of incidence, whereas the tertiary stage focused on long-term responses.

The public health community has been attracted to the issue of violence prevention and the growing concern that risk analysis uncovers, combined with violence prevention, are effective (Vaughn et al., 2013). This analytical approach concentrates on identifying risk factors that can accomplish the reduction of violence occurrence through behavioral change such as campaigns or programs that educate on conflict resolution and promote social interaction (Herrenkohl et al., 2012; Lösel & Farrington, 2012; Vaughn et al., 2013). "As we learn more about violence and its causes, the application of public health strategies is logical" (Prothrow-Stith, 1995, p. 98). This statement demonstrates how Prothrow-Stith (1995) expressed her passion due to experience in utilizing the PHA for violence prevention along with its level of effectiveness.

As the use of the PHA spread it was also recommended to establish a national action plan for violence prevention that increases data collection and research, strengthens the primary prevention programs and victim's services, integrates violence prevention into educational and social policies, increases multi-sectoral and multilevel collaboration, promotes interaction mechanisms to protect human rights and combats the global trade of drugs and arms (Brundtland, 2002). Data collected through the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Youth Risk Behavior Survey has provided information on youth physical fighting, weapon carrying in the school and community, dating violence, victimization and injuries attributable to violence, feelings of safety at school, and other related risk behaviors (e.g., sexual risk behavior, substance use) (CDC, 2015b; Hammond et al., 2009). This provides critical data on the incidence of risk behaviors that

attribute to the primary causes of injury and death among youth in the United States (CDC, 2015b).

The current PHA draws on the multi-disciplinary system which relies on knowledge from disciplines including medicine, sociology, epidemiology, psychology, criminology, education, and economics (CDC, 2015a; Dahlberg & Krug, 2001). This approach to violence prevention places emphases on having input from education, health, justice, social services policy and the private sector (Dahlberg & Krug, 2001). The PHA is also science-based and focuses on prevention and can contribute to the reduction of violence (CDC, 2015b; WHO, 2016a). Violence causes health related issues such as physical injuries, psychological trauma, and death (CDC, 2015b). The PHA utilized a multidisciplinary strategy to prevent associated factors such as injury, disability, death, and reduces the medical costs associated with violence (Hammond et al., 2009). Mercy and O'Carroll (1988) and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015b), described the PHA in four steps. This four-step public health perspective includes defining and monitoring the problem, identifying risk and protective factors, developing and testing prevention strategies, and assuring widespread adoption (CDC, 2015a, 2015b). In order to answer these questions, public health uses a systematic, scientific approach for understanding and preventing violence (Mercy, 1993). In conclusion, violence is viewed through the public health perspective in that it is predictably based on various factors that can be preventable and therefore suggest proactive resolutions (Krug et al., 2002). The PHA was utilized for the YPO youth violence prevention program to increase the chances of its effectiveness (YPO, n.d.).

Public Health Approach Four Step Process

Overtime the PHA to youth violence evolved from utilizing the primary, secondary, and tertiary phases to what is being used today involving a four-step process rooted in the scientific method which includes: step 1) define and monitor the problem, step 2) identify risk and protective factors, step 3) develop and test prevention strategies, and step 4) assure widespread adoption (CDC, 2015a, 2015b).

Step 1. Understanding who, what, when, where, and how is the first step to the PHA to violence prevention (CDC, 2015b; Hammond et al., 2009). Grasping the extent of the problem involves analyzing data including the number of violence-related behaviors, injuries, and deaths to determine how frequently violence occurs, who the perpetrators and victims are, and where it occurs (CDC, 2015b). Such data can be acquired from medical examiner files, police reports, hospital charts, vital records, population-based surveys, registries, child welfare data, local crime statistics, and other sources (Hammond et al., 2009; Kids Count Data Center, 2015; National Violent Death Reporting System, 2015; WISQARS, 2015).

Step 2. Step two involves identifying the risk and protective factors (CDC, 2015a, 2015b). This includes understanding the factors that either protect or place people at risk in identifying where prevention efforts should be focused (CDC, 2015a, 2015b). Risk factors are the characteristics which increase the possibility that an individual will behave as a victim or perpetrator of violence, whereas protective factors are those which decrease the likelihood of becoming a victim or perpetrator (CDC, 2015a, 2015b).

Step 3. Developing and testing the prevention strategies is the third step and requires the collection of data from community assessments, needs assessments, stakeholder interviews, and focus groups (CDC, 2015b). This information is then used to design prevention programs which are evaluated to determine their effectiveness (University of Colorado Boulder, 2016).

Step 4. Step four assures that the prevention program in adopted on a broad scale (CDC, 2015b). Societies are very much encouraged to implement evidence based programs with the inclusion and dissemination techniques of networking, training, technical assistance, and evaluation (CDC, 2015a).

Utilizing the PHA, the LCHE (n.d.) (parent organization of the YPO) and the Louisiana Department of Hospitals conducted a community assessment driven by step 1 (define and monitor the problem). To address step 2 (identify risk and protective factors) four objectives were identified to include violence and homicide, high school dropout, extracurricular activities and social support. The current study addressed step 3 (develop and test prevention strategies). During this process youth participants were assessed to determine their belief about aggression after having attended the YPO violence prevention program. Step 3 (assure widespread adoption) will be addressed as the findings from step 4 will be used to develop a strategic plan to duplicate YPO on the local, state, national, and global levels.

Current Youth Violence Research Constructs and Methodologies

The SCT is the dominant cognitive formulation used for behavioral health and promotion and synthesizes the process and concepts from behavioristic, cognitive, and

emotional models for changing behavior (Glanz & Bishop, 2010; Semple et al., 1999).

Observational learning and reciprocal determinism were the construct for the current

study. The youth in the YPO violence prevention program were in an environment where

it is the belief that when they observe similar individuals or role models they will perform

a new behavior (Winett, 1999). The research question being examined for the current

study was whether there is a relationship between youth enrolled in YPO and any change

in their beliefs about aggression. In this case, the interrelating factors are variables of

belief (personal factors) about violence and the behavior youth elicit (behavior) while in

the YPO youth violence prevention program (environment) (Figure. 3).   Youth who are

socialized through constructs of their perception and degree while having an opportunity

to be involved in interactions and activities with others followed by knowing that they

have the skill (self-efficacy), have perceived reinforcement from interacting with others,

and finally performing activities together show a gradual improvement in social

interactions (Catalano et al., 1996). It was later discovered that as youth perceive more

interactions there is also an increase in social skills (Fleming et al., 2002). Evaluating the

four dimensions of social bonding (commitment, attachment, involvement and belief)

assists in explaining why youth may choose prosocial or antisocial behavior (Catalano et

al., 1996).

Behavior

(Behavior YPO Youth Elicit)

Personal   **Environmental**

YPO Students' Beliefs   **YPO Violence Prevention Program**
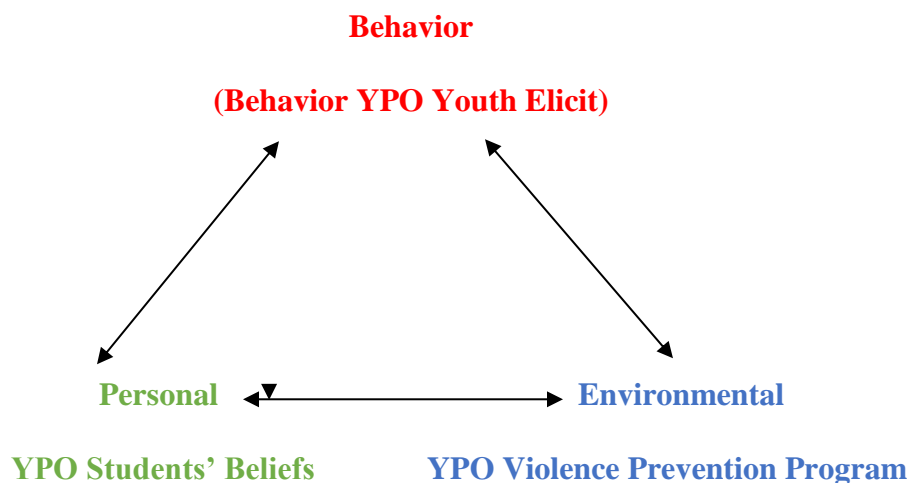
Figure 3. Youth Peace Olympics reciprocal determinism triadic diagram. This triadic diagram demonstrates the construct reciprocal determinism of the Youth Peace Olympics (YPO) youth violence prevention program.

Summary and Conclusions

The ultimate objective is to stop violence before it starts. This further suggests the need for future scholarly research to encompass the theoretical foundations for youth violence. This study contributes to youth violence prevention research by providing evidence for interventions in low-income, urban contexts for ethnic minority youth. Although there is available information for underlying principles there is a need to address less-or unchartered issues. One gap lies in the impact that peers and family have on youth in terms of coping with violent interactions. There is also the awareness that there is underrepresentation of community-based research (Yuan et al., 2016). Another issue is the lack of evidence to show long-term effects of prevention programs. Self-Brown et al. (2006) assessed the history of violent exposure and psychological connection for at-risk youth in the Baton Rouge area and Labbe (2015) saw the use of law-related intervention programs, however there is very little information on how to

make the aforementioned knowledge useful to generalize. Ways to increase

parental/guardian support is also under-represented in terms of scholarly research.

