

An Analysis of the Characteristics of School Violence in Small Island Developing States Using Educator Experiences from Four Caribbean Countries

Wendell C. Wallace^A and Renée M.R. Figuera^B

ABSTRACT

School violence is a significant problem for educators in Small Island Developing States (SIDS) and has been recognized as a pervasive problem which affects many individuals. This study analyzed the experiences (characteristics and frequency) of educators in four SIDS in the Caribbean regarding their exposure to school violence. Three hundred self-administered questionnaires were randomly distributed to teachers in Barbados, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago regarding the character and frequency of violence at schools. After the data were cleaned, 120 questionnaires were found to contain valid data. Quantitative analyses of these questionnaires revealed a wide range of violent acts at schools in the Caribbean. Thirty-eight percent of the respondents reported having witnessed five or more acts of school violence per month, 33% witnessed three to four acts of school violence per month, and 29% witnessed one to two acts of school violence per month. Weapons of choice for these violent acts included knives, bottles, belts, bottles, fists, and feet. The use of firearms was hardly ever witnessed by the respondents. Analyses also indicated that children as young as 5 years old were involved in school violence; however, there was a concentration of violence at schools perpetrated by students aged 11–15. Policy implications and directions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: School violence; Educator; Small Island Developing States; Caribbean

A Lecturer in Criminology and Criminal Justice, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, Trinidad and Tobago

B Lecturer in Linguistics, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, Trinidad and Tobago

INTRODUCTION

There is a slew of literature pointing out that schools should be institutions of learning in safe, permissive environments and that they should be free of crime and violence (de Wet 2007; Ryan et al. 2013; Zhang, Musu-Gillette, and Oudekerk 2016). Internationally, the issue of school violence has become one of the most pressing educational issues for stakeholders (Johnson 2009; Sela-Shayovitz 2009; Antonowicz 2010; Bester and du Plessis 2010). The Caribbean has also been affected by school violence as some institutions of learning are not always free from its reaches. In fact, Deosaran (2003) points out that in recent times, there seems to have been an increase in school-based violence in all Caribbean countries for which data are available. The result is that many school-age students and teachers in the region suffer the indignity of school-based violence as victims and/or witnesses. Unfortunately, school violence is not a new occurrence (de Wet 2007; Altun and Baker 2010); as for centuries, violence has been a common feature of school life (Violence in Schools Training Action 2006, 4). However, for school-age children, educators, policymakers, and parents, school violence is a problem in the Caribbean (Gardner 2003; Williams 2013) as well as a grave societal concern (Deosaran 2003, 5). This concern is premised on the notion that school violence causes untold anguish to school-age children and their teachers, and is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon.

The concern surrounding school violence in the Caribbean has generated much discourse throughout the region and is evident by the numerous radio talk show discussions, discussions in other public fora, letters to the editors of local newspapers, as well as demonstrations by concerned citizens and/or those negatively impacted by violence at school. This concern is understandable as “the culture of violence is rapidly becoming one of the most disruptive forces in today’s schools and that this epidemic respects no socio-economic and political boundaries” (Down et al. 2007, 232). Unfortunately, at a time when there is evidence suggesting an increase in school violence in the Caribbean, the media’s tendency is to focus on extreme instances of school violence by and on students, such as stabbings and shootings, as these extreme acts of violence (stabbing and shootings) are “the most visible and infrequent end of a continuum” (Stoudt 2006, 274; see also Daniels, Bradley, and Hays 2007). However, the focus on extreme instances of school violence by the Caribbean media is to the detriment of other instances of school violence witnessed and suffered by teachers at their schools.

Violence at school has many faces, features, and casualties and touches students, parents, communities, and more specifically teachers in varying degrees. For example, the National Association of School Nurses (2012, 1) point out that school violence impacts the social, psychological, and physical well-being of both students and staff, and disrupts the teaching-learning process through fear,

absenteeism, or class disruption; and affects the victim, the aggressor, and the bystanders. Undoubtedly, school violence has a devastating effect on a school's community system and affects bystanders, the school itself, as well as society as a whole (Du Plessis 2008; National Association of School Nurses 2012). In spite of this, most studies of school violence are conducted at the individual, student, or teacher level, and few have examined school violence cross-nationally (Elliott, Hamburg, and Williams (1998) as cited in Agnich 2011, 4). In addition, the focus is more often placed on students than on the plight of the educators experiencing violence at school (Galand, Lecocq, and Philippot 2007; Bester and du Plessis 2010, 203; American Psychological Association 2011, 5). The result is that educator's experience of school violence is relatively understudied (see Alzyoud, Al-Ali, and Bin Tareef 2016; Bester and du Plessis 2010; Daniels, Bradley, and Hays 2007; Sela-Shayovitz 2009 as exceptions).

From a Caribbean perspective, in spite of the abundance of well-researched and well-articulated studies on the causes and impacts of school violence in the Caribbean (see Gardner et al. 2003; Chevannes 2004; Carter 2005; Meeks-Gardner et al. 2006; Baker-Henningham et al. 2009; Phillips 2009; Williams 2013; James et al. 2014), little attention has been paid to a growing problem of educator experiences with violence at school in the Caribbean as even the less tendentious studies and accompanying literature does not focus on their experiences. This existing gap in the literature on school violence in the Caribbean when assessed through educator experiences has a lot to do with an ongoing phenomenon whereby most studies on violence at schools in the Caribbean are generally limited to individual countries (see, for example, Gardner, et al. 2003 on Jamaica; Carter 2005 on Barbados; Lall 2007, 2013; Baker-Henningham et al. 2009; Williams 2013 on Trinidad and Tobago; James et al. 2014) and/or focus on student-based violence.

It is therefore paradoxical that educators who spend the most time with school students and who are very knowledgeable about their needs and activities have received little attention in the context of research on school violence (Fisher and Kettl 2003). This aberration is even more baffling as teachers and school personnel often observe violence in their schools, and all too often they are its victims and they know the children and the social system of schools better than any other group (Fisher and Kettl 2003, 80). Importantly, educator insight into school violence is needed to understand the characteristics and typology of the problem and close the existing gap in the literature. In light of the foregoing, the current effort examined the characteristics of school violence in the Caribbean by surveying Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE), primary and secondary school teachers in Barbados, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago as they are at the heart of education and are at the forefront in dealing with violence in schools.

