PROCEEDINGS OF PERSISTENTLY SAFE SCHOOLS

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Washington, D. C.

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SAFE SCHOOLS IN THE CONTEXT OF SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT [1]

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Introduction

Schools are confronted with a host of complicated problems, such as ensuring safety and ameliorating learning, behavior, and emotional problems. Viewed individually, such problems are challenging; together they can be overwhelming.

Given that many problems experienced by students arise from the same underlying causes, it makes sense not to consider each one separately. Indeed, various policy and practice analyses indicate that it is untenable to do so.

If schools are to be good and safe places, the agenda for school safety must be combined with other efforts to address the variety of factors that interfere with a school accomplishing its mission. And, all such efforts must be embedded in the larger agenda for school improvement. Unfortunately, this generally is not the case.

To place school safety back into proper context, four fundamental concerns must be brought to school improvement planning tables. These concerns stress the need to:

1. Expand policy – broadening policy for school improvement to fully integrate, as primary and essential, a comprehensive, multifaceted, and cohesive system for addressing barriers to learning and teaching, with school safety embedded in natural ways,
2. Reframe interventions in-classrooms and school-wide – unifying the fragmented interventions used to address barriers to learning and teaching and promote healthy development under a framework that can guide development of a comprehensive system at every school,
3. Reconceive infrastructure – reworking the operational and organizational infrastructure for a school, a family of schools, the district, and for school-family-community collaboration with a view to weaving resources together to develop a comprehensive system,
4. Rethink the implementation problem – framing the phases and tasks involved in "getting from here to there" in terms of widespread diffusion of innovations in organized settings that have well-established institutional cultures and systems.

Expanding Policy

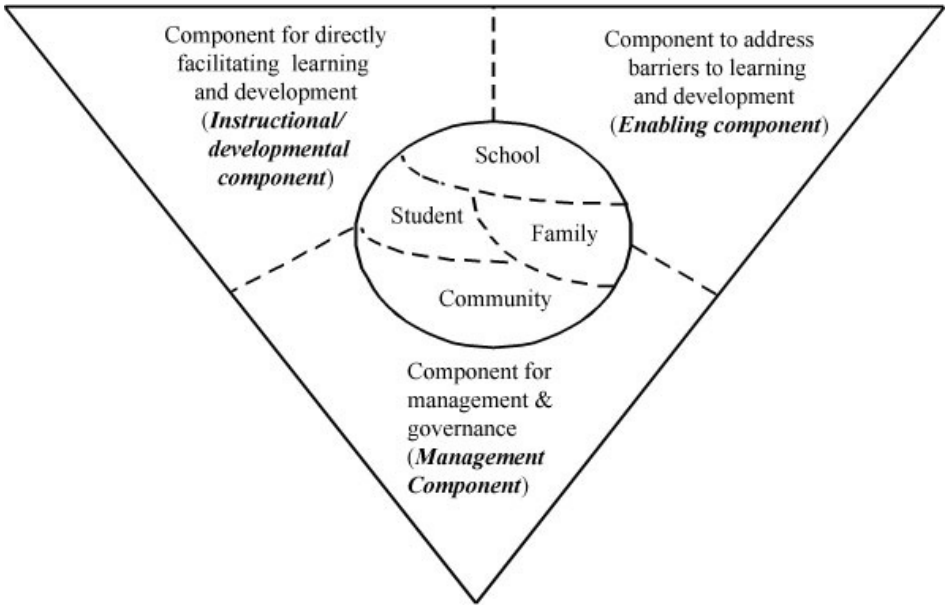
Prevailing school improvement policy marginalizes efforts to address factors that interfere with youngsters' well-being. An enhanced policy framework is needed to stress that a comprehensive component for

[1] This paper is a Preface to "Fostering School, Family, and Community Involvement" by the authors in the forthcoming series on *Effective Strategies for Creating Safer Schools and Communities*, to be published by the Hamilton Fish Institute and Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory with the support of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice.

addressing such factors is primary and essential. As illustrated in Figure 1, such an "Enabling" component complements efforts to directly facilitate learning and development by addressing both external and internal "barriers."

The intent of an Enabling component is to prevent and minimize as many interfering factors as possible and maximize engagement and re-engagement in productive learning. And, this is to be done in ways that produce a safe, healthful, nurturing environment/culture characterized by respect for differences, trust, caring, support, and high expectations.

Figure 1. A three-component framework for school improvement



Reframing Intervention

Because of the complexity of the problems confronting schools, an Enabling component (sometimes referred to as a Learning Supports component) must be comprehensive, multifaceted, and cohesive. The aim is to enable all students to have an equal opportunity to succeed at school by both addressing barriers to learning and re-engaging students in classroom instruction. It is from such a component that, over time, a safe and caring school climate emerges.

An Enabling or Learning Supports component can be framed as consisting of (1) an integrated and systemic continuum of interventions and (2) a multifaceted and cohesive set of content arenas.

An integrated and systemic continuum of interventions. A widely advocated way to outline the continuum of interventions is in terms of levels of focus. To emphasize the importance of an integrated and systemic approach, these levels can be conceived as consisting of:

- Systems for promoting healthy development and preventing problems,
- Systems for intervening early to address problems as soon after onset as is feasible, and

- Systems for assisting those with chronic and severe problems.

This continuum encompasses approaches for enabling academic, social, emotional, and physical development and addressing learning, behavior, and emotional problems and doing so in ways that yield safe and caring schools. Most schools and communities have some programs and services that fit along the entire continuum.

A multifaceted and cohesive set of content arenas. To enhance efforts across the continuum, pioneering efforts have begun to coalesce programs and services into six content arenas. In doing so, they have moved from a "laundry list" to a defined and organized way of capturing the essence of basic interventions domains. The six content arenas encompass efforts to effectively:

- Enhance regular classroom strategies to enable learning (i.e., improving instruction for students who have become disengaged from learning at school and for those with mild-moderate learning and behavior problems),
- Support transitions (i.e., assisting students and families as they negotiate school and grade changes and many other transitions),
- Increase home and school connections,
- Respond to, and where feasible, prevent crises,
- Increase community involvement and support (outreach to develop greater community involvement and support, including enhanced use of volunteers), and
- Facilitate student and family access to effective services and special assistance as needed.

Combining the continuum and the content arenas yields a guiding matrix. The continuum of interventions and the six content arenas provide a comprehensive and multifaceted intervention framework to guide and unify school improvement planning for developing an Enabling component. The resultant matrix is shown in Figure 2 (next page). This unifying framework facilitates mapping and analyzing the current scope and content of how a school, a family of schools (e.g., a feeder pattern of schools), a district, and the various levels of community address factors interfering with learning, development, and teaching.

School improvement planners need to understand the essence of such a unifying intervention framework. Ultimately, the well-being of youngsters, their families, schools, and neighborhoods depends on the development of a comprehensive, multifaceted, and cohesive system for addressing interfering factors and promoting well-being.

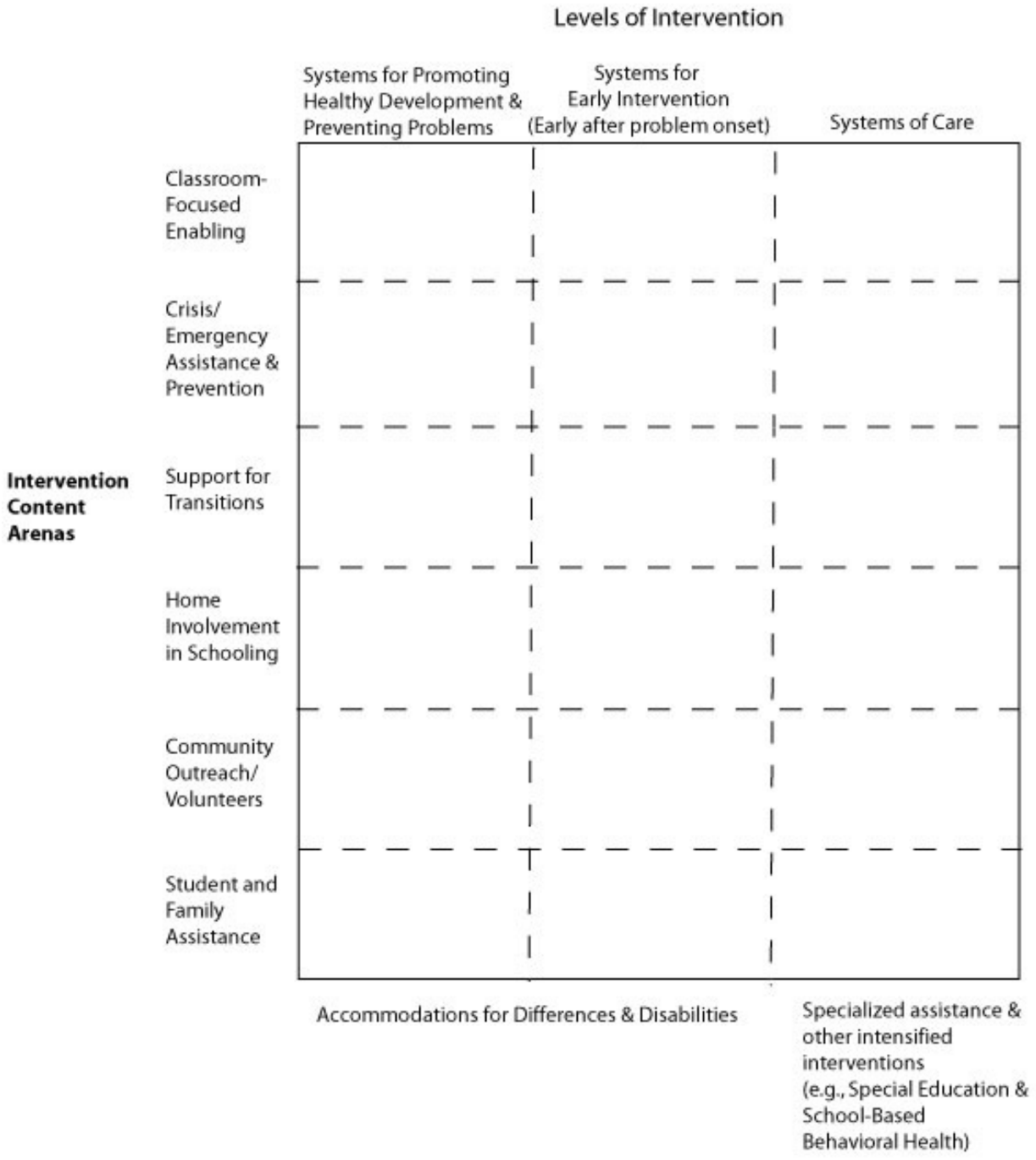
Accomplishing all this requires weaving together existing school, family, and community resources and fully integrating development of a comprehensive intervention approach into school improvement planning. It also requires rethinking infrastructure at all levels and making essential changes.

Reconceiving Infrastructure

For schools to be good, caring, and safe places, significant changes also are needed in the ways stakeholders formally connect with each other to accomplish the many tasks involved in school improvement. So, current operational and organizational infrastructure must be reworked.

Structure follows function. In organizing any infrastructure, the fundamental principle is: structure follows function. Thus, each mechanism in an infrastructure is defined by its *functions*.

Figure 2. Matrix for reviewing the nature and scope of an enabling component*



*Note that various venues, concepts, and initiatives will fit into several cells of the matrix. Examples include venues such as day care centers, preschools, family centers, and school-based health centers, concepts such as social and emotional learning and development, and initiatives such as Safe Schools/Healthy Students, positive behavior support, response to interventions, and the coordinated school health program. Most of the work of the considerable variety of personnel who provide student supports also fits into one or more cells.

Obviously, school improvement involves working with others to produce important results. This requires clear roles, responsibilities, and well-designed, institutionalized infrastructure mechanisms for performing tasks, solving problems, and mediating conflict. Major examples of functions include:

- Facilitating communication, cooperation, coordination, and integration;
- Operationalizing the vision of stakeholders into desired functions and tasks;
- Enhancing support for and developing a policy commitment to ensure necessary resources are dispensed for accomplishing desired functions;
- Advocacy, analysis, priority setting, governance, planning, implementation, and evaluation related to desired functions;
- Aggregating data from schools and neighborhood to analyze system needs;
- Mapping, analyzing, managing, redeploying, and braiding available resources to enable accomplishment of desired functions;
- Establishing leadership and institutional and operational mechanisms (e.g., infrastructure) for guiding and managing accomplishment of desired functions;
- Defining and incorporating new roles and functions into job descriptions;
- Building capacity for planning, implementing and evaluating desired functions, including ongoing stakeholder development for continuous learning and renewal and for bringing new arrivals up to speed;
- Defining standards & ensuring accountability; and
- Social marketing.

Once functions and related tasks are articulated, they become the basis for developing a differentiated infrastructure. Minimally, the need is for *effective* mechanisms to steer and do work on a regular basis (e.g., mechanisms for governance and steering, administrative and staff leadership, and carrying out essential tasks). Effective is defined in terms of potent, synergistic, and sustainable *working relationships*. With this definition in mind, steps must be taken to ensure all persons involved are provided with the training, time, support, and authority to carry out their roles and functions.

Conceiving an integrated infrastructure. Infrastructure for a comprehensive system of interventions to address barriers to learning and teaching should be designed from the school outward. That is, conceptually, the emphasis is first on what an integrated infrastructure should look like at the school level.

The need *at a school* is to rework infrastructure to support efforts to address barriers to learning in a cohesive manner and to integrate the work with efforts to facilitate instruction and promote healthy development. Key here is establishment of an administrative leader with a job description that makes her or him accountable for working with a resource-oriented work group to develop a comprehensive Enabling or Learning Supports component that is fully integrated into the school's improvement plan.

Beyond the school, the focus expands to include the mechanisms needed to connect a family or complex (e.g., feeder pattern) of schools and establish collaborations with surrounding community resources. Because schools in a locality have common concerns (e.g., for safety and well-being), they may have programmatic activity that can use the same resources. Many natural connections exist in catchment areas serving a high school and its feeder schools. For example, the same family often has children attending all levels of schooling at the same time. In addition, some school districts and agencies already pull together several geographically-related clusters to combine and integrate personnel and programs. Through coordination and sharing at this level, redundancy can be minimized and resources can be deployed equitably and pooled to reduce costs.

Ultimately, *at the district level*, the need is for administrative leadership and capacity-building support that helps maximize development of a comprehensive system for addressing barriers to learning and teaching at each school. Development of system-wide mechanisms should reflect a clear conception of how each supports local activity. Key at this level is system-wide leadership with responsibility and accountability for maintaining the vision, developing strategic plans, supporting capacity building, and ensuring coordination and integration of activity among schools, families of schools, and the entire system (including the community at large). Other functions at this level include evaluation, encompassing determination of the equity in program delivery, quality improvement reviews of all mechanisms and procedures, and review of results. It is crucial to establish the district's leadership for this work at a high enough level to ensure the administrator is always an active participant at key planning and decision-making tables.

Getting from Here to There

As Seymour Sarason stressed a long time ago:

> *Good ideas and missionary zeal are sometimes enough to change the thinking of individuals; they are rarely, if ever, effective in changing complicated organizations (like the school) with traditions, dynamics, and goals of their own* (Sarason, 1971, p. 213).

Those who set out to improve schools and schooling across a district are confronted with two enormous tasks. The first is to develop prototypes; the second involves large-scale replication. One without the other is insufficient. Yet considerably more attention is paid to developing and validating prototypes than to delineating and testing systemic change processes required for sustainability, replication, and scale-up. The frequent failure to sustain innovations and take them to scale in school districts has increased interest in understanding systemic change as a central concern in school improvement.

Efforts to make substantial and substantive school improvements that enhance safety and caring require much more than implementing a few demonstrations. Equity calls for ensuring that essential school improvements play out at schools across a district. Improved approaches are only as good as a school district's ability to develop and institutionalize them equitably in all its schools. This often is called diffusion, replication, roll out, or scale-up.

In replicating to scale, however, it is essential not to lose sight of a simple truth: If improvements don't play out effectively at a school and in the classroom, they don't mean much. Schools and classrooms must be the center and guiding force for all prototype and systemic change planning.

Planning for implementation of school improvements. Despite the nationwide emphasis on school improvement, there has been widespread failure to address how desired improvements will be accomplished. That is, we find little evidence of sophisticated strategic planning for how schools and districts intend to move from where they are to where they want to go. Little attention has been paid to the complexities of large scale diffusion. Leadership training for policy makers and education administrators has given short shrift to the topic of strategic planning that addresses scale-up processes and problems.

From the perspective of systemic change, the importance of creating an atmosphere at a school and throughout a district that encourages mutual support, caring, and a sense of community takes on added importance. New collaborative arrangements must be established, and authority (power) redistributed. Key stakeholders and their leadership must understand and commit to the changes. And, the commitment must be reflected in policy statements and creation of an organizational and operational infrastructure at all levels that ensures effective leadership and resources. For significant school improvements to occur, policy and program

commitments must be demonstrated through effective allocation and redeployment of resources. That is, finances, personnel, time, space, equipment, and other essential resources must be made available, organized, and used in ways that adequately operationalize and sustain policy and promising practices. This includes ensuring sufficient resources to develop an effective structural foundation and well-trained change agents and related capacity building.

School improvement obviously needs to begin with a clear framework and map for what changes are to be made. It should be equally obvious that there must be a clear framework and map for how to get from here to there, especially when the improvements require significant systemic change. And, in both cases, there is a need to build on the existing science-base and ensure effective leadership and adequate resources to facilitate changes and capacity building. With all this in mind, it is essential to understand what is involved in widespread diffusion of innovations in organized settings that have well-established institutional cultures and systems.

In particular, implementation and scaling-up of major school improvement efforts require *administrative leadership* and the addition of *temporary infrastructure mechanisms* to facilitate changes. Fullan stresses that what is needed is leadership that "motivates people to take on the complexities and anxieties of difficult change." We would add that such leadership also must develop a refined understanding of how to facilitate systemic change and have appropriate support. That is, reforms and major school improvements obviously require ensuring that those who operate essential mechanisms have adequate training, resources, and support, initially and over time. Moreover, there must be appropriate incentives and safeguards for individuals as they become enmeshed in the complexities of systemic change.

Strategic planning must address all four overlapping phases of systemic change that are involved in prototype implementation and eventual scale-up. These are: (1) *creating readiness* – increasing a climate/culture for change through enhancing both the motivation and the capability of a critical mass of stakeholders, (2) *initial implementation* – change is phased in using a well-designed infrastructure for providing guidance and support and building capacity, (3) *institutionalization* – accomplished by ensuring there is an infrastructure to maintain and enhance productive changes, and (4) *ongoing evolution and creative renewal* – through use of mechanisms to improve quality and provide continuing support in ways that enable stakeholders to become a community of learners who creatively pursue renewal. At any time, an organization may be involved in introducing one or more innovations at one or more sites; it may also be involved in replicating one or more prototypes on a large-scale. Whether the focus is on establishing a prototype at one site or replicating it at many, the systemic changes involve all four phases.

Needed: a systemic change infrastructure. It is rare to find situations where a well-designed systemic change infrastructure is in place. More characteristically, ad hoc mechanisms have been set in motion with personnel who have too little training and without adequate formative evaluation. It is common to find structures, such as teams and collaboratives operating without clear understanding of functions and major tasks. This, of course, defies the basic organizational principle that structure should follow function.

In general, existing infrastructure mechanisms must be modified in ways that guarantee new policy directions are translated into appropriate daily operations. Well-designed mechanisms ensure local ownership, a critical mass of committed stakeholders, processes that overcome barriers to stakeholders effectively working together, and strategies that mobilize and maintain proactive effort so that changes are implemented and there is renewal over time.

Effective and linked administrative leadership *at every level* is key to the success of any systemic change initiative in schools. Everyone needs to be aware of who is leading and is accountable for the development of the planned changes. It is imperative that such leaders be specifically trained to guide systemic change. And,

they must be sitting at key decision-making tables when budget and other fundamental decisions are discussed.

For major system changes, a systemic change infrastructure also benefits from a formal group of "champions" who agree to steer the process. Such a team provides a broad-based mechanism for guiding change. At the school level, for example, such a steering group creates a special leadership body to own the linked visions for school improvement and systemic change and to guide and support the work. Their first focus is on assuring that capacity is built to accomplish the desired systemic changes. This includes ensuring an adequate policy and leadership base for implementation. Clearly, such advocates must be well-versed with respect to what is planned, and they should be highly motivated not just to help get things underway, but to ensure sustainability.

In our work, we have stressed the value of a special change agent called an *Organization Facilitator*. This specially trained change agent was developed to ensure necessary expertise for helping schools and districts substantively implement and institutionalize a comprehensive system of learning supports. Such an individual can be used as a change agent for school improvements in one school or a group of schools. A cadre of such professionals can be used to facilitate change across an entire district.

Call to Action

Enhancing school safety is first and foremost in the hands of policy makers. If good, caring, and safe schools are to emerge from school improvement efforts, policymakers must understand the nature and scope of what is involved. They must revise policy that perpetuates narrow-focused, categorical approaches since such policy is a grossly inadequate response to the many complex factors that interfere with positive development, learning, and teaching. Current policy promotes an orientation that overemphasizes individually prescribed treatment services to the detriment of prevention programs, results in marginalized and fragmented interventions, and undervalues the human and social capital indigenous to every neighborhood. School improvement policy must be expanded to support development of a comprehensive, multifaceted, and cohesive approach to addressing barriers to learning and teaching. To do less is to make values such as *We want all children to succeed* and *No child left behind* simply rhetorical statements.

What is needed is a fundamental *transformation* of how schools, families, and communities address not only safety, but other major barriers to learning and teaching. Such a transformation is essential to reducing bullying and violence, enhancing achievement for all and closing the achievement gap, reducing dropouts, and increasing the opportunity for schools to be valued as treasures in their neighborhood.

Given the current state of school resources, the transformation must be accomplished by rethinking and redeploying how existing resources are used and by taking advantage of the natural opportunities at schools for countering learning, behavior, and emotional problems and promoting personal and social growth. Every school needs to commit to fostering staff and student resilience and creating an atmosphere that encourages mutual support, caring, and sense of community. Staff and students need to feel good about themselves if they are to cope with challenges proactively and effectively. For example, a welcoming induction and ongoing support are critical elements both in creating a positive sense of community and in facilitating staff and student school adjustment and performance. School-wide strategies for welcoming and supporting staff, students, and families at school *every day* are part of creating a safe and healthy school – one where staff, students, and families interact positively and identify with the school and its goals.

All this, of course, involves major systemic changes. Such changes require weaving school owned resources and community owned resources together over time at every school in a district and addressing the complications stemming from the scale of public education in the U.S.

The next decade must mark a turning point for how schools, families, and communities address the problems of children and youth. In particular, the focus must be on initiatives to reform and restructure how schools work to prevent and ameliorate the many problems experienced by students. There is much work to be done as public schools across the country strive to leave no child behind.

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COMMUNITY APPROACHES TO VIOLENCE PREVENTION: A UNESCO PERSPECTIVE

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Session Overview

As a follow-up to the UN World Report on Violence against Children, and within the framework of the World Programme for Human Rights Education and the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World (2001-2010), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) organized an Experts Panel meeting with the aim of strengthening the integration of school violence prevention strategies into policy and practice. This meeting provided the opportunity for experts, policy makers and practitioners to share experiences and good practice from different regions and countries. Participants explored key issues and challenges raised by, and based upon, the UN World Report with regard to violence against children in schools and educational settings.

The meeting focused primary attention on the issues of corporal punishment and the negative effects on mental health; bullying; gang violence; and gender-based exclusion and violence. The Experts Meeting culminated in policy recommendations to be considered by the United Nations Secretary General, and General Assembly. This presenter, Sherry Allen, was one of 2 US representatives to attend this meeting. This session will present the findings of the meeting and provide the opportunity to discuss the implications for school and community practice.

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POSITIVE ACTION CENTER: A NEW APPROACH TO DISCIPLINE MANAGEMENT

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Session Summary

Abstract

Behavior problems in our classrooms are the major deterrent from learning. Millions of dollars are spent each year in dealing with discipline referrals. Many times the students and the adults who work with them are at a loss as to how to change these situations. Join us as we explore Positive Action Center (PAC), a peer-to-peer mentoring program that incorporates a process that allows the situations to be examined and behaviors changed to afford both student success and classroom peace.

Positive Action Center Background Information

Positive Action Center (PAC) was originally developed as an enhancement to the nationally recognized Peers Making Peace© Peer Mediation program. The PAC program was developed and implemented because one out of every three students either drop out or flunk out of school nationally. It is has been proven that alternative education settings are often the gateway to dropping out or flunking out of school. The PAC program successfully addresses these issues and provides students with a mentor that helps them to explore new options and solutions for their current situation and for appropriately behaving in potentially negative situations in the future.

Positive Action Center Program Summary

Positive Action Center was designed to be implemented on secondary school campuses. Peers Making Peace©-trained mediators received training in the PAC mentoring program. Once trained, PAC mentors approached students in In School Suspension (ISS) and alternative education programs (AEP) and offered them the opportunity to reflect upon the situation that caused them to be removed from the classroom, reviewed options for improving the situation in the future, and discussed options that would allow for future success.

Positive Action Center Program Findings

The program evaluation of Positive Action Center was conducted at six program sites. A total of 151 mentors were trained during these six sessions; 34.43 percent were male and 65.6 percent were female. The mentors trained were Caucasian at 43.7 percent, African American at 34.4 percent, Hispanic at 16.6 percent and 5.3 percent other. The majority, 54.3 percent, were between 17 and 18 years of age, 37.18 percent are on free or reduced lunch programs, and 1.32 percent had a mental or physical disability. Six hundred eight-six mentoring sessions were completed; 670 successful action plans were created. The success rate for action plans was 97.6 percent. All 151 mentors improved their test scores pre- to post.

Seven adults were trained with the following ethnic breakdown: 7 percent African American; 7 percent Hispanic, 86 percent Caucasian. All adults successfully completed the training and subsequently provided facilitation of PAC programs in their schools. The success rate for both participation and completion were 100 percent. All adults improved their test scores pre- to post.

Table 1. Positive Action Center evaluation results

Number of students trained as mentors	151
Number of teachers and other adults trained	7
Number of mentees involved in mentoring	686
Number and percentage of students assigned to an adult mentor	107 / 15.6 percent
Number and percentage of students successfully completing Action Plan	670 / 97.6 percent
Change in percentage of mentees referred again to ISS	28 percent
Change in percentage of mentees referred again to AEP	4.3 percent
Number and percent of mentees that improved their GPA	600 / 87.5 percent
Reduction in mentee tardiness	70.8 percent
Reduction in mentee absenteeism	53.8 percent
Number and percent of adult and students improving scores on post-tests	158 / 100 percent

Data were collected from mentees from six project sites; 35.3 percent of these participants were male and 64.7 percent were female. The ethnic breakdown of the participants was as follows: 40.9 percent are African American, 23.7 percent are Caucasian, 10.8 percent are Hispanic and 24 percent other. More than one in five (20.4 percent) are 15 years of age, 25.8 percent are 16 years of age, 23.7 percent are 17 years of age, and 30.1 percent 18 years of age. The majority of the respondents reported they are in 11th grade. Nearly three of four respondents (73.1 percent) had been to ISS at least once, and 28.0 percent returned after the program. Prior to implementation of PAC, the recidivism rate was 28.2 percent to AEP. Almost one in six (16.1 percent) of the participants had been in AEP at least once. After receiving PAC mentoring, only 4.3 percent returned to AEP. This shows a reduction in recidivism for both ISS and AEP.

There were 686 initial sessions. The participants attended different amounts of follow-up sessions. The average GPA for the group prior to referral to ISS/AEP was 1.88, and the GPA average after receiving mentoring was 2.25. This shows significant improvement – 12 percent – in the GPA of participants. The absences prior to referral to ISS/AEP were 3,829 and after receiving mentoring only 1,127 absences were reported for the group of participants – a 53.8 percent decrease in absenteeism. There were 3,115 tardies for the group of participants prior to the referral and 910 after receiving mentoring – a 70.8 percent decrease in tardies.

In summary, positive changes were exhibited in the mentees after participation in the PAC program. Program participants' GPA increased by 12 percent, the number of absences decreased by 53.8 percent, the number of tardies decreased by 70.8 percent, and the numbers of students returning to ISS were cut by almost 50 percent.

Positive Action Center Discussion Questions

1. Why do students get sent to ISS/AEP?
2. Why do students drop out or flunk out of school?
3. What are the long-term consequences of dropping out or flunking out of school?
4. What impact does student dropout rate have on American society?
5. What is the financial impact of students dropping out of school?
6. What if we improve the outcome of assignment to ISS/AEP?
7. What are the long-term benefits of creating action plans?

Positive Action Center Summary and Conclusions

Positive Action Center is an innovative and proven approach to discipline management in schools. It allows students who have been in trouble to really examine the situation and discover viable options for improving the current situation and preventing future incidents.

At the conclusion of the program evaluation, it is clear that Positive Action Center had a tremendous impact on school campuses, student mentees and mentors. paxUnited will continue to implement the PAC program on as many campuses as possible with current funding. paxUnited will continue to seek additional funds in order to meet the demand for this program set forth by schools.

Positive Action Center Implications

Based on the evaluation of the Positive Action Center program and the program methodology, schools implementing this program will have fewer students return to ISS/AEP. The students receiving mentoring will also acquire new skills that will make them more productive members of the campus environment and society as a whole.

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ACT NOW TRUANCY PROGRAM

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Abstract

The ACT Now Truancy Program provides truancy enforcement and early intervention with the mission to return the habitually truant student to school. This requires case assessment, case management, and the implementation of early intervention strategies, truancy laws enforcement and prosecution. This program collaborates between eight participating schools districts, the Center for Juvenile Alternatives, The Pima County Attorney's Office, and law enforcement agencies throughout the City of Tucson and Pima County. A strong collaborative effort from the above partners is essential to maintain program success. Since 1997, the program has served over 5000 truancy cases with a 70 percent compliance rate.

Introduction

Pursuant to Arizona Revised Statutes, the Arizona Criminal Justice Commission is charged with preparing an analysis and review of the criminal justice system, including crime prevention. On behalf of the Arizona Criminal Justice Commission, the Youth and Crime Task Force was formed in 1993 to provide to the Governor and legislature recommendations for statutory, legal, and administrative revisions on a criminal justice issue of special timeliness and the issue of youth and crime. The Schools and Crime Working Group, participated as volunteers from July, 1993, through July, 1994, to address the problem of ever-increasing school violence. The working group was charged with recommending workable and comprehensive solutions to making our schools safe and secure educational environments where learning is the primary focus.

The recommendations of the Working Group focused on prevention and meaningful intervention. From the data presented, the Working Group determined that one risk factor and early warning sign of a troubled and potentially criminally involved youth is **poor attendance in school.** Youth who possess a propensity for crime, aggressive behavior, substance abuse, school dropout, and other dysfunctional behaviors are often significantly truant during their life.

Research shows that chronic truancy is a predictor of future criminal behavior. Nine out of 10 felons were chronic truants during their school years. Poor school attendance is often a direct consequence of lack of familial stability, lack of parental control due to insufficient parenting skills, and child abuse or neglect in the home. Preventing youth crime and violence must begin early with intervention to correct and reverse the known root causes of truancy. Recognizing this, the Pima County Attorney's Office works to get truant students back in school to prevent a life of crime and increase the potential for a life of success.

In 1995, then Assistant County Attorney Barbara LaWall focused efforts on truancy in the Pima County Attorney's Office. She formed a collaboration with eight of the superintendents in Pima County and from her office, using one assistant, and in line with Arizona Revised Statutes §15-802 and §13-3613, developed a truancy intervention program with the purpose to get truant children back in school through effective early intervention.

In 1997, Pima County Attorney Barbara LaWall formed the Community Justice Unit, which worked to enhance the program and appointed an ACT Now Truancy Director. The collaboration with the Center for Juvenile Alternatives was enhanced to provide better case assessment and early intervention. Now, The Pima County Attorney's Office works in partnership with the Center for Juvenile Alternatives (CJA) which provides the case management, law enforcement, eight school district administrators, teachers, parents **and** students to intervene at the very beginning of the truancy cycle. The program ensures that a truant student, instead of being prosecuted, is first offered a diversion program. The County Attorney cites and prosecutes parents as a last resort. Since 1997, the ACT Now Truancy Program has handled over 3,300 cases performing at a 70 percent compliance rate.

Program Summary

The Laws that Sanction

A.R.S. §15-802 requires that a person having custody of a child between six (6) and sixteen (16) years of age must send the child to school full-time when the school is in session, unless statutorily excused. Failure to ensure that a child attends school is a criminal offense and subject to a fine of up to $500, plus surcharges, and a possible jail sentence of up to thirty (30) days.

A.R.S. §§13-3613 and 13-3612 also require parents to not commit any act which causes, encourages, or contributes to a child's dependency. A dependent child is one who, among other acts, refuses to attend school. Contributing to the Dependency of a Minor is a criminal offense which carries a fine of up to $2,500 and a possible jail sentence of up to six (6) months in the Pima County jail.

ACT Now Truancy Program Procedures

Phase One

Schools

Step 1 Schools will also place an ACT Now Program summary in school's parent/student handbook.

Step 2. Advisory letters are sent to parent(s) after the first unexcused absence.

Step 3. The school makes every effort to resolve the truancy issue with the offending student and parent(s)

Step 4. After 3 and no more than 10 unexcused absences the school will:

- Complete Truancy Referral Form, including documentation of efforts made to keep the student in school.
- Provide a copy of the student's official attendance record.
- Provide documentation of all parent and juvenile contacts.
- Provide a notarized affidavit completed by a custodian of records for each. referred student. The affidavit and the attendance record must be stapled together. (No photocopies can be accepted).
- Provide a copy of the student's emergency contact information.
- Create a package of the above information and mail or fax to CJA. Mailing address: 630 East 19th, Tucson, Arizona 85705, Fax 520-670-1753.
- Schools will provide to the Pima County Attorney's Office semi-annual statistical data, which includes:

- average daily membership
- unexcused absences
- excused absences
- number of notification letters sent

Phase Two

Center for Juvenile Alternatives
The Center for Juvenile Alternatives Case Manager will focus on identifying core issues and providing effective case management. The attendance issue may be a manifestation of other issues occurring within the family infrastructure. The Case Manager will implement early intervention strategies. Upon receipt of the case, the CJA Case Manager will do the following:

Step 1. Review the referral package received from the school to support the interview process and schedule an Intake interview with the juvenile and parent(s).

Step 2. Conduct a Psychosocial Assessment at the intake interview. This interview will explore the following areas of influence to determine the "core issue(s)."

- Individual issues and assets
- Family/Home situation and relationships
- School academic status and behavior
- Community support
- Peer group relationships
- Potential psychological issues
- Determine the risk/needs level of the case

Step 3. After analysis of the assessment interview, the case manager will initiate the intervention strategies. The following are examples of mandatory and potential strategies:

- Juvenile must obey all laws
- Juvenile must attend school as required
- Individual or family counseling
- Academic planning
- Career planning
- Independent living classes
- Educational success classes
- Parenting programs
- Tutoring
- Mentoring
- Community Justice Board Program
- Triumph Program

Step 4. The case manager will provide case supervision dependent on the age level of the juvenile. The following is the supervision breakdown:

- Intensive supervision will be provided for juveniles 6 to 11 years of age and will involve the following mandatory and potential intervention strategies:

    - Periodic school attendance/behavioral records checks

- Periodic one on one contacts with the juvenile and parents
- Parent(s) may be made to attend parenting programs
- Parent(s) and juvenile may be made to attend Family Counseling
- Educational Success Programs
- Tutoring programs
- Mentoring programs

- Moderate supervision will be provided for juveniles 12 to 14 years of age and will involve the following mandatory and potential intervention strategies:

  - Periodic school attendance/behavioral records checks
  - Juvenile must contact the case manager once a week
  - Parent(s) and juvenile may be made to attend Family Counseling
  - Educational Success Programs
  - Tutoring programs
  - Mentoring programs

- Minimal supervision will be provided for juveniles 15 to 16 years of age and will involve the following:

  - Juvenile must attend the Triumph program
  - Parent(s) and juvenile may be made to attend Family Counseling
  - Educational Success Programs
  - Tutoring programs
  - Mentoring programs

Step 5. Case closure

- Successful completion of all terms and requirements of the CJA contract by parent(s) and minor will result in the case being closed.
- CJA will submit a termination report to the referring school.
- Failure to participate or complete the CJA contract will require the filing of a criminal complaint against the parent(s) and prosecution of the parent(s) in Justice Court. CJA will package the case and hand carry it to the ACT Now Truancy Director providing the following information:

  - School information/referral
  - Affidavit with attendance profile
  - CJA psychosocial report and updates
  - Psychosocial report

Phase Three

Pima County Attorney's Office

The main priority of the ACT Now Truancy Program is to get truant students back to school. Prosecution is a last resort. However, in the event that parents or the juveniles fail to comply, the Pima County Attorney's Office is prepared to prosecute the parent(s) based on the following procedure:

Step 1. Case is referred to the ACT Now Truancy Director who will:

- Log case into the PCAO truancy database.

- Assign case to PCAO Detective.

Step 2. PCAO Detective will:

- Locate family
- Interview parent and document
- Make a determination if the case will be referred back to CJA depending on mitigating circumstances or will be cited into Justice Court. The detective also has the option to close the case again based on mitigating circumstances.

Step 3. If cited the parent must attend the following Court proceedings:

- Arraignment
- Case Management Consultation
- Trial/Plea Agreement
- Disposition
- After each court appearance, school will be notified of case outcome.

Step 4. In the event that the parent fails to appear for any Court process, a warrant for their arrest will be issued.

Phase Four

Court Dispositions
1st Offense

1. Plead to 1 count §15-802 C3M
   Dismiss 1 count §13-3613 C1M
2. $200 fine and surcharges
3. (Within 48 hours) Parent must contact the Truancy Center to set an appointment for evaluation and referral.
4. Parent to serve 10 hours Community Service (not in school).
5. Parent must ensure that their child regularly attends school.
6. Parent will be on unsupervised probation for a minimum of 6 months.

2nd Offense

1. Plead to §13-3613 C1M
   Dismiss §15-802 C3M
2. $1,000 fine and surcharges, $750 waived if successful on diversion
3. (Within 48 hours) Parent must contact the Truancy Center to set an appointment for evaluation and referral.
4. (Within 10 days) Meet with school truancy administrator and complete a written plan (to be submitted to the court and prosecutor) re: what steps they will be taking to ensure their child's attendance in the future.
5. Parent to serve 50 hours Community Service (not in school)
6. Parent must ensure that their child regularly attends school.
7. Parent will be on supervised probation for a period of six months.

3rd Offense

1. Plead to §13-3613 C1M
   Dismiss §15-802 C3M

2. $1,000 fine and surcharges, $250 waived if successful on diversion
3. (Within 48 hours) Parent must contact the Truancy Center to set an appointment for Evaluation and referral.
4. (Within 10 days) meet with school truancy administrator and complete a written plan (to be submitted to the court and prosecutor) re: what steps they will be taking to ensure their child's attendance in the future.
5. Parent to serve 50 hours Community Service (not in school)
6. Serve 24 hours in jail
7. Parent must ensure that their child regularly attends school.
8. Parent will be on supervised probation for a period of one year.

Failure to comply with a judgment or a plea could result in:

- a class three misdemeanor
- 30 days in Pima County Jail
- $200 fine
- 6 months unsupervised probation
- 20 hrs. community service

or up to

- a class one misdemeanor
- up to 6 months in the Pima County Jail
- $2,500 fine

Truancy Sweeps

According to the Arizona Department of Education, there are over 1,200 truant students daily in Pima County. The commitment of the Pima County Attorney's is to enforce the laws and to work to get truant students back to school. When students are truant, there is the potential that they will get in trouble. They also miss out on the education they will need to enhance their future. In this endeavor, The Pima County Attorney's Office conducts an average of three county wide truancy sweeps per year. The truancy sweeps are a collaborative effort between County Attorney's Office, all of the Law Enforcement Agencies in Pima County, County Superintendent's Office, and The Pima County Juvenile Court and various school districts.

Since 1996, over 1,200 truant juveniles were arrested and processed by the Center for Juvenile Alternatives originating from the sweeps. Over that same period, 120 parents were cited for failure to send because of excessive truancy and faced court action. The sweep sends a message that the Pima County Attorney's Office and the participating agencies are serious about combating truancy. When a sweep is initiated, truancy is not the only thing that surfaces. The sweeps have exposed home environments in need of social services, abused children, children acting out risky behavior and criminal activity.

The cases that did not comply with the CJA case management were referred to the Pima County Attorney's Office for citation and prosecution. As noted, out of the 5,180 case referred to CJA, 1,554 were referred to the Pima County Attorney's Office and were deemed noncompliant by CJA (Table 1, next page). Therefore, the ACT Now Truancy Program / CJA case management is performing at a 70 percent compliance rate.

In reference to success rates after court dispositions, due to the limited resources, we are unable to track the success rates of the parents cited and prosecuted. The program focuses the effort on the case management provided by CJA.

Table 1. Program outcomes, FY 1997 to FY 2006

Total number of cases referred to CJA: 5,180	5,180
Total number of cases referred for prosecution: 1,554	1,554
Total number of citations: 1,061	1,061
Total number of trials (Parents): 449	449
Total number of guilty at trial: 185	185
Total number of not guilty at trial: 35	35
Total number of guilty pleas: 540	540
Total number of administrative close: 649	649
Total number of bench warrants: 408	408

Program Challenges

Funding has been the biggest challenge. The program is dependant on grant funds, namely the Juvenile Accountability Block Grant, which in 2000/2001 was funding six case managers. However, over time the grant monies have dwindled to now when only one case manager is funded. The case management portion of the program is now prioritizing case supervision to provide intense supervision for elementary students and less intense supervision for high school students.