Chapter 3 provides details of the research methodology for the evaluation protocol of the

youth's beliefs about aggression who participated in the youth violence prevention

program including the research design, instrumentation, sampling methods, data

collection and analysis, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the YPO summer violence prevention program guided by the PHA through community involvement and assess youth participants' beliefs about aggression after being involved in a violence prevention intervention that exposes youth to extracurricular activities, sports, and professional development. This chapter includes the rationale for the selected research design, research methodology, and potential threats to validity.

Research Design and Rationale

In this study I evaluated the relationships between the demographic factors of age, gender, and ethnicity, the general beliefs towards aggression, and retaliation beliefs towards aggression that youth held, as well as the measured changes in those beliefs after participating in a youth violence prevention program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument (Huesmann et al., 1992). The YPO program had permission to use this instrument (see Appendix C). The research design was a quantitative pretest/posttest intervention assessment, but I did not provide the intervention to the participants and only collected secondary data from the YPO community organization that administered the data collection tools and provided the intervention. The YPO program administrators conducted the survey pretest/posttest intervention. The data had already been collected, so there were no time or resource constraints for this study. This one group pretest/posttest design was more informative compared to the pretest only design because it had the potential to illustrate any changes

in the beliefs about general and retaliatory aggression of the program participants that

occurred (Safe Schools Healthy Students, 2004; Want & Saiphoo, 2017). The data was

distinguished between the pre- and postintervention results by labeling the data as

Preintervention Data and Postintervention Data. The pretest/posttest responses were

provided in the same data set/Excel file with the required demographics and

pretest/posttest results on the same line to identify that the data on the line is from the

same person. In addition to the measures of change in the dependent variables of beliefs

towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards aggression, additional research

questions were used to investigate the relationships between demographic factors (age,

gender, ethnicity) and these measures in pretest/posttest evaluations collected from the

participants. This research design required the use of existing data developed by others as

well as an analysis that measured changes in the youth's beliefs as a result of being in the

program based on demographics. In order to advance the knowledge in youth violence

prevention this research design allowed for beneficial secondary analysis of existing data

for the purpose of supporting violence prevention programs on the local, state, federal,

and global levels.

Methodology

Included in the discussion are the definitions and size of the study sample needed

to answer the research questions. Also included are the justification for the sampling

strategy. For context, the procedures that were used for recruitment, participation, and

data collection will be briefly described. Also, I will provide the primary source for the

instrumentation and operationalization of constructs.

Study Population

Although I was not involved in the primary data collection, the study population included males and females ages 10–17 years of various ethnicities who resided in Baton Rouge, LA, (community youth) and from various cities in Louisiana who were participating in the Louisiana National Guard Youth Challenge Program (YCP) alternative education program (YCP, n.d.) at the time the original survey was conducted The YCP participants resided at the Gillis W. Long Center near Baton Rouge funded by the United States National Guard where they were receiving individual counseling, attending school, and being supervised 24 hours per day (YCP, n.d.). Many had been either arrested or convicted of crimes and were not permitted to attend public school (YCP, n.d.). Both groups were considered to be at-risk youth.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Providing an accurate and practical mechanism that enables extrapolation from a sample to a population is an important goal of sampling (Jin & Rahman, 2016). For this study, I did not do my own sampling of the primary population because secondary data was used. There was also not a sampling frame for the same reason, because the participants volunteered to take part in the program. As described previously, the study population were girls and boys 10–17 years of age of various ethnicities who reside in Baton Rouge, LA, (community youth) and from various cities in Louisiana who were participating in the YCP alternative education program (YCP, n.d.; YPO, n.d.) at the time of the survey.

Power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when an alternate hypothesis is true and can only be defined within the context of a certain set of parameters (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang & Buchner, 2007). These parameters are the reference to an alternative hypothesis and expressed in terms of an effect size (Faul et al., 2007). G* Power was utilized to determine the minimum sample required to answer the research questions (Faul et al., 2007). The first statistical analysis sample size calculation was based on the *t* -test, multiple linear regression, fixed model, single regression coefficient. A priori power analysis with input parameters having one tail, effect size of 0.15, alpha of 0.05, power of 0.95 and five predictor variables yielded a minimum sample size of 74. Because all of the secondary data was used, there were 58 subjects who were included in the database, however eight participants' responses were removed due to either skipped responses on the survey or because they only took the pretest and not the posttest, leaving the final sample size to be 50.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Participant recruitment procedures. I did not recruit participants or directly collect data from the participants. The LCHE and YPO administrators recruited participants for the program and collected the data that was used in this study (LCHE, n.d.; YPO, n.d.).

Data Collection

An administrator of the LCHE (data provider) signed the Walden University data use agreement to allow the data recipient (Walden student researcher) permission to collect the secondary data upon approval of the Walden University Institutional Review

Board (IRB) Committee (see Appendix B). The agreement explains how the data recipient will only have access to a limited data set, whereas no direct identifiers such as names may be included. Only the gender, age, ethnicity, and responses to the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale (see Appendix A) were provided to me.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Instrumentation. The data consisted of both questions that were either on a categorical/ dichotomous level (i.e., yes or no) or a Likert four-point scale (i.e. It's perfectly OK, It's sort of OK, It's sort of wrong, It's really wrong):

- Total Approval of Aggression, used to measure the beliefs about aggression in both general and specific situations (Huesmann et al., 1992);

- General Approval of Aggression, used to indicate whether the beliefs that aggression is acceptable or unacceptable (Huesmann et al., 1992);

- Approval of Retaliation, used to indicate whether beliefs of whether it is acceptable or unacceptable to be aggressive against others in specific provocation situations (Huesmann et al., 1992); and

- participant demographic information (age, gender, ethnicity).

The Likert scale was appropriate in this case because beliefs were what I wanted to measure. This instrumentation was designed to understand the effects of aggressive behavior among elementary, middle school, high school, and college aged individuals in economically disadvantaged communities and areas among both boys and girls (CDC, 2005; Eron & Huesmann, 1987; Guerra, Huesmann, Tolan, Van Acker, & Eron, 1995; Werner & Nixon, 2005).

For the current study, the youth were aged 10–18 and included African American, Latino, and Caucasian youth. The survey was administered by way of paper and the responses were entered in written form. The advantages to this were that it was low cost, it allowed a large number of individuals to input their answers without technical interruptions, it avoided interviewer bias, it provided a written record, it was easy to tabulate responses, it allowed for a wide range of respondents, and training was not needed for interviewing (Community Tool Box, 2016). Also, the wording of the questions were age appropriate and easy to read and respond to (see Appendix A).

Reliability and validity. Validity concerns included the following:

- respondents not taking the responses to the survey seriously,

- respondents not honestly answering the questionnaire, and

- respondents not understanding the meanings of the questions.

To address these concerns, concise clear instructions were written to allow the individuals to understand. Also, the items on the survey were also worded such that they only posed one characteristic per item to ensure that it was clear what each individual was responding to. This instrument had demonstrated a high level of test-retest reliability when the developers discovered that the two factors of general beliefs rational aggression items were significantly correlated with an alpha of 0.75, and it was decided for use for the current study (Werner & Nixon, 2005). The copyrighted survey instrument had been reviewed by a panel of specialists in the fields for the same demographic using the same core questions and form of data collection that were used for this study (CDC, 2005; Eron & Huesmann, 1987; Guerra et al., 1995; Werner & Nixon, 2005).

Intervention

I did not conduct the intervention but utilized the secondary data collected by the organization (pre/post data where participation in the YPO program was considered the intervention). The participants in the YPO met for 4 months one weekend per month from April, 2016, to August, 2016, at a recreational facility. They were exposed to mental, spiritual, and physical health related topics, conflict resolution, and professional development through workshops administered by community leaders from law enforcement, the judicial system, local universities, the faith-based community, other youth mentoring programs, local media representatives, public health professionals and financial literacy representatives, to name a few. They were involved in extracurricular activities including art, dance, music, flag football, volley ball, and tennis with 30 minutes spent in each activity. Each day ended with a recap of the activities of that day. Field trips were also inclusive in some weekend activities. Free lunch and snacks were provided for each weekend event. The staff provided mentorship, coaching, and observed and recorded behavior of each participant during each extracurricular activity. There was a closing ceremony after the last weekend in September of 2016, where the participants received awards and showcased their talents for family, friends, and community leaders.

The secondary was collected from the LCHE staff, and a data use agreement was signed by a member of the organization to approve me to have access to the data (Appendix B). The secondary data that was collected included the youth participant's demographic, age, and gender as well as the data from the pretest/posttest responses.

LCHE administered the pretest/posttests and linked it to the demographic data. The data

was analyzed using the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Science (n.d.) software.

The secondary data was not collected by me in order to reduce the potential for

bias to this study. This was collected by the program as part of their regular operations.