EDUCATORS AND SCHOOL VIOLENCE

On a daily basis, teachers encounter violence and violent behaviors from a range of actors at their place of employment (Sela-Shayovitz 2009). In an international context, the literature on school violence is replete with research on teacher safety, insecurity, and teacher victimization at or near school (see Binns and Markow 1999; Daniels, Bradley, and Hays 2007; Gomes and Pereira 2009; Sela-Shayovitz 2009; Masitsa 2011; Mezzalira and Guzzo 2015; Alzyoud, Al-Ali, and Bin Tareef 2016). Instructively, these teacher encounters with school-based violence is not the sole domain of any one region and the act occurs in a wide range of geographic locations such as Jordan, South Africa, the Philippines, Brazil, United States, and Israel.

To better understand school violence, it is imperative that the term is operationalized as “there are many definitions as to what constitutes school violence” (de Wet 2007). Indeed, school violence is defined very differently and/or grounded in different assumptions. This variance can be seen in the differing perspectives associated with the term (Vettenburg 1999; U.S. Department of Justice 2005; de Wet 2007; Benbenishty and Astor 2008; Estévez, Jiménez, and Musitu 2008; Agnich 2011) as different societies view school violence differently. Instructively, school violence is often viewed in terms of students victimizing other students or teachers (Henry 2000) on school grounds, en route to or from school, or during school-sponsored events (Furlong and Morrison 2000; Daniels, Bradley, and Hays 2007). It also includes emotional and psychological distress, intimidation and other behaviors intended to induce fear in the victim (Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber 1998), as well as indirect forms of aggression such as rumor mongering and acts of ostracism (Crick and Bigbee 1998), sexual and racial harassment, as well as verbal abuse and extortion (taxing).

Keeping in mind the varied notions of school violence, the term is operationalized in this study using aspects of Miller and Kraus’s (2008) definition to include behaviors such as child and teacher victimization, child and/or teacher perpetration, physical and psychological exploitation, cyber victimization, cyber threats, fights, physical and psychological injury to teacher and student, sexual and other boundary violations, and use of weapons in the school environment. Throughout this article, reference to school violence also refers to violent acts that can be lethal (e.g., a school shooting), injurious (e.g., a stabbing), or potentially lethal (e.g., a hostage or barricade situation) (Daniels, Bradley, and Hays 2007). In this study, the terms teacher and educator will be used interchangeably; however, the term refers to persons whose occupation is teaching (Rundell and Fox 2002).

THE CURRENT STUDY

Study Purpose

In the Caribbean, there is a paucity of data on the characteristics, typology, and modality of school violence, cross-national data on the phenomenon, as well as data on school violence as viewed through the lens of educators. Therefore, this limits what is known about the characteristics of school violence in the region. Existing information is limited to reports emanating from governmental sources; for example, a Ministry Paper tabled in the House of Representatives in May 2013 by former Jamaican Education Minister, Ronald Thwaites, that outlined the extent of school violence in Jamaica and a few research papers on the subject matter (see Carter 2005; James et al. 2014). With this in mind, the purpose of this study is to explore the experiences of educators regarding the characteristics of violence that Caribbean educators are exposed to at schools in the Caribbean.

The study required the input of educators in the Caribbean in identifying a key element of school violence—its character. More specifically, the study sought answers to the following questions: (1) What are educator experiences of violence at school? (2) What are the forms of school violence that they (educators) have witnessed (character/modality)?, and (3) What are the weapons that were used to commit these acts (typology)? Importantly, the experiences of these educators will not be limited only to physical experiences of violence, but will encompass emotional and psychological acts of violence which now includes the use of technology to conduct violent acts in educational settings. Therefore, the variety of experiences under exploration will not be limited.

Importantly, the purpose of this study was not to highlight variables such as teacher burnout, job satisfaction, wellbeing, causes, impacts, and prevalence of school violence as these has been well researched in the Caribbean, but to highlight educator experiences and knowledge of the character, features, qualities, modalities, and/or typologies of school violence in the region as this is relatively understudied. Therefore, the researchers sought to call attention to and create an awareness of teacher experiences of school violence in the region. Hopefully, this would trigger a regional conversation about “cultures” of school violence involving all stakeholders.

Importance of Teacher Awareness of and Exposure to School Violence

The analysis of educator experiences with school violence in the Caribbean is important for several reasons. First, when educators are exposed to school violence, they may be precluded from performing their academic and related functions effectively (Masitsa 2011). In the light of the foregoing, it is important to have knowledge and understanding of educator awareness and exposure

to violence at schools either as victims or witnesses as it negatively impacts them (Lyon and Douglas 1999; Chen and Astor 2009; Geissler 2015) in a variety of ways inclusive of, but not limited to attrition, burnout, mental health, and teaching quality. Educator experiences with school-based violence is also important as it impacts teacher attrition (Geissler 2015), school matters, and the policies they support, helps teachers to recognize the signs that students may display when they are at risk for violent behaviors, assist teachers in better understanding school violence, and assist them to better communicate with students, and/or assist them in solving problematic issues.

The importance of teacher awareness of and exposure to school violence is of much significance and is also premised on the notion that the awareness and exposure may put teachers in a better position to offer proactive guidance as well as support to victims and perpetrators of school violence. Furthermore, it may lead to the development of teaching approaches and strategies to counteract school violence, for example, creating a safe and conducive classroom environment that promotes respect toward others and the use of alternative teaching strategies. For teachers, school violence has potentially serious consequences such as teacher burnout and fractured teacher–student relationships (Wilson, Douglas, and Lyon 2011). Exposure to school-based violence may also unwittingly lead to the development of mechanisms for coping with the stress associated with experiencing or being exposed to incidents of school violence. The knowledge gained from teachers based on their experiences with school violence can also assist future teachers with their preparedness for teaching (Gomes and Pereira 2009; Geissler 2015) and may also be of immense value to policymakers as it can assist them in the professional socialization of newer teachers to prevent “reality shock” on encountering violence at schools (Gomes and Pereira 2009).