Another challenge involves school participation. There are schools that participate to the fullest. However, other schools fail to provide statistics in a timely manner or at all. This can skew our statistics. There are schools that fail to follow program procedures like accruing too many unexcused absences before sending a case to CJB. In an effort to keep the schools on board, the ACT Now Truancy Director provides training for all of the school districts at the beginning of every school year.

Discussion

Truancy is a symptom of internal issues that we call “core issues” such as poor parenting, poor health, substance abuse, domestic violence, mental illness, etc. The case management is essential to identify the core issues and provide effective intervention. There is little difference in the juvenile characteristic of a truant as opposed to a delinquent. The arrest of a truant opens up the potential to identify high-risk juveniles and intervene before they enter into the system. It is important that we remain proactive in this endeavor despite the opposition of those who do not see truancy as a priority.

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EVALUATION OF THE OLWEUS BULLYING PREVENTION PROGRAM: HOW THE PROGRAM CAN WORK FOR INNER CITY YOUTH [1]

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Abstract

The Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (BPP) is an internationally recognized program to prevent bullying in schools. In this project, 13 inner city schools implemented the BPP through a community partnership. Nine schools participated over four years. One school participated for two years and three schools participated for three years. Fidelity of implementation, bullying incident density (BID), student surveys, and serious incident reports were used to evaluate the project. Results supported a dose response relationship where schools with high fidelity to the program showed better outcomes than schools with low fidelity. Results provide insight into what works to reduce school violence. Barriers to implementation were high staff turnover and competing priorities. Facilitators to implementation were strong administrator and staff support, coordinating school rules and procedures with bullying prevention and a socialized recess program. Future efforts should identify and promote best practices to reduce bullying.

Introduction

Despite the wide spread publicity and fears of school attack, schools are relatively free of major crime. Of all incidents reported from 2000 to 2004 in the National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS), only 3.3 percent occurred in schools (FBI, 2006). Lesser forms of violence, such as bullying, are more common. An estimated 1.6 million children in sixth to tenth grade are bullied at least once a week (U.S. Department of Justice, 2001).

Bullying has numerous detrimental health and learning outcomes for victims, bullies, and bystanders. Bullying victims experience traumatic symptoms of loneliness, humiliation, insecurity, difficulty with relationships, or decreased self-assurance (A. G. Carney & Merrell, 2001; J. V. Carney, 2000; Crozier & Skliopidou, 2002); (Fekkes, Pijpers, Fredriks, Vogels, & Verloove-Vanhorick, 2006; Finkelhor, Ormrod, Turner, & Hamby, 2005); (Kaltiala-Heino, Rimpela, Rantanen, & Rimpela, 2000; Kumpulainen et al., 1998); (Rivers, 2004). Victims are reluctant to attend school, resulting in poor academic performance (DeVoe & Kaffenberger, 2005); (Lumsden, 2002). Psychological disorders, such as depression, schizophrenia or suicide, are more common or exacerbated in chronic victims (Burgess, Garbarino, & Carlson, 2006); (J. V. Carney, 2000); (Young Shin, Yun-Joo, & Leventhal, 2005). Bullying victimization is a common precursor to school attacks (Vossekuil, Fein, Reddy, Borum, & Modzeleski, 2002). Bystanders suffer from distress by observing the victimization of others (Janson, 2004). The majority of bystanders want to stop the victimization but do not know how to handle the situation (Olweus, 1993). Bullies also experience problems, possibly because they fail to learn normal social boundaries. Bullies are at higher risk for vandalism, shoplifting, fighting,

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substance abuse or school dropout (Nansel, Overpeck, Haynie, Ruan, & Scheidt, 2003); (Olweus, 1995); (Sourander et al., 2006). As adults, male bullies were more likely to have at least one crime conviction and a greater number of convictions (Olweus & Limber, 2000). Bullying impacts the whole school environment. Without appropriate intervention, bullying can have devastating results (Hazler & Carney, 2000).

There is much we can do to prevent bullying. A Google search of school-based violence prevention programs returned 2.2 million hits. Unfortunately, some of the most widely used programs are based on popular philosophy, not theory and research. Youth violence prevention programs, such as peer mediation, scared straight, boot camps, and D.A.R.E. do not actually work (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2001). Ineffective programs are dangerous because they displace effective programs. Parents and community falsely believe that their children are getting information or treatment when, in fact, they are not. Furthermore, programs that ignore basic youth development, education, or violence prevention theories have the potential to do more harm than good (Mendel, 2000). For example, social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) suggests that certain conditions of situation, environment, and expectation foster observational learning. When D.A.R.E. officers wear service weapons into the classroom, they may unintentionally role model gun carrying. Impressionable students, such as bully victims (situation) with access to a gun (environment) and beliefs that guns bestow attention and respect (expectations) could, theoretically, learn that taking a gun to school provides esteem (observational learning). Practical application of theory is critical to avoid causing more harm than good. If we want to improve the school environment and children's health issues, we must fund programs that work over programs based on politics and popularity (Jarlais et al., 2006; Petrosino & Lavenberg, 2007).

Achieving programs that work in schools starts by identifying evidence-based programs. Several reputable agencies have performed the initial task of comparing programs with respect to previous evaluations, sustainability, replicability, and cost-benefit. The end result is several user-friendly lists of best practice programs. The Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence Prevention at University of Colorado at Boulder reviewed over 600 youth violence prevention programs to identify 12 model and 19 promising programs (CSPV, 2002-04). Model programs have demonstrated positive outcomes. Promising programs are based on development or prevention theory and show the potential for success. The National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA) identified 10 universal, four selected, two indicated, and three tiered school-based programs for drug prevention (NIDA, 2003). Universal programs prevent the problem in the general population. Selected programs meet the needs of high-risk students and indicated programs treat students suffering from the disorder. The U.S. Department of Education identified nine exemplary programs and thirty-three promising programs for school safety (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). Next steps are to disseminate best practices at the practice level.

Program Summary

The Bullying Prevention Program (BPP) is a model program for school-based bullying prevention (CSPV, 2002-04). The goal of the BPP is to change social norms that promote passive acceptance of bullying behavior (Olweus, 1993). The model is flexible and can be tailored to different cultures. Bullying is defined as the repeated exposure of one child to intentionally harmful actions of one or more youth (Olweus, 1993). The model uses a school planning committee to develop school, classroom, and individual level interventions (Olweus & Limber, 2000). The greatest advantages of the program are that interventions are pro-social and theory-based and may be tailored for target audience development level and culture (DHHS, 2001). Early evaluations of the BPP in Bergen, Norway, showed reductions in student reported bullying up to 50 percent (Olweus, 1997). Later evaluation studies showed reductions of only 21-38 percent (Olweus, 2003). Decreased effectiveness in later studies was believed to be due to moderating variables, such as major curricular changes. Implementation in the United States has also not demonstrated the same degree of effectiveness (Olweus, 2003). Possible reasons for lowered effectiveness may be less intensive implementation, lack of

resources and/ or the role of bullying in American culture. Much of the program's development occurred in Norway, a country that values taking care of fellow citizens. Social responsibility, an important core value of the program, may not translate as easily into the American culture of strength and independence. The balance between cultural effectiveness and fidelity to the program design is difficult to achieve in practice (MacDonald & Green, 2001; US DHHS, 2002). Therefore, it is important to critically and rigorously evaluate programs in the community to strive for continuous quality improvement.

Methodology

The purpose of this project was to determine if the BPP was appropriate and effective for school students in one urban school district. The original project design was to implement the BPP in 12 inner city schools through two cohorts over four-year implementation periods. Seven schools were to start in 2001/02 Academic Year (AY) with an additional five schools starting the following year, 2002/03. The project was a partnership between the local chapter of Physicians for Social Responsibility (PSR), the Office of School Climate and Safety, Office of Research and Evaluation[1], the schools, and an independent program evaluator. PSR provided a certified Olweus trainer for program training and support. School staff and community members from each school served on coordinating committees to plan and implement interventions. During the second year of the project, there was a state takeover of the educational system, causing major changes in staffing and educational administration. In the end, 13 schools participated. Nine schools participated over four years. One school participated for two years and three schools participated for three years. Implementation was developed with the intention that schools would sustain the program after the grant period. Three of the schools, from the initial 2001/02 AY start cohort, provided data on sustainability of the program after the partnership was completed. The evaluation used one group, quasi-experimental pretest, post-test design to investigate process, impact, and outcomes of the BPP. Four types of data were used: fidelity of implementation, bullying incident density (BID), student surveys, and violence-related serious incident reports.

Fidelity of Implementation

Fidelity of implementation was measured by an instrument developed from core components identified by the program author (Olweus & Limber, 2000). Implementation of each component was dichotomous, either positive or negative. In order for schools to achieve a positive score, they must have implemented the component effectively. Checklists were completed by program coordinators at monthly staff meetings with end of year results tallied in June of each academic year. Data were validated through site observations and feedback from coordinating committee members in their end of the year meeting. Discrepancies were corrected through mutual consensus. Fidelity scores were calculated as the total number of core program components implemented divided by the total number of core components (14). For example, if a school implemented nine of the 14 components (9/14), fidelity of implementation was 64 percent. Data were entered into a spreadsheet. Average fidelity was calculated for each participating school over the length of the project.

Bullying Incident Density

Lunches and recesses were observed for bullying-related behavior. Lunches and recesses were selected because student surveys typically identified these areas as high risk, and public areas provided some degree of anonymity. Permission was obtained from the school administrator prior to observations. Start and stop times, number of students, and gender or grade groups were noted on the observation form. Each incident of observed bullying related behavior was tallied. Data were entered into a spreadsheet and standardized to

[1] Participant confidentiality is maintained per Office for Human Research Protections guidelines.

Bullying Incident Density (BID) (number of incidents per 100 student hours) using the following calculation:

{[Raw number of incidents ÷ Raw number of students present] × 100 × [60 ÷ time period in minutes]}

where, "60" is the number of minutes in one hour,
and where, "time period in minutes" is the length of the observation period at lunch or recess.

Olweus Bully Victim Questionnaire© (BVQ)

The BVQ instrument is the survey developed by Olweus to identify student reported rates of victimization, high risk areas, attitudes, and staff reactions to bullying. School staff administered the survey under anonymous conditions to all children in grades 3-8 who were present on the day of the survey. Surveys were administered at baseline and each year of the program. Data were entered into the BVQ Stat software program for analysis. The software program provided different methods of calculating frequency of bullying. We used Olweus' alternative method of calculation, which provides data on all students with a positive response to any form of bullying, at the level of two to three times a month or more often in the past couple of months. This calculation method minimized fluctuations due to increased awareness.

Violence-related Serious Incident Reports

The district office of research and evaluation extracted pre-existing data on violence-related serious incident reports for each school throughout each year of the program. Unfortunately, reporting mechanisms changed after 2001/02. Therefore, data from 2001/02 AY were not comparable to later years. AY 2002/03 was used as the baseline year.

Findings

Different data sources were selected to provide the best possible picture of process and outcomes. Data used to evaluate the program were fidelity of implementation, bullying incident density, student surveys, and serious incident reports. The evaluation reflects the limitations of working within the real world. As such, final outcome data could only be calculated on nine schools with the complete four years of data. Data from non-completing schools are provided for comparison.

Fidelity of Implementation

In the first year of the program, fidelity of implementation ranged from 21-79 percent, with an average fidelity of 48 percent. Average implementation rates stayed stable (66-72 percent) over the second, third, and fourth years of the program. The typical pattern was an increase in fidelity during the second or third year of the program with a subsequent decrease. This trend may have been due to a false sense of security where school staff felt that they could relax their vigilance after seeing positive changes in school climate. Five schools had moderate to high implementation (> 75 percent of core components implemented) and eight schools had less than satisfactory implementation (<75 percent of core components). Schools with low fidelity tended to have multiple changes in principals and staff who did not feel empowered to implement the program. The school that withdrew, School Six in Cohort One, experienced major demographic changes, and staff felt they could not implement the program with fidelity. The principal later reported that the program was redundant with directives mandated by their Educational Management Organization. School Six was replaced with School Thirteen, a school that embraced the program and obtained 93 percent fidelity in the final year.

The most difficult parts of the program to implement were classroom meetings, parent involvement, and a functional coordinating committee. Classroom meetings were often perceived to compete with academic time. Some teachers felt uncomfortable relinquishing control of the class. To promote meetings, PSR coordinators developed a classroom meeting manual with recommended topics, role-modeled classroom meetings in classes, and provided suggestions for bringing meetings to a closure. Parent and community involvement was difficult in areas where parents had a long history of negative experiences with school both as a child and as an adult. The most effective mechanisms to improve parent involvement were to reach out to the community through pre-existing networks, such as parents who volunteered or worked part-time in the school. In later years, parents were included on coordinating committees and were responsible for facilitating the flow of information. Another technique was to capture parents when they were present, such as special events or back to school night. Parent and grandparent attendance to special events improved when children were actively involved in the event, i.e. a fashion or talent show and food was provided. Obstacles to maintaining a functional coordinating committee were schools with high staff turnover or schools where the committees were not empowered. The more stable committees were composed of diverse professional and nonprofessional staff. Larger committees (14-16 members) were intentionally utilized in schools with high turnover. In later years, it became evident that the school secretary was a core member. School secretaries had a pre-existing network and knew who to call for what. They also had access to resources to facilitate communication between committee members, staff, administration, and the community. When committees felt that they were not empowered to develop school policies, meetings between school administration and PSR coordinators helped to clarify roles and responsibilities. Principals or their representative were always invited to be an active member of the committee.

Bullying Incident Density (BID)

BID decreased 25.5 percent in all schools (n = 9). Schools with high fidelity (n = 4) demonstrated an average 21.5 percent reduction in BID while schools with low fidelity (n = 5) demonstrated an average 35 percent reduction in BID (Table 1, next page). In assessing changes in BID, it should be noted that all schools implemented the BPP core component of effective supervision during high-risk areas. The component was applied by providing pro-social activities during unstructured activity times and empowering lunch and recess workers to intervene and stop behavior before escalation. Substituting play fighting with play equipment, such as balls and jump ropes reduced many of the incidents, as well as separating genders by play area and having staff actively involved in the activities. Incidents at lunch were reduced with clear procedures for moving students, games, and engaged staff.

Olweus Bully Victim Questionnaire© (BVQ)

Student-reported bullying increased 10 percent from 39 percent (n = 4,499) of students at baseline reporting victimization to 43 percent (n = 2,208) of students in Year Four (at the level of twice a month or more often). Changes ranged from a 40 percent increase in bullying (Cohort 2, School 9) to a 12 percent decrease (Cohort 2, School 12) (Table 2, second page following). The use of Olweus' alternative method of calculation should have negated the possibility of increased reporting due to increased awareness. When schools were separated into high fidelity vs. low fidelity groups, schools with 75 percent or more fidelity of implementation demonstrated a 5 percent reduction in bullying. Schools with low fidelity (< 75 percent fidelity) demonstrated a 14 percent increase in bullying. Schools with the highest reductions in student reported bullying characteristically had a strong administrator who engaged the students and empowered staff.

Table 1. Lunch and/ or recess bullying incident density (BID) at participating schools

Cohort and Participant Identifier	Bullying Incident Density (Average number of incidents/ 100 student hours)				
	Baseline	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Change from baseline (percent)
High Fidelity Schools					
C 1, S 1	55	19	30	19	- 66
C 1, S 3	23	19	29	23	- 4
C 2, S 12	41	25	45	41	0
C 1, S 5	73	80	54	61	- 16
Low Fidelity Schools					
C 2, S 11	46	26	23	33	- 28
C 1, S 4	68	57	74	24	- 65
C 1, S 2	86	66	68	67	- 22
C 1, S 7	43	40	58	20	- 53
C 2, S 9	43	51	46	40	- 7
Schools with incomplete data					
C 2, S 13	184	24	12	N.D.	- 93
C 2, S 8	31	26	35	33	+ 6
C 2, S 10	38	16	50	N.D.	+ 32
C 1, S 6	58	69	N.D.	N.D.	+ 19

N.D.= No Data

Violence-related Serious Incident Reports

Violence-related serious incidents, reports of assaults, threats, and robberies, increased 73 percent from 2002/03 to end of program (2004/05 for Cohort One and 2005/06 for Cohort Two). Changes in serious incident reports varied from an increase of 433 percent in School Two (from nine incident reports per year to forty-eight incident reports per year) to decreases of 50 percent in Schools Nine and Twelve (Table 3, second page following). Changes varied by level of fidelity. Serious incidents increased 137 percent in low fidelity schools and decreased 7 percent in high fidelity schools.

Sustainability

All Cohort One schools were surveyed for fidelity of implementation to determine sustainability of the program after the partnership with PSR was completed. Overall implementation was 58 percent. Schools One and Five exhibited fidelity rates of 100 percent and 93 percent, respectively and reported regular classroom meetings. School Two implemented only parts of the program (36 percent fidelity) due to the fact that the school had transitioned from a mixed-gender middle school to an all female high school. The school no longer had a functioning committee and the new disciplinarian used peer mediation for bullying intervention. Fidelity at School Four was low, 43 percent. The two main advocates of the program, the disciplinarian and school nurse were on extended absences due to medical problems. School Three had an implementation rate of 36 percent and School Seven's rate was 43 percent. Both schools had experienced major changes in key staff.

Table 2. Levels of student-reported bullying victimization in participating schools over the length of the program

Cohort and Participant Identifier	Victims of bullying 2-3 times a month or more (percent)				
	Baseline (n)	Year 2 (n)	Year 3 (n)	Year 4 (n)	Change from baseline (percent)
High fidelity Schools					
C 1, S 1	31.7 (496)	26.5 (465)	31.3 (439)	33.8 (409)	+ 7
C 1, S 3	38.6 (912)	36.7 (809)	39.1 (772)	39.3 (245)	+ 2
C 2, S 12	44.3 (305)	34.3 (324)	36.4 (240)	39.2 (232)	- 12
C 1, S 5	56.0 (366)	41.4 (379)	55.0 (311)	50.7 (275)	- 10
Low fidelity Schools					
C 2, S 11	42.9 (295)	48.1 (214)	52.1 (167)	55 (258)	+ 28
C 1, S 4	46.6 (436)	42.9 (397)	34.8 (454)	44.1 (423)	- 5
C 1, S 2	35.7 (790)	32.6 (427)	27.7 (493)	34.8 (392)	- 3
C 1, S 7	28.9 (738)	28 (491)	33.5 (561)	29.9 (252)	+ 4
C 2, S 9	45.9 (158)	45.0 (172)	45.6 (177)	64.2 (120)	+ 40
Overall	38.9 (4,499)	36.6 (3,295)	36.1 (3,196)	42.8 (2,208)	+ 10
Schools with incomplete data					
C 2, S 13	37.2 (483)	32.2 (430)	32.2 (344)	N.D.	- 14
C 2, S 8	39.6 (660)	41.5 (758)	N.D.	N.D.	+ 5
C 2, S 10	46.3 (227)	42.1 (244)	51.3 (116)	N.D.	+ 11
C 1, S 6	42.0 (654)	49.5 (274)	N.D.	N.D.	+ 18

N.D.= No Data

Table 3. Violence related serious incident reports in participating schools

Cohort and Participant Identifier	Violence-related Serious Incident Reports				
	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	Change from baseline (percent)
High fidelity schools					
C 1, S 1	6	3	9	-	+ 50
C 1, S 3	36	39	19	-	- 47
C 2, S 12	4	8	6	2	- 50
C 1, S 5	16	19	19	-	- 19
Low fidelity schools					
C 2, S 11	4	10	8	7	+ 75
C 1, S 4	8	6	20	-	+ 150
C 1, S 2	9	37	48	-	+ 433
C 1, S 7	14	39	37	-	+ 79
C 2, S 9	6	3	1	3	- 50
Schools with incomplete data					
C 2, S 13	66	39	74	45	- 32
C 2, S 8	24	27	19	29	+ 21
C 2, S 10	7	3	8	8	+ 14
C 1, S 6	87	17	27	-	- 69

Discussion

Evaluation results suggest that the BPP can be implemented in urban schools despite multiple social challenges, such as poor resources, high staff and student turnover, and community norms of violence. The fundamental principles of the BPP, building a system of social support do translate into inner city culture and can reduce bullying. When implemented with fidelity, the BPP reduced BID 22 percent, student-reported bullying 5 percent, and violence-related serious incident reports 7 percent. One of the most valuable findings of the study was a consistent dose response relationship where schools who implemented the program with fidelity had better outcomes than schools that did not. The dose response relationship suggests that outcomes are due to the program and not external factors. The dose response relationship was identified through a simple dichotomous checklist of program components. This technique can easily be applied to other programs.

Fidelity of implementation assisted in keeping coordinating committees on track because the checklist served as a continual reminder of the program components. Fidelity also helped understand evaluation results by providing information on which program components were qualitatively associated with reduced bullying. Schools with the greatest reductions used the core components of posting rules, consistent enforcement for rules, positive incentive programs, and effective supervision.

The ideal lunch became one where students were escorted into the lunch room by their teachers, entered in an orderly fashion, sat at their assigned tables, and spent very little time standing in line. Since most children eat lunch in less than 10 minutes and lunch periods tend to be 30-45 minutes, board games kept children positively entertained until the next scheduled activity. Adults who monitored lunches provided a strong

influence. Students responded positively to staff who showed respect such as knowing the student's name or stopping to join in the conversation or activity.

Socialized recess and engaged staff reduced many of the incidents at recess. Providing adequate recess equipment reduced play fighting, which would commonly escalate to violence. Teachers reported that classroom meetings improved respect within the classroom. Successful strategies were consistent with the BPP model. Suggestions are to integrate these techniques into school policy and practice.

There was no correlation between outcomes in the different data sources. On preliminary perusal of the tables, findings raise more questions than they answer. One would expect results to be consistent, i.e. changes in serious incident reports would correlate with changes in BID in the same direction. This was not the case. There was no correlation between data types. The reason for lack of correlation may be explained by the fact that these were different data sources looking at small pieces of a larger system.

Different evaluation techniques provide different views. The same is true for evaluation measures. BID measured observable incidents at lunch and recess. BID did not include what was occurring in the classroom or more discrete forms of bullying. Student surveys provide a holistic picture of the school, albeit, results are easily influenced by knowledge, attitudes, and sampling differences. Four years of administering the same survey was problematic. It is an understatement to say that students voiced their dissatisfaction through write-in comments. Fewer and fewer classes participated each year, influencing validity of results. Serious incident reports measured incidents against students, staff, and visitors, not just students. Changes in record keeping or failure to report may have influenced results. Thus, while each measure provides a detailed picture, it is only one perspective. The different perspectives should be combined for a comprehensive picture. Future evaluations should include the use of triangulated data rather than relying on only one data source.

Evaluations in the real world of urban schools rarely provide textbook results. For example, School Six, the school that dropped out of the program had a 69 percent reduction in serious incidents at the end of the project period despite the fact that they no longer offered the BPP. The reason for the reduction was that the subsidized housing development adjacent to the school was demolished and the school's low income, minority population was displaced throughout other areas of the city. New, moderate-income houses were built on the site. The school population changed dramatically between baseline and 2005/06. Many inner city schools suffer from high student, staff, and administrator turnover, inexperienced teachers, and lack of resources. It is difficult to establish school norms of pro-social behavior in transient populations.

Schools need a basic infrastructure in order to implement rigorous evidence-based programs. Therefore, the first step to reducing violence is to build the infrastructure of inner city schools. Coordinated, effective efforts between principals and staff seemed to provide the best infrastructure for implementation.

Low literacy rates were also an ongoing challenge and a priority that often competed with program activity. For example, in an effort to focus on testing, all outside programs were placed on hold during standardized testing periods. The two systems should work in collaboration, not competition. Theoretically, it is during periods of high stress that children need anti-violence programs the most. Freezing programs to improve scores may be counterproductive. Fortunately, some principals did recognize the potential for program activities and increased positive reinforcement activities during testing periods to promote school climate. One principal raffled a bicycle at the end of the testing period for students who had perfect attendance and no reports of negative behavior. Staff reported positive results to such efforts. In terms of promoting evidence-based programs, we need to provide a system that respects and promotes positive youth development.

In terms of evaluation, the inclusion of a qualitative evaluation component contributed to the understanding of multiple moderating variables that influence outcomes.

Socially, inner city schools struggle with anti-violence policies that are vastly different from rules in the surrounding neighborhoods. Street rules and media promote fighting. Results from low fidelity schools suggest that aggression is increasing and anti-violence programs may be losing ground. Student-reported bullying increased 14 percent and violence-related incidents increased 137 percent in low fidelity schools. Children cannot learn when they are frightened. It is not enough that schools give priority to evidence-based programs. Society must support school efforts with consistent anti-violence messages. Society must critically evaluate our use of violence as a form of entertainment. Tobacco prevention and nutrition education, two areas that have progressed further than violence prevention, suggest ideas for benchmarking. Future directions are to consider administrative and policy recommendations to reduce violence in youth media, i.e. tighten restrictions on portrayals of violent acts in programs before 9:00 pm; restrict advertising of merchandise that allows children to practice violent behavior, i.e. video games; critical media awareness programs, i.e. help children de-construct media violence; and promote a national campaign to prevent violence, applying the foundations of other successful national media campaigns, such as the American Legacy Foundation "truth" campaign. Schools cannot stand alone in reducing violence-related behavior. Schools need social and political support.

Conclusions

The BPP reduced bullying when implemented with fidelity. Advantages of the program were the model was flexible enough for tailoring to the needs of inner city students. The basic premises of establishing a pro-social environment are transferable to American culture. Bullying can be reduced through clear and consistent rules, improved student monitoring, positive incentives programs, and socialized recess or lunch. Obstacles to full implementation were high staff and student turnover causing a poor infrastructure to support common positive norms. We should promote the preferential use of evidence-based practices within schools while we continue to improve and refine best practices through on-going evaluation.

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COMMUNITY JUSTICE BOARD PROGRAM

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Abstract

Community Justice Boards are comprised of specially-trained volunteers from communities throughout Pima County. With guidance, training, and support from the Pima County Attorney's Office and based on a balanced and restorative justice, these volunteers hold Family Conferences designed to hold first and second time juvenile offenders accountable to the victim(s) and the community and to learn more about the youth, their families, and the circumstances surrounding the offense. The Board subsequently assigns consequences designed to hold youth accountable for their actions and decisions; build problem-solving, decision-making, and life skills; motivate youth through education; and promote successful futures. Boards also conduct follow-up conferences to monitor progress, encourage and motivate participants, and help youth feel connected to their communities.

Introduction

In a proactive stance against crime, Pima County Attorney Barbara LaWall created the Community Justice Unit in January of 1997 with a vision to include volunteers from the community to assist in crime prevention and intervention efforts. On July 21, 1997, Senate Bill 1446, "Stop Juvenile Crime Bill" became law. Among the many provisions of the law are those establishing community based alternative programs. County Attorney LaWall directed the Community Justice Unit to create a community based alternative program focusing on 1st or 2nd time juvenile misdemeanor offenders and to utilize the Balanced and Restorative Justice process. The Unit studied programs in New Zealand, Maricopa County, Arizona and Thurston County, Washington. Subsequently, the Community Justice Unit created the Community Justice Board Program (CJB) and began volunteer recruitment in three neighbors highly supported by a strong neighborhood association and community policing. Several volunteers from these three respective neighborhoods applied and were trained to become Community Justice Board members. The first of the Family Conferences was conducted in May of 1998.

Program Summary

The Community Justice Board Program (CJB) is designed to pro-actively deal with juvenile crime. The program, as part of the restorative justice movement, enables people in neighborhoods to have an impact on first and second time misdemeanor juvenile offenders. The goal of the Community Justice Board is to require juvenile offenders to accept responsibility for their conduct through interaction with victims and neighborhood residents. The Community Justice Board Program provides a way for victims to have a voice in the restorative process while enabling juveniles to be held accountable and provide them opportunity to give back to their community and become a positive and productive member of society.

Unlike traditional methods of intervention in which courts assume the decision-making process, the Community Justice Board draws the juvenile, his/her family and community into the process. This approach is critical to the prevention and intervention goals that underlie the program. Such intervention provides swift

and meaningful community response to minor delinquent behavior and is aimed at ending a juvenile's illegal activity.

Through this program, the Pima County Attorney's Office hopes to divert a significant portion of overburdened juvenile court system case loads. Community Justice Boards allow prosecutors, courts, and treatment personnel to concentrate efforts on the more serious juvenile offenders. Equally important is that juvenile offenders and their victims will receive the necessary attention to create the potential for positive change.

Neighborhoods, which include community associations and coalitions, business owners and employees, faith community, and civic and service organizations, are the key to successfully implementing Community Justice Boards. The County Attorney's Office can provide neighborhoods with legal authority and technical assistance. The neighborhood residents have a unique knowledge and understanding of the people who live in the neighborhood. Through a collaborative partnership between neighborhoods and the Pima County Attorney's Office, we can make a difference in the lives of juveniles.

Program Goals

- Teaching youth that their actions have caused harm and created an obligation to the victim and the community;
- Creating the opportunity for the victim and community to express how they have been harmed;
- Holding the youth accountable by assigning consequences which help repair the harm caused by his or her behavior; and
- Involving the juveniles in programs and activities that increase their ability to make positive life choices.

Program Operations and Procedures

A Community Justice Board (CJB) is made up of 5 to 10 volunteers who live in the neighborhood which houses the Board. The application process for each of the volunteer is as follows:

1. The application is submitted to the Volunteer Recruitment Coordinator.
2. The applicant is fingerprinted and a background investigation is performed.
3. If the applicant passes the background, she or he is interviewed by the Volunteer Coordinator and another member of the Community Justice Unit.
4. The applicant then observes at least two Justice Boards conduct family conferences and follow-ups.
5. The volunteer must attend a CJB Orientation and one (1) all day training session.
6. Once the volunteer is accepted, he or she is given an Identification card, a CJB shirt Operations Manual.

Community Justice Board Roles

CHAIRPERSON: The CJB chairperson is responsible for scheduling family conferences, group facilitation and ensuring that other members of the board responsibly perform various duties. The chairperson will also work with the Director of Volunteer Services to recruit new members as needed.

CO-CHAIR: The co-chair is responsible for assisting the chairperson with the above duties and will conduct the family conferences and meetings in the absence of the Chairperson.

SECRETARY: It is the responsibility of the secretary to maintain all required forms and paperwork. The secretary will keep a record of all family conferences including any and all agreed upon consequences for the juveniles. Once the CJB has closed a case, the secretary will finalize the records, fill out documentation, and send them to the CJB Coordinator.

VICTIM LIAISON: The victim liaison will contact the victim to notify them of the date and time of the family conference and extend an invitation to the victim to attend. The victim liaison will be the contact person for the victim if the victim has any concerns or questions and will represent the victim if he/she decides not to participate.

GREETER: The Greeter welcomes the family to the conference immediately establishing the community connection.

OBSERVER: The Observer sits in the gallery and observes the performance of the Board. During the debriefing, the Observer gives an evaluation of how the Board did in the Conference.

Case Referral Process and The Family Conference

First, the juvenile is arrested and referred to the Pima County Juvenile Court. The case is assigned to an evaluation (Diversion Unit) probation officer who conducts a Risk/Needs assessment interview. The probation officer will focus on misdemeanor crimes such as:

- Shoplifting
- Graffiti
- Theft
- Alcohol possession
- Curfew violations
- Disorderly conduct
- Simple assault
- Damaged property
- Marijuana possession
- False information to police

The probation officer refers the case to the CJB Program based on the following criteria:

- Juvenile admits to the charges.
- Parent and juvenile agree to participate.
- Juvenile is not entrenched in gang activity
- Juvenile does not present serious mental health issues

The case is referred to the CJB Chair. The CJB Chair will facilitate a case briefing, going over the police report and any other pertinent information prior to the Family Conference. Family Conferencing is a family-based decision-making process in which families are actively involved in the discovery of the offense, circumstance clarification surrounding the offense, and the affirmation and accountability of the crime before the Community Justice Board, parent and/or guardian.

The Chair facilitates and guides a balanced dialog of fact finding with regard to an offense. In collaboration with the Community Justice Board members, the juvenile, parent and/or guardian engage in a cooperative setting that fosters a unique opportunity for the juvenile to express their views, intrepidity, and concerns regarding the offense and restitution process in a positive support-based environment.

The Family Conference basically consists of four phases:

1. The greeting and welcome phase
2. The accountability phase
3. The social phase
4. The consequence phase

In the first phase, the family and victim are welcomed and introduced to the process and to the volunteers. This is the responsibility of the greeter or the CJB Chair. The effective element of a CJB Program is the community connection. We begin this immediately. Each member is introduced and gives a brief empowering statement. The Board then moves into the accountability phase.

The accountability phase involves the juvenile admitting to the offense and giving an account of the arrest. The admission must be genuine and the juvenile must take responsibility for their actions. If they do not, the case is referred back to the probation department for further court action. In this phase, the volunteers are listening carefully to the story the juvenile tells and begins to define their character. The Board questions the parent(s) to determine how they felt about the arrest and how they disciplined their child. The Board then moves to the victim statement. If the victim is present, the Board will ask how they felt when they were harmed by the juvenile. The victim is given time to express their thoughts and feelings. They are seated directly across from the juvenile. It is important that the juvenile understands that it is a human being they harmed. If the victim is not present, the victim liaison will represent them at the table. After everyone has had an opportunity to express themselves, the volunteers then proceed to the social phase.

In the social phase, the volunteers will focus on the following areas of influence and the risk and protective factors:

> Individual: Does the juvenile present a lack of bonding to society, rebelliousness, early initiation of problem behaviors, alienation and substance abuse?
>
> Home/Family: Has there been a history of physical or sexual abuse, inadequate parental supervision, lack of support and encouragement?
>
> School: Is there early academic failure, lack of commitment to school and high rates of truancy and drop out?
>
> Community: Are there high crime rates in the neighborhood, low socio-economic conditions, low community attachment and the norms and attitudes favor drug use, firearms and crime?
>
> Peers: Does the juvenile associate with older peers, friends who exhibit problem behaviors, gang activity, etc.

The volunteers will also identify juvenile asset gaps utilizing the Search Institute's 40 Developmental Assets Program. Using the "iceberg" metaphor, the volunteers know that the arrest is the tip of the iceberg. They will seek to find out what is below the surface. Through open-ended questions, the volunteers will try to identify the core issues and begin formulating ideas about what consequences would be effective. During this phase, the members will identify the hobbies, skills and positive assets possessed by the juvenile.

After finding out as much as they can about the social aspects of the juvenile, the Board will then move to the consequence phase. Here the Board asks the juvenile what he/she thinks they should do to repair the harm. The same question is asked of the parent. At this point, the Board is exploring what the juvenile is willing to do to make it right and what responsibility the juvenile is willing to take. After this, the Board asks the juvenile and parents to step out of the room. The Board then convenes to determine the consequences.

The Board will assign the following consequences:

- Apology letters
- Community service work
- Graffiti Abatement
- Education Programs
- Restitution

Based on the skills of the juvenile, the Board will creatively come up with a consequence that repairs the harm and enhances the juvenile's potential to live a healthier life style.

The juvenile and parent(s) then return to the room at which time that Board assigns the consequences. The Board, juvenile and parent(s) review the contract. If the participants agree to the consequences, then the contract is signed by all parties. The Board then sets the date and time of the follow-up conference to assess the juvenile's progress. The Board then takes time to give the juvenile and parents/guardians a positive send off.

The follow-ups are conducted until the juvenile completes the assigned consequences. The Board has 90 days from the time they receive the case to completion. If the juvenile fails to complete the consequences, the case is returned to the probation officer for further court action.

Program Outcomes

- Twenty-two percent recidivism rate after 12 months from completion of the program
- Ninety-three percent compliance rate
- Ninety-eight percent satisfaction rate for both parent and youth

Discussion

The experience of the Community Justice Board Program has revealed the following:

- The community is an important partner in changing the lives of youthful offenders.
- Through non-adversarial means, the members of the board can identify core issues and effectively guide youth towards healthy life styles.
- Through this program, the youth and parents are accountable not only to the Justice System but most importantly, to the community itself.
- It is of utmost importance that criminal justice systems move funds to the entry level of the system and include the community in dealing with juvenile crime.

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STOP THE VIOLENCE: STUDENTS TAKING ON PREVENTION

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and
Student Presenters

Session Overview

Abstract

STOP is unique as a student-created, student-led violence prevention effort. Members from across the nation have completed trainings and developed projects in their schools and communities to help ensure that they are creating safe and healthy environments. Four members of the STOP network have identified a need and developed an innovative project using one of the toolkit chapters. They will share the projects they have designed including their strategies for preventing violence in their communities.

Summary

Family, Career and Community Leaders of America (FCCLA) is a not-for-profit national career and technical student organization for youth in family and consumer sciences education. STOP the Violence, which stands for Students Taking on Prevention, is a peer education program offered through FCCLA. The goals of STOP include: empowering students with skills, and resources to make their schools safer by involving youth in efforts to prevent violence, and increasing awareness of and involvement in strategies – through education – that reduce violence and reduce the potential for violence in schools.

STOP uses two main components to achieve these goals: (1) the STOP the Violence toolkit and (2) a nationwide network of trained students who are eager to reduce violence in schools. Often, students are more inclined to listen to the views of peers over those of adults. That's why peers are the force behind the program – youth are the voice and youth have the ability to make a difference. STOP network members complete training at the annual National Leadership Meeting in July and then use the toolkit to facilitate trainings at the state and local levels. The toolkit, developed with help from the Hamilton Fish Institute, contains training scripts, activities, and lesson plans for teachers on a variety of violence prevention related topics.

What was done? Network team members were selected, trained, and charged with designing a violence prevention and/or awareness community project.

Why was it done? To empower students with skills and resources to make their schools safer and to use education to increase awareness and to reduce the potential for violence in schools.

Who did it? Projects were created by FCCLA STOP the Violence network team members and their peers.

Who/what was supposed to benefit? Schools and communities benefit from the knowledge and resources available through the toolkit and the expertise of the students.

What were the anticipated results? The anticipated result is reduced potential for violence in schools receiving training.

What will happen next? Chapters will use the STOP toolkit as a teaching resource. Network team members will provide state trainings on anti-violence awareness and prevention strategies.

SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS IN CLASSROOMS: AN APPLICATION OF BEST-PRACTICES IN LAW-RELATED EDUCATION

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Session Overview

Abstract

School Resource and community police officers can provide outstanding learning opportunities for K-12 youth when teachers and officers work together to plan and implement best-practices in law-related education. Over the last five years through their *Youth for Justice* project, Street Law, Inc. and Constitutional Rights Foundation (CRF) have teamed up to provide national trainings for School Resource Officers (SROs) and community police officers. Funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention and recently the Hamilton Fish Institute, this unique seminar provides officers with curriculum materials and instructional strategies specifically designed for officers to engage young people in learning about the law, law enforcement, and the rights and responsibilities of effective citizenship.

Summary

According to research in the fields of civic and law-related education, having legal and law enforcement professionals co-teach with classroom teachers can have positive impacts on students. Students gain content knowledge about the law, legal system, and democratic principles from the professionals who apply this knowledge in their work, thus providing students with "real world" applications they can understand and appreciate. Students' skills related to critical thinking, problem solving, teamwork, and discussion can also be reinforced when the students have opportunities to engage interactively with the outside resource person. Further, students' dispositions about authority, respect/appreciation for the legal system, and belief that there are caring adults in the community can be increased when teachers and officers work together *effectively*.

The key is implementing *effective* practices. Research demonstrates that the type of interaction legal and law enforcement professionals have with students makes a difference in terms of increasing or decreasing students' positive dispositions, particularly in the case of police officers. Three key best-practices are:

- Teachers and officers need to pre-plan the lesson, identifying which parts of the lesson each will take and capitalizing on the **special expertise** the officer brings in law, police procedures, and more.

- Teachers, **not officers,** should handle classroom management. Officers need to be allowed to be seen as "coach" and "mentor" by the students, not disciplinarian.

- The lesson plan should provide **interactive methods** for students to engage with the officers and with each other. Studies have shown that when outside resource people, particularly those with an authoritarian position in the community, lecture *to* students instead of talk *with* them, it can adversely impact students' dispositions.

To help SROs and community police officers effectively implement best-practices in civic and law-related education, Street Law, Inc. and Constitutional Rights Foundation provide special seminars and curriculum materials for officers and educators.

In this session, we will provide a rationale for encouraging teachers and officers to work together in classroom instruction; provide an overview of the special training provided to officers; discuss specific examples of lessons and classroom activities that promote best practices in civic and law-related education; and share success stories from the trainings and the field. Participants will be provided with curriculum materials to share with officers and teachers.

Workshop Goals

Participants will be introduced to Law-Related Education and the role that School Resource Officers and community police can play in educating young people about the law and legal system and in having a positive impact on students' civic skills and dispositions.

Workshop Objectives

1. To introduce and define Law-Related Education (LRE) and provide a brief overview of best-practices associated with LRE and civic education.

2. To provide an overview of key elements in preparing officers to co-teach in classrooms, including examples of specific "tried and true" lessons officers successfully use with students.

3. To provide opportunities for participants to discuss and share successes and challenges of officers teaching in classrooms, as well as ask questions of the presenters.

Workshop Activities

1. 5-minute introductions: Presenters and participants
2. 15-minute overview and rationale for LRE and involving SROs/community police officers in teaching students
3. 20-minute interactive, hands-on demonstration of part of a lesson from Street Law, Inc. curricula for SROs
4. 15-minute overview of how Street Law and Constitutional Rights Foundation design/deliver special trainings for police officers and educators
5. 10-minute discussion and question/answer. Distribute sample curriculum and resources to participants

Assessment

Indicators of success for this workshop include:

1. Participants will demonstrate an understanding of the basic rationale for LRE and involving law enforcement officials in teaching youth about the law.

2. Participants will demonstrate a high level of engagement and active participation in the session through the lesson demonstration, discussion, and question/answer activities.