Descriptives were be used to illustrate the characteristics of the population. *T*-tests were

utilized to determine mean differences within demographic categories, and multiple

linear regression was used to determine relationships between the independent and

dependent variables. It should be noted that correlation analyses were also conducted in

order to determine if there were high correlations between variables necessitating

removal of any variables from regression analyses due to multicollinarity (Cudeck &

O'Dell, 1994; Faul et al., 2007).

Operationalization

Independent variables. The independent variables used from the youth

participants in the violence prevention study were their demographics and were

operationalized as follows:

- Gender (female = 0 and male = 1).

- Ages (actual age)

- Ethnicity was categorized as White/Caucasian=0; Non-White = 1, There were

   only (two) 2 categories due to the small sample size. Non-White included

   Black/African American, Hispanic/Latino, and Other Ethnic Groups.

Dependent variables operationalization. The dependent variables for this study

were the beliefs that youth held about aggression who participated in the youth violence

prevention program and was measured by the construct of aggression and delinquency using the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale (see Appendix A; Huesmann et al., 1992). This assessment measures perception of how acceptable it is to behave aggressively both when no conditions are specified and under varying condition of provocation. A Likert four-point scale was used for each question as follows:

- It's perfectly OK = 4

- It's sort of OK = 3

- It's sort of wrong = 2

- It's really wrong = 1

The Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale contains three tables to illustrate the assessment questions including the general approval aggression scale (general belief questions), approval of retaliation aggression scale (retaliation belief questions), and total approval of aggression (retaliation belief questions).

Data Analysis Plan

The purpose of the data analysis was to determine if being in the YPO program was related to a change in beliefs about aggression. Grounded in the SCT and SDM, this quantitative analysis determined if there was a statistically significant change in general beliefs towards aggression and retaliation toward aggression and being in the YPO program as operationally defined by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale (Huesmann et al., 1992). The aim was to determine if a statistically significant difference existed and if it was related to other variables. Descriptive statistics and multivariate analysis were used for this study. Descriptive data was presented as frequencies.

Numerically coded data was entered into the IBM Statistical Package for the Social

Sciences software (n.d.). Mean and standard deviation were calculated for the scores. The

following sections below will describe the research questions, hypothesis, and alternative

hypothesis as well as the various methods were used for each.

RQ1: What are the predictive relationships between age, gender, ethnicity,

general beliefs towards aggression, and retaliation beliefs towards aggression held

in youth who will be participating in a youth violence prevention program,

measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument (pretest)?

$H_0 1$: There are no statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, general beliefs towards aggression, and retaliation beliefs

towards aggression held in youth who will be participating in a youth violence

prevention program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression

instrument (pretest).

$H_a 1$: There are statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, general beliefs towards aggression, and retaliation beliefs

towards aggression held in youth who will be participating in a youth violence

prevention program, measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression

instrument (pretest).

Research question 1 data analysis. Correlations were calculated to examine the

association between youth's age, gender, ethnicity, general beliefs towards aggression

and retaliation approval of aggression held prior to participating in the YPO violence

prevention program. A *t*-test was run to determine if the mean of one population group

significantly differs from another population in terms of gender and ethnicity, retaliation

approval and general approval of aggression (pretest). A multiple linear regression was

also run to determine if there was a relationship between age, gender, ethnicity,

retaliation approval, and general approval of aggression (pretest).

RQ2: What is the effect of participation in a youth violence prevention program

on the general beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards

aggression held in youth who participated in a youth violence prevention

program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument

(pretest/posttest)?

$H_0 2$: There is no statistically significant differences in the measures of general

beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in

youth who participated in a youth violence prevention program, as measured

by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest).

$H_a 2$: There is a statistically significant difference in the measures of general

beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in

youth who participated in a youth violence prevention program, as measured

by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest).

Research question 2 data analysis. To test for a difference in the mean score,

paired t-tests was conducted between the pre-test and post-test to determine p-values.

RQ3: What are the predictive relationships between age, gender, ethnicity, and

changes in general beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards

aggression held in youth who participated in a youth violence prevention

program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument

(pretest/posttest differences)?

$H_0 3$: There are no statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, and changes in general beliefs towards aggression and

retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in youth who participated in a

youth violence prevention program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs

about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest differences).

$H_a 3$: There are statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, and changes in general beliefs towards aggression and

retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in youth who participated in a

youth violence prevention program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs

about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest differences).

Research question 3 data analysis. A multiple linear regression was run to

measure the change in retaliation approval and general approvals of aggression

pretest/posttest differences and determine if age, gender, and ethnicity was related to the

responses.

Threats to Validity

The two dependent variables under investigation are a) general beliefs youth hold

about aggression and b) retaliation beliefs youth hold about aggression. Threats to

internal validity due to instrumentation and history were addressed by standardizing the

conditions in that the YPO administrators ensured that everyone received the same

instrument at the same time in the same environment (YPO, n.d.). This was accomplished

by having the participants complete the survey at the same place in the same room, during the same time period (after lunch) for both the pretest and posttest. Threats to internal validity due to selection and mortality was addressed by the YPO administrators obtaining as much information as possible about the participants (YPO, n.d.).

There was no threat of external validity due to there being a pretest, or reactive to testing, is not considered an issue since there were four months between the pretest and posttest (Gordon, 1949). External validity related to reactive arrangements was addressed by having the youth understand that the purpose of being in the youth program was to gain an understanding of violence prevention through peaceful interaction with each other (Gordon, 1949; Lindell & Whitney, 2001). There was no attention drawn to the idea of them being in an experiment. There was, however the idea that eliminating the knowledge from taking the pretest can never really be achieved. There was no issue for multiple-treatment inference since this is a one group pretest/posttest experiment and all participants will receive the same treatments (Gordon, 1949; Rosenthal, 1963).

Ethical Procedures

Ensuring to follow the proper ethical procedures was the ultimate goal while collecting data and working with participants. Parents or guardians signed parental consent forms and were collected by YPO program administrators (YPO, n.d.). An agreement was signed by the LCHE President to access the anonymous secondary data for analysis (LCHE, n.d.; YPO, n.d.) (See Appendix B).   I met with the President for YPO on several occasions to discuss ethical procedures to follow regarding secondary data analysis (YPO, n.d.). I also completed the IRB application and after approval from

the Committee Chair and Methodologist it was submitted to the Walden University

Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval of secondary data collection on September

19, 2017 (IRB Approval Number 09-19-17-0418060). I did not have access to any

information that would identify a participant, therefore an IRB confidentiality agreement

was not be applicable. The data was analyzed in her own work environment and stored

in a password protected computer and destroyed after five years and was analyzed

without bias using the IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (n.d.).

Summary

The purpose of the research design was to determine if there exists a relationship

between participation in the YPO summer youth violence prevention program and beliefs

about aggression. Assessment of behavior of the participants will also be conducted. The

study tests the principles of the SCT and the SDM. The encouraging elements that cause

individuals or groups to bond, such as positive peer group connections and the influence

of being mentored by positive role models, are expected factors that should be present in

organized youth violence prevention programs (Allen, 2013; Briggs, 2014; Colvin &

Ashman, 2010; Smith, 2010). Developing a research method design requires ensuring

that there is proper selection of the population and ensuring adequate sampling

procedures while ensuring appropriate size will deliver valid data information that can be

generalizable for populations affected such as other violence prevention programs. It is

also important to follow ethical procedures for participant recruitment and data

collection. The instrumentation tools and operationalization constructs ensure that the

instrument delivers valid and reliable results while a well-designed data analysis plan

provides results that are statistically sound. Addressing threats to validity and following

the proper ethical procedures ensure that the process of data collection and analysis

deliver information that is approved by the participants and research community while

protecting the participants and researcher.   Chapter 4 will further describe the data

collection procedures and results from the data analysis.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The YPO is a Baton Rouge youth violence prevention program that is seated

under the LCHE, follows the PHA, and is geared towards utilizing extracurricular

activities including sports, creative arts, and mentoring to foster positive peer

socialization (LCHE, n.d.; YPO, n.d.). There have been efforts geared towards

implementing youth violence prevention through community efforts in Baton Rouge, LA

(BRAVE, n.d.; White House, n.d.; YPO, n.d.), yet I was unable to find previous

researchers who studied the effectiveness of the YPO program. Aggression is considered

a precursor for violent behavior among youth (CDC 2015b; Hawkins et al, 2000; Piko et

al. 2004; WHO 2016b). The purpose of this quantitative study was to analyze the youth's

beliefs about aggression after having participated in the YPO and predictive relationships

between age, gender, ethnicity, general beliefs about aggression, and retaliation beliefs

about aggression held, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression

instrument (Huesmann et al., 1992; YPO, n.d.).