Methodology

The study was conducted using a quantitative approach (descriptive) that was undergirded by constructivism and interpretivism. Constructivism is based on the premise that the human world is different from the natural, physical world and must therefore be studied differently (Patton 2002). The constructivist philosophy aims to give constructive knowledge about reality and not constructing reality itself. Therefore, the researcher aimed to share constructive knowledge about the reality of the nature of school violence in the Caribbean by adopting an interpretivistic approach to the deconstruction of the data emanating from this research. In a similar vein to constructivism, interpretivism seeks to explore human action. According to Schwandt (2007), interpretivism assumes that the meaning of human action is inherent in the action itself and the task of the researcher is to unearth that meaning by exploring first-hand accounts of actual experiences (see Effendi and Hamber 1999). In the context of this research,

the data collection process was guided by an interpretivism etiology in an attempt to understand Caribbean educator's experiences of the nature of violence in the school environment. Similarly, the interpretivistic approach was utilized to garner an in-depth understanding of school violence as viewed by Caribbean educators. The study utilized educator's reporting of school violence rather than school-based records of violence as many educators choose not to report incidents of school violence to their principals or the police for a corpus of reasons such as perceived triviality, protection of children, fear of reporting, and protection of the school's image.

Participants

The Universum consisted of teachers at ECCE centers as well as primary and secondary schools throughout the Caribbean and included educators from Government, Government assisted, denominational, and privately funded institution of learning. The methodological approach involved a simple random distribution of self-administered survey questionnaires to teachers throughout the Caribbean. Teachers from Trinidad and Tobago, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Barbados, and St. Lucia contributed to the study. The countries that were chosen for the study represent a mixture of industrialized, developed, and developing countries in the Caribbean. The selection of the countries therefore mirrors the position of Akiba et al. (2002) who point out that there is an existing need for applicable research on school violence that is neither narrow nor limited in terms of country size and level of development. Additionally, within recent times, there have been calls in academia for new [and possibly novel] forms of research that more directly contribute to policy formulation and that are more problem-solving in orientation (Howard 2008; Banks, 2009 as cited in McArthur and Winkworth 2013) as well as for research which aims to directly influence change. With this in mind, the current effort was designed to answer the calls by Howard (2008) and Banks (2009) as cited in McArthur and Winkworth (2013) for research that contributes to policy formulation and is problem-solving in orientation. The current effort also answers the calls made by Elliott et al. (1998) (as cited in Agnich 2011) for cross-national studies on school violence and by Akiba et al. (2002) for research on school violence that is neither narrow nor limited in terms of country size and level of development

Instrument

Benbenishty and Astor (2008) point out that "studies of school violence face basic issues of definitions and connotations" (71) as there are many definitions of the term school violence and that these definitions connote different meanings. In light of the postulation by Benbenishty and Astor (2008),

the researchers created a survey instrument that contained questions on specific behaviors while refraining as much as possible from using abstract labels (such as bullying) that have different meanings and connotations in different countries (Benbenishty and Astor 2008). Additionally, while there were already instruments in the international arena measuring teachers knowledge of school violence (see, for example, Questionnaire to Teachers by Mena (2001) and Teachers' Reactions to School Violence Scale by Ting, Sanders, and Smith (2002)), cultural nuances of the Caribbean as well as the region's uniqueness (many islands with a definitional conundrum on school violence) intersected and demanded the creation of an instrument that was best suited for the reality of a Caribbean-based study.

Upon construction, the instrument used in the study was checked for validity and reliability by a University lecturer specializing in quantitative research methods. The standardized questionnaire was tested for reliability by way of Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is used in Social Sciences research as a measure of internal consistency aimed at determining the extent to which items measure the same attribute (Huysamen 1993, 125). The questionnaire was subject to a pilot test on a small sample of ECCE, primary and high school teachers ($n = 20$) in Trinidad who did not form part of the eventual sample. The pilot test was aimed at garnering teacher input and to test for reliability and content validity prior to distribution. After pilot testing the questionnaire, minor changes were made to the instrument to ensure greater clarity for the sample respondents, and the instrument rechecked for validity and reliability before distribution to the respondents. Test-retest reliability for the survey items was at 0.81, and the internal consistency reliability of the final instrument as assessed by Cronbach's alpha was 0.73, a commonly accepted standard for reliability. The level of significance was selected to be at 0.05.

To determine validity of the instrument, the questionnaire was structured so that similar questions were grouped together and easier questions were placed before more difficult ones. Furthermore, the questions were drafted in a manner that was coherent, easily comprehensible, well-directed, and clearly articulated. To ensure validity of the garnered responses, the research assistants who distributed the questionnaires explained the study's purpose and the value of providing truthful responses to the participant teachers. Though limited by a small population size, the study's design was therefore rigorous in terms of content reliability and validity.

The research was structured around 20 basic questions that shaped the questionnaire. The final variant of the questionnaire consisted of two sections. Section 1 of the structured questionnaire provided biographical details of the respondents. In Section 2, close-ended questions were asked about the respondents as witnesses to violence at their school, experiences/knowledge of violence at other schools, weapons used for the commission of violent acts, as well as the frequency of these acts. Section 2 also contained open-ended questions that attempted to

obtain qualitative data on respondents' experiences and/or observations of school violence. The respondents were also asked to proffer recommendations to alleviate school violence in the Caribbean. Section 2 of the questionnaire employed a five-point Likert scale that utilized answers such as "Strongly disagree," "Disagree," "Neither agree nor disagree," "Agree," and "Strongly agree." The participants took approximately 25 min to complete the questionnaire. Generally, the questions sought to determine the nature of violence at schools and the types of weapons used in the commission of violent act(s). The instrument therefore sought to elicit answers from the respondents based on the following:

- Weapon-related violence, including the possession and use of a range of weapons, such as knives and guns;
- Physical violence, both moderate physical violence, such as pushing, spitting, and shoving, and more severe types of physical violence such as serious beating;
- Violence of a sexual nature, including verbal harassment and physical forms of unwanted sexual behaviors;
- Verbal abuse, such as calling names and emotional ridicule;
- Indirect forms of violence, including taxing (extortion); and
- Property-related, including vandalism, theft, and damages to students and staff property.

Procedures

The study was approved by The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, and the educator respondents for the study were randomly chosen by research assistants assigned to each island using accepted Social Sciences methodological frameworks for random sampling as espoused by Creswell (2013, 2015). Standardized self-administered paper questionnaires were utilized rather than in-person face-to-face or telephone interviews. The self-administered questionnaire approach was employed based on the desire to offset weaknesses associated with the "social desirability bias" when collecting data in person or by telephone. Social desirability bias occurs when survey respondents falsely report a favorable state of affairs and data collected in person or by telephone have generally been found to be more strongly influenced by social desirability than data from self-administered questionnaires (Tourangeau and Yan 2007).