3. Participants will provide satisfactory ratings of this session on their conference evaluations.

Resources

Street Law, Inc.: http://streetlaw.org/sros

Constitutional Rights Foundation: http://crf-usa.org

American Bar Association *Technical Assistance Bulletin No. 21*: "Police officers and Law-Related Education: Building a Winning Strategy for Youth Education Programs" http://www.abanet.org/publiced/tab21.pdf

CIRCLE (Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement) and Carnegie Corporation of New York. (2003). (2003). The Civic Mission of Schools. New York: Author. Available http://cms-ca.org/CivicMissionofSchools.pdf

Kirlin, M. (2005). Promising Approaches for Strengthening Civic Education. CA: California Campaign for the Civic Mission of Schools. Available http://cms-ca.org/CMS%20white%20paper%20final.pdf

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IMPROVING WORK PERFORMANCE FOR ADOLESCENTS WITH EMOTIONAL DISTURBANCE: A COMPARISON OF TWO WORK-BASED LEARNING INTERVENTIONS

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Abstract

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate whether a particular work- based learning component of community service learning, when compared to paid work experience, was significantly different across group and time in relation to the overall work performance, social competence, and academic achievement, as well as the various subscales of each dependent variable, for high school students with emotional disturbance (N = 57). Primary results found a significant interaction effect for group and time, favoring community service learning, on several dimensions of work performance and social competence.

Introduction

Adolescents with emotional disturbance (ED) have difficulties in school related to inappropriate behaviors and poor interpersonal relationships. Adolescents with ED also have considerable difficulties maintaining effective interpersonal relationships after their high school years, especially in the workplace. According to Wagner & Cameto (2004), adolescents with ED have the most difficulty obtaining and maintaining post-secondary employment when compared to other disability groups.

Many ED adolescents lack actual job experience while in high school and as a result experience high rates of unemployment or low-paying and unsatisfying jobs. Research has shown that these adolescents' interpersonal skills are poor, anti-social, and problematic on the job (Jolivette, Stichter, Nelson, Scott, & Liaupsin, 2000); and that many are terminated from employment because of their poor job-related social skills (Bullis & Cheney, 1999).

There is no question that adequate preparation for employment is an important component in programming for adolescents with ED. The development of work-based learning programs to improve the work performance of these adolescents should include interpersonal and experiential components that improve their ability to handle the demands of the work setting, build positive relationships with co-workers and supervisors, and successfully manage the common social problems that occur in the workplace.

Community service learning and paid work experience are two work-based learning interventions that can help adolescents with ED improve their ability to maintain employment. Community service learning is the preferred choice of treatment and the focus of this study.

Community service learning is an experiential approach to job development that provides community-based work experiences, job coaching, and career awareness. Community service learning is different from paid work experience as it includes reflection activities, mentoring, and empathic learning. Overall, community service learning has been receiving attention in the literature as a promising intervention for regular education students.

In contrast, paid work experience is the more commonly used work-based learning intervention that has been shown to be predictive of post-secondary employment success. Paid work experience differs from community service learning in that it provides adolescents with monetary incentives. Paid work experience focuses more on the occupational task and less on the interpersonal job requirements.

Methodology

This study used a 2 x 2 repeated measures quasi-experimental design that compared two work-based learning interventions (CSL and PWE) over a period of 13 weeks and the measurement of: (1) six dimensions of work performance; (2) five dimensions of social competence; and (3) three dimensions of academic achievement, at two points in time which represent pre- and post-scores.

Sample

This study was comprised of ED adolescents who were 11th and 12th graders from level V special education programs for students who have been primarily coded as ED. The researcher used purposive sampling based on the transitional needs and interests of each student according to their school. Participating students came from 11 different level V non-public special education schools from Maryland. A total of 82 students were recruited for this study. The final number of students consenting to participate was 57, a rate of 69.5 percent. A total of 30 were part of the PWE group and 27 were part of the CSL group.

Independent variables
In this research study, the independent variables were the particular work-based learning interventions; that is, community service learning and paid work experience. All subjects were placed on a job site that was consistent with their interests and their transition objectives.

Job placements for the treatment group (CSL) included non-profit and/or charitable organizations. Job placements for the comparison group (PWE) included typical paid competitive employment sites.

Dependent variables
The dependent variables included the overall scores and subscale scores on the Work Personality Profile (WPP), The Walker-McConnell Scale of Social Competence and School Adjustment (WSSC), and The Nelson-Denny Test of Reading (NDRT).[1]

The WPP measures overall work performance as well as five subscales, which are task orientation, social skills, work motivation, work conformance, and personal presentation. The WPP uses mean scores based on a five-point Likert scale, with a range from *employability problem* to *employability asset*.

The WSSC measures overall social competence in addition to its four subscales of self-control, peer relations, school adjustment, and empathy. The WSSC uses mean scores based on a five-point Likert scale with a range from *never* to *frequently*.

The NDRT measures overall reading achievement, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. Scoring for the Nelson Denny Reading Test (NDRT) uses raw scores for vocabulary and reading comprehension to come up with a total reading achievement score.

[1] The WPP has an internal reliability of 0.89 (median); the WSSC has an internal reliability of 0.95 (mean); and the NDRT has an internal reliability of 0.90 (total).

Statistical Analyses

The researcher used MANCOVA procedures to compare the differences between the two work-based learning groups in terms of their post-test scores for the dependent variables. The researcher used pre-test scores as covariates to control for differences that may have existed between the two groups.

The researcher also used a repeated measures MANOVA to compare the differences over time for each work-based learning group and to analyze the interaction effect for group and time on the dependent variables.

Multivariate tests (Hotelling's trace) were conducted in order to detect whether any main effects occurred for group, time, and the interaction for group and time on the dependent variables. Post hoc analyses were performed using Least Significant Differences (LSD). A partial eta squared was calculated for each of the dependent variables, representing the proportion of the total variability accounted for by the test.

For this study, the level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$. The statistical program used to analyze the data was SPSS 12.0 for Windows 2003.

Findings

Descriptive Results [2]

For overall work performance, the entire sample increased their total WPP mean scores from 2.81 (SD = 0.37) to 3.00 (SD = 0.54) over the thirteen week intervention. The CSL group improved to above three (M = 3.11; SD = 0.57) while the PWE group improved to just below three (M = 2.91; SD = 0.51).

For the WPP subscales, the CSL group increased their mean scores for all five subscales, while the PWE group improved their mean scores for three (task orientation, social skills, and work conformance). The PWE group scored slightly below their pre-test mean for work motivation and personal presentation.

In terms of social competence, the entire sample increased their pre-test score from a mean of 3.25 (SD = 0.58) to 3.39 (SD = 0.53) over the thirteen week intervention. The PWE group had a higher mean pre-test score (3.40; SD = 0.57) than the CSL group (3.08; SD = 0.54). However, the mean post-test score stayed the same for the PWE group (3.40; SD = 0.53) and improved for the CSL group (3.38; SD = 0.54).

For the WSSC subscales of self-control, peer relations, school adjustment, and empathy, the PWE group had mean post-test scores that were higher than the CSL group for all four factors. The CSL group improved their mean score for every factor, while the PWE group improved their mean scores for self-control and empathy. In the end, both groups had adequate scores, even though it shows that the CSL group made more improvements over time.

For overall reading achievement, neither group made any notable improvements for total reading, vocabulary, and reading comprehension.

[2] MANCOVA was used to compare groups for any pre-test differences. The "F statistic" is similar to the "t value." The F statistic is the total variance between groups divided by the total variance within groups. Partial eta squared [η_p^2] is the correlation between an effect and the dependent variable. This coefficient emphasizes the important of the independent variable (e.g., CSL). For partial eta squared, a small effect is 0.01 to 0.06, medium effect is 0.06 to 0.14, and a large effect is 0.14 and higher.

Hypotheses Testing [3]

Hypothesis One
There will be significant differences between community service learning and paid work experience in the overall work performance, social competence, and academic achievement of ED adolescents, as measured by total scores on the WPP, WSSC, and NDRT.

Multivariate tests did not detect a significant main effect for group on the dependent variables of overall work performance, social competence, and academic achievement, although a medium effect was obtained. In terms of differences between the two groups, none of the F values attained the .05 significance level and effect sizes were small.

Hypothesis Two
There will be significant differences between community service learning and paid work experience across the five subscales of task orientation, social skills, work motivation, work conformance, and personal presentation of ED adolescents, as measured by the WPP.

Multivariate tests did not detect a significant main effect for work based learning on the work performance factors, and the obtained effect size was medium. In terms of differences between the two groups, none of the F values attained the .05 significance level, and effect sizes were small.

Hypothesis Three
There will be significant differences between community service learning and paid work experience across the four subscales of self-control, peer relations, school adjustment, and empathy of ED adolescents, as measured by the WSSC.

Multivariate tests showed that work-based learning did not have a significant main effect on the four dependent variables for social competence ($F = 2.05$; $p = 0.103$). However, a large effect size was detected.

Pairwise testing was used and detected significant differences between the two groups. Specifically, the CSL group scored significantly higher for self-control ($F = 5.04$; $p = 0.029$), peer relations ($F = 4.31$; $p = 0.043$), school adjustment ($F = 5.96$; $p = 0.018$), and empathy ($F = 6.67$; $p = 0.013$). Medium effect sizes for all four dependent variables were obtained.

Hypothesis Four
There will be significant differences between community service learning and paid work experience across the subscales of vocabulary and reading comprehension of ED adolescents, as measured by the NDRT.

Multivariate tests did not detect a significant main effect for group on reading achievement ($F = 0.154$; $p = 0.858$). As far as differences between the two groups, none of the F values attained the .05 significance level, and effect sizes were small.

Hypothesis Five
There will be a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of community service learning

[3] The author tested a total of 12 hypotheses in three sets of four. The first four hypotheses compare the two groups along the various dependent variables; the next four compare the differences within each group across time for the various dependent variables; the final four – the heart of the study – compare the interaction for group and time, that is, which group was significantly better over the time of the intervention.

and paid work experience for overall work performance, social competence, and academic achievement of ED adolescents as measured by the WPP, WSSC, and NDRT.

Multivariate tests showed that a significant main effect was obtained for time on work performance ($F = 10.483$; $p = 0.002$) and social competence ($F = 7.798$; $p = 0.007$). This produced a large effect for work performance and a medium effect for social competence.

The CSL group significantly improved their work performance over time ($F = 10.028$, $p = 0.004$), and obtained a large effect size. The PWE group did not significantly improve their work performance over time ($F = 1.112$; $p = 0.300$) and obtained a small effect size.

For the measure of social competence, the CSL group significantly improved in this area ($F = 13.730$; $p = 0.001$) and produced a large effect size. While the PWE group's post-test scores were comparable to the CSL group, they actually performed slightly lower on the post-test for social competence. Thus, PWE did not significantly improve for this variable ($F = 0.001$; $p = 0.970$).

Finally, for the area of reading achievement, neither group made significant changes over time as measured by the NDRT. Obtained effect sizes for both the CSL and PWE groups were small.

Hypothesis Six
There will be a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of community service learning and paid work experience across the five subscales of task orientation, social skills, work motivation, work conformance, and personal presentation of ED adolescents as measured by the WPP.

Multivariate tests showed a significant main effect was obtained for time on social skills ($F = 14.149$; $p = 0.000$), work conformance ($F = 14.407$; $p = 0.000$), and personal presentation ($F = 8.212$; $p = 0.006$). This produced large effects for social skills and work conformance and a medium effect for personal presentation.

The CSL group significantly improved in all five areas, including task orientation ($F = 6.844$; $p = 0.015$); social skills ($F = 7.50$; $p = 0.011$); work motivation ($F = 5.99$; $p = 0.021$); work conformance ($F = 9.967$; $p = 0.004$); and personal presentation ($F = 13.237$; $p = 0.001$). The CSL intervention produced large effects for all five work performance categories.

The PWE group did better over time in two of the categories of work performance, including a significant improvement in social skills ($F = 6.46$; $p = 0.017$) and near significance in the area of work conformance ($F = 4.057$; $p = 0.053$). PWE produced a large effect for social skills and a medium effect for work conformance.

Hypothesis Seven
There will be a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of community service learning and paid work experience across the four subscales of self-control, peer relations, school adjustment, and empathy of ED adolescents as measured by the WSSC.

Multivariate tests first showed that time was a significant main effect for self control ($F = 18.894$; $p = 0.000$) and empathy ($F = 5.482$; $p = 0.023$) and produced large and medium effect sizes, respectively.

The CSL group improved significantly in all four areas at the .05 level, that is, self-control ($F = 21.898$; $p = 0.000$); peer relations ($F = 5.814$; $p = 0.023$); school adjustment ($F = 8.274$; $p = 0.008$); and empathy ($F = 6.901$; $p = 0.014$). Results indicated the CSL intervention produced large effects for all four subscales of social competence. The PWE group did not make significant improvements in any of the four subscales for social competence.

Hypothesis Eight
There will be a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of community service learning and paid work experience across the subscales of vocabulary and reading comprehension of ED adolescents as measured by the NDRT.

Multivariate tests did not reveal a significant main effect for time on vocabulary or reading comprehension and produced small effects. Neither group made significant improvements over time in vocabulary or reading comprehension.

Hypothesis Nine
There will be a significant interaction effect for group and time for the overall work performance, social competence, and academic achievement for ED adolescents as measured by the WPP, WSSC, and NDRT.

An interaction effect for group and time bordered on significance for overall work performance, favoring the CSL group ($F = 3.975$; $p = 0.051$). For social competence, a significant interaction effect was obtained for group and time, also favoring the CSL group ($F = 8.080$; $p = 0.006$). Finally, for academic achievement, no significant interaction effects for group and time were obtained.

Results suggest that the CSL intervention is significantly better than the PWE intervention given the interaction effect for group and time on work performance and social competence. Results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Multivariate tests for the interaction for group and time on overall scores

Source	Df	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Time*Group					
WPP	1	3.975	0.051	0.067	0.500
WSSC	1	8.080	0.006*	0.128	0.797
NDRT	1	0.005	0.944	0.000	0.051

*$p < 0.05$

Hypothesis Ten
There will be a significant interaction effect for group and time across the five subscales of task orientation, social skills, work motivation, work conformance, and personal presentation of ED adolescents as measured by the WPP.

A significant interaction effect for group and time was found for work motivation ($F = 4.583$; $p = 0.037$) and personal presentation ($F = 10.534$; $p = 0.002$), in favor of the CSL group. Results suggest that the CSL intervention produced significantly greater changes in work motivation and personal presentation than the PWE intervention. Results are presented in Table 2 (next page).

Table 2. Multivariate tests for the interaction for group and time on WPP subscales

Source	Df	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Time*Group					
Task orientation	1	3.431	0.069	0.059	0.444
Social skills	1	0.563	0.456	0.010	0.114
Work motivation	1	4.583	0.037*	0.077	0.557
Work conformance	1	2.016	0.161	0.035	0.287
Personal presentation	1	10.534	0.002*	0.161	0.890

*p < 0.05

Hypothesis Eleven
There will be a significant interaction effect for group and time across the four subscales of self-control, peer relations, school adjustment, and empathy of ED adolescents as measured by the WSSC.

A significant interaction effect for group and time was found for peer relations (F = 6.631; p = 0.013) and school adjustment (F = 6.108; p = 0.017), in favor of the CSL group. Results suggest that the CSL intervention produced significantly greater changes in peer relations and school adjustment than the PWE intervention. Results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Multivariate tests for the interaction for group and time on WSSC subscales

Source	Df	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Time*Group					
Self-control	1	3.805	0.056	0.065	0.483
Peer relations	1	6.631	0.013*	0.108	0.716
School adjustment	1	6.108	0.017*	0.100	0.680
Empathy	1	3.203	0.079	0.055	0.420

*p < 0.05

Hypothesis Twelve
There will be a significant interaction effect for group and time across the subscales of vocabulary and reading comprehension of ED adolescents as measured by the NDRT.

Multivariate tests did not detect a significant interaction effect for vocabulary and reading comprehension.

Discussion

Work Performance

The analysis of work performance demonstrated an interaction effect for group and time on the dependent variables of work motivation and personal presentation, favoring the CSL group and producing medium and

large effects respectively. The interaction effect bordered on significance for overall work performance, again favoring the CSL group with a medium effect being detected. While both groups improved their work performance for the most part over time, the CSL group produced more significant changes when compared to the PWE group.

This is perhaps the area that shows the most promise for utilizing CSL as an important work-based learning approach. As we know from previous research, paid work experience during high school is an important predictor of postsecondary employability (Benz, Lindstrom, & Yovanoff, 2000; Bullis, Moran, Benz, Todis, & Johnson, 2002). The fact that CSL contributes to significant improvements in overall work performance, and is shown to be significantly better than PWE in certain areas confirms the suggestion that CSL should be utilized more in schools as an effective work-based learning method.

The analysis did not produce a main effect for group on overall work performance, task orientation, social skills, work motivation, work conformance, and personal presentation. In addition, there were no differences between the CSL group and the PWE group for these variables.

As this was an exploratory study, it is noteworthy to find that the two groups were not different in terms of overall work performance and the five subscales of work performance. As of this writing, there are no comparative studies of CSL and PWE for high school students with ED. However, the results may indicate that both interventions are equally effective, perhaps due to the different components each offers, specifically, pay as a motivator for employment success (PWE) and the use of mentoring, reflection, and empathic learning as a means to personal and interpersonal growth (CSL).

The analysis produced a significant main effect for time on overall work performance, social skills, work conformance, and personal presentation, suggesting that the 13-week duration of work-based learning had an impact on these variables. In particular, the CSL group significantly improved over the time of the intervention for overall work performance, task orientation, social skills, work motivation, work conformance, and personal presentation. The PWE group significantly improved over time for social skills and bordered on significance for work conformance.

The findings suggest that both work-based learning interventions are important for improving performance in those areas. The CSL group improved in each work performance subscale to scores of over three, which is well into the satisfactory range. Given the large effect sizes, CSL appears to be a very effective job training intervention. Essentially, by improving their overall work performance, task orientation, social skills, work motivation, work conformance, and personal presentation, students in the CSL group became more independent workers, learned to relate well with their co-workers, responded to job assignments better, learned to conform to the rules of the job, and responded more appropriately to authority and supervision.

The PWE group improved significantly for social skills and near significance for work conformance. For both work performance areas, the PWE group also increased their mean scores to over three, representing a satisfactory performance. Improvement in social skills specifically means the PWE group improved their relationships with their co-workers, such as being friendlier and more sociable on the job whereas in work conformance, this group learned to adapt much better over time to relevant job requirements and improved their ability to display good social judgment.

The PWE group did not demonstrate significant improvement for overall work performance, task orientation, or work motivation. Further, the pre-test–post-test scores for task orientation and work motivation had little variation at all, and in the end remained under three, a potential employability problem (Bolton & Roessler, 1986a). It appears that the PWE group fell short on areas related to overall work habits, such as learning

quickly and performing independently (task orientation) as well as accepting routine assignments and responding to change (work motivation).

While the group did improve their overall work performance score, it was not significant and in the end remained less than satisfactory. It is possible that these results may have to do with students' work history, as the more work experience one has the more likely they will experience employment success. In this study, more than 56 percent of participants (n = 17) in the PWE group were either never employed or held only one job prior to the investigation. Students with more work experience prior to the investigation (two or more jobs) accounted for 43 percent of the group (n = 13).

Social Competence

The analysis found an interaction effect for group and time on overall social competence, peer relations, and school adjustment, favoring the CSL group. However, this result should be interpreted with caution as the PWE group obtained higher pre-test scores than the CSL group.

The analysis did not detect a main effect for group for overall social competence. In addition, there were no significant differences between the CSL group and the PWE group for overall social competence. However, statistical significance was less than 10 percent, and it is possible that the failure to find this difference was due to low power.

The analysis did not find a main effect for group on the subscale scores of the WSSC. Results did show significant differences between the two groups for self-control, peer relations, school adjustment, and empathy, favoring the CSL group. Consistent with these findings are studies that show how community service learning promotes overall social-emotional change for high school students with ED (McCarty & Hazelkorn, 2001), including self-esteem (Jennings, 2001), problem-solving, leadership (Kluth, 2000), and social skills (Yoder, Retish, & Wade, 1996). This is important given the longitudinal studies which indicate that high school students with ED have significantly lower social skills than their others in their peer group (Armstrong, Dedrick, & Greenbaum, 2003; Wagner & Cameto, 2004).

Results showed a significant main effect for time on overall social competence, self-control and empathy. With medium and large effects detected, the 13-week intervention was again considered to be an important factor for these variables. The CSL group in particular improved significantly over the course of the intervention for overall social competence, self-control, peer relations, school adjustment, and empathy.

The PWE group did not improve over time. However, as indicated earlier, their pre-test scores were considerably higher than the pre-test scores of the CSL group. Given these differences, a ceiling effect may have occurred. At week 13, the post-test scores for the PWE group were quite comparable to the post-test scores for the CSL group, with both groups obtaining mean scores above three for all the subscales.

A possible reason the PWE group had higher pre-test scores for social competence may have to do with differences in age. This group had more individuals in the 18-21 year old range than the CSL group. While age itself doesn't necessarily imply maturity or social competence, it at least must be considered given these findings.

Academic Achievement

In terms of academic achievement, results did not detect an interaction effect for group and time. In addition, the analysis did not produce a main effect for group, and there were no significant differences between the two groups on overall reading achievement, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. Results also did not

produce a main effect for time, as neither group improved their reading scores over the course of the intervention.

It is possible that the lack of improvement in reading may also have more to do with the relatively short duration of the intervention. Perhaps 13 weeks is not enough time to make significant gains in reading given the literature's findings that high school students with ED need comprehensive services over a longer period of time (Greenbaum, Dedrick, Friedman, Kutash, Brown, Lardieri, & Pugh, 1996).

Summary

In this study, community service learning demonstrated great value as a work-based learning intervention when compared to paid work experience. CSL appears to be effective because of the unique components of mentoring, empathic learning, and reflection. The mentoring that the CSL group received not only provided them with job support and supervision, students were also able to experience these adults as role models whose commitment in life were to the service of others. This altruism is important when it comes to developing empathy as well as appropriate workplace relationships. Reflection also plays a part in this as it provides students with an opportunity to examine the community service learning experience to include the various aspects of their work performance, including social skills and relationships with others. For this study, reflection occurred through various methods, including group discussion, personal presentations, research, and journal writing.

Cognitive development and constructivist learning theory provide a theoretical connection to the unique components of CSL. Constructivist learning theory states that individuals have an inherent drive to understand and find meaning in the world (Kerka, 1997). Community service learning facilitates the construction of knowledge as high school students with ED improve their work performance through their active, interpersonal, and reflective engagement in community-based work.

Reflected intelligence is a construct that provides a basis for why mentoring, empathic learning, and reflection are a part of why community service learning is effective. It is defined as an interpersonal process that occurs when individuals reflect upon their own cognitive processes and compare them to the cognitive processes of others (Piaget, 1995). As a result, individuals grow both personally and interpersonally as they are more aware of others' points of view and feelings. Community service learning has this important interpersonal process where adolescents gain socially from mentors, coworkers, supervisors, and even clients.

Implications for Counseling Practice

Perhaps the most important implication for this study is the efficacy of CSL in improving work performance and social competence. Given the postsecondary employment concerns of high school students with ED, the need for effective work-based learning programs such as CSL are critical for the future of this population.

Many professionals in the field of counseling and special education will encounter the ED population, including rehabilitation counselors, vocational educators, transition coordinators, and mental health counselors. These professionals will have the challenge of developing CSL interventions that focuses on job-development and social skills. In addition, rehabilitation counselors may want to consider utilizing CSL as these students exit high school.

Further, professionals in the field should be aware that mentoring and reflection strategies are effective and necessary components for CSL interventions. Mentors are important for teaching and modeling appropriate work-place relationships. They act as social supports for those students who are adjusting to the interpersonal demands that often occur on the job.

Counselors should also be well-versed in understanding how to incorporate reflection into the CSL intervention. Counselors should be facilitative in engaging students to think about, interpret, and share their experiences with others as a way to grow personally and interpersonally on the job.

Finally, counselors should be aware that community service learning offers high school students with ED easy access to a wider array of employment options that often are more focused on vocational interests, potential careers, and opportunities in the field of non-profit and charitable organizations. It is often easier to help high school student with ED obtain volunteer jobs than more competitive positions in the general market.

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BARRICADED HOSTAGE AND CRISIS SITUATIONS IN SCHOOLS: A REVIEW OF RECENT INCIDENTS

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Abstract

Although not common occurrences, schools are occasionally the site of hostage events. The deadliest occurred in Beslan, Russia in 2004. In that situation terrorists held the school under siege for 53 hours before a shootout resulted in the deaths of more than 360 people. In the fall of 2006, an adult intruder entered Platte Canyon High School in Bailey, Colorado, and another adult entered West Nickel Mines School in Nickel Mines, Pennsylvania the following week. The outcomes were tragic. To date little research has examined school hostage events. Daniels et al. (2007) presented results of interviews with school personnel who intervened to successfully avert injuries in school hostage events. The purpose of this paper is to describe 19 school hostage events that occurred between February, 1998 and May, 2007. All incidents occurred in the United States. Data were obtained by examination of news reports of each incident, and include the following variables: date; time; incident location; offender age and sex; hostages/victims; injuries; deaths; demands; deadlines; escapes; releases; whether or not the school had an armed School Resource Officer (SRO); presence or absence of screening; behavioral changes prior to the incident; weapons; expected outcome; how the incident was resolved; whether or not there was a tactical team; whether or not there was a negotiator; and the negotiation effectiveness. Based on results, the authors offer recommendations for school and law enforcement personnel.

Introduction

School violence takes many forms, from verbal altercations and bullying to assault, robbery, and murder (DeVoe et al., 2004). Considerable attention has been given to bullying, which is often seen as a precursor to the more violent forms of aggression, including school shootings (e.g., Greif & Furlong, 2006; O'Toole, 2000). Following the rash of shooting rampages of the 1990s numerous agencies and researchers studied the problem of school shooters, including the Federal Bureau of Investigation (O'Toole, 2000), the U. S. Department of Education (Dwyer, Osher, & Warger, 1998), and the U.S. Secret Service (Vossekuil, Fein, Reddy, Borum, & Modzeleski, 2002). As a result of these and other efforts much has been learned about school shootings. These studies have focused on adolescent school shooters. Less is known, however, of potentially lethal, yet averted incidents. Also, little attention has been given to other forms of lethal school violence, such as barricaded hostage and crisis situations in schools.

Daniels et al. have been studying two types of averted potentially lethal school violence: averted school rampages and successfully resolved barricaded hostage and crisis situations in schools. Daniels et al. (2007) content analyzed newspaper reports of averted school rampages. Similar to findings of school shootings, they found that the majority of plotters informed one or more people of their intentions and the most common motive was retaliation for being bullied. Unlike schools at which a shooting occurred, the present results

revealed that plots were frequently uncovered as a result of students coming forward and reporting their concerns (breaking the code of silence).

In a qualitative study of averted rampages, Daniels, Volungis, Pshenishny, Gandhi, and Winkler (2007) found that the most commonly discussed preventive theme was the relationships school personnel establish with all students. These relationships were characterized by deliberate efforts to show students dignity and respect. Interviewees further described the importance of these positive relationships when intervening once the plot had been uncovered because suspects were more open during the investigation. Finally, these authors discussed the importance of school-community collaboration in averting lethal school violence.

One form of school violence that has not received considerable research attention is the barricaded hostage or crisis situation. Vecchi, Van Hasselt, and Romano (2005) pointed out that there is some confusion of terms in the literature. They indicated that barricaded hostage situations entail taking one or more people captive "for 'instrumental' or tangible reasons" such as using the hostages as leverage for the hostage takers' demands (p. 535). Barricaded crisis situations involve taking one or more people captive "for 'expressive' or intangible reasons" such as an expression of his or her emotional state or intending ultimately to kill the victim (p. 535). The most effective means of resolving these situations is through negotiation. The aims of negotiation differ, however, depending on whether or not a given situation is a hostage or crisis event. Failure to adjust one's negotiation strategy to reflect the type of crisis may lead to tragic results. It is therefore important to understand that a barricaded hostage situation and a barricaded crisis situation are subsets under the larger umbrella of "captive-taking" wherein a barricade exists that prevents law enforcement officers from directly confronting the perpetrator and the captive is either a hostage or a victim, depending on the motivation of the perpetrator in holding the captive (instrument versus expressive).

To date only two systematic studies of school barricaded hostage and crisis situations have been found in the literature. Daniels et al. (2007b) interviewed school authorities who were directly involved in classroom hostage or crisis events. As with the findings of the previously-mentioned study, participants described the establishment and utilization of positive relationships as the most salient preventive factor. Additional important findings included communicating with the perpetrator in a calm, non-confrontational manner, negotiating for the release of the captives, and training for hostage and crisis events. Reporting similar findings, Daniels et al. (2007a) presented a case study of a school counselor's response to a classroom barricaded crisis event.

Previous research has examined only school hostage/crisis events that were successfully resolved. Moreover, this research included interviews only with school and law enforcement personnel who were directly involved with the situations. It is therefore important to continue studying these events from different perspectives. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to describe 19 school captive events that occurred between February, 1998 and May, 2007 in the United States. This study will begin to answer important questions about a form of school violence for which little is known.

Methodology

A search was conducted of the *Lexus/Nexus Academic* database using the search strings "school & hostage" and "school & barricade." *Lexus/Nexus* is a database of news reports. We found a total of 19 barricaded hostage and crisis events that had occurred between February, 1998 and May, 2007. We examined 21 variables: Date, Time. Incident Location, Offender Age and Sex, Hostages, Injuries, Deaths, Demands, Deadlines, Escapes, Releases, Whether or not the school had an Armed School Resource Officer (SRO), Presence or Absence of Screening, Behavioral Changes prior to the incident, Weapons, Expected Outcome, How the incident was Resolved, Whether or not there was a Tactical Team, Whether or not there was a Negotiator, and the Negotiation Effectiveness.

Findings

Findings from this study are arranged according to information about the schools and communities, the events, characteristics of the perpetrators, and characteristics of the hostages/victims.

The Schools and Communities

The 19 incidents occurred in 14 states, one in each of the following: Arizona, Colorado, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Utah and Virginia. There were two incidents in Texas, and three in both California and Washington State. Populations of the communities in which these schools are located ranged from 806 to 1.2 million (2000 U.S. Census Data), with a mean of 108,767 and a median of 14,523. These populations are somewhat skewed because data were not available for very small towns, so the population of either the county or a neighboring town/township was used.

Barricaded hostage and crisis situations occurred at all three levels of schools, with the majority (12) in high schools, five in middle or junior high schools, and one in an elementary school. One incident occurred in an alternative high school, and one incident occurred in a one-room schoolhouse. School size was determined from 2006 enrollments. High schools had from 72 to 2,571 students, with a mean of 1,237. Enrollments from the middle/junior high schools ranged from 537 to 1,696 (M = 1,038), and the elementary school had 728 students. The one-room schoolhouse had an enrollment of 27 students.

It was not clear whether or not schools had resource officers or student screening procedures. However, news reports indicated that seven schools had resource officers (although one was not in the building at the time of the incident). Of the seven SROs, five were employed in high schools and two were in middle/junior high schools. One school did not have an SRO employed. Three SROs were armed at the time, one was not armed, and no mention was made of the remaining three. With respect to student screening, information was available for eight schools. The majority (14) did not have metal detectors. One school had a metal detector, but it was used randomly once per month. Two schools had handheld wands that were used only if officials believed a student was armed, or during large events (such as sporting events).

The Events

The 19 events included in this study occurred between February 1998 and May 2007. Most incidents occurred in the morning (12), and three occurred around mid-day. Three incidents occurred later in the day, around the last period or after normal school hours. Information was not available about the time of day for one incident.

There were various means by which incidents were resolved. The most common resolution was that the offender was talked into surrendering, either by school personnel, police, or trained law enforcement negotiators (n = 6). Five incidents were resolved through actions of tactical teams: in three incidents the offender was apprehended and in two the offender was killed by gunfire. Three incidents were successfully resolved through confrontations (police ordering the offender to drop his weapons, or in one case, other students tackling the offender). Two incidents ended when the offender committed suicide. Two incidents were resolved when the offender left the scene, and one incident ended in a murder/suicide.

Negotiators were involved in 11 incidents. In one of these situations, it was the captives who negotiated for their release, and in another the teacher negotiated the release of the students. Of the 11 negotiated events, six were successful, four were not successful (i.e., the offender or others were shot), and one resulted in the release of some, but not all captives. In this incident, the offender was eventually shot while killing a remaining captive.

With the exception of the previously-mentioned offenders being shot by tactical operators, only two additional incidents resulted in injuries of the captives. In one situation all captives had been sexually molested, and in the other five captives were shot and wounded. As to deaths, six incidents resulted in the deaths of the offenders and/or captives. Two incidents ended when the offender was critically shot by police or tactical operators. Two offenders committed suicide. At one school the offender killed one captive as he was being shot by tactical operators. One incident ended when the offender committed suicide after killing five captives.

Offender Characteristics

All offenders in the situations included for this study were males. They ranged in age from 12 to 53, with a mean age of 17.9 years. Two perpetrators were adult external intruders into the schools, while a third was a teenage intruder coming back into his old elementary school. All other perpetrators were students in the schools at which the events happened. Prior to the crisis events, behavioral markers had been noted in 15 of the incidents. Although there were no clear-cut patterns, behavioral markers included being a new transfer student to the school (n = 3), treatment for a psychiatric disorder (n = 3), recent suspension or expulsion from school (n = 2), and leakage (i.e., informing others that there was going to be a "party" that day). Other individuals experienced family or other interpersonal problems (e.g., a recent breakup with a girlfriend, death of mother), dressing in black or camouflage prior to the incident, dropping out of school, home problems, and running away from home. In one situation, the perpetrator, an external intruder, was known to have been "casing" the school the day before the event.

Weapons included guns, knives, and other incendiary materials. The most frequently employed weapon was a single gun (11 incidents). Guns ranged from an air rifle to .22 caliber handguns, shotguns, rifles, and automatic handguns. Two suspects used both a gun and a knife, and two brought one or more guns and incendiary materials (e.g., gun powder, lighter fluid). One individual brought a gun and a stun gun; one person brought two knives, and one suspect claimed he had a bomb, although it was later determined that he did not. Finally, one perpetrator used a toy gun.

In 15 incidents one or more captives were released at some time during the event. Suspects primarily released people as a result of negotiations, although some released captives who had certain characteristics (i.e., all women were released, or all students). More information about captive characteristics is presented below.

Perpetrators made specific demands in six of the 19 incidents. One suspect demanded that the teacher lock the door, and that he be allowed to remain alone with one of the captives for one hour (a female hostage). One student demanded the teacher's car keys, another demanded a car, and a third demanded a van with a full tank of gas. One suspect demanded to talk with the principal, and another demanded that the police "back off." Finally, one student had planned to demand money and a helicopter, but the incident ended before he could make the order. In only two incidents were deadlines specified by the perpetrator. Interestingly, these were the two incidents that involved adult external intruders into the school. One perpetrator, at around 3:30 p.m., gave a deadline of 4:00 p.m. The other's deadline was only two seconds, and then he began shooting.

The perpetrators' expected outcomes were specified in 10 of the crises. Most outcomes included the death of one ore more hostage/victims and/or the death of the perpetrator. Two individuals expected to commit suicide (including "suicide by cop"), and one planned on killing a teacher before committing suicide. One person merely expected to die. In addition, one suspect planned to rape and then kill one of the captives. Three perpetrators intended to use the captives as a means of escape (running away or escaping abusive homes). One student intended to scare others, and one seemed to want to gain attention.

Victim Characteristics

Captives were taken in 18 of the 19 events, and one constituted a lone-barricade situation, wherein the student locked himself in a classroom. Across the 18 incidents 243 people were taken as captives. In the majority of the events, the captives were students (16 of the 19 incidents). Often these included students and the teacher of an entire class. In most cases it was an entire class that was held captive (n = 10, involving approximately 194 students). In four situations only female students were held (involving 21 students), and in three events only males were held (four students). In 13 events, teachers were included as captives, with the majority being women (six women, three men, and four gender unspecified). Finally, administrators were held in two crises.

A total of approximately 153 captives escaped during eight events. This number is not completely accurate because in one incident the report was that "a few" students escaped, and in another the suspect fired his weapon into the ceiling of the cafeteria and approximately 130 students fled the room at that point. Most escapes occurred in the early confusing moments of the event (this occurred in two incidents, but constituted about 140 people). In two incidents a few people escaped when the police arrived or during the chaos experienced during a tactical entrance into the room. There was insufficient information in the remainder of incidents to determine how or when captives escaped.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to shed light on one form of school violence that has received very little research attention; namely, school barricaded hostage and crisis situations. The results are particularly important in light of the events of late September and early October of 2006, wherein an armed intruder entered Platte Canyon High School and took six young women captive before taking his life when police forcibly entered the classroom. One week later another armed intruder entered a one-room schoolhouse in West Nickel Mines, Pennsylvania and killed five student captives and himself, before police could effectively intervene.

Examination of news accounts of school barricaded hostage and crisis situations provides a general overview of the scope of these events. We described important features of 19 school crisis events related to the schools and communities in which these events occurred, the events, characteristics of the offenders, and characteristics of the captives. Several conclusions may be drawn from these data.

School barricaded hostage crises can occur in any type of school and any community size. As indicated, these events occurred in communities of less than 800 and with more than one million people. No school level is immune from this form of violence: We studied events that took place in a one-room school house, elementary, middle/junior high, and high schools. There were no clear patterns with respect to school safety measures. School resource officers (SROs) were mentioned for only seven schools, and only five appeared to have metal detectors.

These findings are similar to what has been found about schools at which a shooting took place. Specifically, there was a perception prior to the rash of school rampages in the 1990s that smaller schools and those in rural communities were immune to the lethal violence of big cities. However, that perception was shattered when people realized that lethal school violence can occur at any school in any community (e.g., Newman, Fox, Harding, Mehta, & Roth, 2004) following shootings in such innocuous places as Moses Lake, Washington, Pearl, Mississippi, and Jonesboro, Arkansas. Results of this study clearly indicate that a barricaded hostage crisis event can occur in any community across any grade level of school. The implication is that all schools need to be prepared for handling armed intruders and have a safety plan in place should such an event arise.

With regard to the events included in this study, several important findings emerge. First, the majority of offenders were students enrolled in the school at which the event took place. In only three of the 19 situations was the offender an external intruder. The majority of crises occurred in the morning hours, suggesting that

this is the time of day when school personnel need to be especially alert. This is not to say that school personnel should drop their guard after lunch because several situations happened later in the day. The most common means by which incidents were resolved was through verbal strategies, including students, teachers and other school personnel, and law enforcement negotiators talking the offender into surrendering. In almost all incidents captives were unharmed. Indeed, of the 19 incidents six ended in the death of the offender (either tactically or by suicide) and two resulted in injuries and deaths of captives. Interestingly, in these two situations the offenders were external intruders into the schools.

Hostage/crisis negotiation has been indicated as one of the most effective police interventions (Regini, 2002). Vecchi et al. (2005) articulated the goals and strategies of crisis negotiation. In particular, the goals include establishing communication and developing rapport, buying time, defusing intense emotions, and gathering information. The negotiator uses validating communication skills to accomplish these goals. These skills include active listening, empathy, and rapport to effect behavioral change. In many of the school barricaded hostage crisis situations we studied the events were resolved before law enforcement negotiators arrived on the scene. As previously indicated, it was often the students, teachers, or administrators who negotiated the release of captives and the surrender of the offender. An important area for future research will be to interview these untrained individuals and ascertain what skills they utilized.

Some light has been shed on the issue of captive behavior during school barricaded hostage events (Daniels, Bradley et al., 2007b). In particular, one teacher described remaining calm and complying with the demands of the offender when he entered her classroom with a gun. When the offender ordered everyone into the back of the room the teacher stated "I just said, 'okay,' and um so we just went and sat in the corner and we all just sat there quietly." This use of remaining calm and complying with demands was seen as an essential element of the successful resolution of the situation.

In this study all offenders were male and prior to 15 (79 percent) events the offenders exhibited some form of behavioral marker that something was not right or different. The most commonly employed weapon was the gun, although other weapons included knives and explosive/incendiary devices. Offenders released some or all captives in 15 incidents. Offenders made specific demands in only six (31.2 percent) situations. Thus, it appears that the majority of situations were expressive events (Vecchi et al., 2005).

Although there are some striking commonalities across offenders in this study, we must caution law enforcement and educators against profiling. Profiling is problematic for four reasons: First, the intention of criminal profiling is to work backwards from a crime scene to try to narrow down the pool of suspects (Hicks & Sales, 2006). There is no evidence that attempting to predict future criminal behavior by a set of warning signs or personality characteristics is accurate. Second, given the low frequency of school barricaded hostage crises, it is impossible to establish a base rate from which an accurate picture of a hostage taker/barricader can emerge. Thus, the likelihood false negatives is extremely high (i.e., we cannot assume that every male student who begins dressing in fatigues, has problems at home, and has recently experienced an interpersonal loss will come to school armed). Third, and relatedly, profiling has been criticized as a violation of students' rights (Dwyer et al., 1998). Finally, there is no accurate profile of a school shooter (O'Toole, 2000; Vossekuil et al., 2002); therefore, as an extension of potential lethal school violence, we conclude there is no accurate profile of a school hostage taker/barricader.

There were no common themes that we could ascertain about the captives in this study. Most captives were students, although teachers and administrators also were held. Approximately 63 percent of the captives escaped in these situations. Although not included in the present data, there is some indication that captives experience an array of reactions. For example, captives often report lingering psychological problems such as Acute Stress Disorder and Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (Giebels, Noelanders, & Vervaeke, 2005). Moreover, some captives may experience positive feelings towards the offender during the event, although in

crises in which the captives were injured no such positive reactions were reported (Giebels et al., 2005). Thus, we recommend that following a school barricaded hostage crisis practitioners must be prepared to work with a wide array of emotional reactions in a non-judgmental way (Daniels, Bradley, & Hays, in press).