Data Collection

Secondary data from the LCHE was utilized in this study. Participants were boys

and girls ages 10–17 years of age of various ethnicities who reside in Baton Rouge, LA,

and from various cities in Louisiana who were participating in the YCP alternative

education program (YCP, n.d.). This population is representative of the at-risk population

in the state of Louisiana and city of Baton Rouge; however, it does not represent the

overall population of youth in the United States, so the results can only be generalized to

youth who live in Baton Rouge (Epstein & King, 2002). Secondary data was used for the

study, but the sample would also be considered a convenience purposeful sample because

the participants volunteered to take part in the program and I used all data where the

participants met the inclusion criteria. The LCHE collected pretest data in April of 2016

and posttest data in August of 2016 from the participants using the Normative Beliefs

about Aggression Scale (Huesmann et al., 1992; LCHE, n.d.). The dataset provided

contained demographic data (age, gender, and ethnicity) and pre/posttest scores on the

assessments for each participate. Other secondary data collected by the LCHE, such as

qualitative observation of behavior, was not provided to or used by me.

Data was collected by the YPO organization on two occasions. The pretest was

administered in April, 2016 (prior to the intervention), and the posttest was administered

in August, 2016 (after the intervention). The original sample size was 58; however, eight

participants' responses were removed as these participants either skipped responses in the

survey or only took the pretest and not the posttest. The 2016 Louisiana Great Flood

occurred causing 2.3 trillion gallons of water to be dumped and displacing tens of

thousands of residents in 21 parishes including the Baton Rouge area (U.S. National

Weather Service, 2016). This caused some of the participants to not return to the

program, and they were not able to take the posttest. Because this research is primarily

exploratory in nature, this evaluation was based on the actual participants in the program,

and although this affects generalizability, it also demonstrates the effectiveness of this

program, at the present state, to deliver evidence-based data. Furthermore, this evaluation

provides a sound foundation on how effective the YPO intervention is in terms of realistically achieving the goal to develop a research study that can be generalizable.

The final number of participants was 50 based on the removal of the eight discussed above. The number of responses obtained were compared to the G* Power analysis (see Chapter 3) that was based on the *t*-test, multiple linear regression, fixed model, single regression coefficient (Faul et al., 2007). A priori power analysis with input parameters having one tail, effect size of 0.15, alpha of 0.05, power of 0.95 and five predictor variables yielded a minimum sample size of 74. This sample size was not met, as data from only 50 participants' pretest/posttest responses were utilized for the data analysis. The G* power analysis for 50 participants displayed input parameters of 0.15, alpha error probability of 0.05 with output parameters of noncentrality parameter of 7.5, critical *F* of 4.06, denominator degrees of freedom of 44, and a power of 0.76, indicating a slight decrease in statistical power. Although there is a slight decrease in the sample size, which could lead to larger standards of errors in increase in variability (Girshick, 1939; Jennrich, 1974; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong, 1999), this was addressed in this study by analyzing the degree of correlations among the factors, which in this case were the independent (age, gender, and ethnicity) and dependent variables (retaliation approval of and general approval of aggression; Browne & Cudeck, 1997).

Treatment and/or Intervention Fidelity

I was not involved in administering the intervention and received secondary data collected pre-/postintervention for the study. The YPO program intervention was implemented using the PHA and the CBPR model. The LCHE developed this program

from the Philadelphia YPO model. The YPO administration was responsible for referral and recruitment of the youth and I was not involved. The referrals were based on word-of-mouth, participants from previous years, and the then-current participants in the Youth Challenge Program.

From April, 2016, to August, 2016, YPO participants met at a city recreational facility one Saturday per month. While there, community leaders and representatives from the Baton Rouge Police Department and Sheriff's Office, local law office, local universities, faith-based community, local media, state public health department, local banks, and professional athletic organizations provided youth with empowering tools and skills to improve their decision making, prepare them for the future, demonstrate conflict resolution, promote mental, spiritual, and physical health, teach financial literacy, and provide college entry preparation and workforce development. The youth participated in workshops during the first part of the day, ate lunch, rotated in sports and creative arts activities, and ended the day with a final workshop to recap the day. They also attended field trips on intermittent weekends. In September of 2016, a closing ceremony was held to commemorate the youth's accomplishments while in the program for the summer.

One challenge that the YPO program intervention faced was the 2016 Louisiana Great Flood (The Advocate, 2016; U.S. National Weather Service, 2016, YPO, n.d.). This event affected the participants either directly or indirectly (YPO, n.d.). Many were displaced, living in shelters or with family, had family member living with them, and/or were relocated to new schools. This affected the participants', mentors', and coaches' attendance during the last Saturday of the intervention (YPO, n.d.). It may have also

affected the youth's emotional and mental states, thus affecting the impact of the intervention.

Results

In this section I explain the demographics (age, gender, and ethnicity) and Normative Beliefs about Aggression retaliation and general approval pretest responses using descriptive statistics. I ran correlations to address the potential for higher standard of errors among factors. I ran pretest independent t tests to determine the differences in scores of the pretest retaliation and general approval in gender and ethnicity, and I conducted paired-samples t tests to determine the differences in change/differences in scores measured between pretest and posttest for retaliation and general approval by gender and ethnicity. I conducted multiple linear regression analysis to determine if there were statistically significant relationships between demographics and responses to the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale for both the pretest retaliation and general approval about aggression as well as the pretest/posttest differences in pretest retaliation and general approval about aggression.

Demographics

The demographics of the respondents collected included age, gender, and ethnicity. This information is summarized in Table 1, including frequencies. Thirty percent were White/Caucasian and 92% were female.

Table 1

Sample Descriptives

Independent variable		N	Percentage
Age	10	2	4%
	12	2	4%
	13	3	6%
	14	4	8%
	15	2	4%
	16	21	42%
	17	11	22%
	18	5	10%
Ethnicity	0 = White/Caucasian	15	30%
	1 = non-White	35	70%
Gender	0 = Female	46	92%
	1 = Male	4	8%

Normative Beliefs About Aggression Scale

The instrument used to collect the dependent variable was the Normative Beliefs

about Aggression Scale (Huesmann et al., 1992). Prior to data analysis, data cleaning

was conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (n.d.). The data cleaning

process consisted of searching for missing data using descriptive statistics and checking

for frequencies using the missing data function.

I used the first section of the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale to

measure Retaliation Beliefs (1–12) about Aggression whereas section two measured

General Beliefs about Aggression (13–20). Survey items were Likert-scaled ranging

from It's really wrong = IRW (4), It's sort of wrong = ISW (3), It's sort of OK = ISOK

(2), and It's perfectly OK = IPOK (1). The surveys were administered before the YPO

intervention (pretest) and 5 months later after the intervention (posttest) by the group that

administered the YPO. Frequency and results for Retaliation Beliefs about aggression

pretest are displayed in Table 2, those for Retaliation Beliefs about Aggression are

displayed in Table 3, those for General Beliefs about Aggression are displayed in Table 4, and those for Retaliation Beliefs are displayed in Table 5.

Retaliation Beliefs about Aggression pretest. The retaliation beliefs about aggression were measured among the YPO participants before the intervention (pretest) and after the intervention (posttest). I used questions 1–12 from the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale to measure the youth's retaliation beliefs about aggression pretest. Table 2 summarizes the information in terms of frequency and percentage for the responses to the pretest Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale questions. The participants responses represented 37% (It's really wrong), 24% (It's sort of wrong), 19% (It's sort of OK), and 20% (It's perfectly OK). The mean score for the total responses was $M = 2.24$.

Table 2

Retaliation Beliefs About Aggression Results—Pretest

Dependent Variable	Response	Freq	%
Total Responses (*M* = 2.24)	IRW	217	37%
	ISW	140	24%
	ISOK	110	19%
	IPOK	122	20%
Q1. Suppose a boy says something bad to another boy, John. Do you think it's OK for John to scream at him? (*M* = 2.18)	IRW	13	26%
	ISW	17	34%
	ISOK	4	28%
	IPOK	5	10%
Q2. Suppose a boy says something bad to another boy, John. Do you think it's OK for John to hit him? (*M* =1.70)	IRW	29	58%
	ISW	9	18%
	ISOK	10	20%
	IPOK	2	4%
Q3. Suppose a boy says something bad to a girl. Do you think it's wrong for the girl to scream at him? (*M* = 2.98)	IRW	7	14%
	ISW	6	12%
	ISOK	18	36%
	IPOK	19	38%
Q4. Suppose a boy says something bad to a girl. Do you think it's wrong for the girl to hit him? (*M* =2.10)	IRW	21	42%
	ISW	13	26%
	ISOK	6	12%
	IPOK	10	20%
Q5. Suppose a girl says something bad to another girl, Mary. Do you think it's OK for Mary to scream at her? (*M* = 2.32)	IRW	12	24%
	ISW	19	38%
	ISOK	10	20%
	IPOK	9	18%
Q6. Suppose a girl says something bad to another girl, Mary. Do you think it's OK for Mary to hit her? (*M* = 1.80)	IRW	26	52%
	ISW	14	28%
	ISOK	4	8%
	IPOK	6	12%
Q7. Suppose a girl says something bad to a boy. Do you think it's wrong for the boy to scream at her? (*M* = 1.76)	IRW	24	48%
	ISW	16	32%
	ISOK	8	16%
	IPOK	2	4%
Q8. Suppose a girl says something bad to a boy. Do you think it's wrong for the boy to hit her? (*M* = 1.32)	IRW	36	72%
	ISW	12	24%
	ISOK	1	2%
	IPOK	1	2%

(table continues)

Dependent Variable	Response	Freq	%
Q9. Suppose a boy hits another boy, John. Do you think it's wrong for John to hit him back? (*M* = 2.84)	IRW	9	18%
	ISW	6	12%
	ISOK	19	38%
	IPOK	16	32%
Q10.Suppose a boy hits a girl. Do you think it's OK for the girl to hit him back? (*M* = 3.10)	IRW	9	18%
	ISW	5	10%
	ISOK	8	16%
	IPOK	28	56%
Q11. Suppose a girl hits another girl, Mary. Do you think it's wrong for Mary to hit her back? (*M* = 2.88)	IRW	8	16
	ISW	8	16
	ISOK	16	32
	IPOK	18	36
Q12. Suppose a girl hits a boy. Do you think it's wrong for the boy to hit her back? (*M* = 1.90)			
	IRW	23	46
	ISW	15	30
	ISOK	6	12
	IPOK	6	12

Note. The Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale measure the respondents' beliefs about aggression (pretest). The Likert scale survey items included, It's really wrong = IRW (4), It's sort of wrong = ISW (3), It's sort of OK = ISOK (2), and It's perfectly OK = IPOK (1). Questions 1 - 12 are Retaliation Beliefs about Aggression.