Collectively, 300 questionnaires were randomly distributed to teachers in Barbados, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago. The questionnaires were hand delivered to the respondents with a consent form attached. The respondents were then informed of the aims and objectives of the research, the voluntary nature of the study, confidentiality, anonymity, return

procedures, and the need to provide correct answers. One hundred and thirty questionnaires were returned to the primary researchers, however, after the data were cleaned, 10 questionnaires were omitted because of a significant quantum of missing data. One hundred and twenty questionnaires (n=120) were usable and the final response rate was 40%. The questionnaire produced both quantitative and qualitative data, which were analyzed for this research paper. The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) (version 17.0) was used to analyze the data and to ensure that the data emanating from the dataset had real-world application. Content analysis of the qualitative data was conducted on the open-ended questions to complement the quantitative data analysis. Results are presented in terms of percentages and frequencies.

RESULTS

The results will be discussed on a country-by-country basis in this section and later, comparatively. Overall, 25% of the respondents were male and 75% were female. ECCE teachers represented 5% of the respondents; primary school teachers represented 30% of the sample, and 65% were teachers at secondary schools. Collectively, the average age of the respondents was 43 years and 9 months, and the average length of time in the teaching profession was 25 years and 6 months. Fifty-three respondents were teachers based in Trinidad and Tobago, 17 from St. Vincent and the Grenadines, 30 were based in Barbados, and 20 were based in St. Lucia.

As it relates to Barbados, 40% of the respondent teachers were aware of violence at school where they teach, while 20% were aware of violence at other schools. Interestingly, 40% of the respondents were victims of school violence in the past and 40% had personally witnessed incidents of school violence. Fifty percent of the teachers who responded from Barbados were of the view that there are negative implications resulting from school violence such as school dropout and teacher migration, while 60% disagreed with the notion that school violence was perpetrated by male students. Regarding, the nature of school violence, the results for Barbados indicated that almost 90% of the acts of school violence by students that teachers had personally witnessed involved the use of feet, fists, and chairs. The results also indicated that for teachers in Barbados, 50% had witnessed three to four acts of school violence every month, 25% had witnessed one to two acts of school violence every month, and 25% had witnessed five or more acts of school violence on a monthly basis.

In St. Vincent and the Grenadines, 66% of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire were aware of violence at school where they teach, while 34% were aware of violence at other schools. Twelve percent of the respondents were victims of school violence in the past and 75% had personally witnessed incidents of school violence. There was unanimity among Vincentian teachers regarding the

notion that school violence is the domain of male students and was perpetrated by them as 100% of the respondents, indicating that female are increasingly becoming involved in incidents of school violence. Sixty percent of the teachers were of the view that there are negative implications resulting from school violence in the island. Regarding, the character of school violence, the results for St. Vincent and the Grenadines indicated that almost 97% of the acts of school violence by students that teachers had personally witnessed involved the use of feet, fists, bottles, knives, and chairs, while 3% involved the use of a firearm. The results also indicated that for teachers in St. Vincent and the Grenadines, 48% had witnessed —one to two acts of school violence every month, 16% had witnessed —three to four acts, and 36% had witnessed five or more acts of school violence on a monthly basis.

For teachers in St. Lucia, 13% of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire were aware of violence at school where they teach, while 87% were aware of violence at other schools. Thirteen percent of the respondents were victims of school violence in the past and 14% had personally witnessed incidents of school violence. Eighty-seven percent of St. Lucian respondents did not believe that male students were the initiators of school violence, while 75% were of the view that there are negative implications resulting from school violence in the island. Regarding, the characteristics of school violence, the results for St. Lucia indicated that almost all acts of school violence by students which the respondents had personally witnessed involved the use of fists, feet, bottles, knives, and chairs. The results also indicated that for teachers in the island, 50% had witnessed —three to four acts of school violence and the other 50% had witnessed five or more acts of school violence on a monthly basis.

For Trinidad and Tobago, approximately 71% of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire were aware of violence at school where they teach, while 29% were aware of violence at other schools. Interestingly, 39% of the respondents were victims of school violence in the past and 73% had personally witnessed incidents of school violence. Thirty-one percent of the teachers were of the view that school violence was perpetrated by male students, while 90% agreed that there are negative implications as a result of school violence. Regarding, the character of school violence, the results for Trinidad and Tobago indicated that almost 80% of the acts of school violence by students which these teachers had personally witnessed involved the use of feet, fists, knives, cutlasses, and chairs, while 17% involved the use of stones, razor blades, belts, rope, bottles, and pencils as weapons of choice. Interestingly, 3% of violent acts conducted at schools in Trinidad and Tobago involved the use of a firearm. The results also indicated that for teachers in the island, 43% had witnessed one to two acts of school violence every month, 16% had witnessed three to four acts of school violence every month, and 41% had witnessed five or more acts of school violence on a monthly basis. Table 1 (below) indicates the monthly frequency of acts of school violence as viewed by teachers on a country-by-country basis.

Table 1: Frequency of occurrence of school violence as viewed by teachers by country

Country	% of teachers viewing violent acts per month (1–2 violent acts)	% of teachers viewing violent acts per month (3–4 violent acts)	% of teachers viewing violent acts per month (5+ violent acts)	Total %
Barbados	50%	25%	25%	100
St. Lucia	0%	50%	50%	100
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	48%	16%	36%	100
Trinidad and Tobago	43%	16 %	41%	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2015.

An important finding which also emanated from the dataset was an almost unanimous view proffered by 89% of the Caribbean educators was that children as young as 5 years old were involved in acts of school violence. Instructively, 89% of all respondents indicated that there was a concentration of violence at schools perpetrated by students aged 11–15. Another key finding emanating from the dataset was that female students are becoming increasingly involved in acts of school violence and are increasingly recording the acts via cameras on mobile phones and placing them on social media sites. In the following paragraphs, an analysis of the results will be conducted and this discussion will include a comparative analysis of the findings for the different countries.

DISCUSSION

Every year, teachers in the Caribbean witness acts of school violence and are threatened or injured with a weapon while they are on school property or on their way to school. The data emanating from the current effort clearly demonstrate the characteristics of violence at school in the countries under inquiry. Importantly, the data also provide an important measure of the nature of safety and security of Caribbean schools and how past perceptions of school safety may be skewed. The data on the nature of school violence in the region was interesting and fairly consistent. For example, the data indicated that collectively approximately 38% of the respondents witnessed five or more acts of school violence per month, 33% witnessed three to four acts of school violence per month, and 29% witnessed one to two acts of school violence per month (see Table 1). Collectively, the respondents proffered the view that fists, feet, bottles, knives, and chairs were the instrument of choice used to commit violent acts at schools in the countries under inquiry. This category ranged from 80% in Trinidad and Tobago to 90% in

Barbados, and 97% and 100% in St. Vincent and the Grenadines and St. Lucia, respectively (see Table 2 below).