Barricaded hostage and crisis events constitute one form of potentially lethal school violence, yet these situations have not received much attention from researchers. This paper represents one initial response to this need. The authors are presently engaged in systematic research that will continue to uncover needed information about this type of crisis event in schools. Specifically, we are in the early stages of a study of juvenile school hostage takers. In this study we will conduct intensive interviews with juveniles who held their schools under siege. Ultimately, we will be able to develop recommendations for school and law enforcement personnel to increase the likelihood that they will intervene successfully in school barricaded hostage and crisis events.

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DO I TRUST YOU? BULLYING VICTIMS' SOCIAL SUPPORT WITH THEIR TEACHERS AND FRIENDS

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Abstract

Bullying is thought to be one of the most prevalent forms of victimization in our nation's schools. Understanding bullying victimization is critical to the emotional and social health of students. Using the 2005 School Crime Supplement, this study is an examination of the social supports for bullying victims. The objectives of this study are to: (a) present detailed descriptive data on the types of bullying that students report experiencing; (b) investigate differences in the perceived social support of students who are bullying victims and non-victims; and © investigate the relationship between bullying victimization and social support, controlling for student and school background characteristics and type of bullying. Significant differences in social support were found between bullying victims and nonvictims as well as by type of bullying.

Introduction

Our nation's schools should be safe havens, free of crime and violence, where students can focus on learning (Dinkes, Cataldi, Kena, and Baum, 2006). Any instance of crime or violence at school affects those who are involved as well as bystanders and the surrounding school environment. Although weapon carrying, theft, and drug use may be more obvious acts of school crime, bullying is thought to affect the greatest number of students (Batsche, 2002) and leads to some of the most deleterious personal and school outcomes. Bullying victimization has been correlated with poor mental health, insecurity, depression, subsequent adult mental health problems, dropping out of school, and academic difficulties (Cohn & Canter, 2002; Swearer et al., 2004; Sharp, Thompson, & Auroa, 2000; Borg, 1998).

The presence of social support in students' lives is considered a positive factor which has many positive associations (Demaray & Malecki, 2003). Although there are many negative outcomes associated with bullying victimization (such as those listed above), social support mitigates these negative outcomes. A seminal study in this field by Demary and Malecki (2003) was limited to a small, mostly Hispanic urban middle school, which limits their findings. This study expands on the work of Emary and Malecki by using a nationally representative sample of students.

As used in this paper, social support is defined as support that contributes to a person's overall physical and mental well-being (Kilpatrick & Malecki, 2003). Social support can come from friends, adults, or teachers and can come in many different forms. For example, emotional support can come from listening, and informational support can come from books, magazine articles, and pamphlets. Respondents to social support questions are able to provide an evaluation of support they perceive to be available and/or actually use (such as "strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," and "strongly disagree") (Tardy, 1985). Similar to the effects of victimization, low levels of social support have been correlated with poor psychological, social, academic, and health outcomes (Levitt, 1994; Frey & Rothlisberger, 1996).

Although there is a large body of work showing that social support is strongly related to positive student outcomes, there is a limited body of research that investigates the relationship between social support and bullying victimization. Despite this lack of research, bullying prevention programs that encourage youth to speak out about their victimization – such as the "Stop Bullying Now!" campaign – have proliferated. However, without an understanding of whether or not bullying victims have the social support to speak out and inform an adult, teacher, or friend that the bullying is occurring, intervention programs based on student outspokenness are misguided. Although the "Stop Bullying Now!" campaign encourages teachers to recognize the signs of bullying and intervene, research has shown that teachers are less likely to intervene in victimization scenarios involving relational (i.e., emotional) bullying than in those involving overt (i.e., physical) bullying. This study is an examination of victimization by overt and relational bullying and perceived social support for victims in order to provide insight into how social support varies by specific types of victimization.

The objectives of this study are to: (a) present detailed descriptive data on the types of bullying behavior that students report experiencing, (b) investigate differences in the perceived social support of students who are bullying victims and students who are not victims, and © investigate the relationship between victimization and social support, controlling for student and school background characteristics and various types of bullying.

Specifically, using seven social support outcome measures (page 72), the research questions for this study include the following:

- What is the association between victimization and social support, controlling for student and school factors such as race, gender, grade, and school type?
- Does the relationship between bullying victimization and social support vary according to the type of bullying victimization and social support measure?

Theoretical Framework

Bullying is defined as a harmful behavior by a person or group that occurs repeatedly over time (Demary & Malecki, 2003). Research has shown that bullying victims are more likely to be socially marginalized than their peers (Nansel et al., 2001; Olweus, 1994) and less likely to have social support (Rigby, 2000). Understanding this relationship between bullying victims and social support is crucial to identifying successful intervention methods.

Previous research has shown that certain school and student characteristics are correlated with bullying victimization. Gender, for example, is positively correlated with certain types of bullying victimization. Research has shown that girls are more likely to be victims of relational bullying and boys are more likely to experience overt bullying. It has also been shown that girls, in general, are more likely than boys to report having social support. Rigby (2000) found that girls who reported having social support were less likely to report being a victim of bullying, in general, and less likely to report frequent bullying victimization. Furlong et al. (1995) also found that bullying victims had lower levels of social support.

There is a disconnect between the emphasis of the intervention literature for bullying victims to speak out and the limited research into whether or not the bullying victims have the social support structure that enables them to do so. This research fills that gap.

Data

The analysis for this study uses data from the 2005 School Crime Supplement (SCS), which is one of the leading national data sets on school crime and safety in the United States. The SCS is appended to the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS), which is administered for the U.S. Bureau of Justice Statistics by the U.S. Bureau of the Census and is the nation's primary source of information on crime and the victims of crime.

The NCVS collects detailed information annually on the frequency and nature of the crimes of rape, sexual assault, robbery, aggravated and simple assault, theft, household burglary, and motor vehicle theft experienced by Americans and their households. The survey measures crimes reported to the police as well as non-reported victimizations.

Created as a supplement to the NCVS and co-designed by the National Center for Education Statistics, located within the U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, and the Bureau of Justice Statistics, the SCS collects additional information on school-related victimization on a national level. The SCS is designed to provide policymakers, academic researchers, and practitioners at the federal, state, and local levels with the data they need to make informed decisions about crime in schools. The SCS asks students a number of key questions about their experiences with and perceptions of crime and violence that occur inside their school, on school grounds, or on the way to or from school (including on a school bus). Additional questions concern preventive measures used by the school, students' participation in after-school activities, students' perceptions of school rules, the presence of weapons and street gangs in school, the presence of hate-related words and graffiti in school, student reports of bullying and reports of rejection at school, and the availability of drugs and alcohol in school, as well as attitudinal questions relating to fear of victimization and avoidance behavior at school. In 2005, about 7,000 students ages 12 through 18 participated in the SCS.

In 2003, the questionnaire items on bullying presented students with descriptions of what constituted bullying, along with yes/no response options. In 2005, the SCS introduced detailed questions about bullying victimization. Students were asked the following:

> Now I have some questions about what students do at school that makes you feel bad or is hurtful to you. We often refer to this as being bullied. You may include events you told me about already. During the last six months, has any other student bullied you? That is, has another student . . .
>
> - made fun of you, called you names, or insulted you?
> - spread rumors about you?
> - threatened you with harm?
> - pushed you, shoved you, tripped you, or spit on you?
> - tried to make you do things you did not want to do, for example, give them money or other things?
> - excluded you from activities on purpose?
> - destroyed your property on purpose?

For this paper, the responses to these items were used to create a measure of overall bullying. For the purposes of this study, these items were also classified into either relational or overt bullying victimization. Using the questions asked in the survey, relational bullying includes being made fun of, being the subject of rumors, and being excluded from activities on purpose. Overt bullying includes being threatened with harm; being pushed, shoved, tripped, or spit on; being made to do things you did not want to do; and having your property destroyed on purpose.

In 2005, the SCS asked a series of social support questions (i.e., social support variables or social support outcome measures) for the first time. These questions were based on the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS). MPSS was developed on university students and was validated in multiple subsequent studies. MPSS assess sources of support and is ideal for populations which cannot tolerate long questionnaires, like students. MPSS is an easy to understand survey scale and suitable for adolescents (Cheng and Chan, 2004). In the SCS, Students were asked whether they would "strongly agree," "agree," or "disagree" with the following statements about teachers, adults, and friends at their school during the last 6 months (the same questions were asked about adults and friends):

- At school, there is an adult I can talk to, who cares about my feelings and what happens to me;
- At school, I have a friend I can talk to, who cares about my feelings and what happens to me;
- At school, there is an adult who helps me with practical problems, who gives me good suggestions and advice about my problems.
- At school, I have a friend who helps me with practical problems, who gives me good suggestions and advice about my problems.
- Teachers treat students with respect;
- Teachers care about students;
- Teachers do or say things that make students feel bad about themselves.

To analyze the data for the purposes of this study, the responses to the seven social support measures (above) were condensed into a binary variable ("agree/disagree").

Preliminary Results

Bullying

First, the author investigated descriptive statistics to examine the frequency with which students reported being bullied. These findings are presented in Table 1 (Appendix).

Consistent with previous research on bullying, about 28 percent of students surveyed reported experiencing at least one type of bullying victimization during the previous 6 months. The most frequently reported type of victimization was being made fun of, called names, or insulted (19 percent), followed by being the subject of rumors (15 percent) (both are forms of relational bullying). The third most common type of victimization was being pushed, shoved, tripped, or spit on (9 percent), which is a form of overt bullying.

Overall, there was not a significant difference ($\alpha = .05$) between the percentage of boys and girls who reported being bullied (27 vs. 29 percent). However, some differences were found by gender. Girls were more likely than boys to report being the subject of rumors (19 vs. 11 percent), but there was not a significant difference in the percentage of boys and girls who reported being made fun of. Boys were more likely than girls to report being pushed or shoved (11 vs. 7 percent). Other differences by gender and victimization were not significant.

Race was strongly correlated with bullying victimization. Although the percentages of White and Black students who reported being bullied were not significantly different (30 and 29 percent, respectively), both were more likely than Hispanic students (22 percent) to report bullying. School type, public or private, was also strongly correlated, with public school students more likely to report being bullied than their private school peers (29 vs. 23 percent).

A chi-square test among all student/school background measures and victimization showed that all correlations were significant at alpha = .05. Race/ethnicity and urbanicity showed the strongest correlation, and grade showed the weakest correlation.

Social Support

Next, the study investigated descriptive statistics to examine the frequency with which students reported having social support. These findings are presented in Table 2 (Appendix).

Overall, students reported having high levels of social support from adults, friends, and teachers. Ninety-two percent of students reported having an adult with whom they can talk and who cares about their feelings and what happens to them; 96 percent reported the same about a friend; and 91 percent reported that teachers treat students with respect. Twenty percent of students, however, reported that teachers say or do things that make students feel bad about themselves.

The results varied by gender, race, and urbanicity. Overall, there was no difference in the percentage of boys and girls who reported having an adult with whom they can talk and who cares about their feelings (91 and 92 percent, respectively). However, girls were more likely than boys to report having a friend with whom they can talk and who cares about their feelings (98 vs. 95 percent).

Overall, White students (93 percent) were more likely than Black or Hispanic students (89 percent each) to report having an adult with whom they can talk and who cares about them. White students (98 percent) were also more likely than Black or Hispanic students (93 and 96 percent) to report having a friend with whom they can talk and who cares about them.

Social Support by Victimization

The author then investigated descriptive statistics to examine differences in social support between students who were victims of different types of bullying and students who were not victims. These findings are reported in Table 3 and 4 (Appendix).

The differences in social support measures between students who were victims of bullying and students who were not victims are presented in Table 4. Overall, the differences were significant for all measures. The largest differences were for students who reported that teachers treat them with respect (a 7-percentage-point difference between victims and nonvictims) and that teachers do or say things that make them feel bad (a 9-percentage-point difference). Other differences ranged from 2 to 5 percentage points.

Significant differences were also found by type of bullying and type of social support measure. For example, there was a nearly 7-percentage-point difference between students who were excluded from activities on purpose and those who were not in reporting help from an adult with practical problems (84 vs. 91 percent, respectively). A large difference was also found in the percentage of students who were the subject of rumors and those were not in reporting that teachers treat them with respect (a 10-percentage-point difference). The largest differences were between victims and nonvictims reporting that teachers do/say things that make students feel bad about themselves.

Bullying, Social Support, and Student Background Characteristics

The final analysis conducted in this study investigated the differences in social support controlling for multiple independent variables. Using logistic regression models, the odds of having social support were modeled on whether or not the respondent was a bullying victim, controlling for several student and school

background characteristics: gender, race, urbanicity, and school type. The results are presented in tables 5 and 6 (Appendix).

Grade was not a significant variable in any of the seven logistic regression models, which is consistent with the results from the descriptive statistics, and was removed from the models. All models presented are significant ($\alpha = .05$) using a Pearson chi-square goodness of fit estimate and a Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness of fit. All beta coefficients that are significant at $\alpha =. 05$ are identified.

Controlling for student and school background characteristics, students who reported being bullying victims were less likely to report having social support on all social support outcome measures (Table 5). For example, students who were bullied were half as likely as nonvictims to report having an adult who cared about them. In addition, victimization was one of the strongest predictors of low social support in all seven models. Overall, victimization was most strongly correlated with having low social support from a friend, which is not surprising given that the definition of being bullied involves being ostracized by one's peers.

Overall, in every model, minority students, particularly Hispanic students, were less likely than their White peers to report having social support at school. Attending a public school also decreased the likelihood of having social support. Being female increased the odds of having social support. Students living in an urban or suburban area were less likely to report having social support than students who lived in rural areas.

Next, the study examined social support and a particular type of victimization – being excluded from activities on purpose. The results for this particular type of victimization were consistent with the results for overall victimization.

Educational and Scientific Importance of the Study

Because students who are victims of different types of bullying are unlikely to have a teacher or friend to trust, it is crucial that bullying prevention programs focus more on teacher intervention and less on student reports of victimization. Research on teachers' responses to bullying scenarios shows that teachers are less likely to intervene in observed relational bullying and perceive it to be less of a problem than overt bullying. However, this study shows that not only is relational bullying more pervasive than overt bullying, relational bullying also leads to similar levels of distrust.

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Statistical Procedures

Significance tests. Comparisons made in the text were tested for statistical significance to ensure that the differences are larger than might be expected due to sampling variation. When comparisons are made, *t* statistics were calculated using the following formula:

$$t = \frac{(est_1 - est_2)}{\sqrt{(se_1)^2 + (se_2)^2}}$$

Logistic regression. The regression analysis is used in this study to investigate the relationship between a dependent variable (social support) and several independent variables. Regression coefficients were calculated in WesVar using the following model:

$$Logit\ Y_i = \beta_1 \chi_{i1} + \ldots + \beta_p \chi_{ip} + \varepsilon_i$$

where Y_i is the observed value of Y for the i-th individual in the sample, χ_{ij} is the value of independent variable j for unit i, and ε_i is a random error with a mean of zero.

Appendix

Table 1. Students ages 12-18 who reported bullying problems at school during the previous six months, by selected student and school characteristics, 2005 (in percent of student population)

Student or school characteristic	Bullying Problem							
	Total	Made fun of, called names, or insulted	Subject of rumors	Threatened with harm	Pushed, shoved, tripped, spit on	Tried to make do things did not want to do	Excluded from activities on purpose	Property destroyed on purpose
Total	28.1	18.7	14.7	4.8	9	3.5	4.6	3.4
Male	27.1	18.5	11.0	5.2	10.9	3.9	4.1	3.5
Female	29.2	19.0	18.5	4.4	7.1	3.1	5.2	3.3
White	30.0	20.1	15.8	5.1	9.7	3.6	5.3	3.4
Black	28.5	18.5	14.2	4.9	8.9	4.7	4.5	4.6
Hispanic	22.3	14.7	12.4	4.6	7.6	2.6	3.0	2.7
Other race/ethnicity	24.6	16.3	11.6	2.1	6.8	2.1	2.5	2.5
Grade 6	36.6	26.3	16.4	6.4	15.1	4.4	7.4	3.9
Grade 7	35.0	25.2	18.9	6.3	15.4	4.7	7.1	4.6
Grade 8	30.4	20.4	14.3	4.3	11.3	3.8	5.4	4.5
Grade 9	28.1	18.9	13.8	5.3	8.2	3.2	3.8	2.7
Grade 10	24.9	15.5	13.6	4.9	6.8	3.6	3.6	2.9
Grade 11	23.0	14.7	13.4	3.2	4.2	2.8	3.3	2.6
Grade 12	19.9	11.3	12.5	3.5	2.9	1.8	2.2	2.4
Urban	26.0	17.7	13.3	5.5	8.5	4.1	4.9	3.9
Suburban	28.9	18.9	14.6	4.4	9.0	3.1	4.5	3.0
Rural	29.0	19.8	17.2	5.0	9.9	3.7	4.5	3.8
Public sector	28.6	19.0	14.9	5.1	9.3	3.5	4.5	3.5
Private sector	22.7	15.3	12.4	0.9	5.5	3.0	6.2	2.0

Table 2. Students ages 12-18 who reported certain measures of social support at school, by selected student and school characteristics, 2005 (in percent of student population)

Student or school characteristic	Adult		Friend		Teachers		
	Who cares about my feelings and what happens to me	Who helps me with practical problems, who gives good suggestions and advice about my problems	I can talk to, who cares about my feelings and what happens to me	Who helps me with practical problems, who gives good suggestions and advice about my problems	Treat students with respect	Care about students	Do or say things that make students feel bad about themselves
Total	91.8	90.7	96.3	95.3	90.8	93.6	20.4
Male	91.1	90.1	94.9	93.8	91.5	93.8	20.1
Female	92.5	91.3	97.7	96.7	90.1	93.3	20.8
White	93.5	91.8	97.6	96.8	92.9	95.5	16.9
Black	89.3	89.0	92.9	91.2	79.6	86.8	33.7
Hispanic	89.0	89.2	95.6	94.1	92.6	91.9	23.2
Other race/ethnicity	89.1	88.3	94.0	93.6	93.0	95.2	15.4
Grade 6	93.8	91.4	94.8	92.6	92.9	94.2	20.6
Grade 7	92.4	89.3	95.8	94.4	91.7	95.3	21.6
Grade 8	91.3	91.2	95.6	95.5	92.6	94.7	21.3
Grade 9	91.8	91.7	96.3	95.4	89.5	93.0	19.1
Grade 10	90.7	90.7	97.2	96.2	89.9	92.3	21.6
Grade 11	90.8	89.8	96.9	95.4	90.5	92.4	22.1
Grade 12	92.9	90.9	97.3	96.4	89.2	93.2	16.1
Urban	89.3	88.3	94.2	92.6	87.5	91.0	23.7
Suburban	92.4	90.5	97.3	96.3	92.2	94.2	19.3
Rural	93.6	94.7	96.5	96.1	91.4	95.6	19.1
Public sector	91.5	90.5	96.2	95.1	90.3	93.1	21.3
Private sector	94.9	92.3	97.4	96.6	97.4	99.5	10.2

Table 3. Students ages 12-18 who reported certain measures of trust at school, by type of victimization, 2005 (in percent of student population)

Type of victimization	Adult		Friend		Teachers		
	Who cares about my feelings and what happens to me	Who helps me with practical problems, who gives good suggestions and advice about my problems	I can talk to, who cares about my feelings and what happens to me	Who helps me with practical problems, who gives good suggestions and advice about my problems	Treat students with respect	Care about students	Do or say things that make students feel bad about themselves
Total	91.8	90.7	96.3	95.3	90.8	93.6	20.4
Not bullied	92.8	91.3	97.4	96.3	92.8	94.9	17.9
Bullied	89.2	89.0	93.6	92.7	85.8	90.3	26.9
Relational bullying – Made fun of, called names, or insulted:							
Not bullied	92.4	91.1	97.1	96.0	91.8	94.3	18.8
Bullied	89.1	88.9	93.0	92.3	86.5	90.3	27.2
Relational bullying – Subject of rumors:							
Not bullied	92.2	90.8	96.7	95.6	92.3	94.7	18.7
Bullied	89.0	89.6	94.4	93.3	82.1	87.1	30.3
Relational bullying – Excluded from activities on purpose:							
Not bullied	92.0	91.0	96.5	95.5	91.1	93.8	19.8
Bullied	86.7	84.3	92.4	90.7	84.6	88.2	34.5
Overt bullying – Threatened with harm:							
Not bullied	92.0	90.9	96.6	95.4	91.3	94.0	19.6
Bullied	86.8	85.2	92.2	91.5	81.3	85.8	36.2
Overt bullying – Pushed, shoved, tripped, spit on:							
Not bullied	92.0	91.0	96.7	95.5	91.5	94.0	19.5
Bullied	89.7	87.4	92.6	92.5	83.9	89.4	29.8
Overt bullying – Tried to make to do things did not want to do:							
Not bullied	92.0	90.8	96.5	95.4	91.1	93.7	20.1
Bullied	86.1	87.6	92.2	91.3	83.5	90.5	30.8
Overt bullying – Property destroyed on purpose:							
Not bullied	91.9	90.8	96.4	95.4	91.2	93.8	20.0
Bullied	88.9	86.8	94.4	92.1	79.8	87.7	33.4

Table 4. Differences between victims and non-victims reporting social support, 2005 (in percent of difference)

Type of victimization	Adult		Friend		Teachers		
	Who cares about my feelings and what happens to me	Who helps me with practical problems, who gives good suggestions and advice about my problems	I can talk to, who cares about my feelings and what happens to me	Who helps me with practical problems, who gives good suggestions and advice about my problems	Treat students with respect	Care about students	Do or say things that make students feel bad about themselves
Total	3.6*	2.3*	3.8*	3.6*	7.0*	4.6*	9.0*
Relational bullying –							
Made fun of, called names, or insulted	3.3*	2.1*	4.1*	3.7*	5.3*	4.0*	8.4*
Subject of rumors	3.2*	1.2	2.3*	2.2*	10.3*	7.6*	11.6*
Excluded from activities on purpose	5.3*	6.7*	4.1*	4.8*	6.5*	5.6*	14.7*
Overt bullying –							
Threatened with harm	5.2*	5.8*	4.3*	3.9*	10.0*	8.2*	16.5*
Pushed, shoved, trip, spit on	2.3	3.6*	4.2*	3.1*	7.6*	4.6*	10.3*
Tried to make to do things did not want to do	5.9*	3.1	4.3*	4.1*	7.6*	3.2	10.7*
Property destroyed on purpose	2.9	4.0	2.0	3.3	11.4*	6.1*	13.4*

Table 5. Logistic regression results of reported social support of students ages 12-18 by victimization, 2005

Reported any type of bully victimization	Adult				Friend				Teachers					
	Who cares about my feelings and what happens to me		Who helps me with practical problems, who gives good suggestions and advice about my problems		I can talk to, who cares about my feelings and what happens to me		Who helps me with practical problems, who gives good suggestions and advice about my problems		Treat students with respect		Care about students		Do or say things that make students feel bad about themselves	
	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)
Bullied	-0.69*	0.5	-0.49*	0.6	-1.20*	0.3	-0.91*	0.4	-0.81*	0.4	-0.84*	0.4	0.61*	1.8
Black	-0.55*	0.6	-0.41*	0.7	-0.95*	0.4	-0.90*	0.4	-1.19*	0.3	-1.22*	0.3	0.92*	2.5
Hispanic	-0.81*	0.4	-0.59*	0.6	-1.06*	0.3	-0.88*	0.4	0.07*	1.1	-0.26*	0.8	-0.04*	1.0
Other	-0.67*	0.5	-0.31*	0.7	-0.94*	0.4	-0.73*	0.5	-0.08*	0.9	-0.56*	0.6	0.48*	1.6
Public School	-0.46*	0.6	-0.21*	0.8	-0.22*	0.8	-0.25*	0.8	-1.22*	0.3	-2.50*	0.1	0.73*	2.1
Urban	-0.40*	0.7	-0.82*	0.4	-0.20*	0.8	-0.40*	0.7	-0.20*	0.8	-0.50*	0.6	0.09*	1.1
Suburban	-0.15*	0.9	-0.65*	0.5	0.40*	1.5	0.13*	1.1	0.10*	1.1	-0.31*	0.7	0.04*	1.0
Female	0.20*	1.2	0.15*	1.2	0.90*	2.5	0.72*	2.1	-0.11*	0.9	-0.04*	1.0	0.01*	1.0
Constant	3.41*	30.2	3.28*	26.5	3.89*	48.8	3.70*	40.3	4.07*	58.5	6.10*	445.9	-2.53*	0.1

Table 6. Logistic regression results of reported social support of students ages 12-18 by being excluded from activities on purpose, 2005

Reported being excluded from activities on purpose	Adult				Friend				Teachers					
	Who cares about my feelings and what happens to me		Who helps me with practical problems, who gives good suggestions and advice about my problems		I can talk to, who cares about my feelings and what happens to me		Who helps me with practical problems, who gives good suggestions and advice about my problems		Treat students with respect		Care about students		Do or say things that make students feel bad about themselves	
	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)
Bullied	-0.70*	0.5	-0.78*	0.5	-1.28*	0.3	-1.17*	0.3	-0.95*	0.4	-0.95*	0.4	1.11*	3.0
Black	-0.20*	0.8	-0.16*	0.9	-1.53*	0.2	-1.55*	0.2	-2.40*	0.1	-1.58*	0.2	2.15*	8.5
Hispanic	-0.91*	0.4	-20.48	n/a	-2.28*	0.1	-1.02*	0.4	-1.13*	0.3	-19.28	n/a	0.54*	1.7
Other	-1.26*	0.3	-0.71*	0.5	-1.77*	0.2	-1.57*	0.2	0.06*	1.1	-0.61*	0.5	0.95*	2.6
Public School	-0.51*	0.6	-0.25*	0.8	-0.31*	0.7	-0.33*	0.7	-1.29*	0.3	-2.55*	0.1	0.80*	2.2
Urban	-0.39*	0.7	-0.81*	0.4	-0.18*	0.8	-0.39*	0.7	-0.19*	0.8	-0.49*	0.6	0.07*	1.1
Suburban	-0.15*	0.9	-0.64*	0.5	0.37*	1.4	0.11*	1.1	0.09*	1.1	-0.31*	0.7	0.04*	1.0
Female	0.20*	1.2	0.15*	1.2	0.88*	2.4	0.71*	2.0	-0.12*	0.9	-0.05*	0.9	0.01*	1.0
Constant	3.95*	51.7	3.97*	52.9	4.87*	130.5	4.69*	108.6	4.86*	129.0	6.86*	955.4	-3.57*	0.0

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JUST TURN THE DARN THING OFF: UNDERSTANDING CYBERBULLYING

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Abstract

The central role that the Internet now plays in the life of children has transformed everything about bullying between youth in the First World. Three features characterize cyberbullying: it evolves rapidly, adults differ fundamentally from children in their use of the Internet, and children are comfortable with technology but ignorant about the psychological impact of their online behaviors and the dangers to which they expose themselves and their families. This presentation will review the Massachusetts Aggression Reduction Center's innovative and aggressive approach to researching and addressing both bullying and cyberbullying.

Just Turn the Darn Thing Off

Bullying and aggression in schools in Massachusetts today have reached epidemic proportions (Nansel et al., 2001). While always in existence, bullying behaviors have increased in frequency and in severity in the past few decades (Olweus, 1993). Abusive bullying behaviors begin in elementary school, peak during middle school, and begin to subside as children progress through their high school years (Cohn & Cantor, 2003). Nationwide statistics suggest that somewhere between one in six and one in four students are frequently bullied at school (Nansel et al., 2001). The 2005 Youth Risk Behavior Survey in Massachusetts found that 24 percent of Massachusetts teenagers reported being bullied at school in the year before the survey. One-fourth of Massachusetts schools in a December 2006 survey conducted by the Massachusetts Aggression Reduction Center (MARC) characterized the bullying in their school as "serious" or "extremely serious" (Englander, 2007). The problem does not seem to be improving. In that same survey, 54 percent of Massachusetts schools indicated that bullying had become more of a problem "in the last few years" (Englander, 2007). One study of Massachusetts schools found that most children who were bullied in the state were victimized for six months or longer (Mullin-Rindler, 2003). The U.S. Department of Education has found that bullying increased 5 percent between 1999 and 2001 (U.S. Department of Education, 2002) and the National Education Association (NEA) has suggested that bullying is a serious problem in U.S. Schools (NEA, 2003).

Bullying behaviors are associated with catastrophic violence. In the 2004-2005 school year, 24 school deaths in the U.S. were the results of shootings (National School Safety and Security Services, 2005), and the most common reason students bring weapons to school is protection against bullies (National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2002). We now know that the school shooters of the 1990s often reported being the chronic victims of bullies (Cohn & Canter, 2003). In the 1990s, a string of copycat shootings in suburban and rural school districts caused enormous alarm, and, although more recent attacks have been averted, vigilance and fear remain high (Englander, 2001).

Bullying has increased online as well as offline. Cyberbullying has emerged as one result of the increasingly online social life in which modern teens and children engage. Teens reported having received threatening messages, having had private emails or messages forwarded without their consent; having had an

embarrassing picture of themselves posted online without their consent; or having had rumors spread about them online (Pew Internet & American Life Project, 2007).

Because online teenage life is ever-present among First World teenagers, cyberbullying may become – or may already be – the dominant form of bullying behavior among children. Is cyberbullying more common than schoolyard bullying? A recent telephone study of 886 U.S. Internet users age 12 to 17 (conducted October to November, 2006) found that one-third (32 percent) of all teenagers who use the Internet say they have been targeted for cyberbullying online (Pew Internet & American Life Project, 2007). Another 2006 survey of 18- and 19-year old college freshman (conducted by the Massachusetts Aggression Reduction Center (MARC) at Bridgewater State College) found that 40 percent reported having been "harassed, bullied, stalked, or threatened via instant messaging" (Englander, 2006). One-fifth (20 percent) of the respondents in that study also admitted being a cyberbully themselves. Over two-thirds (73 percent) had seen an insulting, threatening, or degrading profile on a social networking website such as MySpace. A follow-up MARC survey in 2007 of undergraduate students found that 24 percent admitted to cyberbullying and that, again, 40 percent admitted to being victimized online. A 2006 poll of 1,000 children conducted by Fight Crime: Invest in Kids, found cyberbullying frequencies of about 33 percent - similar to those found by Pew and MARC (Pew Internet & American Life Project, 2007). These numbers suggest that cyberbullying (with about 35-40 percent admitting victimization) may be more common than traditional bullying (with about 20-24 percent admitting victimization).

In the most recent MARC survey (Englander, 2007), most cyberbullying perpetrators attributed their online bullying to either "anger" (65 percent) or "a joke" (35 percent) with "revenge" and "no reason" being distant third choices. More than two-thirds of students knew a friend who had been victimized online and almost one-fourth (24 percent) characterized cyberbullying as either prevalent or very prevalent in their high school. Even if cyberbullying is more prevalent than in-person bullying, the focus of cyberbullying seems to be similar to the focus of bullying: the most common foci for cyberbullies were someone's appearance and/or who they dated or befriended.

Cyberbullying seems to evoke bullying behaviors among some adolescents who otherwise might not bully. Only 13 percent of the college students in MARC's 2007 study (above) expressed the opinion that most cyberbullies "would bully no matter what;" instead, they saw bullying online as an opportunistic crime ("easier because you don't see the person" (69 percent)), done because "you can do it anonymously" (65 percent). More than two-thirds of the respondents (72 percent) characterized cyberbullies as predominantly female – a stark contrast to the traditional view that males are predominant in aggression (Englander, 2006). Females appear to use cyberbullying predominately for revenge, while boys used it mostly "as a joke." These data suggest that different approaches may need to be tried with boys and girls regarding cyberbullying, and that cyberbullying "attracts" more female offenders than traditional bullying ever did. Clearly, cyberbullying throws a wider net than traditional "in-person" aggression, and more and different types of offenders should be expected to emerge.

What is Bullying?

Bullying refers to the physical and or psychological abuse perpetuated by one powerful child upon another with the intention to harm or dominate. Typically, bullying is repetitive, intentional, and involves an imbalance of power (Olweus, 1991). Bullies enjoy social power and therefore seek out situations where they can dominate others. Bullying can be either direct, such as physical or verbal aggression, or indirect, such as insults, threats, name calling, spreading rumors, or encouraging exclusion from a peer group (Olweus, 1993).

It is unfortunate that adults often consider bullying an inevitable and even normal part of childhood. This belief undoubtedly stems from memories of the qualitative bullying of past generations, which was much less

frequent, less supported by children's peers, conducted by socially ostracized children, and never, of course, online. Little wonder that adults today frequently ask why "such a fuss" is made over bullying – which is, as they recall it, an unpleasant but infrequent childhood behavior. One result of this attitude is that adults sometimes fail to intervene, which results in the victim feeling powerless and hopeless in a situation that is torturous in nature (Davis, 2004). If children feel powerless in situations that adults acknowledge, yet dismiss, how much more powerless must they feel when they are victimized in a way that adults cannot even begin to comprehend?

What Has Changed?

Bullies today are popular and socially successful in a way that they have not been in past generations (LaHoud, 2007). The popularity of bullies may be a significant change, but it pales in comparison to the significance of the dawn of the age of cyber immersion. Cyber immersion refers to the utilization of cyber technology and the Internet as a central, rather than as an adjunct, element of daily life (Brown, Jackson & Cassidy, 2006). The generational shift from cyber utilization (using the Internet as a convenience and an adjunct to real life) to cyber immersion (using the Internet as a primary or central method of communication, commerce, relationships, and recreation) is a generational shift which has not seen its equal since the Sexual Revolution in the 1960s and 1970s or the turn-of-the-century immigration into the United States. Then, as now, the older generation lacks a basic understanding of how the younger generation is thinking, feeling, and acting. This ignorance adds an additional layer of obstacles to the work that adults must do to combat childhood abusiveness or bullying.

Cyberbullying – the abuse of choice of the Cyber Immersion Generation – is the perfect bullying crime. It is very hurtful, yet (generally) does not kill its victims; it is extremely simple and easy; it does not require significant planning or thought; it similarly does not require self-confidence or social finesse; and the perpetrator is extremely unlikely to be caught or disciplined. The Cyber Immersion Generation ensures that the victim will be accessible, and the generation gap ensures likewise that the oversight of adults will be sporadic or absent. Technological advances designed to prevent cyberbullying are often easily circumvented (e.g., school computer system filters) and adults are so out of touch that they are often unaware of the frequency of cyberbullying or the types that exist – never mind being unaware of how to control or reduce it.

Risk Factors for Cyberbullying

Little research exists that can inform the study of cyberbullying risks. Some experts have postulated that risks for cyberbullying include less education about electronic communications, risks, and values; being less able to rely on parents for guidance about the Internet; and being less attentive to – or not receiving – Internet safety messages (Willard, 2006). Only eight percent of schools have any education for children about Internet safety or bullying, even though experts agree that education in this area is the key to safety (Devaney, 2007). Anecdotal evidence suggests that being a victim of offline bullying may increase the probability of becoming an online cyberbully (Englander, 2007). Schools in Massachusetts have reported that many offline bullies operate online as well (Englander, 2007), suggesting that risk factors for cyberbullying may include the risk factors for traditional bullying.

At the time of this writing, cyberbullying occurs primarily through webpages, online social networking websites, and instant messaging via the Internet and cellphones. The 2007 MARC cyberbullying study found that despite the high numbers of online abuse victims, instant messaging and talking on cell phones were only slightly less popular as preferred communication strategies to speaking face-to-face. Thus, the Cyber Immersion Generation sees digital communication as indispensable, regardless of its misuses by peers.

The rapid evolution of technology and the way it is used renders any specific type of cyberbullying definition

(e.g., "sending abusive emails") obsolete by publication date. Indeed, it is perfectly possible that in the short months intervening between this writing and its publication, new technologies may well have spurred new types of cyberbullying.

A characteristic that makes cyberbullying particularly insidious is that derogatory statements or threats and humiliating pictures or videos of a person can instantaneously be sent to hundreds of viewers with the click of a button. This can exploit the natural developmental tendency of adolescents to feel constantly watched or "on stage" (often referred to as "imaginary audience"). Bad as it is to be cornered by a schoolyard bully in an isolated corner of the schoolyard, there isn't a vast audience to witness your humiliation. Thus the problems associated with schoolyard bullying may be magnified in cases of cyberbullying (Englander, 2006). Anecdotal cases support that possibility (e.g., the Ryan Halligan case (Halligan, 2003)), but the real research remains to be done.

Different Types of Bullies

Many theoreticians have offered typologies of bullies. The following typology has been utilized (Englander & Lawson, In Press) in response to the advent of cyberbullying and the resulting comparisons that now occur between school yard (traditional) bullying and cyberbullying. Traditional psychological theory might hold that the vehicle is of less importance than the intent. That is, if one wants to be a bully, then one finds a vehicle (schoolyard or cyber) – and if a vehicle is unavailable another will be used (e.g., if one cannot bully online then one bullies in person). The motivation is paramount. Other psychological theories emphasize the opportunistic situation more (i.e., that some types of bullying will only occur when the situation permits or encourages them), and these theories seem to "fit" better with cyberbullying since many cyberbullies do not choose in-person bullying if the cyber route is denied (Englander, 2006).

It is notable that some experts have already identified patterns of differences between children who only bully online and children who bully in person or both in person and online (Aftab, 2004). In working with schools, MARC finds it useful to identify five types of bullies:

Bullies

These children are "traditional" school yard bullies. Their motivation is to dominate over their victims, increase their own social status, and instill fear in potential victims. Their modus operandi is to abuse their victims, either physically or (more commonly) psychologically/verbally. As a group, they tend to have high self-esteem and a marked tendency to perceive themselves as under attack in a hostile environment (Staub, 1999). Their academic achievement may be moderate to poor, and aggression is their preferred tool for domination. They rely on peer support or lack of intervention in order to continue their activities. Limit-setting is the adult response which operates best to reduce this type of bullying behavior (Olweus, 1993).

Eggers

Eggers (referred to by Olweus as "henchmen" or "followers") are so called because their main function is to egg on bullies. These children are a primary support system for school yard bullies. Eggers often have poor self-esteem and poor social skills. They befriend and assist bullies because they fear being victimized and because by doing so they gain a high-status, socially powerful friend. Unlike bullies, they do not see their own bullying behaviors as a justified response to a hostile world; they accurately perceive that their behaviors are harmful and unacceptable but they tend to minimize their own involvement or minimize the impact of their own behaviors. While some eggers are consistently friendly with a bully, a subtype are Floaters. Floaters are not regular friends of bullies, but they may egg on or help

bullies during specific bullying situations because they fear being victimized themselves, or because they see it as socially desirable to help out popular bullies. They may "float" in and out of helping bullies. In some situations, they may be a silent bystander, while in others, they may actively assist the bully (e.g., by laughing at a victim). Like all eggers, they minimize the damage their behavior causes and try to avoid self-confrontation regarding their own role in bullying. Floaters may be "unintentional cyberbullies" as well (see below).

All-Around Bullies

All-Around Bullies are school yard bullies who are widening their bullying activities into the electronic realm (i.e., cyberbullying). Their motivation and M.O. is the same as bullies; they simply regard the electronic realm as a new arena of opportunity to continue their abusive activities.

Only-Cyberbullies

Only-Cyberbullies are children who would not engage in school yard bullying, but do engage in cyberbullying because they have a set of beliefs or attitudes that support cyberbullying specifically. For example, only-cyberbullies might not bully in person because they are powerless socially, or invested in school and academics; yet, they are willing to bully online because they believe that cyberbullying is without risk, since adults are seen as simply not being part of the virtual world. The only-cyberbully could be a victim of an in-person bully at school, who attacks his tormenter online, where he can do so relatively safely.

Unintentional Cyberbullies

These children also cyberbully because of a set of beliefs or attitudes, but they appear to do so without the intent to actively bully that characterizes only-cyberbullies (#4 type above). One common attitude in this group is that the Internet "doesn't count" or "isn't real" and so what happens there doesn't particularly hurt anybody or carry any risks. Because of their limited ability to apply their own victimization experiences, children may believe these myths even when they themselves have been hurt online. Alternatively, some unintentional cyberbullies may truly be intending to joke but their writing does not convey their tone accurately, and their words are taken seriously even though they were not intended to be taken that way. We know that many adults are overconfident that their writing accurately reflects its intended emotional tone (Kruger et al., 2005), and it is reasonable to assume that children make similarly poor judgments.

The Massachusetts Aggression Reduction Center

In the fall of 2004, the first author of this paper began a year as the first Presidential Fellow at Bridgewater State College in Bridgewater, Massachusetts. That year was utilized to set up the Massachusetts Aggression Reduction Center (MARC) and launch its model programs to the Massachusetts K-12 educational community. The approach of the Center is somewhat different from that of most other experts and Centers in the field of bullying prevention. First, the Center is an academic Center, with a salaried faculty member as its Director. It brings services to K-12 education at either no cost or a very low cost to schools. This has removed the profit motive from a field of expertise that previously was largely defined by the marketplace. In addition, MARC utilizes the resources of an academic institution in a very efficient manner. Services from the Center are provided by faculty members, graduate students, and trained undergraduates. The undergraduates in the Center are particularly valuable as high-status, role-model peers in helping teenagers in local high schools form and promote their own bullying prevention work in their own schools.

When MARC goes into a school, we focus not only on services but on assistance with the implementation of services (Berends, Bodilly, & Kirby, 2002). While assisting schools with implementation, we work intensively with administrators, classroom teachers, support staff, students, and parent and community groups. We have found that it is critical to address both bullying and cyberbullying; to only address traditional bullying is, in effect, to miss half the lesson. Several issues demand a particular focus when doing cyberbullying and bullying prevention work in K-12 schools including the following:

Be up to date regarding Information Technology and its misuses. This is not a reference to traditional knowledge about computers; knowing how to use Excel or Google is not enough. What are the problems that are currently referenced on security blogs? What trends in cyber behavior are currently seen? What kinds of cyberbullying are kids engaging in? It's not enough to know that kids can send each other nasty emails. It is important to know that they're starting to misuse three dimensional online worlds, or that they send each other phony e-greeting cards with malicious imbedded links.