Retaliation beliefs about aggression posttest. The general beliefs about aggression were measured among the YPO participants before the intervention (pretest) and after the intervention (posttest). Questions 1 - 12 from the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale s were used to measure the youth's Retaliation Beliefs about Aggression. Table 3 summarizes the information in terms of frequency and percentage for the responses to the pretest Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale questions. The participants responses represented 43% (It's really wrong), 31% (It's sort of wrong), 17%

(It's sort of OK), and 9% (It's perfectly OK). The mean score for the total responses was

$M = 1.91$.

Table 3

Retaliation Beliefs About Aggression Results—Posttest

Dependent Variable	Response	Freq	%
Total Responses ($M = 1.91$)	IRW	259	43%
	ISW	184	31%
	ISOK	98	17%
	IROK	55	9%
Q1. Suppose a boy says something bad to another boy, John. Do you think it's OK for John to scream at him? ($M = 2.00$)	IRW	15	26%
	ISW	21	34%
	ISOK	13	28%
	IPOK	1	10%
Q2. Suppose a boy says something bad to another boy, John. Do you think it's OK for John to hit him? ($M = 1.48$)	IRW	30	58%
	ISW	17	18%
	ISOK	2	20%
	IPOK	1	4%
Q3. Suppose a boy says something bad to a girl. Do you think it's wrong for the girl to scream at him? ($M = 2.34$)	IRW	13	14%
	ISW	15	12%
	ISOK	14	36%
	IPOK	8	38%
Q4. Suppose a boy says something bad to a girl. Do you think it's wrong for the girl to hit him? ($M = 1.98$)	IRW	20	42%
	ISW	13	26%
	ISOK	15	12%
	IPOK	2	20%
Q5. Suppose a girl says something bad to another girl, Mary. Do you think it's OK for Mary to scream at her? ($M = 1.92$)	IRW	17	24%
	ISW	23	38%
	ISOK	7	20%
	IPOK	3	18%
Q6. Suppose a girl says something bad to another girl, Mary. Do you think it's OK for Mary to hit her? ($M = 1.68$)	IRW	29	52%
	ISW	11	28%
	ISOK	7	8%
	IPOK	3	12%
Q7. Suppose a girl says something bad to a boy. Do you think it's wrong for the boy to scream at her? ($M = 1.46$)	IRW	30	48%
	ISW	17	32%
	ISOK	2	16%
	IPOK	1	4%

(table continues)

Dependent Variable	Response	Freq	%
Q8. Suppose a girl says something bad to a boy. Do you think it's wrong for the boy to hit her? ($M = 1.18$)	IRW	44	72%
	ISW	3	24%
	ISOK	2	2%
	IPOK	1	2%
Q9. Suppose a boy hits another boy, John. Do you think it's wrong for John to hit him back? ($M = 2.36$)	IRW	14	18%
	ISW	14	12%
	ISOK	12	38%
	IPOK	10	32%
Q10. Suppose a boy hits a girl. Do you think it's OK for the girl to hit him back? ($M = 2.40$)	IRW	16	18%
	ISW	12	10%
	ISOK	8	16%
	IPOK	14	56%
Q11. Suppose a girl hits another girl, Mary. Do you think it's wrong for Mary to hit her back? ($M = 2.38$)	IRW	10	16%
	ISW	16	16%
	ISOK	12	32%
	IPOK	8	36%
Q12. Suppose a girl hits a boy. Do you think it's wrong for the boy to hit her back? ($M = 1.78$)	IRW	21	46%
	ISW	22	30%
	ISOK	4	12%
	IPOK	3	12%

Note. The Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale measure the respondents' beliefs about aggression (posttest). The Likert scale survey items included, It's really wrong = IRW (4), It's sort of wrong = ISW (3), It's sort of OK = ISOK (2), and It's perfectly OK = IPOK (1). Questions 1 - 12 are Retaliation Beliefs about Aggression.

General beliefs about aggression pretest. The general beliefs about aggression was measured among the YPO participants before the intervention (pretest) and after the intervention (posttest). Questions 13 – 20 from the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale s were used to measure the youth's general beliefs about aggression. Table 4 summarizes the information in terms of frequency and percentage for the responses to the posttest Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale questions. The participants responses

represented 64% (It's really wrong), 25% (It's sort of wrong), 9% (It's sort of OK), and

2% (It's perfectly OK). The mean score for the total responses was $M = 1.48$.

Table 4

General Beliefs About Aggression Results—Pretest

Dependent variable	Response	Freq	%
Total Responses (*M* = 1.48)	IRW	248	55%
	ISW	123	27%
	ISOK	58	13%
	IPOK	25	5%
Q13. In general, it is wrong to hit other people. (*M* = 1.82)	IRW	20	40%
	ISW	20	40%
	ISOK	19	18%
	IPOK	1	2%
Q14. If you're angry, it is OK to say mean things to other people. (*M* = 1.60)	IRW	32	64%
	ISW	9	18%
	ISOK	6	12%
	IPOK	3	6%
Q15. In general, it is OK to yell at others and say bad things. (*M* = 1.44)	IRW	32	64%
	ISW	15	30%
	ISOK	2	4%
	IPOK	1	2%
Q16. It is usually OK to push or shove other people around if you're mad. (*M* = 1.44)	IRW	34	68%
	ISW	10	30%
	ISOK	4	4%
	IPOK	2	2%
Q17. It is wrong to insult other people. (*M* = 1.46)	IRW	25	68%
	ISW	21	20%
	ISOK	4	14%
	IPOK	4	2%
Q18. It is wrong to take it out on others by saying mean things when you're mad. (*M* = 1.32)	IRW	26	50%
	ISW	10	42%
	ISOK	12	8%
	IPOK	2	8%
Q19. It is generally wrong to get into a physical fight with others. (*M* = 1.58)	IRW	29	52%
	ISW	18	20%
	ISOK	1	24%
	IPOK	2	4%
Q20. In general, it's OK to take your anger out others using physical force. (*M* = 1.20)	IRW	50	50%
	ISW	10	20%
	ISOK	10	20%
	IPOK	10	20%

Note. The Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale measure the respondents' beliefs about aggression (pretest). The Likert scale survey items included It's really wrong = IRW (4), It's sort of wrong = ISW (3), It's sort of OK = ISOK (2), and It's perfectly OK = IPOK (1). Questions 13 – 20 are General Beliefs about Aggression.

General beliefs about aggression posttest. The general beliefs about aggression was measured among the YPO participants before the intervention (pretest) and after the intervention (posttest). Questions 13–20 from the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale s were used to measure the youth's general beliefs about aggression. Table 5 summarizes the information in terms of frequency and percentage for the responses to the pretest Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale questions. The participants responses represented 55% (It's really wrong), 27% (It's sort of wrong), 13% (It's sort of OK), and 5% (It's perfectly OK). The mean score for the total responses was $M = 1.31$.