Educator respondents from St. Lucia indicated that one to two violent acts per month at their schools was a rarity, while Barbadian teachers recorded the highest instances of one to two reports of violent acts at their school on a monthly basis (50%). Barring St. Lucia, the data in this category were fairly consistent (St. Vincent and the Grenadines and Trinidad and Tobago recorded 48% and 43%, respectively). A perhaps surprising finding emanating from the data was that teachers in St. Vincent and the Grenadines and Trinidad and Tobago indicated that a firearm was used in 3% of violent acts committed at their schools. While the aforementioned finding can be attributed to the level of development in Trinidad and Tobago, the authors of this paper were at a loss to explain this occurrence (even by conjecture) in St. Vincent and the Grenadines as the island is one of the smallest in the Caribbean and relatively underdeveloped. This finding indicates that for those teachers experiencing the use of a firearm as a part of school violence, their safety appears to be under threat as deadly weapons are now finding their way into some Caribbean schools. Generally, however, the use of firearms was not witnessed by a great majority of educator respondents in the other islands. Finally, data analyses indicated that children as young as 5 years old were involved in school violence; however, there was a concentration of violence at schools perpetrated by students aged 11–15.

Table 2: Instrument used in school violence as viewed by teachers (country by country)

Country	Instrument by % used to commit school violence
Barbados	Feet, fists, and chairs (90%), others—knives, bottles (10%).
St. Lucia	Fists, feet, bottles, knives, and chairs (100%).
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	Feet, fists, bottles, knives, and chairs (97%), firearms (3%).
Trinidad and Tobago	Feet, fists, knives, cutlasses, and chairs (80%), stones, razor blades, belts, rope, bottles, and pencils (17%), firearms (3%).

Source: Fieldwork, 2015.

Based on the research findings which indicated that female students were becoming increasingly involved in acts of school violence, it can be theorized that the phalanxes of school violence are not the exclusive domain of male students. This viewpoint was substantiated by the statement of a principal at a secondary school in Barbados who submitted that the levels of violence among the girls and

the number of fights that they were being involved in were becoming increasingly high (see Best 2005). Furthermore, UNICEF (2005) reporting on school violence in the Caribbean noted that while boys were regarded, as tending to be more violent than girls, the forums' delegates nonetheless felt that an increase in violence among girls is apparent (5) (see Zahn et al. 2010 for support on the increasing nature of violence at schools conducted by girls).

REDUCING SCHOOL VIOLENCE IN THE CARIBBEAN

It should be noted that educators who are exposed to violence at school on a consistent basis may suffer from stress, burnout, and demotivation, and may seek to migrate from such schools or out of the teaching profession altogether. With this in mind, the findings emanating from the current effort can be utilized as a platform for the reduction of school violence as well as a forum to create and implement policies to assist students, staff, and educators who are exposed to this violence. For example, based on the findings of the study which indicated that knives, bottles, and firearms are used to commit violent acts on school compounds, enhanced screening of students, patrols, and/or perimeter checks can be implemented.

Instructively, violence at school is based on a number of complex factors, and therefore, its prevention and reduction should be based on a multi-pronged approach. One such approach emanates from Walker and Shinn (2002) who posit the usage of primary prevention strategies, secondary intervention strategies, and tertiary strategies. Teachers can also be exposed to greater training in violence reduction techniques that will afford them the knowledge to set and implement classroom and school rules as well as modeling and rewarding positive behaviors aimed at improving student behavior. As teachers are pivotal in reducing the incidence of school violence, Caribbean educators can implement social/behavioral programs (such as violence prevention and anti-bullying) to provide students with clear expectations and appropriate social and behavioral skills for anger management, resolution of disputes, and to improve the classroom environment (Henry et al. 2000). At the level of the institution, schools in the Caribbean can also design comprehensive, integrated, multi-tiered models of violence prevention that promote academic and social success through clear expectations for behavior (Lane, Oakes, and Menzies 2010).

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In deciding on this course of study, it was quite evident that regionally and globally numerous studies are in existence on school violence (see Debarbieux and Blaya 2001; Smith 2003; U.S. Department of Justice 2005; Phillips 2009; Lall

2013; Williams 2013). Many of those researches focused on the causes, prevalence, and possible reasons for school violence; however, not much is known about the characteristics of school violence when viewed through the lens of Caribbean educators. Indeed, while scientific assessments on the causes, prevalence, and impacts are adequate, there was a need to stimulate analytical and fact-based discussions on the characteristics of violence at schools in the region. It was therefore crucial to address this under-researched area of school violence in the context of future Caribbean societies as a lack of understanding of the nature of violence at schools may create socially toxic individuals, socially toxic school environments, and socially toxic communities where the schools are located.

Findings from the study revealed the characteristics of school violence in the Caribbean. This exposition can greatly assist all stakeholders and persons in academia to understand the nature of the problem they currently face. The current effort also provides useful information to legislators and policymakers throughout the region in their quest to create contemporary policies and procedures to deal with school violence. The study may also encourage other researchers to conduct testing in this hitherto under-researched area and so provide a greater body of data which may serve to reduce the incidence of school violence in the Caribbean region. The current effort is also relevant as it contributes to the scholarly literature in a number of ways. First, this exploratory study allowed for the gathering of data on the characteristics of school violence in the region in a cross-national manner which allowed for important comparative analyses to be conducted. Second, it allowed for the gaining of more insights into the typology of weapons used by school students in the execution of school-based violence. Third, the study gives voice to usually voiceless teachers in the region in the context of their experiences with violence at school and places the region in a better place to assist with the problem. Fourth, the study allows for the formulation and implementation of policies, for example, on pre-training of teachers on handling school-based violence in the region. Fifth, it is necessary to have a deeper understanding of teacher experiences with violence at school in order to facilitate their support as well as to develop and implement contemporary educational policies. Finally, though affected by limitations, the study is of practical and theoretical importance and relevance as it compensates for the existing lacunae in knowledge on the characteristics of school-based violence from the perspective of Caribbean educators.

LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There are limitations of the current study. Not every teacher responded to the survey and as the sample population was relatively small ($n=120$), the results may be skewed and conclusions should be made about the thoughts of every teacher. Furthermore, respondents for this study were limited to four countries in the Caribbean and educators in other islands were not surveyed. While the random

sampling method that was used in this study serves to enhance generalization, some commentators may argue that the results of this study are significant only to the population studied due to the small sample size. Another limitation of the study is that the survey questionnaires were not distributed to a major group involved in school violence, school children. As such, the voice of Caribbean school children regarding the characteristics of violence at schools remains silent in this discourse. This omission was due to the ethical consideration of not interviewing school children in the absence of their parents or guardians based on existing policies and directives from Caribbean Departments of Education regarding the interviewing of their students. In spite of the study's limitation, the response rate of 40% represents a meaningful compilation of the opinions of teachers in the sample. Additionally, the study is very useful as it adds to the existing body of knowledge on the subject area from the perspective of the character of school violence. Furthermore, the study findings serve to enhance our understanding of the character and typology of violence at schools in the Caribbean as viewed through the lens of teachers.

While the study's methodology is consistent with existing research, it may be beneficial for future research to utilize other methods to address the limitations which were identified as the nuances of this study suggest further research possibilities. An area for further research consideration which emanated from the study is the apparent paucity of male teachers at schools in the region as evidenced by the number of male respondents which was appreciably lower than that of female respondents (male respondents = 25% and female respondents = 75%). While this might have been a function of response bias, it is certainly worth further investigation. It is suggested by the authors of this paper that the dynamics of masculinity in the teaching/learning environment might be a contributory factor to the characteristics of school violence throughout the Caribbean. Additionally, the study can be replicated and follow-up activities conducted with school children throughout the region. Personal interviews and focus group discussions to supplement survey questionnaires may be extremely beneficial in acquiring a richer body of contextual data on the nature of violence at schools in the Caribbean. With the aforementioned in mind, there is a need to garner the views of a greater number of Caribbean educators via the use of a greater variety of questions dealing with the issue of violence at schools in the region. It is recommended that a more representative random sample of teachers in the Caribbean be conducted as a follow-up to this study to enhance or debunk the findings from this study.

IMPLICATIONS OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE FOR THE CARIBBEAN EDUCATORS AND STUDENTS

The literature on school violence points out that there are negative implications of school violence for all involved. For example, school violence represents a violation of the rights of a child and also acts as a significant barrier

to the achievement of international goals, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Education for All (EFA) objectives. School violence also has serious implications in terms of academic performance as well as negatively affecting attendance at school (see National Association of School Nurses 2012). Violence at schools also has the propensity to negatively affect to the development of nations, destroys the basic education system of the country (Rulloda 2011), creates an environment of insecurity at school, and may threaten the wider society. Additionally, violence at school may hamper children's life and create severe concern between parents, teachers, and the school, create negative psychological impacts, and may adversely impact studies (de Wet 2007, 673). Importantly, teachers may consider leaving the profession since their lives and properties may no longer be guaranteed.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

There have been calls from parents, teachers, and even students for Caribbean Parliaments to reinstate corporal punishment in schools as there is a perception and perhaps even circumstantial evidence that the malady of school violence has exponentially increasing throughout the Caribbean as a result of the abolition of corporal punishment. Indeed, there are numerous policy implications for the Caribbean as a result of the evidence emanating from the data. Local legislators, educators, parents, students, school safety officers, and even police officers should now be involved in the context of the threat assessment planning and policy development processes for schools in the Caribbean.

Caribbean countries must also seek to contemporize their respective Education Acts by making more stringent and up to date rules for dealing with this growing scourge of school violence. Furthermore, these new rules/policies, etc., must be well documented, so that they are well known to all actors in the education arena. Jeffrey (2004) surmised that there must be in place a comprehensive manual on discipline in schools and this should be used to encourage good practice and nip incipient, negative behavior in the bud. There must also be an education drive aimed at providing awareness as well as educating the public and school officials, teachers, students, parents, and community members on the deleterious effects of school violence.

CONCLUSION

In summary, the study could be regarded as a preliminary attempt to investigate educator experiences with school violence in the Caribbean and the typology of weapons used to perpetuate these violent acts. The study revealed a wide range of violent acts at Caribbean schools which were manifested by the

use of a range of weapons. If left unchecked, this has the potential to blossom into epidemic proportions that can affect the basic underpinning of education in the region. With this in mind, the relevant stakeholders have a responsibility to ensure that school violence does not attain epidemic proportions or become an arduous enigma in the Caribbean. This can be achieved by greater societal and research efforts toward better understanding the characteristics of school violence in the Caribbean. Importantly, as a result of the exploratory nature of the current effort as well as the study's limitations, further research of a similar nature is needed in order to broaden the generalizability of the findings from this study. Further research is also needed to determine whether the characteristics of school violence that were identified in this study are mediated by location (i.e., different island), school type (private or government), school level, and/or years of teaching experience. In spite of the exploratory nature of the study and its limitations, the current effort has much importance to the Caribbean as it provides the opportunity to hear the previously unheard voices of educators in the region as it relates to the characteristics and frequency of school violence in the region. The current effort is also important as the findings allow for vital cross-national comparisons of the characteristics of school violence to be made across the region.

REFERENCES

- Agnich, Laura E. 2011. "A Cross-National Study of School Violence." Unpublished dissertation. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.
- Akiba, Motoko, Gerald K. LeTendre, David P. Baker, and Brian Goesling. 2002. "Student Victimization: National and School Systems Effects on School Violence in 37 Nations." *American Educational Research Journal* 39 (4): 829–853.
- Altun, Sadegül Akbaba, and Özgür Erdur Baker. 2010. "School Violence: A Qualitative Study." *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* 2: 3165–3169.
- Alzyoud, Mohammad Sayel, Ali Salem Al-Ali, and Atif O. Bin Tareef. 2016. "Violence Against Teachers in Jordanian Schools." *European Scientific Journal* 12 (10): 223–239.
- American Psychological Association. 2011. *Understanding and Preventing Violence Directed Against Teachers: Recommendations for a National Research, Practice and Policy Agenda*. American Psychological Association Board of Educational Affairs Task Force on Classroom Violence Directed Against Teachers, 1–43.
- Antonowicz, Laetitia. 2010. *Too Often in Silence: A Report on School-Based Violence in West and Central Africa*. Senegal: UNICEF.
- Baker-Henningham, Helen, Susan P. Walker, C. Powell, and Julie Meeks Gardner. 2009. "Preventing Behaviour Problems Through a Universal Intervention in