Understand that cyberbullying and bullying are different but not separate. For the Cyber Immersion Generation, cyberbullying and bullying are integral and cannot be separated. If it happens in person, it will likely spill over into online life – and vice versa. However, the causes of these two types of bullying are different. Despite that, the co-existence of these two worlds needs to be understood and expected.

Understand that the role of technology is not going away. Using a "just turn the darn thing off" argument will only accomplish one result: students will be certain that you don't understand how they live and how they work. The cyber world is here to stay. Preparing children to live online may seem like a waste of time, unless you consider the alternative.

Education about cyberbullying is an important part of Internet safety. Many schools see Internet safety as a separate issue from cyberbullying, but children are much more likely to be cyberbullied than they are to be stalked or approached online by a threatening adult (Bangeman, 2007).

We must begin talking with children about cyberlife and how it fits in with "real" life. The only safety mechanism that children will ultimately retain is the one between their ears. Yet, most parents and most schools do not discuss Internet safety and cyberbullying with children. As cited above, one study found that a mere 8 percent of schools in the United States have any education for children about Internet safety or bullying, even though experts agree that education in this area is the key to safety (Devaney, 2007).

Encouraging reporting is job #1. I don't care how wonderful you are doing as an educator; however good you are at encouraging reporting, it's an issue that must be worked on in every school. Online rumors can be incredibly valuable sources of important information.[1]

Discussion

During its first three years, outcome data have helped to identify several elements as the most important aspects of the MARC program.

[1] Encouraging reporting by children should be a high priority for every single principal in elementary, middle, junior, or high schools. In *every single* school shooting studied by the U.S. Secret Service (Vossekuil, Fein, Reddy, Borum, & Modzeleski, 2002), other children knew about the shooting prior to the actual event but *did not report it* to adults. It is no exaggeration to state that encouraging reporting – especially in elementary, middle, and high schools – can literally save lives.

Element # 1

Acknowledge that educators are overwhelmed, cannot know everything, and offer them help with implementation and assistance. There is no real substitute for an in-depth knowledge of the realities of teaching today. Factors such as low pay, tenure, the pressures of standardized testing, and increased class size may seem unrelated to bullying but in fact they are quite important. Increasing the pressure on teachers to be up-to-date in their fields decreases the time they have to gain expertise in new fields (such as cyberbullying). Acknowledging these realities renders classroom teachers and support staff more willing and ready to acquire new skills and be more receptive to the source of new information. In-service trainings, where expertise is brought to the school to train its faculty, must be responsive to the taxed and overwhelmed state of mind most educators bring to the training. Asking these professionals, for example, to explore their own personal feelings publicly may be well-intentioned but often seem to be interpreted as a waste of time; no one is really receptive to enforced psychotherapy under the guise of education. In contrast, emphasizing very practical and concrete steps that teachers can take away and implement immediately can actively encourage their acceptance of effective interventions.

Cyberbullying education for faculty needs to focus on the six issues noted above. The goal is not just to make sure faculty have a sense of "what is happening out there," but also to raise their awareness about the difference between their and their students' use of the Internet. Such awareness is truly the first step to understanding and discussions with children.

Because bullying and cyberbullying are so enmeshed, we rarely address one issue without addressing the other. Concrete response-skills are an important element in changing the culture of a school: what should a teacher do when encountering, for example, a student who appears to be the victim of bullying but insists that it is just "fooling around"? These are the kinds of concrete issues, in addition to online problems, that need to be addressed for schoolteachers and staff in schools today. Space limitations here prevent a complete review of the issues and examples we use, but the MARC website has more information (http://www.MARCcenter.org).

Element # 2

Use of the academic/teaching model rather than the marketplace model. An academic Center reduces and scales costs; removes the profit motive by utilizing a salaried professor as a Director; utilizes existing resources very effectively (such as students, computer and physical infrastructure, high quality levels of knowledge and expertise); and establishes, for the schools seeking services, a dependable source of qualified professionals. Using academic experts is no panacea and their knowledge about children's aggression and bullying may not always be as high quality as desired, but academia generally represents a more dependable source of expertise than that offered by the public marketplace.

Element # 3

Research-informed practice. What works with bullies? What types of adult responses actually reduce their abusive behaviors? What do we know about the difference between different types of bullies (e.g., "bullies" versus "only-cyberbullies"). Research on traditional bullying abounds, while paucity characterizes the body of research on cyberbullying. Nevertheless, informed practices are best practices and it is important to keep in touch with the difference between anecdotal and experimental evidence – however compelling anecdotal evidence in the field may be.

Element # 4

Distinction between bullying and conflict. The final research element is the recognition that bullying and conflict are not the same. Bullying, unlike conflict, is defined by a power differential: A bully is very powerful, while a victim has little or no social power in the situation (Vaillancourt, 2004). This power differential means that, unlike equal-power conflicts, the bully has little or no incentive to "settle" the conflict; rather, he/she may be invested in its continuation (Englander, 2005). This is an important reason to avoid mediating bullying conflicts since successful mediation requires that both parties have some motivation to end the conflict in question (Englander, 2005).

Element # 5

Produce innovative programming that addresses persistent obstacles. First, adults need to become much more aware of the difference between the generations – the cyber utilization versus the Cyber Immersion Generations. Second, the most up to date issues emerging in cyberspace should be reviewed. Third, adults need guidance on beginning conversations with children about cyberbullying and cybersafety. The second issue renders long-term research difficult regarding outcomes, because no cyberbullying program can or should remain static for three or more years – the field itself evolves much more rapidly and our curricula are updated monthly to reflect that. (This is not an argument that outcomes research should not occur; it is merely an acknowledgment of the difficulty faced in this area.)

Element # 6

Address school climate. This means that everyone – faculty, administration, students, and parents – must get involved. Students, especially adolescent students, need to be proactive partners, not passive recipients of adult-led programs. Adults need to be sensitized to the issue of cyberbullying, to the reality of the school day, to the limitations schools face, and to their own responsibilities at home and in the community. It is easy to list these needs and very difficult to fulfill them. Despite the obvious implication of current statistics, we've encountered a staggering number of educators who deny the existence of any cyberbullying in "their" schools entirely. Parents, similarly, are often completely unaware of what their child is doing online (and sometimes in person) and, in any case, engaging their interest and attendance is a struggle. Innovative methods need to be found. We have experimented with morning presentations, evening presentations, parent/child discussion homework assignments, local cable access TV, and, generally, find that each method reaches a different subset of the community. This probably means that multiple efforts must be made at every school, but the future growth of the Internet may be one good avenue for communication.

Outcomes Research

At the time of this writing, analysis of past year's outcome research is underway. Still, the past data clearly indicate several elements that are strong in the MARC program, most notably for this paper, the cyberbullying information and approach. Schools are consistently rating the program as both interesting and very effective in the short-term. Some anecdotal evidence suggests that more long-term education is needed, although the time and attention needed for that will be a challenge in the current climate in education in the U.S. Preliminary interviews with administrators at the end of the first year found that every school found these approaches helpful and effective (to varying degrees), and that the adolescent student engagement and faculty training were the most helpful elements. The program was further developed in its second and third years and research on the effectiveness during those years is currently underway.

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RESEARCH, BEST PRACTICES, AND RESOURCES FOR EFFECTIVE YOUTH MENTORING [1]

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Abstract

Recent years have seen youth mentoring programs flourish in a variety of settings, such as schools, community centers, faith institutions, and in conjunction with other support services, such as tutoring, counseling, and job training. The number of young people in mentoring relationships in the U.S. increased by 3 million between 2002 and 2005 alone (MENTOR, 2006a), and the number of programs operating has grown dramatically as mentoring is woven into countless prevention and intervention efforts.

However, with this expansion of services has come an increase in the scrutiny programs are placed under. Practitioners, researchers, and the general public, are looking for evidence that mentoring "works." While mentoring is, in many ways, an easily understood construct, there is little agreement on how mentoring actually creates changes in particular youth or on the amount and types of impact it can have. And in spite of many substantial efforts to evaluate and analyze mentoring programs over the past dozen years, the field as a whole is just now beginning to adopt a common set of best practices that can guide the development and delivery of mentoring services. Thus, youth mentoring is poised to "come of age" as a prevention strategy, but only if its practitioners operate from a shared understanding of the research into effective strategies and best practices.

This presentation will provide an overview of several prominent pieces of mentoring research, a summary of the current best practices being implemented in the field, and an extensive overview of several newly revised publications that can give mentoring practitioners the concepts and tools they need to run high-quality programs.

Mentoring Research

Compared to other types of prevention and academic enrichment activities, youth mentoring is fairly under-researched. While there have been several prominent experimentally-designed evaluation efforts (mostly those conducted by Public/Private Ventures), the research base on mentoring is thin compared to other prevention efforts (suicide prevention, for example). However, the research that we do have is painting an increasingly clear picture of what quality mentoring looks like and what mentoring programs can reasonably be expected to achieve.

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[1] This paper is the Executive Summary of the forthcoming series on *Effective Strategies for Providing Quality Youth Mentoring in Schools and Communities* to be published by the Hamilton Fish Institute and Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory with the support of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice.

The following represents a brief summary of several of the more widely disseminated research reports and what they say about outcomes and effective practices:[2]

Making a Difference: An Impact Study of Big Brothers/Big Sisters

Author(s): Joseph P. Tierney and Jean Baldwin Grossman, with Nancy L. Resch
Publisher: Public/Private Ventures
Date: 1995, revised in 2000
About the study: A dozen years later, this research report remains one of the cornerstones of youth mentoring research. In fact, many of the "best practices" used in mentoring programs today are the result of the eight years Public/Private Ventures (P/PV) spent researching Big Brothers Big Sisters (BBBS) agencies. This initial Impact Study is one of several research reports derived from P/PV's BBBS research, but it is by far the most frequently cited because it deals with the data everyone is most interested in: the outcomes.

For this study, P/PV studied 959 youth, ages 10–16, who applied for a mentor at eight BBBS agencies around the country. Roughly half were matched with a volunteer, with the others forming a control group to compare results against. The researchers did a pre-post analysis consisting of interviews and other self-reported data examining the impact of the mentoring services in six areas:

- Anti-social activities,
- Academic performance, attitudes, and behaviors,
- Relationships with family,
- Relationships with friends,
- Self-concept, and
- Social and cultural enrichment.

Findings

The findings from this study are perhaps the most widely quoted in the field. Participants:

- Were 46 percent less likely to initiate drug use,
- Were 26 percent less likely to initiate alcohol use (that number reaches 50 percent for the girls in the programs),
- Were 33 percent less likely to hit someone,
- Skipped half as many days of school,
- Showed modest gains in GPA (3 percent gain over control group), and
- Reported improved parent and peer relationships (this was especially true among boys).

Participants showed no substantial changes in perceptions of self-worth and self-confidence, participation in social and cultural activities, or participation in other educational activities, such as homework completion and college planning.

Since their original publication, these statistics have been used as some of the strongest evidence that mentoring is effective. However, perhaps more important than these outcomes is the study's investigation into the programmatic context that produced them. To their credit, P/PV illustrated that anyone hoping to achieve similar results needs to build similar program structures to those found at the BBBS agencies. Specifically,

[2] Research summary adapted, with permission, from MacRae, P., & Garringer, M. (2007*). Using mentoring research findings to build effective programs: Collected training supplements and materials from the MRC Web Seminars on Mentoring Research*. Folsom, CA: Mentoring Resource Center.

the Impact Study recommends that programs implement a one-to-one model where matches are made in a structured way based on common interests and other factors. It also recommends that programs provide rigorous screening, training, and match support for mentors, and frequent contact with youth and parents as the match progresses.

Other P/PV studies would further explore the program and relationship characteristics that define successful mentoring, but this study was a tipping point in the creation of mentoring best practices. The question shifted from "can this be successful?" to "how do we ensure good results?"

Building Relationships With Youth in Program Settings

Author(s): Kristine V. Morrow and Melanie B. Styles
Publisher: Public/Private Ventures
Date: 1995
About the study: Another critical piece of research from the P/PV examination of BBBS, this study focused on 82 matches from eight BBBS sites (four of which were also participants in the Impact Study). The matches, which had been meeting from four to 18 months, were studied over a nine-month period. Participant interviews and surveys were the main forms of data collection.

Findings

This study had major implications for how we now define the role of a mentor. P/PV found that the approaches mentors took in working with their mentee could be easily divided into two categories: developmental (with the mentor providing broad emotional support and building the relationship around youth goals) and prescriptive (in which the mentor attempted to address specific behaviors through targeted activities or even brought their *own* goals to the match). The results for these two groups were remarkably different.

Youth reported being much more satisfied with the developmental relationships. They felt closer to their mentors and were more likely to seek out their support and advice. Since other research has demonstrated that mentoring outcomes are closely tied to relationship quality, this study provides valuable insight into the styles of mentoring that produce close, supportive relationships. Developmental mentors spent more time building trust with the youth, gave the youth a prominent role in setting goals and deciding activities, regularly engaged in activities that were simply "fun," and listened more while judging less. Prescriptive mentors were less likely to do these things and their youth reported far less match satisfaction.

A surprising 22 of the 28 prescriptive matches had significant problems or closed outright over the course of the study, while 50 of the 54 developmental matches continued to develop.

These findings do not mean that mentoring relationships should avoid spending time addressing specific needs or problems, nor does it mean that youth are in the driver's seat regarding activities and other aspects of their participation. However, it does mean that mentoring programs must create matches that put the relationship, the bond between adult and youth, first and purposeful activities second. The positive impacts of mentoring start with the friendship and role modeling a mentor provides, a theme that is further explored in Dr. Jean Rhodes' model of mentoring (see Table 1, next page). Keeping mentoring matches grounded in close friendship and broad personal development is one of the mentoring field's big challenges as it is increasingly viewed as a means of addressing serious educational and health-related issues.

Table 1. Dr. Jean Rhodes' Model of Youth Mentoring

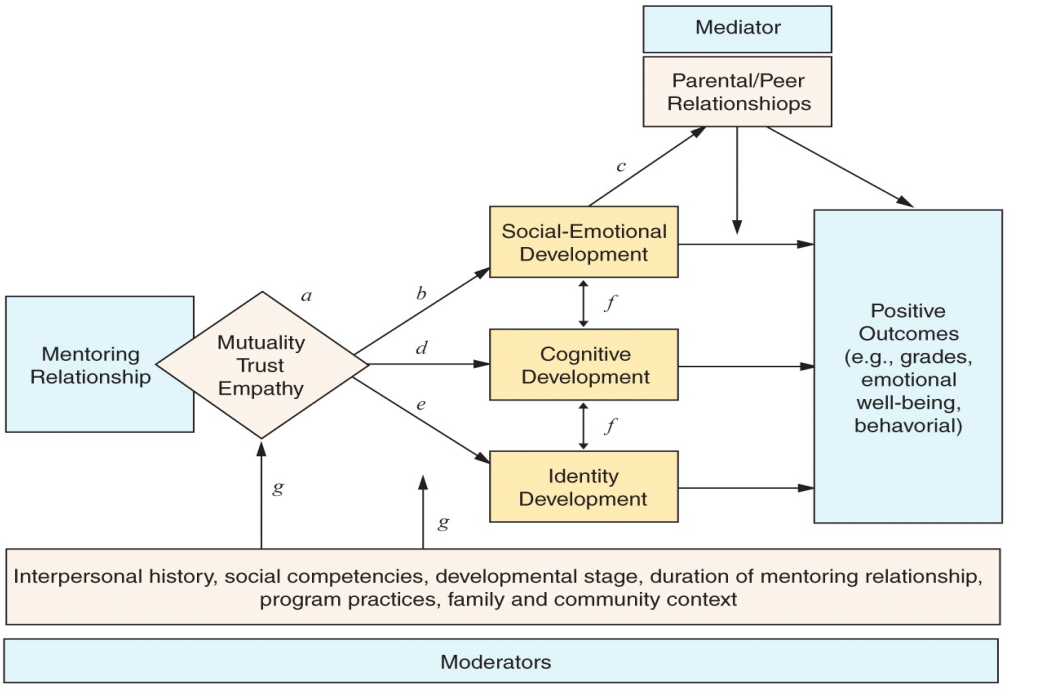

Figure 3.1 Model of Youth Mentoring

Source: Rhodes, J. E. (2005). A Model of Youth Mentoring. In D.L. DuBois & M.J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring*, (p. 32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Dr. Jean Rhodes's model of mentoring offers a wonderful framework for understanding how the work of a mentor, all those little interactions and conversations, translate into meaningful changes in the lives and personalities of mentees. Her model is discussed at length in her excellent book *Stand by Me: The Risks and Rewards of Mentoring Today's Youth*. However, there are two interesting aspects of the model that highlight several of the concepts discussed in this presentation:

The entire model hinges on the development of mutuality, trust, and empathy that the mentoring relationship creates. That development is moderated by a whole host of other factors, such as personal history, length of the match, and the youth's family and community environment. But the reality is that programs need to develop close, trusting, valued matches in order to make this model work and achieve their desired outcomes.

Outcomes from a mentoring relationship—whether improved grades, increased self-esteem, or declines in risky behavior—are often mediated by the youth's parent and peer relationships. The youth may develop in the three areas Rhodes identifies (social-emotional, cognitive, and identity) but those improvements may not translate directly into positive outcomes unless those relationships with others improve as well. Thus, mentoring can be viewed as something other than a direct intervention—it's not a straight line from relationship to outcome. The mentor may develop the young person in several ways, but how that newly-developed young person in turn interacts with the world around him or her is what determines the ultimate outcomes.

Programs should take the time to examine Rhodes's model and think about its implications for their own programming. They may find an increased emphasis on parent involvement or social activities is in order. Or, they may be better able to explain to funding sources or partners exactly how their program is having an impact on the youth they serve.

Making a Difference in Schools: The Big Brothers Big Sisters School-Based Mentoring Impact Study

Author(s): Carla Herrera, Jean Baldwin Grossman, Tina J. Kauh, Amy F. Feldman, and Jennifer McMaken, with Linda Z. Jucovy
Publisher: Public/Private Ventures
Date: 2007
About the study: A timely companion to the first Impact Study, this evaluation examined the school-based matches at 10 Big Brothers Big Sisters agencies (in a total of 76 schools). The study randomly assigned 1,139 students in grades four through nine to either a control group or a mentoring group. Mentors were a combination of adult volunteers and high school-aged "Bigs" who were matched with younger students. Data were provided by youth, teachers, and mentors at the baseline (beginning of the school year), the end of the school year, and at the winter break of the following year. The study examined 31 potential youth outcomes (23 of them related to school or academics), in addition to examining match length, program practices, and the costs of running the programs.

Findings

This was a very important and timely report for the mentoring field. School-based mentoring's popularity has surged in recent years, due mostly to the availability of federal funds, the potentially lower cost of running in-school programs, and the inherent difficulties of trying to expand mentoring using only adult volunteers in community-based settings. School-based mentoring, especially the peer mentoring model that matches older and younger students, was in desperate need of definitive research. Thankfully, there were many compelling findings in this study, which highlighted both program practices and the outcomes these programs were achieving:

- School-based mentoring is not tutoring, but it is not necessarily community-based mentoring set in a school either.
  Most matches did not spend significant time on schoolwork-related activities or conversations. These school-based mentors still seemed to be taking a developmental approach in spite of the rather prescriptive emphasis on improved grades and other academic indicators that are common to school-based programs. However, these programs did provide more structure and set activities than typical community-based mentoring programs. The relationships were shorter than community-based programs and had, overall, slightly lower levels of closeness. Perhaps most significantly, these school-based programs seemed to be serving many youth who would not have been involved in community-based mentoring, indicating that in-school programs may be an excellent complement to community-based services.

- There were several positive school-related outcomes, but no impact on out-of-school outcomes.
  At the end of the first year, Littles showed improvement in overall academic performance and meaningful gains in science and written and oral language. They also had improved class work, turned in homework more frequently, and had fewer school disciplinary infractions. They also reported feeling more competent academically, skipping school less, and indicated that they had a caring non-parent adult in their life more than the control group did. Unfortunately, most of these impacts did not last into the second school year (see next paragraph), nor did there seem to be any impact in the out-of-school areas examined (substance use, peer relations, self-worth, etc.).

- One year of school-based mentoring seems to be insufficient.
  Educators have long lamented "summer learning loss" – the decline in academic achievements and school connectedness that happens to most youth over their summer break. What was surprising was the "mentoring loss" that happened in these programs: on average, virtually no positive gains from

the previous year were present at the year two follow-up. Littles were still less likely than their control group peers to skip school, but those other positive outcomes had simply disappeared.

There are two main reasons for this loss of impact: one, only half of the mentored students even had a mentor the following year – the result of students graduating to different schools, transferring, or simply opting out of the program. This is a large attrition rate and it implies that school-based programs should try to work with "feeder schools" so that matches can continue across grades and school locations. The second reason for this "loss" was the lack of contact between mentors and mentees over the summer months. Those programs that encouraged or facilitated summer contact seemed to increase the chance that youth would continue with the program and were able to maintain some of the closeness that the match had developed over the year. The need to provide some form of summer contact, and to provide consistent mentoring across school years and sites, are major findings for those providing mentoring in schools, most of whom are currently offering single year program models.

- Once again, program practices matter.
  Participant training, supervision, and support seemed to be key indicators of relationship success. These program characteristics fostered longer and closer relationships, which were, in turn, predictive of more positive youth outcomes. So, while much of the appeal of school-based mentoring has been that it is "easier" because of the school setting, the matches still need significant support and maintenance if they are to achieve outcomes. Obviously, this level of program support costs money, and the $1,000 per match that these 10 sites were operating at is roughly comparable to the cost per match in community-based mentoring (but not significantly cheaper, as was once thought).

The coming years will likely see P/PV further examining these data to learn more about the types of mentors and variations in programming that speak to emerging best practices for delivering mentoring in school settings.

The Test of Time: Predictors and Effects of Duration in Youth Mentoring Programs

Author(s): Jean B. Grossman and Jean E. Rhodes
Publisher: *American Journal of Community Psychology*, Vol. 30, No. 2
Date: April 2002
About the study: This study made a valuable contribution to the body of knowledge about mentoring by fully exploring the impact of match duration on mentoring outcomes. Esteemed researchers Dr. Jean Grossman and Dr. Jean Rhodes studied 1,138 youth in eight BBBS agencies. The study, which also featured a control group of youth, focused on the mentees' parent relations, school attitudes and feelings of scholastic competence, grades and attendance, and feelings of self-worth. The researchers also examined the relationship between the quality and duration of the mentoring matches.

Findings

The study showed a strong relationship between relationship length and quality of outcomes. Youth who had been matched for 12 months or longer showed significant improvements in self-worth, feelings of social acceptance, feelings of scholastic competence, improved parent relations, with decreases in drug and alcohol use.

Conversely, youth whose matches had terminated before three months (for a wide variety of reasons) showed significant *regressions* in self-worth and feelings of scholastic competence. They actually wound up worse in these areas than youth in the control group. This finding highlights the critical nature of the early months in mentoring relationships and places heightened importance on the match support services programs provide.

Overall, youth whose matches did not last six months showed no positive impacts. They did, however, show an *increase* in alcohol use.

There were several factors that influenced these results:

- Youth from abusive backgrounds were more likely to have their matches dissolved. This may indicate a need for more formal training tailored to the background and needs of specific youth and perhaps increased access to other youth services through strategic partnerships.

- Matches serving older youth (13–16) were more likely to terminate than matches serving younger (10–12).

- Married volunteers were much more likely to terminate, perhaps indicating that family needs limited mentors' flexibility and availability for meeting times.

- When looking at the factors that predicted match duration, relationship quality was by far the biggest influence – no surprise in light of much of the other research covered in this presentation.

This report raised the stakes for mentoring programs nationwide: no longer was mentoring something that could be viewed as only a positive. Mentoring, done poorly or with the wrong types of youth, could actually damage a young person rather than helping. While a sobering finding, it has had a positive impact on the field. Programs are increasingly aware of the specific needs of the youth they serve and are enhancing mentor training, activities, and supports so that their volunteers provide proper assistance. Programs are also more likely to refer youth to other services and recognize that some youth problems may be beyond the capabilities of mentors. And programs are placing greater emphasis on match duration and consistency of meeting times, developing program structures that facilitate long-term mentoring relationships.

Effectiveness of Mentoring Programs for Youth: A Meta-Analytic Review

Author(s): David L. DuBois, Bruce E. Holloway, Jeffrey C. Valentine, and Harris Cooper
Publisher: *American Journal of Community Psychology*, Vol. 30, No. 2
Date: April 2002
Type of analysis: As with the BBBS Impact Studies, this meta-analysis by Dr. David DuBois et al. had major ramifications for mentoring programs in the United States. Instead of looking at the practices of one program or one model, this research looked at the methods and results of many programs and attempted to examine the effectiveness of mentoring at more of a macro level.

The meta-analysis began with a literature review that identified and codified existing scientifically valid program evaluations. The researchers narrowed the field to evaluations of one-to-one mentoring programs that offered pre-post data or a control group. The programs also had to serve mentees 19 or younger for inclusion in the analysis (likely leaving out many programs that offered services transitioning youth into careers or higher education). In all, the researchers identified 55 separate research reports containing 575 instances of reported effect sizes (i.e., changes in the youth served). The researchers also examined characteristics of the various program models, the youth they served, and their mentoring relationships. All these data were then categorized, aggregated, reorganized, and generally subjected to a seemingly endless assortment of data analysis procedures – with rather surprising results.

Findings

Overall, the news on the impact of mentoring was good: the authors concluded that formal mentoring programs *could* reproduce the positive benefits that natural mentoring relationships had been known to

provide. However, the meta-analysis also showed that while these programs were, overall, having a positive impact, the impact itself was rather small. The effect size for mentoring was far short of those reported for other psychological, educational, behavioral, and mental health treatments for youth. In fact, the authors indicated that it may be exceedingly difficult to say that mentoring "works" across the board because of the many specific program and participant factors that moderate impact and outcomes.

Needless to say, this news was somewhat unsettling for the mentoring community. This was not a study of one program's specific model. This was an analysis of a wide cross section of mentoring programs that reached the broad conclusion that mentoring, as currently provided, was not fostering huge changes for the nation's youth compared to other interventions. An effect size of that stature might spell trouble in any future cost-benefit analyses that might be performed. However, those who dug a little deeper into the meta-analysis found the road map for changing all that.

The real value in the DuBois study is in those moderators of impact – the personal traits, program structures, and relationship characteristics that improved outcomes. When one looks at those moderators, a much brighter picture of youth mentoring emerges:

- The programs in the study that provided ongoing training for mentors, offered matches structured activities, set firm requirements around frequency of mentor-mentee contact, offered mentor support services, or found ways to increase parent involvement showed a greater impact. All these factors were strong predictors of higher outcomes for youth.

- The programs where youth felt most positive about their relationships also had higher effect sizes.

- The impact of mentoring seemed to be greatest for youth who were most at-risk. There was evidence that mentoring helps those who need it most.

Viewed through this lens, the meta-analysis is actually a call for program quality. The below-average impact was produced not by inherent problems with mentoring as a strategy, but by the number of programs not following what are now considered "best practices" for delivering services. Restricted to programs that followed a structure based on today's body of research, the analysis might have painted a much rosier picture. However, by including a wide variety of programs, both good and not-so-good, the analysis offered a realistic portrait of how mentoring was being delivered, while also illuminating a set of program features that could lead to improved outcomes.

The practice of youth mentoring has come a long way in the last decade. It will be interesting to examine overall effect sizes in future meta-analyses. With an ever-increasing body of knowledge about youth mentoring, and the translation of that knowledge into the services at the program site level, one would expect that future "big picture" analyses of mentoring outcomes would find improved results.

In the end, the meta-analysis offered as many questions as answers: how do individual children's circumstances affect outcomes? Does mentoring have a lasting impact after matches end? As comprehensive as this analysis was, it only represented the tip of a very large iceberg of questions.

Understanding and Facilitating the Youth Mentoring Movement

Author(s): Jean E. Rhodes and David L. DuBois
Publisher: *Social Policy Report*, Vol. 20, No. 3
Date: 2006
Type of analysis: This recent journal article offers a clear, concise overview of current mentoring concepts,

research, and practice. It combines a review of "what we know" about mentoring with policy analysis and a discussion about the expansion of youth mentoring. The policy elements are not directly related to this presentation, but the summary of mentoring research findings is very comprehensive.

Findings

The discussion of research findings covers the full range of program practices and mentoring models, but a few of the key, research-derived findings presented include:

- Relationship closeness – Research indicates that the impact of mentoring hinges on this factor.

- Mentoring approaches – Mentors must provide a role model of relevant skills (and not negative ones). There is strong evidence that a youth-centered (developmental) approach seems to work best. However, matches do need structured activities and meaningful goals. Successful mentoring relationships cannot be *entirely* unstructured and friendship-based.

- Consistency and duration of meetings – Regular, stable meetings for one year are most likely to produce results. There is also strong evidence that programs should do everything they can to keep matches from terminating prior to six months.

- Coordination with other services and supports – There is evidence that improved interaction and coordination of mentoring activities with parents, teachers, counselors, case workers, and other adults in the mentee's life can enhance mentoring outcomes.

This article nicely summarizes many of the key concepts discussed in this presentation. Practitioners interested in public policy and funding decisions related to mentoring will likely enjoy the discussion of how this body of knowledge on mentoring influences (or should) the expansion of youth mentoring in the United States as a strategy to address serious youth and societal needs.

Best Practices

These research reports, and many other local program evaluations, paint a fairly complete picture of what mentoring can achieve and how programs can achieve it. Recent years have seen the development of lists of "elements of effective practice" by organizations such as MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership (MENTOR, 2006a), multiple state mentoring partnerships, and direct service providers such as BBBS. The following list summarizes the commonly-recognized best practices for running an effective program.

- Targeted recruitment and thorough screening of appropriate mentors and youth – As the research noted previously indicates, not all volunteers may be a good fit for the demands of a mentoring relationship (in terms of closeness and duration) and not all youth may be in a state-of-mind that can benefit from one. Mentoring programs must ensure that the adults they recruit are both safe and suitable for their mentoring role and that the youth they target needs that are within the scope of a mentor to change. This is not to say that programs should be overly-restrictive in who they recruit – no one is advocating for mentoring to be narrowly applied to hand-picked groups. However, programs do need to ensure that the populations they are serving, and the volunteers who will be forming relationships, are likely to have a successful mentoring experience.

- Customized training for mentors, youth, and, if appropriate, parents and others who have a role in the match – One of the big changes in the youth mentoring field in recent years is the recognition that not all mentoring is equal. Some programs serve very difficult and transient youth populations (foster care children, for example), and mentors working with these groups need specific training on their

mentees' circumstances, strengths, and challenges. All mentors will be tested by their mentee in a variety of ways as the relationship evolves – learning coping skills and strategies for overcoming barriers can increase the odds of making it through these challenges to have a long, successful match. Regardless of the program setting or goals, all mentors should be trained in youth development principles, listening and communication skills, and the role of a mentor, with additional topics added over time as the need arises. Youth and parents should also be provided pre-match training (or at least an orientation) to prepare them for the work that is ahead.

- Sound matching, monitoring, supervision, and retention procedures – Recruitment and pre-match preparation will mean little if programs do not make sound matches and monitor them properly over time. Most programs develop a set of matching criteria consisting of such attributes as common mentor/mentee interests, compatibility of meeting times and locations, similar personal backgrounds, and, depending on the program, such considerations as race, religion, or gender. Matches should be monitored at least monthly early in the match and quarterly thereafter, assuming that the match is progressing as planned. These check-ins should involve the mentor, youth, and parents to make sure that all parties are happy with the match and that any issues can be addressed. Programs should also have retention strategies that reward and honor all participants for the hard work they do in the program.

- Closure procedures that leave all participants satisfied – Mentoring relationships end for many reasons, some good, others not. The closure process in a mentoring program should be designed to let all participants reflect on the experience, process their feelings about it, and, ideally, leave the program on a positive note. It is especially important for young people to feel like the experience was valuable and positive: it may greatly influence how they approach other relationships with adults in the future.

- Process and outcome evaluation – Quality mentoring programs are constantly analyzing and enhancing their services. Program evaluation can highlight aspects of service delivery that need improvement, demonstrate the usefulness of mentoring strategies or program curriculum, provide evidence of success to funding sources, and generate many qualitative and quantitative results that can be used in marketing, recruitment, and sustainability activities.

- Skilled and committed staff – One of the great challenges for many types of youth services is staff turnover. Mentoring programs are often quite small, using only one or two paid staff members and a rotating cast of volunteers. The disruption in services when a program coordinator leaves can be substantial and programs should do what they can to minimize turnover and provide ongoing professional development opportunities to that their practitioners can keep up-to-date on the latest concepts in mentoring.

- Stable funding – As noted in the Rhodes and Grossman research cited previously, matches that end abruptly after a short period of time have the potential to do harm to the youth involved. And certainly nothing can sour a community on mentoring more than having a trusted program close its doors in a funding crisis. Thus, sustainability planning and resource development are critical components of running an effective program. Adequate funding allows programs to operate with a full staff, helps pay for special activities (such as group outings for youth or volunteer recognition events), and keeps the program from having to cut corners in how services are delivered.

Depending on the mentoring model, there may be other best practices that are critical to program success. For example, the recent P/PV research into school-based mentoring revealed that providing a structure for continued contact between mentors and mentees over the summer months was a critical component (Herrera

et al, 2007). Programs designed for foster care youth may place a special emphasis on consistent meeting times, as the mentor may be the only consistent aspect of the child's life as they transition from home to home. Peer mentoring programs may want to place extra emphasis on match supervision in an effort to mitigate potential "negative role modeling" that can happen when peer mentors deviate from program guidelines.

Because these core best practices can be endlessly modified and expanded depending on the population served and the goals of the program, it is critical that mentoring programs develop a logic model illustrating exactly how their services will result in the desired impact for youth. This logic model can also drive program evaluation, providing a road map to understanding which parts of the program may need refinement over time.

These best practices highlight the structures that can lead to success at the programming level. However, what about best practices at the *relationship* level? What are the strategies the research indicates are best for mentors and their relationships?

- Take a developmental approach – While there is plenty of room in mentoring relationships for purposeful activities and hard work towards goals youth set, research indicates that close mentoring relationships develop more easily when mentors take a broad youth development approach. Looking at Rhodes' model of mentoring (p.4), one can see that the mutuality, trust, and empathy formed in the relationship are the basis for internal change in the young person. Matches sometimes have a hard time generating this trusting bond if the mentor is too focused on "prescriptive" actions – activities that will "fix" the young person's "problems." Mentors must focus on building a close relationship, especially early in the match, and resist the urge to rush into big projects or set demanding goals. Mentors are there to help youth find their own paths and their own voices.

- Be consistent and committed – Much of the research covered previously shows a clear relationship between mentors' consistency, their matches' longevity, and positive outcomes for youth. Mentoring only works when mentors are literally there for the child. The role modeling, the sharing of ideas, the listening, the stability a mentor can provide to a troubled young person – none of this can happen if mentors are missing meetings or terminating their match prematurely. If mentors wish to avoid doing harm, they must stand by their commitment and meet program expectations for meeting with their mentee.

- Understand the scope and limits of a mentor's role – Mentors sometimes struggle with the limited nature of their role. They often see mentees dealing with serious issues and want to intervene. They may get drawn into family conflicts, get focused on "fixing" the child's circumstances, or provide help beyond the limits of what the program can support. Mentors need to remember that they are not psychologists, teachers, or social workers. As volunteers, they should not be taking on paraprofessional roles. Instead, they should recognize, with the help of program staff, when helping with a particular youth problem is beyond their ability. However, with the assistance of match supervisors, mentors can play a critical role in referring youth and their families to other support services. In this way, mentors can still help them get the other support they need while not deviating from their traditional "trusted friend" role.

- Work with effectively with program staff, parents, and other stakeholders in the relationship – If mentors are to be successful, they need to make sure the support they are providing works in concert with the other supports and "strengths" in the child's life. Open, positive communication with program staff, parents, and other educators and youth service professionals is critical. Some program models, such as school-based mentoring, often limit the communication between mentors and other

stakeholders, such as parents or teachers. Other models encourage extensive communication among the "team" of people working with a particular young person. Regardless of the configuration of the program, mentors must realize that they are not doing their work alone and that their mentee will have an easier time benefiting from the relationship if the advice and support of the mentor does not conflict with the other supports in their life.

When looked at together, these two sets of best practices for youth mentoring both revolve around the concepts of guidance and responsibility. The program must design its services responsibly and support the mentors as they do their meaningful, yet often difficult, work. Mentors, in turn, must be consistent and supportive, walking side-by-side with the youth through whatever lies ahead. Thus, doing mentoring well – from both the program and relationship perspectives – is a matter of being there to provide meaningful help when needed.

Resources for Effective Mentoring

One of the biggest changes in the mentoring field in the last decade is an exponential increase in the number of quality program development materials available to programs at the local level. The work of the National Mentoring Center (NMC), MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership, BBBS, and others has created a wealth of how-to guides, planning toolkits, and online tutorials for managing almost every aspect of a mentoring program. We conclude this presentation by examining the recently-revised mentoring publications from the *Effective Strategies for Providing Quality Youth Mentoring in Schools and Communities* series, published by the Hamilton Fish Institute on School and Community Violence at The George Washington University. Additional resources for programs are listed at the end of this paper.

The purpose of the *Effective Strategies for Providing Quality Youth Mentoring in Schools and Communities* series is to provide practitioners with expert advice, best practices, and practical how-to materials that they can use to implement programs in the areas of youth mentoring and school safety. The six mentoring publications in the series were all originally developed by the National Mentoring Center as part of its work with several federally-funded mentoring initiatives. Through funding from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention at the U.S. Department of Justice, the Hamilton Fish Institute has worked with the NMC to infuse these publications with new research and updated resource listings. When viewed as a whole, these six publications offer the key strategies and tools for designing, implementing, and maintaining a successful youth mentoring program.

Foundations of Successful Youth Mentoring

This guide serves as the series' most comprehensive program planning tool. While written mostly with community-based programs in mind, its strategies and principles can be adapted for use in a variety of other program settings, such as schools and faith institutions. Based on research, and the NMC's own experience working with thousands of local programs, the guide identifies three major phases of program development: planning to start a new program, designing mentoring services, and sustaining the program through increased organizational capacity.

The planning section details activities such as conducting a needs assessment, creating a logic model, identifying and working with partners, and preparing to launch the program. The designing services topics include volunteer recruitment, training participants, monitoring matches, and conducting a program evaluation. The sustainability section thoroughly examines resource development strategies, but also covers such topics as staff development and program marketing. Each section provides dozens of self-assessment questions so that programs can make key decisions as they develop and implement services, as well as listings of additional resources that they can use to enhance their program.

The guide also provides an overall "program progress" checklist and a timeline for a typical first year for a new mentoring program.

Generic Mentoring Program Policy and Procedure Manual

One of the cornerstones of any mentoring program is a policy and procedure manual that provides governance and guidance in the delivery of services. While most nonprofit agencies and schools have written policies and procedures, mentoring programs within these settings should develop a manual that specifically addresses their purpose, rules, and procedures. Written policies and procedures contribute greatly to the long-term stability and safety of a program by:

- Providing documentation of the organization's vision and operating principles,
- Providing staff with clear guidelines on how to administer the program,
- Addressing risk management issues,
- Ensuring consistent operations despite possible turnover in key staff,
- Serving as a blueprint for program replication and expansion, and
- Serving as a baseline for continuous improvement.

This workbook offers a set of sample policies and procedures that are common for a typical community-based youth mentoring program. School-based programs (and other models) can also use this book as a starting point, provided they include relevant policies or regulations and modify the content to reflect the exact nature of their services (for example, most school-based programs will not need an overnight visit policy if all off-campus contact is barred).

In addition to this "full" version, which offers advice and self-assessment questions for programs, a "template" version is also available. This Microsoft Word document allows programs to modify and print their own finished manual – a resource that lays the foundation for all of the other work the program will do as it implements services.

Training New Mentors

Because the relationship between a mentor and young person might seem to be a "natural" connection, programs sometimes overlook the importance of training. However, like anyone stepping into a new role, mentors are more likely to succeed if they participate in useful training sessions that prepare them for what lies ahead. Because the tone of a mentor-youth relationship can be set quickly during the first few meetings, it is important that some training take place before the two begin to meet.

This guide provides a set of initial training activities that programs can use as-is, or adapt for their own needs. Topics include the role of a mentor, active listening skills, youth development concepts, and role plays where mentors can practice communication skills.

The guide also includes substantial information on how to facilitate training, including preparing a curriculum, building a training agenda, setting up the training space, and tailoring activities to appeal to a variety of adult learning styles. Additional listings of training resources guide practitioners to other curriculum sources for either preservice or ongoing mentor training. The guide also includes sample agendas for preparing mentees and their parents.

The ABCs of School-based Mentoring

This guide was extensively revised in light of the new research on school-based mentoring conducted by P/PV (Herrera et al., 2007). It is designed to assist any mentoring program that wants to deliver services at the school site. Some school-based programs may be entirely staffed and supported by school personnel and facilities – others might be a collaborative effort between a traditionally community-based program and a school or school district. Regardless of the configuration, this guide can help new programs define roles and responsibilities, determine staffing patterns and operational procedures, and develop effective partnerships. It also provides advice for integrating the program into the existing services and culture of the school. Worksheets, sample forms, and other planning tools help the reader plan around the concepts presented.

Among the critical additions to this revised version are two new program recommendations derived from the new P/PV school-based mentoring study: keeping matches in contact over the summer months and the need to identify strategies (such as working with feeder schools) that can keep matches together over multiple years and across multiple school sites. The matches in the P/PV study only received about 5 months of mentoring per school year on average, and half of the participants ended their participation after one year. This guide explores how programs can minimize this attrition and build consistency and longevity in the school-based mentoring relationships.