Table 5

General Beliefs about Aggression results--Posttest

Dependent variable	Response	Freq	%
Total Responses (*M* = 1.31)	IRW	257	64%
	ISW	100	25%
	ISOK	34	9%
	IPOK	9	2%
Q13. In general, it is wrong to hit other people (*M* = 1.60)	IRW	27	40%
	ISW	17	40%
	ISOK	5	18%
	IPOK	1	2%
Q14. If you're angry, it is OK to say mean things to other people. (*M* = 1.54)	IRW	28	64%
	ISW	18	18%
	ISOK	3	12%
	IPOK	1	6%
Q15. In general, it is OK to yell at others and say bad things. (*M* = 1.26)	IRW	40	64%
	ISW	7	30%
	ISOK	2	4%
	IPOK	1	2%
Q16. It is usually OK to push or shove other people around if you're mad. (*M* = 1.14)	IRW	34	68%
	ISW	10	30%
	ISOK	5	4%
	IPOK	1	2%
Q17. It is wrong to insult other people. (*M* = 1.16)	IRW	33	68%
	ISW	10	20%
	ISOK	6	14%
	IPOK	1	2%
Q18. It is wrong to take it out on others by saying mean things when you're mad. (*M* = 1.12)	IRW	35	50%
	ISW	10	42%
	ISOK	4	8%
	IPOK	1	8%
Q19. It is generally wrong to get into a physical fight with others. (*M* = 1.52)	IRW	29	52%
	ISW	18	20%
	ISOK	1	24%
	IPOK	2	4%
Q20. In general, it is OK to take your anger out on others by using physical force. (*M* = 1.20)	IRW	31	50%
	ISW	10	20%
	ISOK	8	20%
	IPOK	1	20%

Note. The Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale measure the respondents' beliefs about aggression (posttest). The Likert scale survey items included It's really wrong = IRW (4), It's sort of wrong = ISW (3), It's sort of OK = ISOK (2), and It's perfectly OK = IPOK (1). Questions 13 – 20 are General Beliefs about Aggression.

Data Analyses

       Correlations. Correlations analysis is used to determine if two variables are related. The closer the correlation coefficient (r) is to +1, the stronger the positive correlation (Cudeck & O'Dell, 1994). However, the closer the correlation coefficient (r) is to -1, the stronger the negative correlation (Cudeck & O'Dell, 1994). Correlations were calculated between the respondents' age, gender, ethnicity, pretest retaliation approval towards aggression results and pretest general approval of aggression results. None of the variables were highly correlated to the point that multicollinearity would be an issue. There was a negative correlation for age when comparing all other variables, however all other variables showed positive correlations. Therefore, all variables were used in regression analyses.

Table 6

Correlations for Age, Gender, Ethnicity, Pretest Retaliation Approval & Pretest General Approval

		Age	Gender	Ethnicity	Pretest retaliation approval	Pretest retaliation approval
Age	Pearson correlation	1				
	Sig – (2-tailed)	-				
Gender	Pearson correlation	-.378				
	Sig – (2-tailed)	.007				
Ethnicity	Pearson correlation	-.408	.193			
	Sig – (2-tailed)	.003	.179			
Pretest retaliation approval	Pearson correlation	-.093	.213	.196		
	Sig – (2-tailed)	.522	.137	.174		
Pretest general approval	Pearson correlation	-.115	.149	.236	.576[**]	1
	Sig – (2-tailed)	.425	.302	.099	.000	-

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

Pretest independent *t* tests. An independent sample *t* test was conducted to determine the differences in scores of pretest retaliation approval and pretest general approval by gender and ethnicity. There were no statistically significant differences in mean scores of either "pretest retaliation approval" or "pretest general approval" scales on the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale by gender or ethnicity.

Table 7

Independent Samples t-*Test Results for Pretest Retaliation Approval & Pretest General Approval by Gender*

	Gender	Mean	p-values
Pretest retaliation approval	0 =Female	2.20	p=.137
	1 = Male	2.65	
Pretest general approval	0 = Female	1.46	p=.302
	1 = Male	1.75	

Table 8

Independent Samples t-*Test Results for Pretest Retaliation Approval & Pretest General Approval by Ethnicity*

	Gender	Mean	p-values
Pretest Retaliation	0 = White/Caucasian	2.07	p=.174
Approval	1 = non-White	2.31	
Pretest General Approval	0 = White/Caucasian	1.29	p=.099
	1 = non-White	1.56	

Pretest/posttest score differences independent *t* tests. An independent sample t-Test was conducted to determine the differences in change/differences in scores measured between pretest and posttest measures of retaliation approval and general approval by gender and ethnicity. There were no statistically significant differences in changes (pretest to posttest) of mean scores of either retaliation approval or general approvals on the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale by gender or ethnicity.

Table 9

Independent Samples t-*Test Results for Changes in Scores Pretest/Posttest Retaliation Approval & General Approval by Gender*

	Gender	Mean	p-values
Retaliation approval difference	0 = Female	-.297	p=.215
	1 = Male	-.668	
General approval difference	0 = Female	-.133	p=.202
	1 = Male	-.531	

Table 10

Independent Samples t-Test results for changes in scores pretest/posttest Retaliation Approval & General Approval by Ethnicity

	Ethnicity	Mean	*p*-values
Retaliation approval difference	0 = White/Caucasian	-.228	*p* = .804
	1 = non-White	-.329	
General approval difference	0 = White/Caucasian	-.016	*p* = .252
	1 = non-White	-.228	

Research Question 1 Results

RQ1: What are the predictive relationships between age, gender, ethnicity,

general beliefs towards aggression, and retaliation beliefs towards aggression held

in youth who will be participating in a youth violence prevention program,

measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument (pretest)?

$H_0$1: There are no statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, general beliefs towards aggression, and retaliation beliefs

towards aggression held in youth who will be participating in a youth violence

prevention program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression

instrument (pretest).

H_a1: There are statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, general beliefs towards aggression, and retaliation beliefs

towards aggression held in youth who will be participating in a youth violence

prevention program, measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression

instrument (pretest).

Multiple linear regression. A multiple linear regression analysis was conducted

to determine if age, gender, and ethnicity are related at statistically significant levels to

the pretest retaliation approval and pretest general approval scores. Although age, gender,

and ethnicity explain 7.3% of the change in the results for pretest retaliation approval,

these demographics were not significantly significant predictors of the responses, $R^2 =$

.07, adj. $R^2 = .01$, $F(3,46) = 1.19$, $p > 01$ (.321). Additionally, although age, gender, and

ethnicity approval explain 6.7% of the change in pretest general approval, these

demographics were not statistically significantly predictors of the responses, $R^2 = .06$,

adj. $R^2 = .01$, $F(3,46) = 1.10$, p > .01 (.358). Since age, gender, and ethnicity were not

related to pretest retaliation approval (p=.321) or pretest general approval (p=.358) at

statistically significant levels, null hypothesis 1 is retained.

Research Question 2 Results

RQ2: What is the effect of participation in a youth violence prevention program

on the general beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards

aggression held in youth who participated in a youth violence prevention

program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument

(pretest/posttest)?

$H_0 2$: There is no statistically significant differences in the measures of general

beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in

youth who participated in a youth violence prevention program, as measured

by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest).

$H_a 2$: There is a statistically significant difference in the measures of general

beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in

youth who participated in a youth violence prevention program, as measured

by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest).

Paired-samples *t* test. A paired-samples *t* test was conducted to evaluate the

differences in the overall pretest and posttest scores for retaliation and general approval.

There was a statistically significant difference in pretest/posttest retaliation approval. The

change in scores between the retaliation approval pretest and posttest decreased

indicating a decrease in beliefs of retaliation approval of aggression after the intervention

(pretest M = 2.24 posttest M = 1.91; $t(49) = 4.07$, $p = .000$. The change in scores

between the general approval pretest and posttest decreased indicating a decrease in

beliefs of general approval of aggression after the intervention (pretest M = 1.48 posttest

M = 1.31; $t(49) = 1.96$, $p = .055$. Therefore, null hypothesis 2 is rejected and the

alternative accepted.

Table 11

Paired-Samples t-*Test Results for Changes in Scores Pretest/Posttest Retaliation Approval & General Approval*

		Mean	p-value
Retaliation approval difference	Pretest	2.24	
	Posttest	1.91	p=.000
General approval difference	Pretest	1.48	
	Posttest	1.31	p=.055

Research Question 3 Results

RQ3: What are the predictive relationships between age, gender, ethnicity, and

changes in general beliefs towards aggression and retaliation beliefs towards

aggression held in youth who participated in a youth violence prevention

program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression instrument

(pretest/posttest differences)?

$H_0$3: There are no statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, and changes in general beliefs towards aggression and

retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in youth who participated in a

youth violence prevention program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs

about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest differences).

H_a3: There are statistically significant predictive relationships between age,

gender, ethnicity, and changes in general beliefs towards aggression and

retaliation beliefs towards aggression held in youth who participated in a

youth violence prevention program, as measured by the Normative Beliefs

about Aggression instrument (pretest/posttest differences).

Multiple linear regression. A multiple linear regression was conducted to

determine if there were statistically significant relationships between age, gender,

ethnicity, and differences in pretest/posttest scores for retaliation and general approval for

aggression. Age, gender and ethnicity were not related at statistically significant levels to

differences in scores for retaliation approval, R2 = .04, adj. R2 = -02, F(3,46) = .762, p

=521 they were or general approval, R2 = .05, adj. R2 = -.01, F(3,46) = .907, p =.445.

Therefore, null hypothesis 3 is retained.

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Summary

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In conclusion, the quantitative analysis provided results for the 50 participants

included in the YPO youth violence prevention intervention. Although the sample size

was smaller than the suggested size based on the power analysis, the analysis results were

not affected due to the analysis of correlations run on the independent and dependent

variables. They were provided an intervention and their beliefs about aggression were measured using the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale before and after the intervention.