- Jamaican Basic Schools: A Pilot Study.” *West Indian Medical Journal* 58 (5): 460–464.
- Benbenishty, Rami, and Ron Avi Astor. 2008. “School Violence in an International Context: A Call for Global Collaboration in Research and Prevention.” *International Journal of Violence and School* 7: 59–80.
- Best, R. 2005. “Best on Tuesday—Violence Among Girls.” *The Nation Newspaper*, June 14. <http://www.nationnews.com>
- Bester, Suzanne, and Alfred Haupt du Plessis. 2010. “Exploring a Secondary School Educator’s Experiences of School Violence: A Case Study.” *South African Journal of Education* 30: 203–229.
- Binns, K., and D. Markow. 1999. *The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher 1999, Violence in America’s Public Schools Five Years Later: A Survey of Students, Teachers and Law Enforcement Officials*. New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.
- Carter, Richard. 2005. *Report on Violence in Schools and Community Survey*. Barbados: Ministry of Education.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. n.d. *School Violence: Data & Statistics*. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Injury Prevention & Control: Division of Violence Prevention.
- Chen, J. K., and Ron Avi Astor. 2009. “Students’ Reports of Violence Against Teachers in Taiwanese Schools.” *Journal of School Violence* 8 (1): 2–17.
- Chevannes, Paulette. 2004. *Preliminary Study on Violence in Caribbean Schools*. Report to UNESCO.
- Creswell, John W. 2013. *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches*. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, John W. 2015. *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*. 5th ed. Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Crick, N. R., and M. A. Bigbee. 1998. “Relational and Overt Forms of Peer Victimization: A Multi-Informant Approach.” *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 66 (2): 337–347.
- Daniels, Jeffrey A., Mary C. Bradley, and Mary Hays. 2007. “The Impact of School Violence on School Personnel: Implications for Psychologists.” *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice* 38 (6): 652–659.
- Debarbieux, Eric, and Catherine Blaya. 2001. *Violences à l’école et politiques publiques*. Paris: ESF.

- Deosaran, Ramesh. 2003. "Key Regional Issues in Crime and Justice: The Caribbean." Position Paper presented to Meeting of Experts sponsored by the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute, Turin, Italy, June 26–28, 1–9.
- de Wet, Corene. 2007. "School Violence in Lesotho: The Perceptions, Experiences and Observations of a Group of Learners." *South African Journal of Education* 27: 673–689.
- Down, Lorna, C. Lambert, Ceva McPherson-Kerr, and R. P. Solomon. 2007. "Transforming the Culture of Violence in Jamaican Schools: Innovative Intervention Model." In *The Enterprise of Education: A Volume in Research on Education in Africa, the Caribbean and the Middle East, Book IV*, 1–366, edited by Cynthia Syzmanski Sunal and Kagendo Mutua, 231–250.
- Du Plessis, Alfred Haupt. 2008. "Exploring Secondary School Educator Experiences of School Violence." Unpublished MEd diss. Pretoria, South Africa: University of Pretoria.
- Effendi, K., and Brandon Hamber. 1999. "Publish or Perish: Disseminating Your Research Findings." In *Research in Practice: Applied Methods for the Social Sciences*, edited by M. Terre Blanche and K. Durrheim. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.
- Estévez, Estefanía, Teresa Isabel Jiménez, and Gonzalo Musitu. 2008. "Violence and Victimization at School in Adolescence." In *School Psychology*, edited by David H. Molina. Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Fisher, Kathleen, and Paul Kettl. 2003. "Teachers' Perceptions of School Violence." *Journal of Pediatric Health Care* 17: 79–83.
- Furlong, Michael, and Gale Morrison. 2000. "The School in School Violence: Definitions and Facts." *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders* 8: 71–82.
- Galand, Benoît, Catherine Lecocq, and Pierre Philippot. 2007. "School Violence and Teacher Professional Disengagement." *British Journal of Educational Psychology* 77: 465–477.
- Gardner, Julie Meeks, Christine A. Powell, Joan A. Thomas, and Doreen Millard. 2003. "Perceptions and Experiences of Violence Among Secondary School Students in Urban Jamaica." *Pan American Journal of Public Health* 14 (2): 97–103.
- Geissler, Kristi Lynn. 2015. "The Relationship Between Teacher Training, Perceptions of School Violence, and Burnout." *CUNY Academic Works*. http://academicworks.cuny.edu/gc_etds/560
- Gomes, Candido Alberto, and Marlene Monteiro Pereira. 2009. "Teacher Education

- in Face of Violence from/at Schools.” *Cadernos de Pesquisa* 39 (136): 201–224.
- Henry, Stuart. 2000. “What Is School Violence?: An Integrated Definition.” *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 56: 16–29.
- Henry, David B., Nancy G. Guerra, R. L. Huesmann, Patrick H. Tolan, Richard Van Acker, and Leonard D. Eron. 2000. “Normative Influences on Aggression in Urban Elementary School Classrooms.” *American Journal of Community Psychology* 28: 59–81.
- Howard, L. M. 2008. *UN Peacekeeping in Civil Wars*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Huysamen, G. K. 1993. *Metodologie vir die sosiale en gedragswetenskappe*. Halfweghuis: Southern Boekuitgewers (Edms) Bpk.
- James, F., Dianne Phillip-Williams, Lynn Keith, and Kimberly Glasgow-Charles. 2014. “The Impact of School Violence on Secondary Victims in Selected Secondary Schools in Trinidad and Tobago.” *Caribbean Journal of Education* 36 (1&2): 122–150.
- Jeffrey, H. 2004. “11th Meeting of the Council for Human and Social Development (COHSOD).” Le Meridien Pegasus Hotel. Georgetown, Guyana, October 28–29.
- Johnson, S. L. 2009. “Improving the School Environment to Reduce School Violence: A Review of the Literature.” *Journal of School Health* 79 (10): 451–465.
- Lall, Vidya. 2007. “Bullying, Victimization, and Delinquency in Primary Schools in Trinidad and Tobago: Some Preliminary Results.” *Caribbean Journal of Criminology and Social Psychology* 12: 155–176.
- Lall, Vidya. 2013. “School Victimization and Bullying in the Caribbean.” Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Society of Criminology (ASC), December 16. http://citation.allacademic.com/meta/p127391_index.html
- Lane, Kathleen Lynne, W. P. Oakes, and Holly Mariah Menzies. 2010. “Systematic Screenings to Prevent the Development of Learning and Behavior Problems: Considerations for Practitioners, Researchers, and Policy Makers.” *Journal of Disabilities Policy Studies* 21: 160–172.
- Loeber, R., and M. Stouthamer-Loeber. 1998. *Juvenile Aggression at Home and at School*. In *Violence in American Schools: A New Perspective*, edited by Delbert S. Elliott, Beatrix A. Hamburg, and Kirk R. Williams. Cambridge University Press.
- Lyon, D. R., and K. S. Douglas. 1999. *Violence Against British Columbia Teachers*. Vancouver, Canada: Simon Fraser University, Mental Health, Law, and Policy Institute.