Building Relationships: A Guide for Mentors

This publication is written directly for mentors, providing them with advice and strategies that can guide their developing relationship with a young person. P/PV, in their previous work evaluating BBBS community-based matches, identified 10 key qualities of effective mentors – quotes from mentors and youth illustrate these core concepts of mentoring:

1. Be a friend
2. Have realistic goals and expectations
3. Have fun together
4. Give your mentee voice and choice in deciding on activities
5. Be positive
6. Let your mentee have much of the control over what the two of you talk about – and how you talk about it
7. Listen openly
8. Respect the trust your mentee places in you
9. Remember that your relationship is with the youth, not the youth's parent
10. Remember that you are responsible for building the relationship

While establishing a friendship may sound easy, it often is not. Adults and youth are separated by age and, in many cases, by background and culture. Even mentors with good instincts can stumble or be blocked by difficulties that arise from these differences. It takes time for youth to feel comfortable just talking to their mentor, and longer still before they feel comfortable enough to share a confidence. Learning to trust – especially for young people who have already been let down by adults in their lives – is a gradual process. Mentees cannot be expected to trust their mentors simply because program staff members have put them together. Developing a friendship requires skill and time and this guide can get new mentoring relationships off on the right foot.

Sustainability Planning and Resource Development for Youth Mentoring Programs

As youth mentoring has increased in popularity over the last decade, so has the competition for funds to support local mentoring programs. While mentoring programs come in all shapes and sizes – from small grassroots efforts with shoestring budgets to multimillion-dollar not-for-profits – all face the constant

challenge of finding sufficient funds to deliver their services over time. Mentoring programs face competition not only from each other, but from other youth-serving and social-profit organizations as well. With program staff focused on providing quality services to youth, resource development and sustainability planning are tasks that occasionally fall through the cracks. Even with concerted effort by program staff, the road to program sustainability can be filled with unexpected challenges and tough decisions.

This guidebook is intended to give youth mentoring programs a basic overview of resource development planning and many of the major funding sources that programs target through their planning efforts. Specific chapters, authored by successful program fundraisers and expert NMC trainers, teach program staff how to pursue funding from corporations and businesses, foundations, government sources, individual giving campaigns, and special events and other local sponsorships.

The appendices of the guidebook cover additional topics and provide tools that can help with a program's sustainability efforts, including involving your board in resource development (a critical aspect for most mentoring programs) and ethical considerations in resource development (always important when programs are serving and advocating for youth).

These resources, along with the many others listed at the end of this paper, provide mentoring programs with a blueprint for operationalizing the research-based best practices discussed earlier, while allowing for variations and adjustments in program practice that can make their services even more effective for their specific youth populations and program circumstances. The future for youth mentoring will involve finding new strategies and programming nuances that build on the current research base on mentoring while still preserving the core intervention of friendship and role modeling that produces the magic of mentoring.

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Additional Reading and Resources

From the National Mentoring Center

Marketing for the Recruitment of Mentors: A Guide to Finding and Attracting Volunteers – http://www.nwrel.org/mentoring/pdf/marketing.pdf

Measuring the Quality of Mentor Youth Relationships: A Tool for Mentoring Programs – http://www.nwrel.org/mentoring/pdf/packeight.pdf

Mentoring Program Development: A Start-Up Toolkit – http://www.nwrel.org/mentoring/pdf/startup_toolkit.pdf

Supporting Mentors – http://www.nwrel.org/mentoring/pdf/packsix.pdf

Training New Mentees: A Manual for Preparing Youth in Mentoring Programs – http://www.nwrel.org/mentoring/pdf/training_new_mentees.pdf

Other titles, such as the *Strengthening Mentoring Programs Training Curriculum* and back issues of the *NMC Bulletin*, can also be downloaded at: http://www.nwrel.org/mentoring/nmc_pubs.php

Select Titles from the Mentoring Resource Center (a project of the NMC)

Making the Grade: A Guide to Incorporating Academic Achievement Into Mentoring Programs and Relationships – http://www.edmentoring.org/pubs/making_the_grade.pdf

The U.S. Department of Education Mentoring Program's Guide to Screening and Background Checks – http://www.edmentoring.org/pubs/screening.pdf

Going the Distance: A Guide to Building Lasting Relationships in Mentoring Programs – http://www.edmentoring.org/pubs/going_the_distance.pdf

Preparing Participants for Mentoring: The U.S. Department of Education Mentoring Program's Guide to Initial Training of Volunteers, Youth, and Parents – http://www.edmentoring.org/pubs/training.pdf

Effective Mentor Recruitment: Getting Organized, Getting Results – http://www.edmentoring.org/pubs/recruitment.pdf

Ongoing Training for Mentors: 12 Interactive Sessions for U.S. Department of Education Mentoring Programs – http://www.edmentoring.org/pubs/ongoing_training.pdf

Building a Sustainable Mentoring Program: A Framework for Resource Development Planning – http://www.edmentoring.org/pubs/sustainability.pdf

Guide to Mentoring for Parents and Guardians – http://www.edmentoring.org/pubs/parent_handbook.doc

Marketing Toolkit for Office of Safe and Drug-Free Schools Mentoring Programs – http://www.edmentoring.org/toolkit/

The Guide to Key Mentoring Research – http://www.edmentoring.org/pubs/ws2_supplement1.pdf

Frequently Asked Questions About Research and Evaluation – http://www.edmentoring.org/pubs/ws2_supplement2.pdf

Key Mentoring Research Resources

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More useful mentoring research articles can be found in Dr. Jean Rhodes' "Research Corner" on the

MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership Web site at
http://www.mentoring.org/program_staff/index.php?cid=63

GIRLS CIRCLE: PROMOTING RESILIENCY IN GIRLS THROUGH GENDER RESPONSIVE GROUPS [1]

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Session Overview

This practice-focused two-hour workshop presents the research-based Girls Circle model, a female responsive, structured support groups for girls, ages 9–18, and provides participants with the foundational guidelines for implementing this successful approach in schools, community settings, and intervention programs. Because girls face unique gender-specific, social-cultural, developmental challenges through early adolescent and teen years, Girls Circle is an effective strategy for all girls at all levels of risk and protective factors. Many girls encounter gender-relevant trauma that increases their risk factors. The Girls Circle model recognizes trauma as a path to high risk behaviors. The Girls Circle model is rated a "promising approach" with the U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice & Delinquency Prevention. It recognizes girls' capacities for safe and healthy development when relationships with peers and adults are consistent, secure, available, and safe. Promising studies show significant decreases in girls' alcohol use and self-harming behaviors and increases in school bonding[2] self-efficacy, perceived body image, and social connection[3],[4],[5]. The model is being applied nationwide in all areas of prevention and intervention programs in education, community, and juvenile justice settings.

"After years of struggling to squeeze girls into programs designed for boys, some agencies that work with girls are seeking solutions that are gender-specific. This does not mean giving girls the same programs as boys. . . . Instead, the most effective programs are rooted in the experience of girls and incorporate an understanding of female development. Such programs foster positive gender identity development. Gender-specific programs recognize the risk factors most likely to impact the targeted gender group and the protective factors that can build resiliency and prevent delinquency " (Source: http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/pubs/principles/ch2_6.html).

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[1] A report on the research results of the national evaluation of Girls Circle is included as a bonus in the conference Proceedings. See *Girls Circle National Research Project: Evaluation Results: Year One*, by Jessica Roa, Angela Irvine, and Karina Cervantez of Ceres Policy Research.

[2] Irvine, A., & Roa, J., (2007). Girls Circle National Research Project. In press.

[3] Steese, S., Dollette, M et al. (2006). Understanding Girls' Circle as an intervention on perceived social support, body image, self-efficacy, locus of control, and self-esteem. *Adolescence, 41*(161), Spring 2006, pp. 57-74.

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Workshop objectives include presentation of the relational-cultural theory and resiliency practices, the six-step circle format, utilizing a strengths- based approach, recommendations for implementation, and current research findings. Workshop participants may represent elementary, middle, secondary and alternative school administrators, counselors, psychologists, and service providers in community organizations in school, after school, community, and juvenile justice settings.

Through lecture, group interaction, and discussion, participants will gain knowledge of the Girls Circle model, curricula, trainings, and implementation strategies to effectively impact girls' safety and well being.

YOUTH GANG TRENDS AND MYTHS

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Session Overview

This presentation covers three topics. The first topic is Important Youth Gangs Trends, including reported gang activity nationwide (in NYGC's National Youth Gang Survey). The second topic, Major Myths about Youth gangs, includes the presumed migration of gangs across the country and the belief that youth gangs are highly organized criminal operations. The third topic, What Works with Gangs addresses another popular myth about youth gangs – that nothing is effective with them. School-based programs, such as G.R.E.A.T. will be featured.

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SCHOOL POLICIES AND LEGAL ISSUES SUPPORTING SAFE SCHOOLS [1]

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Abstract

School district and school efforts to ensure a safe learning environment for all children and youth must take into account an increasing variety of legal requirements and considerations. This guide presents an overview of the legal and practical considerations, applicable to students, of which school officials must be aware in developing and implementing school safety efforts. The first section of the guide is an overview of the legal and practical requirements and considerations that govern school safety-related policies generally. The second section discusses how these requirements and considerations apply to a variety of specific school-safety related issues and situations. The guide concludes with a glossary of terms and a list of additional resources.

Overall Considerations

The general legal and practical considerations that apply when developing and adopting school safety policies and practices originate in the U.S. Constitution, federal statutes and their implementing regulations, and state constitutions, statutes, and regulations, including those state law provisions adopted pursuant to the requirements accompanying federal funding.

Protections afforded by the U.S. Constitution that may bear on school safety policies include the Fourteenth Amendment's provisions related to due process and equal protection, the Fourth Amendment's protections against unreasonable search and seizure, the First Amendment's protections of freedom of expression and religion, and, in certain instances, the Fifth Amendment's protections against self-incrimination. Generally speaking, these protections apply to students while under the care of schools, but they apply differently than they do to adults in other settings.

While school officials enjoy considerable discretion when it comes to student discipline, disciplinary actions must respect principles of due process, both substantive and procedural. To satisfy substantive due process, an action must be reasonably related to the school's interest in protecting students or maintaining order in the school. An action may fail to respect substantive due process where it is arbitrary, lacks reasonable grounds, or is unreasonably severe.

The requirements of procedural due process vary depending on the severity of the action: the more severe the disciplinary consequences, the more procedural safeguards must be observed. These safeguards may include notice, a hearing, an appeal, and evidentiary requirements. In some states, a state statute may set forth requirements for disciplinary actions that reflect requirements of the U.S. and the state's constitution.

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[1] This paper is the Executive Summary to School Policies and Legal Issues Supporting Safe Schools by the author in the forthcoming series on *Effective Strategies for Creating Safer Schools and Communities*, to be published by the Hamilton Fish Institute and Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory with the support of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice.

Generally speaking, equal protection requires that actions taken by a school are applied equally to similarly situated students. Different treatment will be subject to varying levels of judicial review depending on whether the difference involves categories of students. In most cases, a school need only have a rational basis for any difference in treatment among individual students. Increased scrutiny may come into play where it is argued the action affects students differently on the basis of characteristics such as race, ethnicity, or gender. Various federal and state anti-discrimination statutes also apply in the school setting.

A search of a student must be both reasonable at its inception based on the circumstances under which it was made and reasonable in its scope. School searches generally need not be based on the "probable cause" standard law enforcement searches must meet, but merely on a "reasonable suspicion" that school rules are being violated. The scope of the search must be reasonably related to its objective and not excessively intrusive in light of privacy considerations such as the student's expectation of privacy, age, and gender. These considerations become more complex where there is collaboration between school and law enforcement officials, a scenario that may also implicate the Fifth Amendment's protection against self-incrimination.

Certain school policies or actions intended to ensure a safe and supportive environment for all students may implicate First Amendment interests where they impose restrictions on student expression or disciplinary consequences for the expression. Student free speech rights in school are not as great as those enjoyed by adults, but some school actions may be challenged for impinging on a student's speech or free exercise of religion.

Safety-related requirements for school policies also are established through federal legislation and regulations, as well as the state laws and administrative actions that implement these federal statutes. The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), for example, establishes federal requirements for the reporting of incidents of school violence and provides for the designation of certain schools as "persistently dangerous," a designation that triggers certain consequences for the school. State law defines the criteria for this designation in each state.

NCLB currently also includes the Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act (SDFSCA), which sets forth criteria for federal funding for school violence prevention programs. SDFSCA, in turn, incorporates the Gun-Free Schools Act, which imposes a federal mandate as to the disciplinary consequences for a student's possession of a firearm on campus.

As of this writing, the reauthorization of NCLB, including SDFSCA, is pending before the Congress. When adopted, the new act may include revisions of existing legal requirements and new mandates for schools. If so, these revisions will be addressed in a post-script to this guide.

Disciplinary actions against students are subject to protections afforded by the federal Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The latest reauthorization of IDEA includes new provisions intended to address safety concerns.

Under state law, schools may face various forms of tort liability, such as negligence claims, for failing to intervene to prevent school violence, including severe bullying and harassment. In addition, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 imposes liability under federal law for a federally funded school's "deliberate indifference" to student-on-student harassment related to gender, where the harassment is "so severe, pervasive, and objectively offensive that it can be said to deprive the victims of access to the educational opportunities or benefits provided by the school." Harassment and bullying also increasingly have become the focus of additional legislative interest by states, several of which have adopted state requirements for local policies.

The discretion school officials have to disclose information about a student among themselves and to others is limited by the federal Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) and by state privacy laws, which may set stricter privacy requirements than does FERPA. Generally speaking, personal information that is contained in a student's education record may not be disclosed without the parent's or student's consent. Exceptions are provided for other school officials with a "legitimate educational interest" in the information and for certain situations related to school safety consideration. IDEA also includes privacy protections related to special education.

These various legal requirements, along with simple considerations of effectiveness and public support, have important implications for school policies. Two of the most important are: (1) that the policy must be communicated to, and understood by, school employees, students and parents, and (2) that schools consider the full range of potential options in school safety situations, including proactive and preventive measures and alternatives to disciplinary approaches. In addition, school officials should consider carefully the balance to be struck in "zero tolerance" policies between the need for consistent enforcement and the need not to deprive school officials of all professional discretion in ways that lead to unintended consequences.

Specific Safety Issues and Situations

The general legal and practical considerations outlined in Section 1 apply in more specific ways to a variety of school safety policies and actions – both those that are preventive measures and those that represent responses to specific situations.

On the preventive side of school action, a school's failure to adopt and implement adequate safety measures could be the grounds for a tort claim in the event of school violence. Programs to support school safety efforts can serve as a useful point of reference in ensuring the adequacy of such efforts as a legal matter.

General searches of students in the absence of reasonable suspicion are vulnerable to legal challenge. However, based on a lower expectation of privacy, the legal barrier is lower for searches of lockers, the use of metal detectors, and, depending on their placement, the employment of surveillance cameras in schools and on school buses.

As to cameras, there is considerable uncertainty about how the requirements of FERPA apply to video footage, an issue on which, as of this writing, federal officials are focusing attention with the intent of providing additional guidance.

Retrospective identification of warning signs that had preceded school shootings has raised questions about the efficacy and legal acceptability of "profiling" practices in identifying such risk factors in advance. The legal considerations include the need to avoid discriminatory practices that raise equal protection and other legal concerns.

Similarly, FERPA requirements and other privacy concerns have been scrutinized as possible obstacles to the sharing of information important to preventing school violence. FERPA includes a number of provisions specifically providing for the legal disclosure of information related to school safety or violence, and the records of school law enforcement units are excluded from FERPA's restrictions altogether.

School dress codes and uniform policies, which may be adopted in part out of safety considerations, must bear a reasonable relationship to the school's educational mission or the need to provide a safe and secure learning environment. In addition, because attire can be a form of expression or be based on religious requirements, such policies implicate First Amendment concerns. If possible, accommodations should be made for religious reasons. Restrictions on messages on clothing generally must not be based on the

viewpoint expressed. However, under certain circumstances exceptions to this requirement may be made where safety concerns are at issue.

On the responsive side of school action, disciplinary actions taken in response to violence, bullying or harassment, threats, or other violations of safety-related policies are subject to the due process and anti-discrimination requirements described above. Actions involving a student with a disability must be taken in accordance with IDEA. Students generally do not have a legal right to invoke self-defense when being disciplined for violence, although this may be addressed in school policy.

Failure to intervene with disciplinary or other measures in response to school violence, including severe bullying and harassment, can give rise to liability under tort law or Title IX. One federal court even has ruled that failure to protect a disabled student from severe harassment deprived the student of the free, appropriate public education to which he was entitled under IDEA.

A search is undertaken with the necessary reasonable suspicion when the school has reasonable grounds for believing it likely to produce evidence of misconduct or contraband. The scope of the search should not extend beyond that part of the student's person or belongings reasonably related to the suspicion. The reasonableness and allowable scope of a search are greatest where there is imminent danger of harm. Strip searches should be avoided where possible and done in such a way to minimize intrusiveness and embarrassment. Searches undertaken by law enforcement officials, or at their request, are subject to the higher probable cause requirement.

The line between a threat of violence on the one hand and parody, creative expression or the simple voicing of frustration on the other frequently is difficult to draw, especially without benefit of hindsight. The First Amendment does not prevent school officials from intervening in response to the expression of a "true threat." While courts employ varying factors to evaluate whether expression constitutes a "true threat," these factors most often address not whether the speaker intended the message as a threat but whether the message reasonably was perceived as such by others, based for example on whether the threat was directly communicated to others, any previous incidents involving violence or the speaker. A true threat need not necessarily be uttered on campus to warrant school intervention. As noted above, however, school officials should proceed with caution, and preferably with legal counsel, before intervening in response to off-campus expression. Carefully developing a policy concerning such situations in advance can provide school staff with useful guidance. A proportionate response by the school can help persuade a judge that the school was not overreacting.

Intervention in response to off campus behavior, including online expression, should be approached with particular legal care, since school authority over off campus conduct and over free expression both are limited and, with respect to online expression, the law is in its infancy. That said, such actions taken out of concern for student safety, such as intervention in response to online threats and severe cyberbullying, are relatively more likely to be upheld by a court than those arising in other circumstances. Because of the legal uncertainties, this is an area in which the need to consider the full range of alternatives to disciplinary action is most acute.

PATTERNS OF BULLYING/VICTIMIZATION AMONG STUDENTS WITH EMOTIONAL DISTURBANCE: IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE AND RESEARCH

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Session Overview

Abstract

The purpose of this workshop is to demonstrate the use of a bullying instrument to establish a baseline of behavior among students and a program's response. Students with emotional disturbance (ED) in grades 6 through 10 attending therapeutic day schools completed the Olweus Bullying Questionnaire. Their responses were compared to typical peers from a national sample. Students with ED were less likely to engage in bullying behavior. Although among their typical peers where boys had higher levels of bullying than girls, among students with ED, both boys and girls reported similar rates of bullying, used nonphysical means to bully, and reported occurrences to school authorities. Significantly more girls with ED were victims of bullying. Using these results as a baseline, consideration of the implications for practice and research will be encouraged among participants.

Background

Several studies have documented the pattern of bullying/victimization among students with disabilities, but little attention has been paid to identifying these patterns among students with Emotional Disturbance (ED). The Olweus Bullying Questionnaire was administered to students with ED attending private therapeutic day schools in New Jersey. The anonymous responses of the ED students were compared to findings from Nansel et. al. (2001), who analyzed data on typical peers from the World Health Organization's (1997-1998) Health Behavior in School-Aged Children Survey (HBSC).

The study was conducted by ASAH (formerly the Association of Schools and Agencies for the Handicapped), an organization of 92 private approved schools. All 31 schools serving students with ED were invited to participate, and 17 member schools volunteered to administer the Olweus instrument to students in grades 6-10. The principal investigator is employed by one of the participating schools. Appropriate releases were obtained.

The study was conducted, in part, to help establish the baseline for bullying/victimization among students with ED in therapeutic day schools. Students with ED as well as the professionals working with them benefit from such an effort, since programs serving students with ED will be better able to develop evidenced-based programs to prevent/intervene in bullying/victimization.

Because students with ED share traits associated with those involved in bullying/victimization, such as poor school performance, troubled interpersonal relationships, inappropriate behavior/feelings, and depression and

anxiety, we anticipated that students with ED would have a greater tendency/vulnerability than the typical students as bullies or victims.

Results indicated that the rates of bullying among students with ED were lower than those of their typical peers; girls with ED bullied at higher rates than their typical peers and at rates matching boys with ED; girls with ED were victimized at significantly higher rates than their typical peers or boys with ED.

Programs serving students with ED, especially girls, will be able to develop knowledge-based interventions. Small school size, close supervision, and the characteristics of the schools in this study appear to help curtail bullying. Girls with ED are often in the minority within programs, but have distinct needs for prevention and intervention. Further research is needed.

Workshop Summary

This workshop will focus on the results of a study to identify baseline patterns of bullying/victimization among students with ED who attend therapeutic day schools. Presenters will discuss the study's methods and significant results, including gender issues. The implications for developing bullying prevention/intervention programs will be highlighted. Relevant avenues for further research will be explored.

Workshop Goals

Participants will gain knowledge of the patterns of bullying/victimization among students with ED as compared to typical students. Particular focus will be placed on gender differences. Participants will plan for the assessment of bullying or similar behaviors at their sites to establish a baseline. During small group discussion, participants will be encouraged to generate/share ideas for the development of bullying prevention/intervention programs or further research for their students or target population.

Workshop Objectives

1. To demonstrate the use of a bullying questionnaire to establish a baseline of behaviors in a school setting.
2. To familiarize participants with the similarities/differences between students with ED and typical students in regard to patterns of bullying/victimization.
3. To sensitize participants to the gender issues among students with ED in regard to bullying/victimization.
4. To stimulate ideas for developing future bullying prevention/intervention programs based on study results.
5. To stimulate interest in conducting further studies about students with ED and bullying/victimization.

Workshop Activities

1. 20-25 minute presentation by Dr. Kellner and Dr. Carran describing the study's method, design, results, and limitations
2. 5-10 minute question and answer period
3. 25 minute break-out groups to discuss relevant ideas for program development and future research
4. 25-minute period for each small group to summarize discussion and share with all participants
5. 10-minute question and answer period

Assessment

Indicators of success for this workshop will be measured through observation and discussion with workshop participants and through the formal and/or informal feedback that they provide. At the end, participants will be asked to complete an evaluation form (attached). The indicators are as follows:

1. Participants will demonstrate an understanding of the workshop content and have an opportunity to ask questions of the presenters that will enhance their understanding of and ability to utilize the study findings in future prevention/intervention programs or research.
2. Participants will demonstrate a high level of engagement and active participation in the small group discussion component of the workshop.
3. Participants will be able to adapt the findings presented to their own bullying prevention/ intervention program or research efforts.

Resources

http://www.asah.org

http://www.highpointschool.org

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PATTERNS OF BULLYING/VICTIMIZATION
AMONG STUDENTS WITH EMOTIONAL DISTURBANCE

Evaluation Form

Trainers: Millicent H. Kellner, Ph.D. and Deborah T. Carran, Ph.D.
Site: Persistently Safe Schools 2007

Please rate this workshop by circling a number for each statement.

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
I was satisfied with the quality of the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
I found the information presented useful to my work.	5	4	3	2	1
I will be able to incorporate material from the workshop into my work.	5	4	3	2	1
The presenters had adequate knowledge of the topic covered.	5	4	3	2	1
Presentation of the materials was understandable.	5	4	3	2	1
Visual materials and tables were helpful.	5	4	3	2	1
My questions/needs were addressed.	5	4	3	2	1
The opportunity to discuss program and research implications within my small group was helpful.	5	4	3	2	1
The handouts were helpful.	5	4	3	2	1

Comments:

DEVELOPING A SOCIAL NEUROSCIENTIFIC UNDERSTANDING OF YOUTH BEHAVIORS: BASIC UNDERSTANDING

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Abstract

Although we know that certain factors, such as a child's disadvantaged background, problems with family – severe physical and psychological trauma may trigger undesirable behaviors – there is not a consistent pattern of cause and effect. The new field of social neuroscience provides a blend of social and biological factors that offer a deeper understanding of root causes versus symptoms. This session provides a basic educational understanding about five key brain chemicals and how they work together to define a youth's physiological make-up and affect behaviors, moods, and performance issues. Each brain chemical will be introduced with an explanation of resulting behaviors when `out of balance.' The impact of diet, exercise, and drugs on brain chemistry will also be presented. Relevant examples will be presented from peer-reviewed clinical research.

Introduction

The last decade has brought exciting breakthroughs in understanding the brain with insights about neurochemistry of the brain, the brain maturation process, and how those two areas alone factor in defining behaviors, moods, and performance of youth. The link between brain chemistry and resulting behaviors begins with a basic education about the role and function of neurotransmitters (brain chemicals), and the impact of some controllable influencers such as diet, nutrition, exercise, activities, thoughts, and drugs. All of these influencers alter brain chemistry resulting in either desired or unwanted behaviors.

The maturation of the brain follows a set schedule with the prefrontal cortex, responsible for controlling impulses, aiding in decision-making, and judgment, being the last brain region to mature. The prefrontal cortex is not fully mature until around age 25. Coupling these compelling facts about the brain presents a far-reaching paradigm shift in our education and legal systems.

The next decade – if not next week, next month, or next year – will bring a closer relationship amongst psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, and other social science disciplines with neuroscience. The focus of the linked sciences, termed social neuroscience, is to provide a holistic and systems approach to better understanding youth, development, and some causes of behaviors while distinguishing the difference between problems and symptoms.

Chemical imbalances in the brain can lead to unwanted behaviors such as violence, bullying, addictions, drug and alcohol use and abuse, performance issues, and mood problems. Brain chemistry contributes to the emotional and behavioral health of children and adolescents.

Discussion

Though neurochemistry is complex, this basic educational introduction provides a simple explanation using the metaphor of a vehicle with each of five brain chemicals (key neurotransmitters) taking a role of either a

"brake or gas pedal" action – each neurotransmitter either arouses or calms the brain. For example, a study conducted by Grasby at Hammersmith Hospital in London found that youth actively engaged in violent video game playing experience both arousal and a craving desire to continue playing. During the game, the brain released excessively high levels of dopamine, comparable to dopamine release after being injected with amphetamines.

Social interactions affect brain health, and brain health can impact social interactions and perceptions. The following is an overview of the five key neurotransmitters to be presented: dopamine, serotonin, acetylcholine, norepinephrine, and GABA (Gamma-Aminobutyric Acid).

1. Dopamine

Basic Biology of Dopamine

Dopamine is a brain chemical whose activity defines it as an excitatory neurotransmitter. Its primary function helps a child feel alert and aware, and to experience situations with a healthy measure of assertiveness and aggression. Dopamine also affects the brain's processes that control muscle movement and ability to experience pleasure and pain.

When this brain chemical is at its optimum, the child will have an accurate perception of experiences and situations. Using the metaphor of a vehicle, this neurotransmitter (brain chemical) can be termed as a gas pedal brain chemical. Dopamine provides the brain with a sense of motivation enabling a child to feel good about performing tasks, and to have a sense of reward when partaking in activities. Dopamine is the chemical messenger that results in the feeling of reward which further encourages the child to repeat a prior behavior or task that had produced that feeling of reward.

Dopamine also produces the emotional response of pleasure, which is why this neurotransmitter is often associated with substance addictions and addictive behaviors. The feeling of reward and pleasure sets the stage for a child to continually seek those feelings. The behaviors and substances that resulted in a surge of dopamine can trigger a desire for a child to repeat the behaviors or activities in order to experience the emotional feelings of pleasure (Howard, 2006, pp. 427-429).

Thoughts can influence brain chemistry. Therefore, it is important that balanced levels of dopamine are essential for healthy perceptions of reality. Excess levels of dopamine, which stimulates alertness and awareness, can cause muscular tension, disrupted sleep patterns, and result in grandiose thinking, excessive self-confidence, and a shortened attention span. Excess dopamine has also been associated with ADHD symptoms and risk-taking behaviors, such as gambling and drug abuse. When dopamine levels are excessively elevated, the resulting behaviors can include delusions, hallucinations, and withdrawal. Low levels of dopamine can result in depression, low energy, excessive sleep, or suicide ideation.

Many school social workers state that when the counseled child is asked why they did the wrong thing, the response is they did not want to. This simple response to a troublesome behavior, at first, does not provide a satisfactory answer. Although the child's response could have factual truth that the child did not want to do the wrong thing, s/he seemingly could not help themselves to stop. The idea of lack of willpower or morals often comes to mind, however, if the child's brain chemistry, particularly dopamine, was out of balance. When brain chemistry is out of balance, what feels good is often what keeps it out of balance. So in this case, the child's dopamine levels might have been mildly or very elevated. If the child's level of dopamine was low prior to the troublesome behavior, then it might have been that the child was performing the behavior to self-stimulate the release of more dopamine. The sedentary atmosphere and pace of the classroom may be

considered boring and slow which challenges a child's brain chemistry of high dopamine. Ultimately, the child learns to repeat behaviors and activities that make them feel good.

The Chemical Building Blocks of Dopamine

Dopamine is made from the amino acid building block L-tyrosine. L-tyrosine is richly abundant in foods that are high in protein. Some food items rich in this amino acid include meat, fish, poultry, beans, nuts, tofu, dairy, and whey protein. The marketplace offers sports drinks that are a source of high protein as well.

Impact on Dopamine Levels

There is a multitude of factors that influence the level of dopamine. Each influencer can result in a different outcome based on the level of dopamine and other brain chemicals prior to the new influence. Some commonly known influences are stress, exercise, activities, emotions, diet and nutrition, and thoughts. Some other external influencers of dopamine are viewing violence, violent video game playing, gambling, high-risk behaviors (e.g. driving fast), and addictive substances. Understanding some basics about dopamine and the factors that can greatly influence levels and alter behaviors and moods provides the potential for making different choices. What a child eats and drinks can change the level of dopamine and have a resulting impact on the level of other neurotransmitters.

2. Serotonin

The Basic Biology of Serotonin

Serotonin is a brain chemical whose activity defines it as an inhibitory neurotransmitter. Its primary function helps a child to calm their moods and aids in the child's ability to concentrate. When serotonin levels are at an optimal level the child will have a sense of well-being and that `all is well in their world.' The child will have feelings of security and stabilized moods. When dopamine and serotonin levels are in optimal balance, the child will have an accurate perception of experiences and situations.

We may think of self-esteem, confidence, or the ability to concentrate as invisible characteristics, grounded in the equally invisible psyche, but they too have roots in biochemistry. All balanced emotional conditions and even such elevated states as happiness and joy are associated with normal or high serotonin levels. On the other hand, insecurity, anger, fear, paranoia, depression and even suicide ideation are associated with low levels of serotonin (Niehoff, 1999, pp. 135-145).

Using the metaphor of a vehicle, this neurotransmitter can be termed as a brake pedal brain chemical. Now we have serotonin acting as a brake pedal, and dopamine is acting as a gas pedal neurotransmitter. Continuing with the metaphor, the braking action can help temper the acceleration, and likewise increased acceleration, the gas pedal action, can override any braking efforts. In a simple to understand explanation: when dopamine levels elevate, dopamine has a tendency to overwhelm serotonin which results in pushing serotonin levels down.

The Chemical Building Blocks of Serotonin

Serotonin is synthesized from the amino acid tryptophan. Tryptophan is commonly found in carbohydrates and carbohydrate-rich foods. Many animal proteins contain tryptophan but, paradoxically, serotonin levels tend to go down when proteins are eaten at the same time with tryptophan. This interesting phenomenon

happens because of the relationship between dopamine and serotonin. Simply stated, dopamine has a strong influence on serotonin.

Impact on Serotonin Levels

Some commonly known influencers on serotonin are stress, exercise, activities, emotions, diet and nutrition, and thoughts. The impact of imbalances in serotonin, in the normal brain, can result in a range of behaviors and moods: depression, suicide, violence, impulse dyscontrol, and conduct disorder. It is important to remember that the resulting behaviors and moods of serotonin imbalances can arise from a multitude of ways. There is no simple explanation. Understanding this complex neurotransmitter is a first step in building an appreciation of its role in unwanted behaviors.

According to Royce and Coccarro (2002), impulsivity is an aspect of personality which can be divided into two major components: temperament and character. Temperament is considered to be heritable, recognizable in early life, and remaining relatively stable, and correlated with a variety of biological variables. Character is less influenced by biological factors than is temperament and is considered to be influenced by relationships with others and with society and the set of values the person applies to society. Both researchers reference the discovery in 1976 by Asberg and others who found reduced levels of serotonin in patients with depression were associated with a history of suicide attempts (Royce and Coccarro 2002).

3. Acetylcholine

The Basic Biology of Acetylcholine

Acetylcholine is a unique brain chemical whose activity defines it as an inhibitory or excitatory neurotransmitter. Acetylcholine's primary function is with memory, which is essential for both the storage and recall of memories, and is partly responsible for concentration and focus. This neurotransmitter also plays a significant role in muscle movement and muscular coordination.

Acetylcholine's unusual characteristic of either activity is influenced by the level of the other four brain chemicals. Acetylcholine takes the role of an excitatory neurotransmitter when there are elevated levels of the two key excitatory neurotransmitters, dopamine and norepinephrine. When either of the excitatory neurotransmitters is elevated, acetylcholine shifts its role to an excitatory neurotransmitter which attenuates the impact of the increased level of dopamine and norepinephrine. This additive effect can exacerbate the resulting behavioral problems of elevated dopamine. Conversely, when dopamine and norepinephrine levels are optimal or lowered, acetylcholine can take an inhibitory role. This inhibitory role can help accentuate the inhibitory impact of serotonin, when serotonin levels are at an optimum.

Using the metaphor of a vehicle, this neurotransmitter can be termed as a gas pedal or a brake pedal brain chemical. Now we have a dopamine `gas pedal' coupled with a weak serotonin `brake pedal,' and acetylcholine that can take the role of either a `gas or brake pedal.' So we have the potential of two `brake or gas pedals.' When dopamine, a `gas pedal' is attenuated by acetylcholine taking the role of a `gas pedal,' the net result is a greatly increased presence of excitatory brain chemicals. As with a vehicle, when the gas pedal is pressed down to the floor, there will be little impact from a weak application of the brake pedal – serotonin.

Continuing with the vehicle example, there are two ways to stop a car: one way is to increase the braking, and the other is to ease back on the gas pedal acceleration. This metaphor helps in understanding the impact of one neurotransmitter upon another with the potential behavioral outcomes being different depending on the influencers that increase or decrease the level of a neurotransmitter. The interrelationships between and amongst the neurotransmitters becomes more fascinating as each of the five neurotransmitters are introduced.

The Chemical Building Blocks of Acetylcholine

Unlike the other four key neurotransmitters, acetylcholine is not made from amino acids. Its primary building block is choline, which belongs to the vitamin B family and is a fat-like substance that is necessary to metabolize fats. Choline is found in lecithin. Foods high in lecithin include egg yolks, wheat germ, soybeans, organ meats, and whole wheat products. Vitamin C and B5 are needed for the brain to synthesize acetylcholine, in the presence of choline acetyltransferase, a key brain enzyme. Unlike the precursors of the other four neurotransmitters, choline does not have to compete for entry through the brain's filter called the blood-brain barrier. (See The Franklin Institute at http://www.fi.edu/brain/proteins.htm.)

Acetylcholine was the very first neurotransmitter to have been discovered and is the most common neurotransmitter, found in up to 15 percent of the body's nerve cells. Acetylcholine is also one of the central nervous system neurotransmitters whose concentration has been found to be affected directly by diet (Edelson 1988, 79).

4. Norepinephrine

The Basic Biology of Norepinephrine

Norepinephrine (sometimes called noradrenaline) is a brain chemical whose activity defines it as an excitatory neurotransmitter. Its primary functions help in heightened alertness, muscle activity, the constriction and dilation of blood vessels, elevated heart rate, and the opening of bronchioles in the respiratory tract. As with other neurotransmitters, norepinephrine regulates emotional behaviors and moods and is influenced when levels increase or decrease. At optimal levels, it helps the child to feel energized and alert. Norepinephrine also aids in preparing the child for the fight-or-flight response (Edelson 1988, 79).

Norepinephrine serves as a kind of "printer" that fixes information into long-term memory and helps establish new synapses associated with memory. The release of norepinephrine as a result of shock, fright, or anger helps a person vividly remember information about the experience. Studies indicate that a person being deprived of norepinephrine can still learn new things, but they will not be able to remember what they were taught (Howard 2006, 56). An optimal level of norepinephrine provides us with the ability to react quickly and aggressively to situations presenting danger.

Using the metaphor of a vehicle, this neurotransmitter can be termed as a `gas pedal' brain chemical. This is the fourth neurotransmitter to be introduced giving a total of two `gas pedal' neurotransmitters – dopamine and norepinephrine, one `brake pedal' neurotransmitter – serotonin, and the `gas or brake pedal' action of acetylcholine. Again, acetylcholine can attenuate or decrease the impact of the results of the `gas pedal' depending on the level of acetylcholine.

The Chemical Building Blocks of Norepinephrine

Norepinephrine's precursor is dopamine –L-tyrosine converts into dopamine, which, in turn, converts into norepinephrine.

Impact on Norepinephrine Levels

Perry (2002), of Baylor College of Medicine in Houston, has provided extensive research about the effects of post-traumatic stress disorders (PTSD) in children. His work has been helpful to parents and caregivers living

with children suffering with PTSD. Perry reports that more than 68 percent of children surviving the Branch Davidian siege at Waco, Texas in 1993 met the criteria for the diagnosis of PTSD. His study showed that all of the children had very high levels of norepinephrine, which can produce anxiety, excess energy, racing and pounding heart and increased blood pressure. What the scientists found was that the children's resting heart rate was at 100-170 beats per minute; the average for children is 84 beats per minute. The children had high levels of norepinephrine, which is typical of people with PTSD (Perry 2002, 9-12).

The flood of norepinephrine can reset the child's brain chemistry setpoint to a `high alarm' state. These are children that are more prone to being impulsive, aggressive and more likely to commit hot-blooded violent criminal acts. Scientists state that in this sort of situation, kids adapt to the behaviors (meaning a resetting of the brain chemistry baseline) from high norepinephrine. These kids become more impulsive and hyper-vigilant and tend to be overly-reactive, and are more prone to act before they are acted upon in that kind of abusive setting (Kotulak 1996, 78-81).

Norepinephrine and Antisocial Tendencies

Children might start off with high norepinephrine and demonstrate impulsive behavior (the high alarm state) but this will change around puberty such that their brain chemistry baseline might convert to low norepinephrine, low arousal and more predatory behaviors. The change may be due to the fact that brain cells that are exposed to constant stress burn out, thus dropping to a lower level of activity to save the cells. Scientists believe that these are kids that change from being victims to being victimizers and develop an incredibly icy cold quality of being emotionless. The only thing they are sorry about is being caught (Kotulak 1996).

5. GABA

The Basic Biology of GABA

The fifth and last key brain chemical is Gamma-Aminobutyric Acid – GABA whose activity defines it as an inhibitory neurotransmitter. This is considered the brain's most important inhibitory brain chemical. GABA's primary function is to aid in reducing anxiety. Optimal levels of GABA result in muscle relaxation, comfortable sleep and an overall quieting effect. Lower levels of GABA are associated with increased anxiety and tension (Howard 2006, 57).

Using the metaphor of a vehicle, this neurotransmitter can be termed as a brake pedal brain chemical. GABA is the brain's most critically important brake pedal. To summarize the five neurotransmitters, there are two gas pedals – dopamine and norepinephrine; and there are three brake pedals – GABA, serotonin, and acetylcholine. We know that the level of acetylcholine, in the brain, can take the role of being a gas pedal which attenuates the impact of the gas pedal neurotransmitters; or acetylcholine can take the role of an inhibitory neurotransmitter that tempers the increasing excitatory (gas pedal) neurotransmitters with a braking action. So using the vehicle metaphor, there are two ways to stop a vehicle: ease up on the gas pedal or apply the brakes, and likewise there are two ways to accelerate a vehicle: apply the gas pedal or ease up on the brake pedal. When applying this metaphor back to neurochemistry, it helps explain different behaviors and moods.

The Chemical Building Blocks of GABA

GABA is made from the amino acid glutamate with the aid of vitamin B6. Glutamate is present in large quantities throughout the body. A double blind, crossover study was published in *Biological Psychiatry 14*(5),

reporting that vitamin B6 was found to be more effective than methylphenidate (Ritalin) in a group of hyperactive children.

Impact on GABA Levels

When low levels of GABA are found in combination with low levels of serotonin, this is a recipe for violence and aggression. Think about the vehicle metaphor. GABA and serotonin are both `brake pedals.' Though serotonin exhibits a weaker braking action, it combined with GABA enhances the slowing of the `gas pedal' neurotransmitters – dopamine and norepinephrine. So with lowered levels of both braking neurotransmitters, it is easy to understand that the revving action of two powerful `gas pedal' brain chemicals – dopamine and norepinephrine - will dominate. Remember, there are two ways to slow the vehicle, easing up on the gas pedal or applying braking action. In this case, the brakes were unavailable.

GABA and Passive Behavior

High levels of serotonin and GABA are associated with passive behavior. This statement is also easy to understand when relating it to the vehicle metaphor. When both inhibitory neurotransmitters are elevated this doubles the braking action. In this case it would be like the vehicle at a standstill. The braking action overrides the functions of the two excitatory neurotransmitters of dopamine and norepinephrine. Both of the excitatory neurotransmitters produce a feeling of alertness, and ability to experience situations with a healthy measure of assertiveness and aggression. In this case, using the vehicle metaphor, the way to bring balance is to ease up on the braking action to enable movement.