There was a decrease in the mean scores when comparing pretest retaliation approval to the posttest retaliation approval. This was a similar trend in terms of mean scores when comparing pretest general approval to posttest general approval. For research question one, the null hypothesis is retained since there were no statistically significant predictive relationships between the age, gender, ethnicity and the pretest responses to general approval of aggression and retaliation approval of aggression as measured by the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale in youth who participated in the program. On the contrary, for research question two the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative is accepted since there was a statistically significant difference for both the general approval of aggression and retaliation beliefs of aggression when comparing pre-/posttests. There was, however, no statistically significant predictive relationships between age, gender, and ethnicity in relation to changes in retaliation and general approval therefore, therefore retaining null hypothesis 3. It is also important to note that the mean scores for general approval were lower than retaliation approval for both the pretest comparison and the posttest/pretest difference. This indicates that the respondents favored retaliation approval of aggression more than general approval of aggression with or without the intervention.

In summary, there was a decrease in the approval of both retaliation and general aggression after having received the intervention, however, demographics was not a

predictor for either. Additionally, there was statistically significant difference in the retaliation and general approvals for aggression, whereas approvals for aggression decreased after receiving the intervention. On the other hand, there was no correlation with regards to demographics (age, gender, and ethnicity) as it related to the pretest or pretest/posttest responses for both retaliation and general approval. Chapter 5 will interpret the findings, identify the limitations of the study, provide recommendations for further research, and describe the implications for positive social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Youth violence is a major issue in Baton Rouge and around the world. Aggression is a precursor for violence, and identifying behaviors that can progress to the infliction of emotional, physical, or mental harm on others can limit such incidence (Hawkins et al., 2000; Piko et al., 2004). Antisocial behavior also serves as a catalyst to elicit unwanted violent behavior and can be attributed to risk factors. Therefore, introducing protective factors to at-risk youth is of utmost importance (Catalano et al., 1996; Kosterman et al., 1997). There are many programs in the Baton Rouge area whose aim is to address violence prevention thorough various means; however, they did not utilize an intervention guided by the PHA and CBPR approach. I aimed to capture a portrait of how, through utilizing the PHA, the Baton Rouge YPO violence prevention summer program affected the youth's approval of aggression by exposing them to extracurricular activities including sports activities, music and art, and professional development for 1 weekend per month for 4 months through the guidance of mentors and social interaction with other peers (YPO, n.d.).

A total of 50 participants responded to the Normative Beliefs about Aggression Scale, an instrument used to assess youth's retaliation approval and general approval for aggression (Huesmann et al., 1992). The participants age ranged from 10–18, included both girls and boys, and ethnicities were Black/African American/, White/Caucasian, Hispanic/Latino, and other ethnic groups. The sample size was smaller than the suggested size, thus affecting the generalizability of the findings. The G* power analysis suggested

there should be 74 participants; however, there were only 50 yielding input parameters of

0.15, alpha error probability of 0.05 with output parameters of noncentrality parameter of

7.5, critical F of 4.06, denominator degrees of freedom of 44, and a power of 0.76,

indicating a slight decrease in statistical power (Cudeck & O'Dell, 1994; Erdfelder et al.,

2007; Faul et al., 2007). This issue did not affect the validity of the results because

correlations were run to address potential multicollinearity (Erdfelder, et al., 2007). There

was a decrease in both retaliation approval and general approval for aggression after

having received the intervention; however, demographics (age, gender, and ethnicity)

were not statistically significant predictors for either. It was also discovered that the mean

scores for general approval were lower than retaliation approval in both the pretest and

posttest indicating that with or without the intervention, the youth felt less approval for

general aggression.

Interpretations of the Findings

The SCT and SDM were the theoretical frameworks for this study. Both are used

to explain how environment molds an individual's cognitive behaviors (Bandura, 1974;

Blomberg, 2011; Bradshaw et al., 2013; CDC, 2015a; Catalano et al., 1996; Choi Harachi

et al., 2005; Fleming et al., 2002; WHO, 2016a;). The SCT sets the foundation to explore

the youth's beliefs about aggression as their behavior (approval of retaliation and/or

general aggression) being influenced by personal (cognition) and environmental (YPO

program) factors (Bandura, 1991; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Furthermore, it is difficult to

confirm the exact cause for changes in attitudes in this study, as Bandura does not suggest

that the three factors of behavior, environment, and person will contribute equally to the

behavior, but rather that behavior depends on which factor is strongest at any particular moment (Wood & Bandura, 1989). In addition, this study was correlational in nature.

The SDM illustrates how protective factors such as the external social support youth are exposed to in the YPO program can affect their beliefs of approval of retaliation and general approval of aggression (Catalano et al., 1996; Choi et al., 2005). The SDM also embodies that youth will accept the behavioral and belief pattern of their social unit. The results of this study indicated that there was a decrease in approval of aggression, but I was not able to draw a conclusion of how exactly the decrease was caused (Maddox & Prinz, 2003; Zavershneva, 2012). This was not an issue with the validity of the findings, as I ran correlations to determine if there was multicollinearity between the variables. In this case, there were none. On the other hand, having some form of link, or lack thereof, to age, gender, and ethnicity being influential factors to approval of aggression could further such findings in the scientific community. It is often difficult to test intervention and establish empirically proven causation while monitoring and adapting the intervention to fit the community being tested (Leff et al., 2009, 2010a).

Limitations of the Study

There were limitations to the study. One limitation was that it was not established through the study exactly how the decrease in approval of aggression was initiated (causation; Pearl & Verma, 1995). Another limitation was that the program was only assessed for one summer, and this caused the findings to only be a snapshot of the population during that point in time. By only having an assessment of the youth for just one summer session, it did not allow for identifying any trends over time. Also, due to the

small sample size and unbalanced number of age, gender, and ethnicity variables, I was

not able to identify if these factors affect the level of approval of aggression. The

behavior data was not assessed due to the nature of the study and limitations due to

reliability of the instrument used to gather this data. Additionally, the survey was not

designed to demonstrate potential trends of the youth's beliefs about aggression over time

(Huesmann et al., 1992). Also, by the participants not being obligated to the study, they

were able to drop out at any time, which was the case for a few. This caused threat to the

mortality of the study (Christ, 2007). Threat to pretest/posttest testing was not considered

to be an issue because there were 4 months between pretest and posttest; however, this

cannot be considered to be the case for certain (Dimitrov & Rumrill, 2003). Selection

bias was not considered since the participants were volunteers (Ćirković et al., 2010).

Recommendations

Further research is needed to determine the integral factors associated with social

cognition or the way in which the individuals respond to the environment. There is a need

for research that focuses not only on social competence but on the emotions and self-

efficacy of the individuals as well (Bandura, 1997; Domitrovich & Greenberg, 2000). It

would be helpful to assess the mentor's feeling about the youth with whom they

interacted as well as their thoughts regarding the youth's antisocial or prosocial behaviors

(Catalano et al., 1996). This study should be expanded into schools where it could be

conducted in a more controlled environment given that the youth attend on a daily base

for (9 months. This can also improve the chances of obtaining a larger sample size and

thus higher chances for potential generalizability (Brownson et al., 2009; Leff et al.,

2009, 2010a). Also, it is important to assess the programmatic structure of YPO to determine how participants, mentors, and coaches are recruited and impacted along with how the activities are administered year to year (YPO, n.d.). Also, there is a need to have continued assessments of the youth approval of aggression to determine the long-term effects of the program (Labbe, 2015).

Implications

In terms of social impact, because other regions of the state are requesting to have the YPO implemented in their area, there is the potential for the results of this study to assist in the process of designing and evaluating similar youth violence prevention programs. This study also serves as a foundation to build coalitions that practice the CBPR approach to increase program sustainability; the data obtained can influence other communities. It is suggested that to have scientific success, the findings of an intervention must be generalizable (Brownson et al., 2009). These findings can increase the awareness of underrepresentation of community-based research, therefore potentially increasing multisector collaborative efforts to forego improvement in assessing aggression among youth and therefore reducing the occurrence of violence (Brownson et al., 2009). However, it is difficult to test an intervention that is empirically proven while at the same time adapting it to fit the community's abilities and monitor its integrity (Leff et al., 2009, 2010a). This warrants the need for further research in addressing this matter. The results of these findings can also be enhanced when combined with parenting intervention to promote stable positive relationships in the home by reducing conflict and

improving family management. These improved behaviors can also flow into school and community interactions.

In terms of business impact, addressing overall youth violence can reduce the driving costs of hospitalization, community impact, and incarcerations. The data from this study can assist with passing a current proposed bill through the Louisiana State Legislature for the Louisiana Department of Health to assign youth violence as a public health epidemic in Baton Rouge. This information will also assist in securing funding by illustrating the effectiveness of these types of programs.

Conclusion

There have been may attempts to produce effective violence prevention programs, even when theory driven. There is, however, very little information on how to make similar studies generalizable, which means there is an intensive need for more research in this area. With the heightened prevalence of youth violence in the world, this is a high priority issue. All are affected by youth violence. This this being the case, youth violence should be an issue of focus for every individual and organization, both private and public. Youth violence affects community safety, mental and physical health, education attainment, commerce, and business. With there being so many limitations to delivering an effective program for youth violence prevention, whether due to lack of funding or ability to establish an empirically sound program, it is the priority of all citizens to impart their knowledge, skills, and resources towards eliminating this phenomenon.