- Masitsa, M. G. 2011. "Exploring Safety in Township Secondary Schools in the Free State Province." *South African Journal of Education* 31: 163–174.
- McArthur, Morag, and Gail Winkworth. 2013. "Powerful Evidence: Changing Policy and Practice Through Research." *Developing Practice: The Child, Youth and Family Work Journal* 35: 41–53.
- Meeks-Gardner, Julie, Aldrie Henry-Lee, Paulette Chevannes, Joan Thomas, Helen Henningham, and Charlene Coore. 2006. "Violence Against Children in the Caribbean: A Desk Review. Promoting Child Rights." In *Selected Proceedings of the Caribbean Child Research Conference 2006*, edited by Aldrie Henry-Lee and Julie Meeks Gardner. The Sir Arthur Lewis Institute of Social and Economic Studies, University of the West Indies, Mona, Kingston 7, Jamaica.
- Mena, M. I. 2001. *Methodology for Values Education in the Context of Cross-Curricula Objectives of Educational Reform*. Proyecto FONDEF 2001/D0111040. Santiago. Escuela de Psicología de la Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile y Programa Interdisciplinario de Investigaciones en Educación.
- Mezzalira, Adinete Sousa da Costa, and Raquel Souza Lobo Guzzo. 2015. "The Educator and Violent Situations Experience by Student: Coping Strategies." *Estudos de Psicologia (Campinas)* 32 (1): 37–47.
- Miller, T. W., and R. F. Kraus. 2008. "School-Related Violence: Definition, Scope, and Prevention Goals." In *School Violence and Primary Prevention*, edited by T. W. Miller, 15–24. New York, NY: Springer Science and Business Media.
- National Association of School Nurses. 2012. "School Violence, Role of the School Nurse in Prevention." *Issue Brief*. Silver Spring, MD.
- Patton, M. Q. 2002. *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*. 3rd ed. CA: Sage.
- Phillips, Daphne. 2009. "The Political Economy of School Violence in Trinidad: Towards a Caribbean Theory of Youth Crime." In *Crisis, Politics and Critical Sociology*, edited by Graham Cassano and Richard Alan Dello Buono, 197–224.
- Robers, S., A. Zhang, R. E. Morgan, and L. Musu-Gillette. 2015. *Indicators of School Crime and Safety: 2014* (NCES 2015-072/NCJ 248036). National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, and Bureau of Justice Statistics, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice. Washington, DC.
- Rulloda, R. B. 2011. *Preventing School Violence*, 1–22. <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED519995.pdf>
- Rundell, M., and G. Fox. 2002. *MacMillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners, International Student Edition*. Oxford: A&C Black Publishers Ltd.

- Ryan, Selwyn, Indira Rampersad, Lennox Bernard, Patricia Mohammed, and Marjorie Thorpe. 2013. *No Time to Quit: Engaging Youth at Risk*. Executive Report of the Committee on Young Males and Crime in Trinidad and Tobago.
- Schwandt, T. A. 2007. *The SAGE Dictionary of Qualitative Inquiry*. 3rd ed. London: Sage.
- Sela-Shayovitz, Revital. 2009. "Dealing with School Violence: The Effect of School Violence Prevention Training on Teachers' Perceived Self-Efficacy in Dealing with Violent Events." *Teaching and Teacher Education* 25: 1061–1066.
- Smith, P. K. 2003. "Violence in Schools: An Overview." In *Violence in Schools. The Response in Europe*, edited by P. K. Smith, 1–14. London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Stoudt, B. G. 2006. "You're Either in or You're Out: School Violence, Peer Discipline, and the (Re)production of Hegemonic Masculinity." *Men and Masculinities* 8 (3): 273–287.
- Ting, Laura, Sara Sanders, and Pamela L. Smith. 2002. "The Teachers' Reactions to School Violence Scale: Psychometric Properties and Scale Development." *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 62 (6): 1006–1019.
- Tourangeau, Roger, and Ting Yan. 2007. "Sensitive Questions in Surveys." *Psychological Bulletin* 133 (5): 859–883.
- UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund). 2005. *Voices of Caribbean Youth: Report on the Youth Forum and on the Caribbean Regional Consultation on the UN Secretary General Study on Violence Against Children*. Trinidad and Tobago, March 9–11.
- United States Department of Justice. Office of Justice Programs. Bureau of Justice Statistics. 2005. *School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey*. Washington, DC: Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs.
- Vettenburg, N. 1999. *Violence in Schools: Awareness-Raising, Prevention, Penalties*. General Report. Luxembourg: Council of Europe Publications.
- VISTA (Violence in Schools Training Action). 2006. <http://www.vista-europe.org>. Accessed 25 January 2015.
- Walker, Hill M., and Mark R. Shinn. 2002. "Structuring School-Based Interventions to Achieve Integrated Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Prevention Goals for Safe and Effective Schools." In *Interventions for Academic and Behavior Problems: Preventive and Remedial Approaches*, edited by M. R. Shinn, G. Stoner, and H. M. Walker, 1–26. Silver Spring, MD: National Association of School Psychologists.
- Williams, Hakim M. A. 2013. "Postcolonial Structural Violence: A Study of School

Violence in Trinidad and Tobago.” *International Journal of Peace Studies* 18 (2): 39–64.

Wilson, Catherine M., Kevin S. Douglas, and David R. Lyon. 2011. “Violence Against Teachers: Prevalence and Consequence.” *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 26: 2353–2371.

Zahn, Margaret A., Robert Agnew, Diana Fishbein, Shari Miller, Donna-Marie Winn, Gayle Dakoff, and Meda Chesney-Lind. 2010. *Causes and Correlates of Girls’ Delinquency*. Girls study group: U.S. Department of Justice.

Zhang, Anlan, Lauren Musu-Gillette, and Barbara A. Oudekerk. 2016. *Indicators of School Crime and Safety: 2015* (NCES 2016-079/NCJ 249758). National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, and Bureau of Justice Statistics, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice. Washington, DC.