GABA and the Impact of Media

Levels of GABA drop when a person is watching a television program with violence in action, which can set the stage for possible increased personal aggression. During the 1995-1996 school year, Singer, a researcher at Case Western Reserve University in Cleveland, Ohio, looked for precursors of violence in 2,245 public school children ages 7-15. The three strongest precursors reported were exposure to violence, lack of parental oversight, and television viewing habits - more than 20 percent reported viewing in excess of six hours a day (Howard 2006, 469).

Summary

Social neuroscience is a fairly new discipline that will continue to develop over time providing a comprehensive understanding about behaviors and moods through integrating the research from social sciences and neuroscience. It is the writer's hope that this brief introduction to neurochemistry inspires participants to integrate this valuable information into their daily interactions with youth, and to perhaps seek further self-education. The goal is to inform, empower and encourage personal learning of the stewards of our youth and provoke a paradigm shift in relating to our children.

Implications

Intensive full-day seminars have been given nationwide to hundreds of organizations with direct responsibility for over one million youth. The seminar curriculum provides a deep neuroscientific comprehension of why young people often make bad decisions. Participants have included professionals from schools, mental health, law enforcement, drug rehab, attorney and paralegals, and parents and community. The impact has been far-reaching as noted in feedback evaluations.

School social workers and counselors state they have changed their standard of care and support to students, through the in-depth understanding of the neuroscience of behaviors. They have said that fusing their training in psychology and the basics in neuroscience have expanded their ability to positively influence youth to making better choices. Some direct quotes from school social workers: "I will no longer `write-off' a youth" and "This (program material) makes sense and I can't label a youth out of frustration." "I wish I had learned this while in graduate school." Some K-12 schools are reviewing their school's policies, and cafeteria menus to provide healthier choices. Many school social workers are building a stronger relationship with co-participants – School Resource Officers (sworn officers based in schools).

Law enforcement officers, safety officers and directors of safe and healthy schools have stated that the program information has aided in understanding their own brain chemistry, and with having an appreciation for what might be some root causes of youth behaviors, it has resulted in changing their approach to violent or difficult situations without using force or aggression. As one officer stated, "I've learned more about people in one day than in my 32 years in law enforcement. I wish I had learned this early in my law enforcement career."

Questionnaires were administered prior to and at the conclusion of the seminar training to monitor changes in participants' understanding of brain chemistry and their attitudes towards dangerous behaviors and delinquent and at-risk youth. The highly accessible format of the trainings has resulted in overwhelmingly positive feedback from the participants and demonstrably high comprehension of the material presented. Anecdotal evidence suggests that long-term retention is also high.

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UNDERSTANDING SCHOOL-BASED MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES FOR STUDENTS WHO ARE DISRUPTIVE AND AGGRESSIVE: WHAT WORKS FOR WHOM? [1]

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Abstract

This session will begin with a description of the evidence-base for mental health services that focus on disruptive or aggressive behaviors, and are appropriate for delivery in schools or are community services that may complement existing efforts in schools. Mental health services in this section are defined as any strategy, program, or intervention aimed at preventing and treating mental health problems in youth. These efforts can include programs focused at the universal, selective, and indicated levels of prevention commonly referred to as the three-tied model of prevention. Because there are a variety of sources describing evidence-base services, it is hoped that this review will start to identify the breadth and depth of the knowledge base so it can be implemented by practitioners and strengthened by future research efforts.

Evidence-Based Mental Health Interventions

Nationally, state policy makers and school boards demand more and better mental health services for all students. There are numerous attempts to increase the amount and types of mental health services in schools (Adelman, & Taylor, 2000). Recent studies indicated that virtually all schools have some type of mental health services available (Foster et al., 2005) and on average, schools offer 14 different programs aimed at improving the social/emotional learning of students (Zins, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, 2004). These efforts, however, are frequently not empirically-based interventions. The challenge, therefore, is to better coordinate and implement an array of evidence-based mental health interventions targeting specific behaviors across a heterogeneous population of students. In order to accomplish this task, a better understanding by mental health, school staff, and families of the universal, selective, and indicated evidence-based mental health interventions that can be implemented in schools is necessary. This section summarizes some of the current evidence-based programs that focus on disruptive and aggressive behaviors that can be implemented in schools

In 2006, Kutash and her colleagues (Kutash, Duchnowski, & Lynn, 2006) summarized the evidence-based mental health interventions for children complied by five national organizations, including: (1) The National Registry of Evidence-based Programs and Practices (NREPP) operated by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA; Schinke, Brounstein, & Gardner, 2002); (2) a report issued by the

[1] This paper is a Preface to "The Role of Mental Health Services in Promoting Safe and Secure Schools" by the author and Albert Duchnowski in the forthcoming series on *Effective Strategies for Creating Safer Schools and Communities*, to be published by the Hamilton Fish Institute and Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory with the support of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice.

Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL, 2003); (3) a review of programs by the Prevention Research Center for the Promotion of Human Development at Penn State (Greenberg, Domitrovich, & Bumbarger, 2000); (4) a review by the Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence (CSPV; Elliott, & Mihalic, 2004); and the US Department of Education report on behalf of the Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI; USEd, 2001). These five sources generated a list of 92 interventions with 23 percent of the programs appearing on more than one of the five sources.

Overall, within this listing of evidence-based programs, approximately one-third of the programs are designated as targeting substance abuse, trauma, or health problems while the remaining two-thirds address the regulation of emotions or social functioning in children and adolescents with 20 programs specifically focusing on the issue of disruptive and aggressive behavior. As a whole, the approaches focus equally on universal levels of prevention (53 percent) and selective/indicated levels of prevention (47 percent). The majority of the programs listed across these five sources are to be implemented in schools (58 percent) while 26 percent are to be implemented in community settings and 16 percent are to be implemented simultaneously in schools and in community settings. This finding clearly supports the notion that in order for evidence-based programs to be implemented, schools must be involved. The next sections describe a sample of universal, selective and indicated evidence-based programs that focus on disruptive and aggressive behavior that can be implemented in schools.

Universal Interventions

According to Weisz, Sandler, Durlak, & Anton (2005), universal strategies are "approaches designed to address risk factors in entire populations of youth – for example, all youngsters in a classroom, all in a school, or all in multiple schools – without attempting to discern which youths are at elevated risk" (p. 632). In developing universal interventions for schools, Farmer et al. (in press) suggest the following four questions to guide the choice and subsequent implementation of universal programs: (1) What general activities in the academic, social, and behavioral domains are associated with conflict and aggression in the school? (2) What universal interventions can be implemented school wide to address problems in each of the specific domains identified? (3) How do various problems impact each other across the different domains? and (4) How can different interventions be brought together to systematically address the collective contributions of these problems?

Some examples of universal interventions are presented in Table 1 (next page). Perhaps the two most common universal interventions include Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS; Kusche, & Greenberg, 1994) and Second Step: A violence prevention program (Frey, Hirchstein, & Guzzo, 2000). The PATHS curriculum has six sections that cover emotional literacy, self control, social competence, positive peer relations, and interpersonal problem solving skills. The program targets children between 5 and 12 years of age and can continue across five grade levels. Second Step is a school-based social-skills program for children 4 to 14 years of age that teaches social skills and socio-emotional skills aimed at reducing impulsive and aggressive behavior while increasing social competence. The program consists of in-school curricula, parent training, and skill development. Generally, approaches at the universal level of prevention include curriculums to be delivered within the classroom to teach specific behaviors and include opportunities for the students to practice the newly acquired skills. The key strategies for effective school-based prevention programming according to Greenberg and his colleagues (Greenberg et al., 2003) include teaching and reinforcing skills in students; fostering supportive relationships among students, school staff and parents; implementing systemic school and community approaches; starting programs before risky behaviors begin; and continuing multi-component across multiple years (see Table 2, next page).

Table 1. A sample of evidence-based universal programs (Kutash et al., 2006)

Program Name	List Cited*	School Based	Age Range	Length of Program	Family Component?	Teacher Component?
Paths – Promoting Alternative Thinking (PATHS)	A,B,C,E	Yes	5-12	5 yrs	Yes	Yes
Second Step: A Violence Prevention Program	A,B,E	Yes	4-14	15 - 30 wks	Yes	Yes
Responding in Peaceful And Positive Ways	A, B,E	Yes	12-14	3yrs	No	Yes
SMART Team: Students Managing Anger and Resolution Together	A	Yes	11-15	8 comp uter modules	No	Yes
Lion Quest Skills for Adolescents	A,E	Yes	6-18	Multi-year	Yes	Yes

*Codes for which list the program was cited:
A = SAMHSA http://www.modelprograms.samhsa.gov
B = Penn State http://www.prevention.psu.edu/pubs/docs/CMHS.pdf
C = CSVP http://www.colorado.edu/cspv/blueprints/
D = U.S. Department of Education http://www.ed.gov/admins/lead/safety/exemplary01/exemplary01.pdf
E = CASEL http://www.casel.org/projects_products/safeandsound.php

Table 2. Key strategies for effective school-based prevention programming involve the following student focused, relationship-oriented, and classroom and school-level organizational changes (Greenberg et al., 2003, p. 470)

1. Teach children to apply social and emotional learning (SEL) skills with ethical values in daily life through interactive classroom instruction and provide frequent opportunities for student self-direction, participation, and school and community service
2. Foster respectful supportive relationships among students, school staff, and parents
3. Support and reward positive social, health, and academic behavior through systematic school-family-community approaches
4. Multi-year, multi-component interventions are more effective than single component short-term programs
5. Competence and health promotion efforts are best begun before signs of risky behaviors emerge and should continue through adolescence

Selective Interventions

According to Weisz et al. (2005), selective interventions target "groups of youth identified because they share a significant risk factor and mount interventions designed to counter that risk" (p. 632). Selective strategies are used with students who require more than universal strategies but less than intensive individualized interventions. The purpose of selective or targeted interventions is to support students who are at-risk for or

are beginning to exhibit signs of more serious problem behaviors. Such interventions can be offered in small group settings for students exhibiting similar behaviors or to individual students. In developing selective interventions, Farmer, Farmer, Estell, & Hutchins (in press) suggest the following four questions to guide the choice and subsequent implementation of selective programs: (1) How are the universal strategies currently targeting the youth's academic, behavioral, and social adjustment and can they be strengthened? (2) What individual strategies can be put in place to ameliorate the youth's risk? (3) What individual interventions or supports can be put in place to maintain and build upon positive constraints and protective factors? and (4) How can the youth's progress be monitored in a positive and supportive manner to make sure the developmental system does not reorganize in a negative manner?

A sample of selective interventions is listed in Table 3. For younger youth, *First Step to Success* (Walker et al., 1997) is implemented in the classroom with behavioral criteria set each day; for the in-home portion of the program, parents are taught to reward appropriate behaviors. For older youth *Functional Family Therapy* (Alexander, & Parsons, 1982) consists of 8-26 hours of direct service time with youth and family depending on the severity of disruptive behaviors and consists of five phases: engagement, motivation, assessment, behavior change, and generalization. A selective program that is community based but is growing in popularity as a school-based program is mentoring. The most popular is Big Brothers/Big Sisters (Grossman, & Tierney, 1998) which provides a formal mechanism for the development of positive relationships between at-risk youth and caring adults.

Table 3. A sample of evidence-based selective programs (Kutash et al., 2006)

Program Name	List Cited*	School Based	Age Range	Length of Program	Family Component?	Teacher Component?
First Step to Success	B	Yes	4-5	3 months	Y	Y
Functional Family Therapy	C	No	11-18	8-26 years	Y	N
Big Brothers/Big Sisters	B,C	No	5-18	1 year	N	N
Fast Track	B	Yes	6-12	School year	Y	N
Olweus Bullying Prevention Program	A**,C	Yes	6-18	School year	N	Y

*Codes for which list the program was cited:
A = SAMHSA http://www.modelprograms.samhsa.gov **before 2007
B = Penn State http://www.prevention.psu.edu/pubs/docs/CMHS.pdf
C = CSVP http://www.colorado.edu/cspv/blueprints/
D = U.S. Department of Education http://www.ed.gov/admins/lead/safety/exemplary01/exemplary01.pdf
E = CASEL http://www.casel.org/projects_products/safeandsound.php

Another popular area of evidence-based programming has been bullying prevention with wide-spread adoption of either the *Olweus Bullying Prevention Program* (Olweus, 1991) or the *Success in Stages: Build Respect Stop Bullying* program (Evers, Prochaska, Van Marter, Johnson, & Prochaska (in press). There has also been recent evidence that decreases in bullying has occurred in schools that have attended to the risk and protective factors within the school environment. For example, attending to the following five areas has been

associated with decreasing bullying: (1) teachers develop positive relationships with all students, (2) teachers make their academic programs interesting to students, (3) the school establishes different interventions strategies for children who need extra help (such as mentoring or after-school programs), (4) the school has definitive policies against bullying for students and prohibits teachers from shouting at children or ridiculing them, and (5) the school has a strong non academic program such as music, art, and dance (Orpinas, & Horne, 2006).

Indicated Interventions

According to Weisz et al. (2005), indicated prevention strategies are "aimed at youth who have significant symptoms of a disorder….but do not currently meet diagnostic criteria for the disorder" (p. 632). As stated earlier, there is very little difference between indicated prevention strategies and those interventions focused on treatment of a diagnostic condition. Farmer et al. (in press) suggest six questions to guide the choice and subsequent implementation of multi-level indicated programs and interventions that are targeted to these youth who have challenges in multiple domains: (1) What are the factors contributing to the youth's difficulties and how are they related to each other? (2) What services are needed to address the different problems and how should interventions be coordinated? (3) As an intervention prompts change in one domain, how does it affect other domains? (4) What problem areas are most likely to change and help support change in other domains? (5) As some problem areas are changing, what interventions can be used to change other domain areas that are more difficult to change? and (6) What natural supports and relationships can be developed that will help sustain the gains made in treatment?

Examples of indicated programs are presented in Table 4 (next page). For young children, between 8 and 12 years of age, *Incredible Years* (Webster-Stratton, 1992) can be implemented in schools and is used as both a selective and indicated prevention program. The program uses four formats: 18 to 22 two-hours weekly Dina Dinosaur group therapy sessions for children; 60 Dina Dinosaur lesson plans for the classroom; 12 to 14 two-hour weekly parenting groups; and 14, two-hour teacher classroom management sessions. The *Earlscourt Social Skills Group Program* (Pepler, King, Craig, Byrd, & Bream, 1995) is aimed at reducing aggression in elementary school students through twice weekly, 75-minute group sessions for 12 to 15 weeks. Sessions teach eight basic skills in program modules, classroom activities, and homework. Training sessions are also offered to parents.

There are several indicated programs that are community-based which may augment school programs. Two of these are *Multisystemic Therapy* (MST; Henggeler et al., 1986) and *Brief Strategic Therapy* (Szapocznik, Hervis, & Schwartz, 2003). MST targets older adolescents and has an average duration of 60 contact hours over four months. Intervention strategies are integrated into social ecological contexts (including the school system) and include strategic family therapy, structural family therapy, behavioral parent training, and cognitive behavior therapy. *Brief Strategic Therapy* can be used with students between the ages of 6 and 17 and is delivered in 60 to 90 minute sessions over the course of 8 to 12 weeks. A counselor meets with the family and develops a therapeutic alliance, diagnoses family strengths and problem relations, develops a change strategy, and helps implement those strategies.

In summary, there are many evidence-based mental health programs aimed at strengthening the emotional and behavioral competencies of children and youth that can be implemented in school and target reducing disruptive and aggressive behavior. In recognition of the importance and complexity of implementing evidence-based practices in community settings, the Center for Mental Health Services will release, in late 2007 or early 2008, a guide specifically focusing on the selection and adoption of evidence-based practices for youth with disruptive behavior disorders. This guide will provide materials to help community members determine which evidence-based practice might match their community needs and how much it costs to implement these programs.

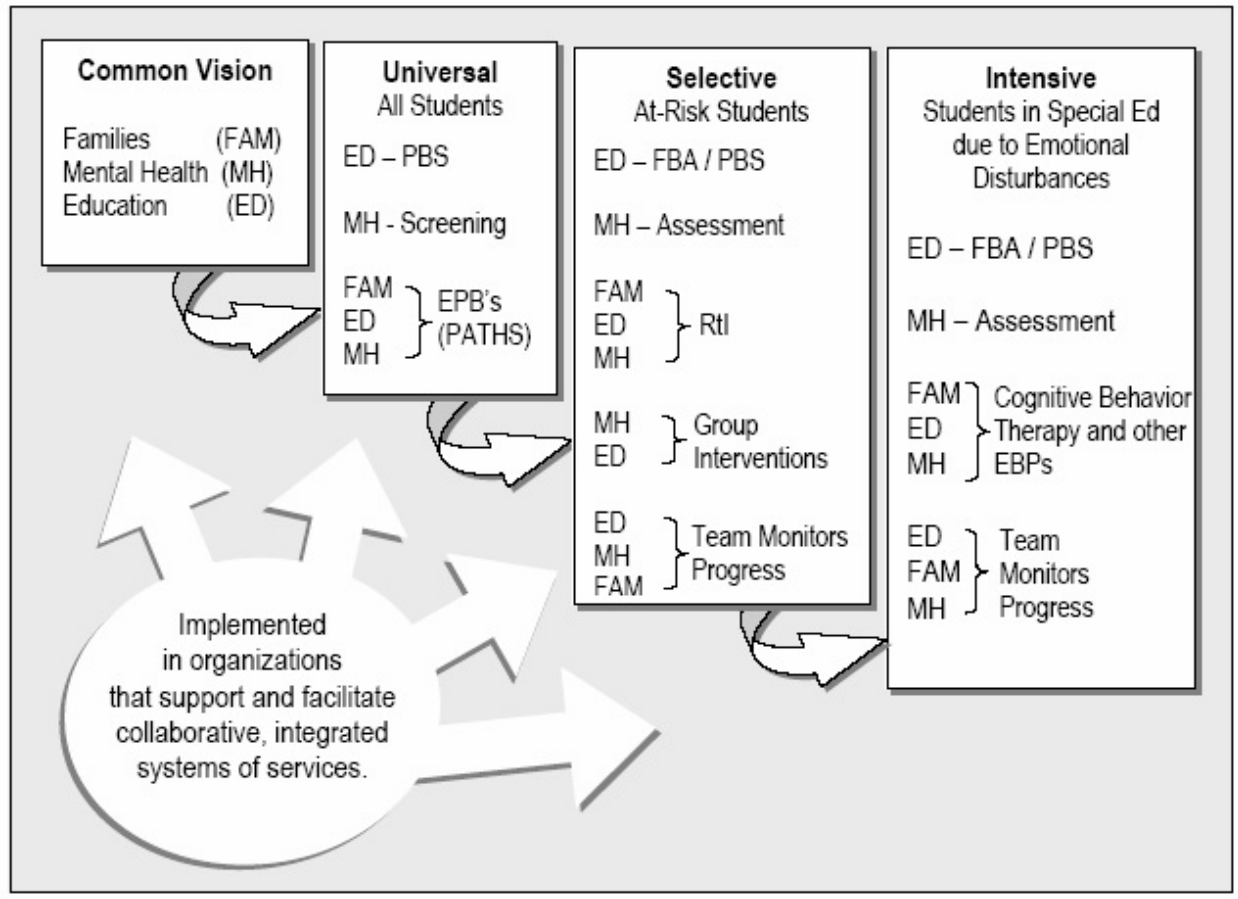
In schools, implementation of programs must be conducted in an integrative manner so that teachers, school staff, and parents each understand their role in the implementation and the expected outcomes. In an integrative team based model of supporting positive emotional and behavioral functioning, see Figure 1 (next page), there is a common vision for families, mental health and education staff. Additionally, there are programs implemented at the universal, selective, and indicated levels that integrate PBS, MH programs and Response to Intervention strategies (RtI) in an organizational environment that supports and facilitates collaborative, integrated systems of service.

Table 4. A sample of evidence-based indicated programs (Kutash et al., 2006).

Program Name	List Cited*	School Based	Age Range	Length of Program	Family Component?	Teacher Component?
Incredible years	AC	Yes	2-8	Up to 22 weeks	Yes	Yes
Multisystemtic Therapy	A C	No	12-17	4 months	Yes	No
Brief Strategic Family Therapy	A	No	6-17	8-12 weeks	Yes	No
Adolescent Transition Program	B	No	10-14	12 weeks	Yes	No
Earlscourt Social Skills Group Program	B	Yes	6-12	12-15 weeks	Yes	Yes

*Codes for which list the program was cited:
A = SAMHSA http://www.modelprograms.samhsa.gov
B = Penn State http://www.prevention.psu.edu/pubs/docs/CMHS.pdf
C = CSVP http://www.colorado.edu/cspv/blueprints/
D = U.S. Department of Education http://www.ed.gov/admins/lead/safety/exemplary01/exemplary01.pdf
E = CASEL http://www.casel.org/projects_products/safeandsound.php

Figure 1. An integrative team-based model of positive emotional and behavioral functioning in children and youth



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TAKING SMART ACTION: A COMMUNITY RESPONSE TO SCHOOL VIOLENCE

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Session Plan

Abstract

The School Multi-Agency Response Team ("SMART") is a collaborative program between prosecutors, school officials, probation/parole officers and law enforcement to give concentrated attention to juvenile offenders and at-risk youth to prevent recidivism. The SMART program is an information-sharing program between agencies designed to benefit students, as well as the community. The SMART program is located in middle schools and high schools throughout the Tucson metropolitan area. Team members meet at the schools monthly during the school year. Participants will learn about the ten year long SMART program that responds to the needs of the school communities juvenile justice issues as well as assist with at risk students. The presenters will discuss the barriers, challenges and opportunities to creating a similar program. Participants will obtain practical knowledge to implement a similar program in their community, taking the principles and ideas to put together their own action plans.

Background

Each member of the School Multi-Agency Response Team ("SMART") is associated with the school in his or her professional capacity. For example, law enforcement would consist of the School Resource Officer or an officer who has significant contacts with that school. Probation would be represented by an officer or officers who have probationers attending that school. The school may be represented by a variety of individuals, from a principal to school security. In a SMART jurisdiction, juvenile prosecutors are assigned to schools, ideally on a geographic or district basis. They handle the prosecution of all arrests from students attending their SMART schools.

The monthly meetings are set up and chaired by the County Attorney's Office who has a master list of court-involved juveniles at each school. Each member of the team has an equal voice at the meeting. Juveniles discussed during the meeting are either court-involved or, if not court-involved, at high-risk due to truancy, family issues, or school behavior. Students are added and subtracted from the master list at each meeting.

At the SMART meeting, the law enforcement, prosecution and probation/parole team members primarily provide information to school officials regarding arrests, court hearings, the juvenile's home situation and current probation/parole conditions. They also share critically-needed information about the juveniles at each of the schools who are victims of crime, regardless of whether charges have been filed. The schools in turn inform law enforcement, probation and prosecution about issues such as who is truant, engaging in bullying behavior, violating probation, participating in gangs, or is a behavior problem. Many other topics may come up, such as mental health issues, sibling concerns, or adequacy of services. The goal of the meeting is to

discuss the status of each juvenile on the list and what services are needed to keep him/her out of juvenile court as well as protect the community.

Meetings are held in accordance with the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act ("FERPA") and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act ("IDEA"). Information received from confidential written school records is considered an educational record under FERPA, therefore, no written records are brought to the meetings by the school. Information learned from talking to students, parents, teachers or other school participants in non-confidential settings can be freely shared with SMART members. Confidentiality issues with respect to juveniles who are on probation are easily resolved. A condition of probation is a waiver for the school's release of any and all information to probation. Any other critically-needed recorded information is obtained by waiver, subpoena or court order. The ability to legally share information is a critical component of a SMART meeting.

One example of how SMART works involves "Jane". Jane had previous misdemeanor juvenile referrals. Then she was referred to juvenile court for drug charges. Her name was brought up by the Deputy County Attorney at the monthly SMART meeting. Members of the team discussed her issues: what the offense was about, how she was doing in school and with her peers, how things seemed to be going at home for her, and who her friends and associates were. The discussion included the type of parental support she had and whether or not her parent was willing to hold her accountable and cooperate with the court and probation. The positives and the negatives were discussed in the meeting. Then the team focused on the question, "What does she need to be successful and never return to the juvenile justice system?" The team conferred about what programs, services, classes, etc. would help her. "Just because it is a drug charge doesn't mean that she just needs drug treatment," notes one member. Based on some of the other issues that were discussed, the team felt that in addition to an outpatient drug treatment program, she needed some individual counseling. Further, family counseling should be considered. The SMART also explored the idea of engaging her in an after-school program, or possibly getting a tutor or mentor assigned. The school team members committed to keep an eye on her to see how she improved in the areas where she was lacking. Thereafter, at the disposition the Deputy County Attorney made the recommendations from the team and the court followed them, as well as some other basic conditions. Since that disposition two years ago, Jane has not returned to juvenile court.

In addition to the regular monthly meetings there is regular contact between the prosecutor and school about issues that come up between the meetings. This might include discussions about specific juveniles, a request for the prosecutor to speak to law enforcement that are present at the school effectuating an arrest, or to schedule a time when the prosecutor can come to the school to present to teachers, parents, or students.

By implementing the SMART program, Pima County Attorney, Barbara LaWall, anticipated a swifter response by her office, probation and law enforcement to the needs of the community, schools and individual students. The identified student and his/her family benefit from the team striving to obtain/recommend the appropriate services and work toward rehabilitation in a united effort. The community benefits from a lower delinquency rate. The schools benefit from fewer behavior problems in their schools.

Anecdotal data from the 52 schools involved in the program indicate it is effective in quickly responding and directing appropriate services to at-risk and court-involved juveniles. Pima County school districts continue to request more SMART programs, however, the County Attorney's Office cannot meet their needs without more juvenile prosecutors.

One unanticipated outcome of the program was a reduction in arrests from SMART schools due to the schools being aware of the limitations of the justice system. By educating the school officials on how long it takes to process an arrest and the problems with prosecuting minor school fights, the County Attorney's Office encouraged school officials to explore alternatives to arrests in appropriate cases. One SMART had

probation officers train school security officers in "accountability conferencing", a traditional New Zealand conflict resolution process. Thus, the school was empowered to effectively handle low-level offenses on a faster timeline, instead of referring them to juvenile court.

Workshop Summary

The presentation will discuss the 10-year-long SMART program that has brought together the County Attorney's Office, school administration, law enforcement, probation and parole to respond to the increasing violence and delinquent activity in schools.

The presenters will discuss the challenges of getting all the players to the table, since this is a collaborative partnership, and use of the elected County Attorney to encourage school district participation. Also, how one or two effective SMART can start the ball rolling for others to follow.

Maintaining the passion to continue the program is another challenge that will be addressed. Enthusiastic support of the school district superintendent is recommended. Further incentives can range from doughnuts at meetings to salary adjustments for those who participate in the program.

Finally, confidentiality issues with any SMART program must be addressed with each jurisdiction.

Workshop Goals

Participants will be introduced to a collaborative program between schools and juvenile justice agencies that can be implemented at minimal cost to the participants yet yield positive results in decreasing juvenile delinquency.

Workshop Objectives

1. To present and describe the process of developing and sustaining a SMART program.
2. To encourage open discussion among participants regarding similar programs in home districts, what has worked and what barriers have been addressed.
3. To provide participants with an action plan on how to start, build and maintain SMART programs in their own districts.

Workshop Activities

- 30-35 minute presentation by Peter Hochuli and Ellen Brown on developing a SMART program and its components. Open discussion encouraged during presentation
- 10-15 minute question and answer period
- 15-20 minute group discussion and individual development of action plan

Assessment

Indicators of success for this workshop will be measured through observation and discussion with workshop participants and through formal and/or informal feedback that they may provide. At the end, participants will be asked to complete an evaluation form with respect to the following criteria:

1. Overall Seminar rating
2. Individual Speakers rating

3. Written Materials rating
4. Comments and Suggestions for Future Presentations

MENTAL HEALTH MATTERS FOR VIOLENCE PREVENTION: A MULTI-FACETED APPROACH TO RISK FACTORS AND SOLUTIONS

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Abstract

The Mental Health Matters for Violence Prevention project integrates research and grassroots components drawn from the experiences and knowledge of diverse people and groups. It utilizes approaches and solutions offered by community activists and community-based organizations, families affected by violence and professionals involved in helping individuals and families cope and heal. This collaborative effort allows people in affected communities to take ownership at different levels, and play a role in producing beneficial outcomes as a result of their combined expertise and efforts.

Introduction

Many people think about mental health issues and picture a disheveled person talking to himself, walking down a street, motioning in the air. However, statistics show that most people diagnosed with significant mental illness like schizophrenia and severe depression often turn inward in their suffering. They are no more likely to inflict acts of violence on other people than a typical corporate executive, homemaker, high school or college student, or individual living in poverty. Consider recent, highly-publicized events nationwide.

To determine contributing factors to violence, an integrated approach is necessary based on diverse risk factors using a broader framework for understanding mental health issues on a continuum. It requires re-examination of beliefs and stereotypes about people in general, challenging simplistic assumptions and many things we take for granted.

Theoretically, at least, anyone is capable of violence. It often depends on the circumstance. But, while psychopathology associated with violence may be viewed primarily as an inner-city problem, there are subtle forms of violence within the larger society that also directly and indirectly damage lives and communities.

In Milwaukee, where more than 100 homicides occur each year, various efforts by local elected officials, including use of external consultants to conduct studies, have led to the implementation of different strategies. A Police Department Homicide Review Commission project has collected data about the facts of community violence – who, what, when and where. Even when the offenses are adjudicated, understanding the "why" of community violence is still elusive. And, the gap between awareness of community violence and public responsiveness to it remains significant.

Momentum is building in Milwaukee through a growing group of professionals, community-based organizations, grassroots activists, families and other concerned citizens engaged in shared leadership roles through the Mental Health Matters for Violence Prevention Project (MHMVP). They advocate the reduction and prevention of violence by increasing awareness of the "whys" through a public service approach in

different arenas. But, bringing greater clarity to this component should not be equated with lessening consequences for those who engage in violence. To the contrary, bringing clarity to the "whys" serves as a basis for promoting personal responsibility, collective ownership, and accountability for problem-solving among diverse segments of the community and entire city.

The MHMVP project's integrated approach is based on (1) bio-psycho-social research foundations that shed light on risk factors and (2) behavioral science principles that offer solutions to facilitate healing, change and progress. This holistic perspective addresses such as issues as: How human beings behave as individuals and within groups and cultures; factors that influence the way people think, feel and act, including health status, cultural, family and peer influences; what roles people play when they are members of a group; why people value certain ideas, customs and traditions; what factors determine how individuals develop their identity, values and character, and how we deal with those who are different, in addition to relevant societal problems, the human condition and the potential for transformation in general.

The Police Homicide Review Commission provides statistics of significance for understanding the prevalence of community violence. But, law enforcement primarily must deal with the aftermath of crime, which necessarily involves legal issues and punitive outcomes.

The MHMVP project uses three primary theoretical models: The Medical Model, the Environmental Approach and the Youth Futures Model. They are the basis of a bio-psycho-social approach that deals directly with underlying issues – the "whys" – to promote in-depth solutions that force us to move beyond surface explanations about major social issues. The project's integrated strategies make it possible for everyone in a community to participate in small and large ways through proactive problem-solving. Without these combined components, Milwaukee and other urban areas across the country will likely continue to see patterns of limited progress in reducing violence.

Program Summary

The MHMVP Project kicked off on June 6 with a large display poster – featuring a "jungle" background theme – in The Shops of Grand Avenue mall in downtown Milwaukee, accompanied by a dedicated website with resource information available to the general public, and public service efforts including poster ads and articles in community-based newspapers and participation on local radio programs.

Project Components

Various project components to benefit the general public and targeted communities have included:

- Linkages to internet resources and telephone contacts (offered by a local help line) for information and referrals to behavioral health and counseling services in their area;
- Opportunities to participate in community education workshops on mental health and violence prevention (and separate trainings for staff at community-based organizations);
- Exposure to learning from the experience of families of victims and perpetrators of violence who are available to speak to various community-based groups;
- Access to articles and educational materials from diverse professionals, activists and other resource contributors through the project website at http://www.leflorecommunications.com/ mental health matters; and
- Ability for youth and adults to participate in a Summer creative contest (essays and art relevant to mental health awareness and violence-prevention themes; the theme for essays is: "How I am Demonstrating the Change I Want to See in the World").

The project was supposed to benefit the city in general through a broad-based public service effort. The project addresses mental health issues on a continuum, emphasizing the need to go beyond either/or modes of thinking to develop multi-faceted approaches for solving problems related to community violence. The project's goal is to increase public awareness of multi-faceted behavioral/mental health and violence-prevention resources for individuals and families seeking help to cope with problems and other life challenges in productive ways, providing access to resources from organizations that serve diverse populations. The project engages diverse individuals, families and communities to be part of the solution by de-stigmatizing mental health, preventing and reducing negative and dysfunctional thinking, inappropriate coping skills and destructive patterns of behavior.

Why was it done? Violence is often a behavioral manifestation of negative feelings and thoughts, and also symptomatic of underlying distress due to larger societal issues that can negatively impact quality of life, options and access to resources for different people. For some communities, residents are affected by multiple stressors including poverty, unemployment, racism and family disintegration. The crippling effects of unrelenting struggles contributes to tremendous internal and external pressures. The need for integrated understanding of medical, environmental and psychosocial risk factors for violence is necessary in order to broaden awareness of the continuum that defines mental health and mental illness, in addition to addressing violence in its many forms, both physical and psychological, that can damage lives – the minds and spirits of human beings – and communities.

Who did it? The MHMVP Project is inclusive of diverse contributors, partners and supporters. The initial summer-long pilot effort was sponsored by Community Intervention Programs, Inc./LeFlore Communications, and funding options are being explored for future direction. The project integrates evidence-based research and grassroots components drawn from the experiences and knowledge of diverse people and groups. It utilizes approaches and solutions offered by community activists and community-based organizations, families affected by violence, and professionals and leaders. This collaborative effort allows people in affected communities to take ownership at different levels, and play a role in producing beneficial outcomes, as a result of their combined expertise and efforts.

Project Methodologies

Three primary theoretical models serve as the foundation of the risk factors and problem-solving approaches integrated into the MHMVP Project. Mental illness is real, as the Medical Model concept suggests that certain conditions may have a genetic or organic component. Research into possible biological causes of certain kinds of abnormal behavior suggests that biological disturbance (including various forms of brain damage that may evolve from prolonged substance abuse or severe brain injury) may be accompanied by forms of psychological disturbance.

The Environmental Approach suggests that "problems in living" simply reflect the human condition. American Psychiatrist Thomas Szasz claimed that most of what the medical model calls mental illnesses are not illnesses at all but rather "problems in living" and these problems arise from difficulties with adapting to life, dealing with change and coping (the manner in which people deal with and manage stress in their lives). When people are unable to adapt and cope well, the result may be deviations from moral, legal and social norms of society. Szasz indicated that by labeling such deviations as "sick" deprives individuals of responsibility for their behavior – such as "if they're sick, they can't help it," and relegates them to the passive role that impedes a return to normal behavior (Szasz, 1970).

The Youth Futures Model, which has been implemented at the University of Wisconsin-Extension, is a dynamic process for promoting community empowerment through collaboration among diverse stakeholders

(Jones, Ajirotutu, & Johnson, 1996). Youth Futures is an ecological, risk-focused, prevention-oriented model based on the following premises:

- Youth development is influenced by a mosaic of both risk and protective factors (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).
- Risk and protective factors exist at multiple levels of the child's social ecology (Hawkins, Lishner, & Catalano 1987).
- Preventing risky youth behaviors requires addressing risk and protective factors within the context of that social ecology, including the family, peers, community, school and work settings, individual attributes, media and religion (Garmezy, 1983).
- The best place to address risky youth behavior is where it primarily exists – within the community (Gardner, 1989; Lofquist, 1983).

Psychology, ultimately, is the scientific study of individual behavior and the mental processes that cause and shape behavior. Psychosocial refers to the combination of psychological and social factors that affect our lives, inclusive of the culture and environment. These factors address what we learn and how we regard others and ourselves, and involve human emotions and motivation, which are complex matters.

The MHMVP Project further integrates components of research that identify violence prevention and mental health as priority areas for state and national public health agendas such as Healthy People 2010; the National Education Goals (1997), which call for safe and drug-free schools; the American Academy of Pediatrics' Health (AAP) Status Goals that call for a reduction in domestic, community, media, and entertainment violence; and research studies relevant to reducing and preventing violence from the Hamilton Fish Institute on School and Community Violence, to provide additional resources for a comprehensive framework.

Local activities for the project to date have involved recruitment of more families affected by violence to share their story in public and other forms, various community activists and project partners and other supporters taking part in media-related venues, organizations sharing their specific resources and exchanging information with others through the internet, email and other distribution efforts at different times. Future plans include implementation of community forums through a major Downtown mall where project posters have been on display the entire summer of 2007.

Discussion

The MHMVP project shows that multiple risk factors are involved in violence. This requires a broader understanding of the continuum of mental health issues – the impact of both internal and external factors that potentially affect the functioning of an individual.

Aggression and crime – whether it involves child abuse or other domestic conflict, assaults, gang aggression, gunshots that result in death, disability or injury –affect entire communities in multiple ways. In the United States, thousands of lives are lost each year, and billions of dollars in medical care and direct and indirect losses are attributed to violence (Massey, 1998).

Consider environmental and cultural influences. In a world of instant information through easily-accessible media, violent images are frequently absorbed from popular culture (internet, video games, TV, music). Various experts interviewed for a recent (2006) A&E TV documentary titled “Copycat Crimes,” acknowledge that popular culture and media can negatively influence the thinking and behavior of many. The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), in a publication titled “Media Violence & Children: A Guide for Parents” (1998), also cited several problems, including:

1. Children are more likely to behave in aggressive or harmful ways toward others when they see violence as a normal and acceptable means of resolving conflict;
2. Viewing violence stimulates children to view other people as "enemies," and children may become less sensitive to the pain and suffering of others, as well as show less remorse about their own aggressive behavior;
3. Children may become more fearful of the world around them, and exposure to media violence may compound some children's natural anxieties;
4. Violent programming presents limited models of language development when the development of language is critically important;
5. Media that regularly depict violence promote toys that encourage children to imitate the actual behaviors seen on TV or in movies and
6. When children are glued to a screen, they are not interacting actively and positively with the environment or absorbing the foundations they need for learning in school.

In 2005, the homicide toll in Milwaukee had reached 88 by mid-August, equal to the count for all of 2004. In 2006, Milwaukee experienced one of its most violent summers with 28 shootings on Memorial Day alone. The city's death toll continues at 100 or more yearly due to gun violence. Almost one-fifth of gunshot victims are children; some were fatally wounded.

Consequences of Violence

For many residents in inner-city communities most affected by violence, quality of life suffers. Exposure to frequent violence in some neighborhoods, substance abuse, poverty, racism and stigma are among stressors that contribute to multiple risk factors, and can take a toll on health, both physical and mental.

A November 2006 article in the *Milwaukee Journal-Sentinel* dealt with how lives are forever changed for those exposed to or victimized by violence. A 16-year-old girl no longer trusts anyone. A youth suffering an injury that resulted in the loss of his voice becomes periodically overwhelmed by sadness, and sometimes hopelessness. Another young person, left in a wheelchair, was still angry and waiting for an opportunity for revenge (Fauber & Diedrich, 2006).

Media coverage of incidents of violence often includes interviews with the mother, extended relatives and friends of a victim. Articles attempt to describe the immediate aftermath of a painful experience, with comments from survivors attempting to cope. Often there is no adequate explanation for what many perceive as perhaps an unnecessary loss, particularly when young lives are taken for no reason. However, newspaper headlines can never reveal the full impact.

No matter the underlying cause of violence, a major consequence for individuals affected directly or indirectly by violence is often psychological pain, whether depression, anxiety, isolation, trauma or other reactions that affect the inner life and external functioning. Symptoms of this psychological pain vary in intensity and frequency, becoming manifest through a variety of feelings, thoughts and behaviors. Children whose innocence is shattered are often scarred. Families of those killed and those who kill often endure hidden burdens, and the extent of their wounding and suffering cannot be captured by research data. Resources for spiritual nourishment and psychological healing to protect people's mind are often considered a luxury. It all comes at the expense of mental health (Bell & LeFlore, 2006).

Sue McKenzie, Director of Programs for InHealth Wisconsin, a non-profit health education organization, said (2007):

> In my work, I have had the honor of interviewing about 75 people in the Milwaukee area,

from teens to the elderly, about their experiences with depression. I have been struck by the sense of extreme frustration described by many, over not being able to "pull themselves up by their boot straps" and engage in life in a positive manner. Their own stigma and lack of knowledge about depression led them to simply increase their expectations of themselves without having the tools or support to deal with their depression. Many mentioned violence (words and/or actions) to self or others being the result of this frustration with how they felt and behaved, and how they thought they should feel and behave. Add to that the stigma and unrealistic expectations put on these people by others, and you understand the growing frustration that explodes into violence.

We are hearing more people talking about the idea that violence (their own or a loved one's) may be the result of depression and the stigma that keeps people from self-awareness and reaching out for assistance. It then becomes normalized and even expected from certain groups. I believe we need to help youth and adults name violence as a desperate act of someone who is hurting at some level. Maybe this would lessen the tendency to see violent people as powerful and even someone to idolize. Imagine if teens' response to a peer who is angry and out of control is to feel concern for their mental health rather than thinking that supporting a violent friend means getting violent with them. Teens want to talk about this issue! They tell us that they see depression in their friends before adults do, and that they really want to know how to be a good friend in such times.

A Variety of Risk Factors

Given various psychosocial stressors and cultural influences that contribute to risk factors for violence, underlying and unresolved mental health issues require more attention.