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Appendix A: Youth Participant Survey

Normative Beliefs about Aggression

1. What is your gender? ____Female   ____Male

2. How old are you? _____

3. What is your ethnicity?
   ____American Indian or Alaskan Native
   ____Asian
   ____Black or African American
   ____Hispanic or Latino
   ____Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
   ____White
   ____Two or more races
   ____Unknown

Please answer the questions below. Make sure that you think about your answer and give an honest answer about the item:

Suppose a boy says something bad to another boy, John...				
	It's perfectly OK	It's sort of OK	It's sort of wrong	It's really wrong
Do you think it's OK for John to scream at him?				
Do you think it's OK for John to hit him?				

Suppose a boy says something bad to a girl...				
	It's perfectly OK	It's sort of OK	It's sort of wrong	It's really wrong
Do you think it's wrong for the girl to scream at him?				
Do you think it's wrong for the girl to hit him?				

Suppose a girl says something bad to another girl, Mary...				
	It's perfectly OK	It's sort of OK	It's sort of wrong	It's really wrong

Do you think it's OK for Mary to scream at her?				
Do you think it's OK for Mary to hit her?				

Suppose a girl says something bad to a boy…				
	It's perfectly OK	It's sort of OK	It's sort of wrong	It's really wrong
Do you think it's wrong for the boy to scream at her?				
Do you think it's wrong for the boy to hit her?				

Suppose a boy hits another boy, John…				
	It's perfectly OK	It's sort of OK	It's sort of wrong	It's really wrong
Do you think it's wrong for John to hit him back?				

Suppose a boy hits a girl…				
	It's perfectly OK	It's sort of OK	It's sort of wrong	It's really wrong
Do you think it's OK for the girl to hit him back				

Suppose a girl hits another girl, Mary.				
	It's perfectly OK	It's sort of OK	It's sort of wrong	It's really wrong
Do you think it's wrong for Mary to hit her back?				

Suppose a girl hits a boy.				
	It's perfectly OK	It's sort of OK	It's sort of wrong	It's really wrong
Do you think it's wrong for the boy to hit her back?				

Please indicate your answer to the following items…				
	It's perfectly OK	It's sort of OK	It's sort of wrong	It's really wrong
In general, it is wrong to hit other people.				
If you're angry, it is OK to say mean things to other people.				
In general, it is OK to yell at others and say bad things.				
It is usually OK to push or shove other people around if you're mad.				
It is wrong to insult other people.				
It is wrong to take it out on others by saying mean things when you're mad.				
It is generally wrong to get into physical fights with others.				
In general, it is OK to take your anger out on others by using physical force.				

Appendix B: Data Use Agreement

This Data Use Agreement ("Agreement"), effective as of <u>5/8/17</u> ("Effective Date"), is entered into by and between <u>Shonta Manuel</u> ("Data Recipient") and <u>Alma Stewart of Louisiana Center for Health Equity (LCHE) and the Youth Peace Olympics (YPO)</u> ("Data Provider"). The purpose of this Agreement is to provide Data Recipient with access to a Limited Data Set ("LDS") for use in research in accord with the HIPAA and FERPA Regulations.

1. **<u>Definitions.</u> Unless otherwise specified in this Agreement, all capitalized terms used in this Agreement not otherwise defined have the meaning established for purposes of the "HIPAA Regulations" codified at Title 45 parts 160 through 164 of the United States Code of Federal Regulations, as amended from time to time.**

2. **<u>Preparation of the LDS.</u> Data Provider shall prepare and furnish to Data Recipient a LDS in accord with any applicable HIPAA or FERPA Regulations**

Data Fields in the LDS.
- **No direct identifiers such as names may be included in the Limited Data Set (LDS).**
- **The data provider used the copywritten Normative Beliefs about Aggression survey, developed by L. Howell Huesmann and Nancy Guerra, and will issue the data to the Data Recipient distinguishing the pre- and post-intervention results by labeling the data as "Pre-Intervention Data" and "Post-Intervention Data".**
- **The data set will contain a line for each participant with all of the data for that individual on that line including demographic data and pre/posttest scores on the assessments.**
- **The data provider has given permission to the Data Recipient to name the organization in the doctoral project report that will be published in Proquest.**

In preparing the LDS, Data Provider shall include the data fields specified as follows, which are the minimum necessary to answer the research questions and hypothesis questions for the research:
- **Demographics (gender, age, ethnicity).**
- **Responses to Normative Beliefs about Aggression survey (pre-intervention and post-intervention).**
- **The period for the intervention conducted by LCHE/YPO was from April 1, 2016 to August 31, 2016.**
- **The pre-intervention and post-intervention responses will be provided in the same dataset/excel file with the required demographics, pre- and post-intervention results on the same line to identify that the dta on the line is from the same person.**

3. **<u>Responsibilities of Data Recipient.</u> Data Recipient agrees to:**

    a. **Use or disclose the LDS only as permitted by this Agreement or as required by law;**

    b. **Use appropriate safeguards to prevent use or disclosure of the LDS other than as permitted by this Agreement or required by law;**

    c. **Report to Data Provider any use or disclosure of the LDS of which it becomes aware that is not permitted by this Agreement or required by law;**

d.   **Require any of its subcontractors or agents that receive or have access to the LDS to agree to the same restrictions and conditions on the use and/or disclosure of the LDS that apply to Data Recipient under this Agreement; and**

e.   **Not use the information in the LDS to identify or contact the individuals who are data subjects.**

4.   **<u>Permitted Uses and Disclosures of the LDS.</u> Data Recipient may use and/or disclose the LDS for its research activities only.**

5.   **<u>Term and Termination.</u>**

    a.   **<u>Term.</u> The term of this Agreement shall commence as of the Effective Date and shall continue for so long as Data Recipient retains the LDS, unless sooner terminated as set forth in this Agreement.**

    b.   **<u>Termination by Data Recipient.</u> Data Recipient may terminate this agreement at any time by notifying the Data Provider and returning or destroying the LDS.**

    c.   **<u>Termination by Data Provider.</u> Data Provider may terminate this agreement at any time by providing thirty (30) days prior written notice to Data Recipient.**

    d.   **<u>For Breach.</u> Data Provider shall provide written notice to Data Recipient within ten (10) days of any determination that Data Recipient has breached a material term of this Agreement. Data Provider shall afford Data Recipient an opportunity to cure said alleged material breach upon mutually agreeable terms. Failure to agree on mutually agreeable terms for cure within thirty (30) days shall be grounds for the immediate termination of this Agreement by Data Provider.**

    e.   **<u>Effect of Termination.</u> Sections I, 4, 5, 6(e) and 7 of this Agreement shall survive any termination of this Agreement under subsections c or d.**

6.   **<u>Miscellaneous.</u>**

    a.   **<u>Change in Law.</u> The parties agree to negotiate in good faith to amend this Agreement to comport with changes in federal law that materially alter either or both parties' obligations under this Agreement. Provided however, that if the parties are unable to agree to mutually acceptable amendment(s) by the compliance date of the change in applicable law or regulations, either Party may terminate this Agreement as provided in section 6.**

b. **Construction of Terns.** The terms of this Agreement shall be construed to give effect to applicable federal interpretative guidance regarding the HIPAA Regulations.

c. **No Third Party Beneficiaries.** Nothing in this Agreement shall confer upon any person other than the parties and their respective successors or assigns, any rights, remedies, obligations, or liabilities whatsoever.

d. **Counterparts.** This Agreement may be executed in one or more counterparts, each of which shall be deemed an original, but all of which together shall constitute one and the same instrument.

e. **Headings.** The headings and other captions in this Agreement are for convenience and reference only and shall not be used in interpreting, construing or enforcing any of the provisions of this Agreement.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, each of the undersigned has caused this Agreement to be duly executed in its name and on its behalf.
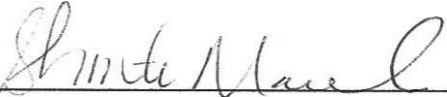
Data Provider

Signed: _Alma C Stewart_

Print Name: _Alma C. Stewart_

Print Title: _President_

_5/9/17_

Data Recipient

Signed: _Shunta Manuel_

Print Name: _Shunta Manuel_

Print Title: _Data Recipient / Researcher_

Date: 5/9/17

Appendix C: YPO Permission to Use Instrument

To whom it may concern:

On behalf of Professor Huesmann, I write to give his permission to the Louisiana Center For Health Equity (LCHE) to use the Normative Beliefs About Aggression survey to measure the beliefs about aggression among the youth participating in the Youth Peace Olympics (YPO) youth violence prevention program.

Best regards   ~Diana Armistead

PERMISSION GRANTOR INFORMATION FOR THE USE REQUESTED ABOVE

Diana Armistead

University of Michigan

Institute for Social Research

Research Institute for Group Dynamics