Michael Bell, a psychiatrist based in Milwaukee, believes impulsivity is a common factor in most violent acts, and that senseless violence can be deemed a result of a special kind of insanity that encompasses mental, environmental and psychosocial components. His assessment is based on neuropsychiatric research that describes how the frontal lobe of the human brain takes almost two decades to fully develop and mature. The frontal lobe has been called the "CEO of the Brain," and the pre-frontal cortex is associated with executive functioning that deals with our ability to appreciate consequences, plan for future events and understand and integrate a proper sequence of activities for goal-directed behavior. Given that this portion of the brain is very sensitive to injury through alcohol, direct trauma and various psychiatric disorders, people tend to become more impulsive when this part of the brain is injured or compromised, said Dr. Bell (2006).

Bell cited this scenario: A 15 year-old male with a history of witnessing violence and perhaps abusing alcohol finds a Raven-25 handgun (a popular model in Wisconsin). A closer look reveals at least five risk factors for impulsivity and violence. These include an undeveloped prefrontal cortex secondary to the young man's age, and the fact that males are typically more aggressive in physical ways. He has witnessed violence and is abusing alcohol, both of which can result in poor blood flow to the prefrontal cortex, possibly leading to impulsivity. He also has access to a handgun, one of the most impulse-driven instruments of death known to mankind. It takes fractions of a second to form a thought of hurting someone else or oneself, and then pulling the trigger, according to Bell.

Most people think of potential consequences prior to acting out impulses of anger and frustration. However, when the socialization process becomes distorted, what is truly inappropriate or unfitting behavior can become skewed as appropriate. Inappropriate patterns of coping can become ingrained in some families, generation after generation. Youth who view going to jail as a rite of passage or lack empathy enough to kill someone for petty reasons, such as for articles of clothing, are among the most troubling. Many people –

young and old – unconsciously embrace the "abnormal" for various reasons including peer pressure, ignorance and indifference, feeling helpless, fearful or intimidated about confronting these discrepancies in themselves or others.[1]

Often, in the aftermath of violence, deep fears about living in an unsafe community are magnified. A common question counselors often get is essentially, "How can we keep our sanity, when all around us people are losing theirs?"[2]

An unsettling reality about the human condition may be difficult to contemplate: All people are vulnerable to being victimized by violence and at risk of developing mental health issues to varying degrees (Peck, 1978). This applies not only to people who commit violence, but to those who are decent and would never harm another unless in self-defense. It applies as well to those who would never physically hurt someone's body, yet remain oblivious to inflicting psychological forms of violence that, although often subtle, have potential to destroy minds and spirits (Peck, 1983)

A Continuum of Mental Health Issues

We live in a nation where nearly half of all Americans have a psychiatric disorder at some time in their lives – usually depression, problem drinking or some kind of phobia (Archives of General Psychiatry), and where one in every five Americans experiences mental health issues or mental illness in any given year (U.S. Surgeon General's Report). A strong need exists to shift perceptions and reduce the stigma and barriers to seeking help for mental health.

A comprehensive 1999 U.S. Surgeon General's Report defined mental health issues as marked by alterations in thinking, mood and behavior that cause distress or impair a person's ability to function. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, published by the American Psychiatric Association, cites five categories of psychiatric diagnoses: adjustment, affective (mood), anxiety, behavioral and thought disorders.

Due to the persistence of various assumptions, stereotypes and stigma, there is limited understanding about the continuum that defines mental health issues. Yet, many patterns of dysfunction that may be accepted in the mainstream society as "normal" deserve closer scrutiny (Vaillant, 1977).

Among behavioral science breakthroughs that have laid a foundation for our understanding of psychology and mental health are theories of the unconscious by Sigmund Freud and the concept of the "Shadow" by Carl Jung. Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs indicates that when basic human needs go unmet, functioning and quality of life suffers. It is understandable how people affected by severe stressors can act in primitive ways versus focus on becoming more conscious for the purpose of self-actualizing (Corey, 1991). The issue of human evil is also relevant to mental health, according to M. Scott Peck, a psychiatrist and author of the ground-breaking books on psychology and spirituality.

Peck (1983) wrote:

[1] These observations and assessments came from psychotherapists working in an inner-city Milwaukee community health center in 2004.

[2] These comments are from the author's casework practice in Milwaukee over ten years working with diverse residents in individual, group and family counseling.

> There is a tendency among lay persons to think that people who see a psychiatrist are abnormal, that there is something radically different about them in comparison to the ordinary population. This is not so. Like it or not, the psychiatrist sees as much psychopathology at cocktail parties, conferences and corporations as in her or his office. I'm not saying there are absolutely no differences between those who visit a psychiatrist and those who do not, but the differences are subtle and, as often as not, reflect unfavorably upon the "normal" population. The process of living is difficult and complex, even under the best of circumstances. We all have problems. Do people see a psychiatrist because their problems are greater than average or because they possess greater courage and wisdom with which to face their problems more directly? Sometimes one reason is the motive, sometimes the other, sometimes both (pp. 85-86).

Mental health requires acknowledgment of one's need to grow, and is essential to spirituality. Goodness, the opposite of evil, promotes life and liveliness, Peck wrote. Evil is that which opposes the life force, and specifically murder, unnecessary killing – killing that is not required for biological survival. Peck illuminated the concept by saying that killing is not restricted to corporeal murder; it also includes that which kills spirit. "There are various essential attributes of life – particularly human life – such as sentience, mobility, awareness, growth, autonomy, will. It is possible to kill or attempt to kill one of these attributes without actually destroying the body. Thus, we may "break" a horse or even a child without harming a hair on its head" (Peck, 1983, pp. 42-43).

According to Peck, so-called "normal" people can be evil when they engage in chronic scapegoating, attacking others instead of facing their own shortcomings and failures. The concept of human evil is further described by Psychologist Erich Fromm using a broadened definition of necrophilia to include the desire of certain people to control others: Seeking to make others controllable, to foster their dependency, to discourage their capacity to think for themselves, to diminish their unpredictability and originality, to keep them in line. The "necrophilic character type," according to Fromm, aims to avoid the inconvenience of life by transforming others into obedient automatons, robbing them of their humanity. Necrophilia is distinguished from a "biophilic" person who appreciates and fosters the variety of life forms and the uniqueness of the individual.

Potential for Harm in Many Forms

It can be easy to point to hoodlums associated with the most visible chaos in urban areas. Although less obvious, psychological violence can be perpetuated on many levels (D'Andrea, 1992). Disregard for the basic human dignity and rights of others is among a defining characteristic of the phenomenon of racism (Sniderman, Piazza, Tetlock, & Kendrick, May 1991). Several studies on racism suggest it should be deemed a mental disorder – specifically a relational disorder. Other studies cite harm to health – both mental and physical – for those victimized by racism (Essed, 1990; Fernando, 1984; Wright, 1975).

Racism is a form of "crazy-making" due to inherent double standards that result in privileges for some and victimization for others based on distorted perceptions about those who are "different." When institutions in society engage in racism and other anti-human behaviors, it is often reinforced by the individuals who make up those institutions (Symposium on Racism and Mental Illness, 1984). It can be easy to blame the "system" or other external factors. However, honest exploration ultimately requires looking in the mirror (among the MHMVP strategies suggested by various sources involved in project).

Given the prevalence of violence, both passive and aggressive components involved in racism and other conflict-based human interactions that can create conditions for violence require greater scrutiny.

The reality is that many people simply do not care – for different reasons that are often legitimate. Not caring can be a result of burnout, limited psychic resources, callousness, learned helplessness or other reasons. People can avoid certain realizations, complain and attempt to place entire responsibility elsewhere, but the question remains whether all of us share some responsibility – individually and collectively.

Certainly, we are not responsible for the negative thinking and inappropriate behaviors of other people. And certainly, others must face consequences for poor choices and be accountable if decisions they make result in loss of life or other senseless violence.

Not caring is one thing. Actively engaging in activities that promote and support the conditions for violence is another. Do many of us – and to what extent, if so – contribute to the problem? Do we help facilitate change and promote life-affirming values in our immediate environments at home, work and the larger communities in which we live? Are we invested in maintaining the status quo for a variety of reasons? Do we walk our talk when it comes to truly helping urban communities most affected by poverty and crime? Do we, in subtle ways, attempt to scapegoat others in order to prevent facing our own limitations?

Do we have a sense of entitlement to privileges, but seek to deny others access to resources even if they are willing to work hard to achieve a quality life? Behind the scenes, directly or indirectly, do we attempt to prevent real progress? Do we treat people like stereotypes to support our own prejudices? Do we disown our own shadow and project all that is deemed bad about the human condition onto "those people?" Do we continue electing to office politicians whose words and actions are incongruent? Do we overlook systems and policies that harshly and disproportionately affect some communities more than others?

Do we use race and socioeconomic status as reasons to discount urban areas as places worth investment to create family-supporting jobs? Do we pretend to care about all human life, but engage in behaviors that suggest otherwise? Do we preach "stop the violence" but fail to support conditions for non-violence? Do we help provide adequate resources to promote healing after violence, and prevention efforts before the likelihood of violence evolves? Do we believe victims of violence and their families deserve more than teddy bears and flowers at crime scenes? If so, why are families within restricted resources often denied access to appropriate mental health treatment and other practical support, or rendered invisible and sidelined in other ways?

On the surface, these rhetorical questions may seem idealistic in nature, but they are important considerations to explore in greater depth when we consider that violence is in some ways predictable, and treatment interventions or prevention are possible in many situations.

Certainly, a need exists to reconsider impressions about criminal pathology. Mainstream media portrayal of violence that affects poor, city residents is usually less in-depth compared to coverage of violence involving middle-class or suburban residents. The stories about the latter group often include detailed explanations of the "whys," which help to humanize those involved. In many ways, inner-city residents are simply stigmatized and ultimately dehumanized by stereotypes based on race and socioeconomic factors, and historical perceptions reinforce simplistic images. When multi-faceted components go unexamined, the result is often denial about common denominators of violence including underlying risk factors.

Given the project's emphasis on personal power for individual and collective responsibility, a foundation is provided for re-examining assumptions and many things taken for granted, in an effort to facilitate solutions at multiple levels that increase options for hope over despair.

Implications

There are severe consequences due to unacknowledged mental health issues that contribute to violence. If we look at violent incidents as a study of human behavior, it does not equate necessarily that individuals not be held responsible for their actions. On the contrary, mental health requires personal responsibility and accountability. People always have choices in a given situation, and most consider options other than violence.

The premises of the Medical, Environmental and Youth Futures models are relevant foundations for the MHMVP Project's integrated bio-psycho-social approaches. They allow us to address the roots of violence in-depth, based on three realms of behavioral science relevant to human functioning: thoughts, feelings and action. They also help expand our perspective about why mental health matters for violence prevention.

However, as we explore potential solutions, we need to come to terms with whether we see a need to promote mental health as crucial to overall health and well-being across the lifespan.

Jenni Sevenich, Chief Executive Officer for Westside Healthcare Association, Inc., said (2007):

> People often talk about needing to take care of the whole self – body, mind and soul. We are encouraged to eat healthy, exercise, and get regular checkups for the body. It is acceptable to attend church, synagogue, or mosque, or just pray or meditate by oneself to take care of the soul. So why is there still a stigma attached to the practices that help us take care of our minds? People seem very concerned about the level of violence in our community and say we need to do something. We can make an effort to take guns off the street, but unless we address the issues that make someone angry enough, depressed enough, or apathetic enough to want to shoot another in the first place, we are spinning our wheels.

Assumptions about Power and Responsibility

A traditional view has persisted to suggest that law enforcement, public officials, psychiatrists, counselors and others should be held more responsible than others for improving lives and changing communities most affected by violence. However, this view is placed in proper perspective as a result of a major concept promoted by the MHMVP Project – "personal power" – to encourage individuals and families to hold themselves and each other more accountable for problem-solving, not just depend on the "experts."

In the process, average citizens can learn to reconsider passive approaches, challenge assumptions and unrealistic expectations that are based in part on learned helplessness, tendencies to blame external sources, and other misperceptions. They can demonstrate that individuals and groups have potential as change agents to make a difference in their immediate environment. For individuals, this may mean attending to their own mental health and the needs of those for whom they are responsible. This might involve parents voluntarily attending parenting classes or otherwise seeking help rather than ignoring ongoing distress or other concerns in their family. This internalized "ownership" discourages dependency and victim mentality as a way of life, and encourages possibilities for hope, healing and other life-affirming choices that promote options for change with self and others.

The project makes it possible for communities to become more empowered through shared leadership from diverse stakeholders, with ownership by participants engaged in problem-solving at the level where they have the most "power." This applies to individuals and families, grassroots activists, health and other professionals, community organizations, business, public and civic officials, and others who can directly impact the environments where they exercise authority or influence. Given that power can be used for good or ill, moral and ethical considerations cannot be underestimated.

Addressing what constitutes power requires reframing assumptions. People who've historically felt they do not have political power often overlook the personal power they can wield. Personal power evolves from positive mental health based on acceptance of personal responsibility. It requires willingness to examine ourselves, to gain clarity about and embrace our strengths as well as recognize our limitations, as we seek to change those things within our control individually and learn to accept things we cannot control.

Making a Difference as Change Agents

It is often easy to dismiss a kid who appears to be unruly or disrespectful in their interactions with others. Stereotypes that become self-fulfilling prophecies can limit their potential and options when some youth are perceived to only have interest in basketball or rap music, but not viewed as capable of excelling in math or science. However, what if we took a closer look at some young people with challenging attitudes. Perhaps they have not had access to goodwill and encouragement for developing a positive self-concept.

Education about mental health needs to become integrated in schools and reinforced through health care and community-based organizations in order to reduce the stigma. All individuals are potential change agents when they understand the impact of underlying issues that affect their thoughts, feelings and behavior.

Mental health support can encourage the development and practice of personal power by helping individuals learn to adjust their attitudes and not view every situation as black-or-white, life-or-death. Males can learn to limit impulsivity by considering alternatives and consequences of actions. Violence can be reframed as being only acceptable for self-defense. Friends can encourage and support peer in walking away from slights or insults. Relatives can help diffuse minor conflicts before a family situation results in domestic or community violence. Families can emphasize the importance of education and discourage the idea that going to prison is an "achievement."

Community organizations and professionals can take seriously the symptoms people show before the last and final sequence of events erupt and lead to violence. This means neither ignoring nor always responding by criminalizing everything. Some youth can learn from mistakes before making life-altering choices. Intervening before some situations escalate can be as simple as exploring with youth their interests, complimenting them on a situation handled well, encouraging positive alternatives, and engaging in conversations by sharing our own professional experiences to be helpful about career options. We do not need to attempt to become Good Samaritans in ways that put ourselves or our own families and neighbors at risk of harm. However, we can act to intervene in meaningful ways beyond routine talk.

Stephanie Harrison, Executive Director, Wisconsin Primary Health Care Association, said (2007):

> For far too long, mental health has been relegated to the back seat of the overall health care delivery system, which only perpetuates the stigma that patients feel when they experience difficulties in life and want to seek out help. More and more, research demonstrates that mental health has a profound impact on a person's overall health, and the health care industry is beginning to take notice. . . Yet, Wisconsin remains one of a handful of states that does not require parity for mental illness in insurance coverage (*Milwaukee Journal-Sentinel*, May 31, 2007).

The education and health care fields, if looked at from a lifespan and quality of life perspective, should involve consideration of both physical and mental health needs. Professionals can seek clarification about an individual's mental state during a routine meeting or check-in, offer support, make referrals and do follow-up with clients. We can make greater attempts to extend positive regard for others when possible, communicate more with parents, teachers and youth workers who influence the lives of clients we serve.

Finally, although violence will likely always be with us in one form or another, our reaction to it can evolve from simply watching the news and shaking our heads in disdain, by attending to our own mental health. The American Mental Health Counselors Association (AMHCA) – the first author is a professional member – is spearheading efforts nationwide to promote more public awareness of mental health as opposed to just mental illness. After all, "mental health" is a positive term that emphasizes wellness rather than illness, and also reflects an orientation toward people healing, growing and becoming more aware and conscious.

For these and other reasons, broadening our discussion of mental health is important. Mental health exists on a continuum, although evidence-based research is generally known primarily by professionals in the education, mental health and psychology fields, not the general public. Widespread coverage in mainstream media is not likely. In fact, the editor of one newspaper responded to the project's theoretical models by saying the issues presented were too "technical" for her readership. However, we need to increase mainstream awareness of resources for mental health and violence prevention.

The MHMVP Project is ultimately about people becoming empowered to take ownership and responsibility for problem-solving, not just looking to professionals, law enforcement or elected officials to "lead" and tell them what they should do.

Given the human condition, the quest for mental wellness can seem elusive. However, when people understand the concept of "personal power," they realize they have options and can actively improve their mental health, to be in a better position to make life-affirming choices.

The general public can obtain information about the MHMVP Project from the project website at www.leflorecommunications.com/mental health matters.

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End Note

The whole point of this project is for partners with professional understanding of research-based approaches to make evidence-based information more accessible to the general public without intimidating them by over-use of technical language and imposing a hierarchy. The "experts" interact with the "grassroots" components of the community to promote solutions through "shared leadership" with families and youth, rather than just impose on people. This means professionals (law enforcement, counselor and psychiatrists, public officials, etc.) engage in problem-solving through exploration of many questions to support individuals and families in developing "personal power" that allows them to take "ownership" within different parts of the community where they have influence. This is a non-traditional approach, of course, but the "shared leadership" part works for allowing non-professionals to have the spotlight while professionals take a background or consultative role in many forums – whether a presentation takes place in a church or community radio program discussion.

The authors demonstrate the range of issues and questions the project attempts to raise with the general public and in different, community-based forums, in order to increase awareness of the evidence-based resources available to the general public for their own use. Within this paper, the author changed the "Discussion" section" to come after the MHMVP program section, rather than before. Also, the quotes from McKenzie, Sevenich, and Harrison come from personal and public communication by individuals who are MHMVP partners and contributors, whose comments are posted on the project website.

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SAFE AND SECURE SCHOOLS: VIOLENCE AND THE DUTY TO WARN STUDENTS IN THE EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Mary A. Lentz, Esq.

Chagrin Falls, OH and Washington, DC

Session Overview

This presentation involves a 50-minute lecture followed by questions and answers from conference attendees. The topic of the presentation focuses on maintaining a safe and secure educational environment, knowledge of warning signs of potential violence, foreseeability of aggressive/violent behavior on the school campus, and the duty to warn staff and students. The presentation will cover violent students, escalating aggressive behavior, threats, and the ability to release student information under the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (20 U.S.C. § 1232g; 34 CFR Part 99; FERPA, 1974; http://www.access.gpo.gov/nara/cfr/waisidx_04/34cfr99_04.html).

The presentation will cover:

- Aggressive/violent student behavior
- Negligence issues
  - Duty to warn
  - Foreseeability
- Release of student records and personally identifiable information under FERPA
- Law enforcement-school partnerships
- Search and seizure in schools regarding weapons and dangerous objects
- Miranda warnings
- Disciplinary actions

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SAFE SCHOOL CAMPUS INITIATIVE: A COLLABORATIVE EFFORT

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Abstract

The presentation is to inform school administrators, representative from city agencies and other educational entities of an existing school safety protocol that operates with the collaborative effort of law enforcement, schools, local municipality and community-based organizations. The protocol assists schools administrators to deal with youth and gang violence on school campuses and in surrounding neighborhoods. A PowerPoint of the Safe School Campus Initiative protocol and lecture will illustrate the Safe School Campus Initiative program, the roles and responsibilities of Safe School Campus Initiative members and the importance of information sharing. It will also provide ideas on developing, establishing, and maintaining a safety protocol for schools. The audience will take with them a copy of the Safe School Campus Initiative program as a reference of the presentation.

Introduction

Safe School Campus Initiative is a comprehensive safety protocol designed to assist school administrators, principals and or vice principals to manage youth and gang-related incidents in and around their campus. A quick point of contact with a rapid deployment of staff team to provide prevention services, intervention services or referral to other services, school administrators can focus on educational needs for students and operation support for school staff. The purpose of Safe School Campus Initiative is to create and maintain an environment that is safe for students and staff.

History of the Safe School Campus Initiative

In the early 1990s, gang-related incidents increased on the streets of San Jose. The majority of the gang related incidents involve youth of high school age. These incidents occurred on the streets but slowly trickled onto the high school campus and visa versa. School administrator now had to focus on school safety. To address this issue, Mike Gibeau, the Director of Safety for Eastside Union High School District, developed a school-based safety protocol called Safe School campus Initiative.

The protocol has a unique multi-system collaborative component. It required the participation from the Eastside Union High School District school administration, San Jose Police Department, the City of San Jose Department of Parks, Recreation and Neighborhood Service, Santa Clara Probation Department and District Attorney's Office, and local community based organizations. This multi-system formed the safety partnership called the Safety Multi-Disciplinary Team.

By early 1994, SSCI was implemented into the high schools of Eastside Union High School District with the assistance from Albert Balagso, Deputy Director of Park, Recreation and Neighborhood Services, San Jose Police Chief Lou Covarrubias and City of San Jose Mayor Susan Hammer. Each provided the resources for operation of Safe School Campus Initiative. The program objective was to prevent and, if necessary, help manage critical incidents of youth and gang related activities on and around the school campus. With such a

success, the program was adopted by all public high schools within the City of San Jose three years later. By September of 2001, the protocol funneled itself to the middle schools and, by 2002, it became a city wide initiative. Safe School Campus Initiative protocol has been integrated into school site safety plan by all public schools in the City of San Jose.

Methodology

Safe School Campus Initiative purpose is to assist schools in creating and maintaining a safe environment for students and staff. Its primary is to prevent and if necessary, help manage critical incidents of youth violence, in the schools. This is accomplished by deploying intervention teams through early response to potentially violent situations, intervening in potentially violent events and providing after care follow-up services to prevent further escalation of violence.

A formalized safety partnership is established through the development of the Safety Multi-Disciplinary Team. This allows for effective communication between multi-systems and permits the use of a common protocol for the development of unified school safety policies and critical response procedures. When systems are synchronized, they can provide additional resources to increase the capacity of the school safety team to resolve high-risk situations involving youth or gang related crime. Collaboration between members is one important factor for the program to function.

The City of San Jose, through its commitment to school safety, designates safety coordinator personnel to support safety in schools. The specialized roles include the Police School Coordinator from the Community Services Division and the Community Coordinator from the Department of Parks, Recreation and Neighborhood Services Community Division. Other personnel are the Probation Officer from the Santa Clara Probation Department, Gang Unit, and the Deputy District Attorney from Santa Clara County. All members and the school administrator constitute a Safety Multi-Disciplinary Team with each member contributing a special skill set to the program.

All members of the Safety Multi-Disciplinary Team must be able to communicate effectively. California Welfare and Institution Code 830.1 allow the disclosure and exchange of information by members of the Safety Multi-Disciplinary Team. Under the authority of 830.1, members of the Safety Multi-Disciplinary Team engages in the prevention, identification, control of juvenile crime or criminal street gang activity. The team also fits under the Juvenile Justice Multi-Disciplinary Team Model. This allows school administrators and team members to legally exchange information pertaining to juveniles with the purpose of school safety, but in a way that ensures confidentiality of the juvenile. Furthermore, participating agencies sign a Memorandum of Understanding or Memorandum of Agreement with the school district stating the description of the role each agency will perform in support of the Initiative and the Safety Multi-Disciplinary Team. The stipulation of this information exchange, require all information be kept among Multi-Disciplinary Team members.

The Safe School Campus Initiative is the establishment of an effective communication system. Schools are assigned a police school coordinator and a community coordinator who are the point of contact for Safe School Safe Campus Initiative. Hence, school administrators are the designated point of contact for their school. Members exchange information at regular site visits, monthly safety meetings, incidental meetings and safety alerts concerning school safety. In addition to regular exchanges of information, school administrators are able to utilize a voice paging system to request assistance for potential or incidents in progress, or leave information pertinent to an incident at any time. An assigned police school coordinator and a community coordinator monitor this system at all times and respond to the page accordingly.

School administrators are trained to activate the emergency response protocol based on three levels of response. The activation can be in the form of a telephone call to their point-of-contact or a voice message left on the Multi-Disciplinary Team paging system. Police school coordinators and community coordinators are trained to respond accordingly to the three levels of response. The levels of response are determined by the seriousness and risk assessment of the situation.

Level I "Incident in Progress"

9-1-1 event, which is clearly a safety concern and is interfering with school operations
Police are 1st responders and assume incident command

- Incident is in progress or will happen within a short time
- Violence has erupted
- Major Campus Disruption
- Weapon have been observed
- Violent or Armed Intruder
- Gang Fight or Gang Violence
- Confirmed Bomb Threat
- Hostage(s) taken

Level II "Incident Likely to Occur"

Increasing potential for an incident to both happen and cause interference with school operations

- Tension has become elevated; conflict seems certain to occur
- Significant threat have been made toward students or staff
- Fights and incidents in the past few days are connected
- Previous events involved known street gangs or gang members
- Reliable source says, "fight will happen Friday" or "at lunch"
- Identified groups have been seen cruising the school/gang members recruiting on campus
- Information may indicate potential for an incident that may warrant proactive intervention or mediation

Level III "Potential that Incident May Occur"

Clearly is not an immediate safety concern or interference with school operations

- Report of tension or potential conflict among individuals, groups or school have surfaced in the community
- New school or community trends of youth violence have arisen or old trends have resurfaced
- Incidents have happened on campus, at other schools, or in the community that may point to future incidents
- Cannot pinpoint when or if an incident may occur, but attention should be given to the situation
- Information may indicate potential for an incident that may warrant proactive intervention or mediation.

Intervention team responding to safety activations provides service suited to the nature of the incident. The deployed team can offer preventative, intervention or after-care service to the school. Services vary from gang awareness presentation for staff or parent, choice and consequences presentation to students, conflict

mediation services, and campus monitoring assistance, referral service for gang intervention, youth related programs or services. Time is factored into the responses because the team is required to respond to safety activations within a thirty minutes window and resolve the cause for the activation within in two weeks.

Findings

Safe School Campus Initiative has been in operation city wide for over nine years with great success. With schools utilizing the program to assist with their youth and gang related incidents on campus, the intensity of violence has decreased due to early intervention. A comparison of statistics collected over a three year period reflected the number of safety activations or "calls for services" by the schools.

Figure 1 (next page) reflected the calls for service between 00'-01' to 01'-02' school year, the calls for service increased by approximately 32 percent. In 02'-03' school year, the calls increased another 13 percent. Figure 2 (next page) reflects the levels of incidents between 00'-01' and 02'-'03' school years. The intensity of Level I decrease with the increase in Level III. The correlation of information collected showed the cause and affect, an increase calls for service to Level III prevented many Level I incidents from occurring.

Safe School Campus Initiative collects customer service survey in an effort to evaluate the program's effective with schools. School campus Initiative collects customer surveys on a bi-yearly process from school administrators and staff who have worked or interacted with the program.

Figures 3 and 4 (second page following) show the numbers of customer service surveys collected for 03-04 school year. Collected data exceeded target value for Non-Proliferation of Violence, Respond within 30 minutes, Resolution in Two Weeks and Customer Rating of Very Good or Better.

Discussion

Safe School Campus Initiative benefits schools and school districts. The program provides resources for schools to prevents, identified and control juvenile crime, and criminal street gang. It establishes a proactive approach for school safety planning for the prevention or management of incidents related to youth service. It also creates clear lines of authority, multi-system protocol and procedures for the management of critical incidents of violence or crime occurring on campus. Safe School Campus Initiative strengthens the discipline team of the schools when the capacity of the school team is insufficient to handle large-scale or complex incidents of youth violence.

Administrators are not the only ones who benefit from the program. Students also benefit from the program. Students involved in school-related incidents would receive some type of assistance. The assistance would depend on the outcome of a needs assessment. The outcome can lead to a referral for a gang intervention program, work experience program, substance abuse program, family services or programs meeting the needs of the assessment.

The intervention teams are fortunate to have resources readily available to them. Members the intervention teams also belong to the Mayor's Gang Prevention Task Force. The Mayor's Gang Prevention Task Force is comprised of local service providers who offer youth programs and services among an array of other services. Intervention team can quickly connect youths and their family to the appropriate service, hence completing the task within the two week targeted time frame.

Figure 1. Calls for service, 2000 - 2003

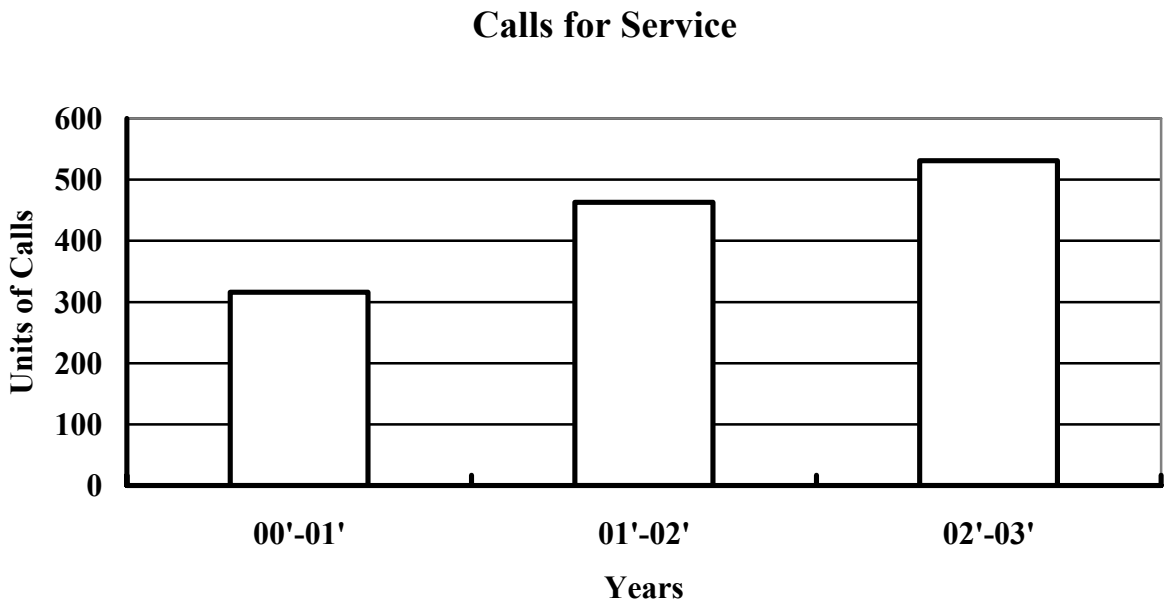

Figure 2. Level of response, 2000 - 2003

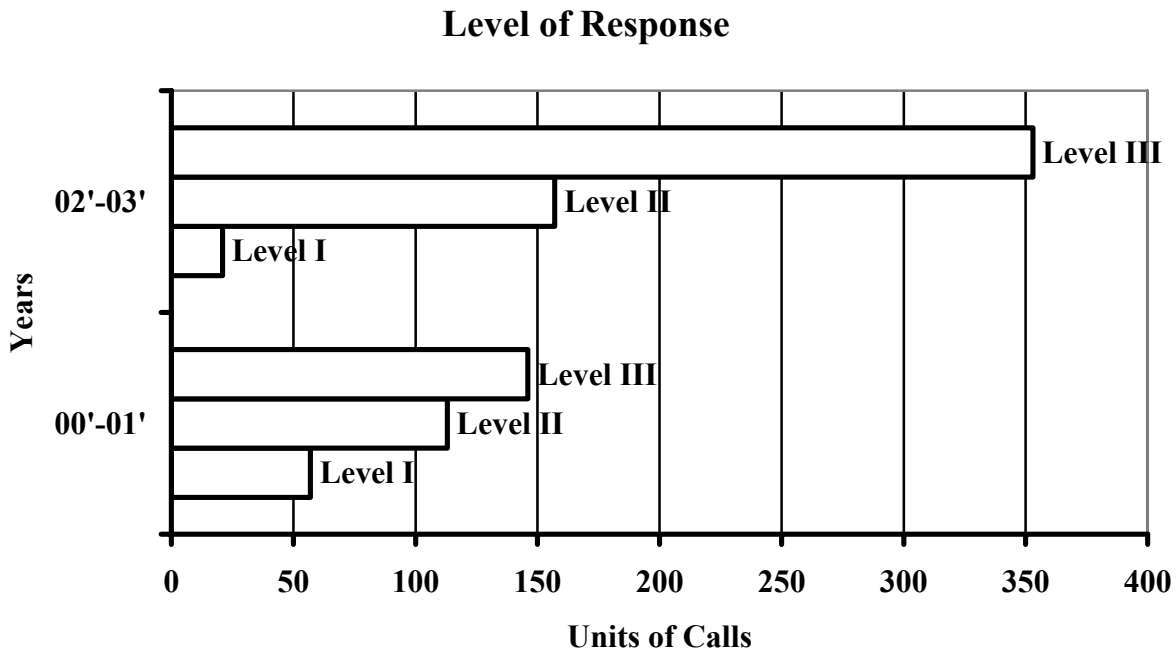

Figure 3. Customer satisfaction survey

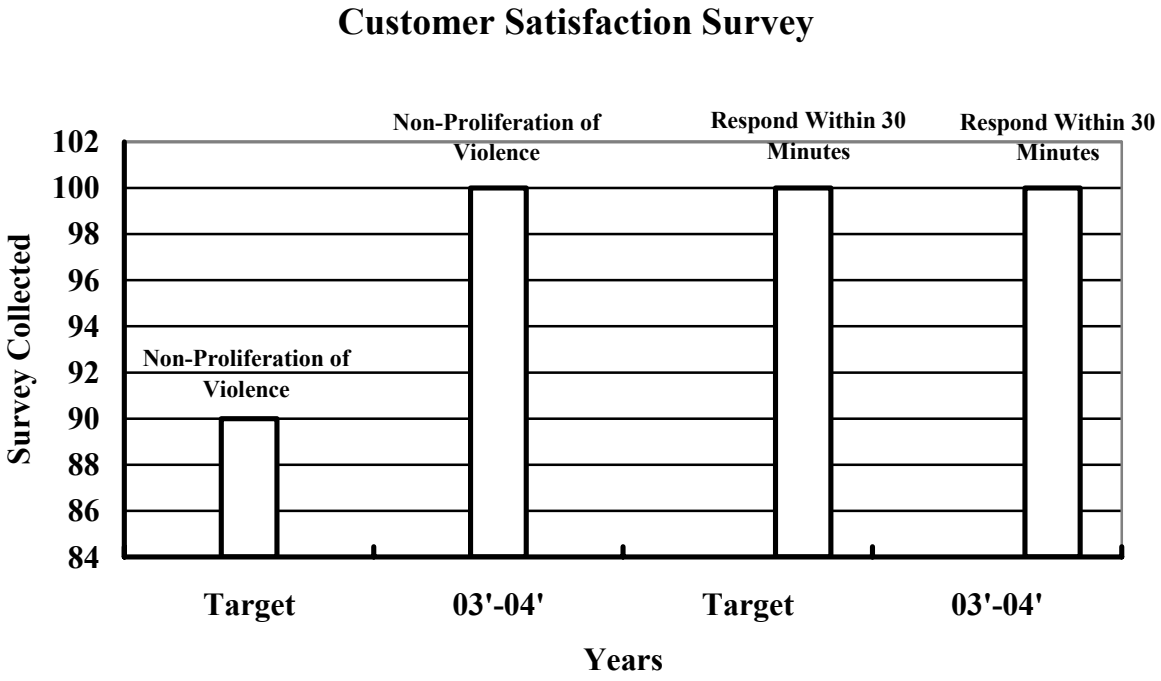

Figure 4. Customer satisfaction survey

Conclusion

Safe School Campus Initiative has developed into a city-wide effort to assist schools in the prevention, the identification and the control of juvenile crime and criminal street gang activities. With such great success Safe School Campus Initiative is endorsed by the current police chief and mayor of San Jose, the Parent Safety Committee of Eastside Union High School District and support by all school districts within the City of San Jose.

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THINKING OUTSIDE THE BOX: EMPOWERING STUDENTS TO EFFECT POSITIVE CHANGES IN SCHOOL CLIMATE

Michelle Gwinn Nutter, Safe Schools Coordinator [a]

[a] Center for Safe Schools, Camp Hill, PA

Schools today are increasingly aware of the impact of school climate and safety on academic achievement. Educators across the country are clearly coming to understand the linkage between a child's need to be physically and emotionally safe and that child's ability to perform to his or her highest ability. There seems to be a new awareness to the fact that a child who is fearful for his or her emotional or physical wellbeing is not able to concentrate on academics to the extent that he or she would be able to if these concerns were not present.

Race relations within a school is one area of school climate that can have serious implications on the level of safety within a school. As demographics across the country continue to evolve, our schools are becoming more diverse than ever before. This is a trend that will only continue to grow. According to the United States Census Bureau, over the next 50 years, the white population percentage will decrease, while all populations of people of color will increase.[1]

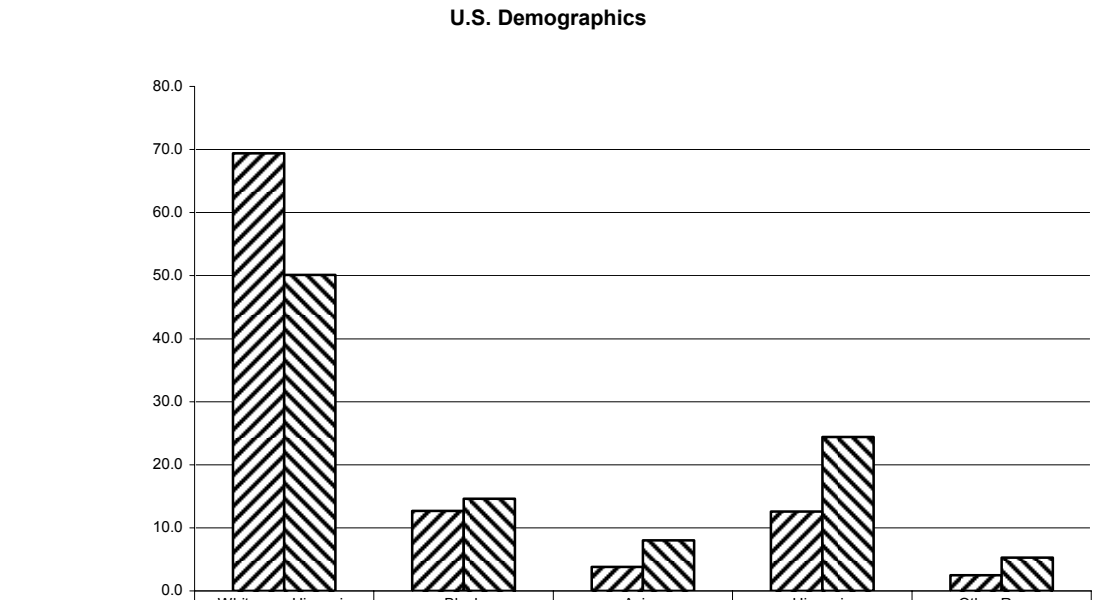
Schools must come to the realization that demographic change is a neutral fact – in itself it is neither positive nor negative. How a person, school, community or society at large reacts to demographic change affects whether or not the change is positive or negative. When newcomers are made to feel like welcomed and valued contributors to their school or community, then demographic change is positive. When newcomers are made to feel unwelcome and unvalued, then the reaction to demographic change is negative. Schools must take steps to ensure that every student is welcomed and valued, regardless of race, national origin, ethnicity, gender, religion, disability, sexual orientation or any other descriptor.

Judging the climate of a school with regard to race relations can be difficult for administrators. Many of the goings-on between students happen below the radar in areas of the school that are unmonitored by administrators. Increasingly, problematic interactions between students take place via technology – through email communications, instant messages, text messages and web-based forums like Myspace, U-tube and Facebook. The interactions themselves do not occur on school property nor do they occur during school hours, but the fallout from these interactions may have dramatic reprisals which do occur during school hours and on school property.

It is necessary for school administrators to take a barometer reading as to their schools' climate. There are many ways in which to do this, including staff and student surveys; boxes, email or voicemail accounts for anonymous comments; utilizing feedback from teachers and guidance counselors; and more. Another way to find out what is going on is to engage students in a dialogue that not only names both the positives and negatives of the school, but also tasks students with finding solutions for the negatives. Schools who engage students in both the naming and resolving of problems is often viewed as "thinking outside of the box."

[1] Bergman, M. (2004). "*Census Bureau Projects Tripling of Hispanic and Asian Populations in 50 Years: Non-Hispanic Whites May Drop To Half of Total Population,"* March 18, 2004 Press Release available at http://www.census.gov/Press-Release/www/releases/archives/population/001720.html.

Figure 1. U.S. demographics forecast



	White non Hispanic	Black	Asian	Hispanic	Other Races
Actual Census 2000	69.4	12.7	3.8	12.6	2.5
Projected 2050 Census	50.1	14.6	8.0	24.4	5.3

Historically, students were viewed as blank pages of a book. Teachers were to fill these pages by imparting their knowledge to their students. Students were not actively engaged in the learning process – their function was to digest and regurgitate facts and figures through rote memorization. As time passed, educators realized that this type of learning was flawed in that it did not teach students critical thinking and problem-solving skills. The American educational system continues to evolve to incorporate these higher learning skills into the education of our youth.

Schools must recognize the value of having students participate in the process of improving their schools, by encouraging students to engage in critical thinking and problem solving exercises relative to their schools. By engaging students thusly, they will feel ownership of the schools and will be actively involved with working to make positive changes in the climate of the school. On way to engage students in this process is to work with the U.S. Department of Justice, Community Relations Service (CRS) to bring a SPIRIT program to individual middle- and high-schools.

CRS designed the SPIRIT program in 1985 to assist school administrators in gaining insight into student perceptions of racial problems. SPIRIT stands for Student Problem Identification and Resolution of Issues Together. SPIRIT is available to schools experiencing racial or intergroup tension free of charge.

CRS recognizes the value of student input in solving racial tension in their schools. CRS believes that, as objective outsiders with facilitation skills, they could be helpful organizing and leading discussions among youth to acquire candid perceptions on school racial problems and solutions. CRS applies the principles of mediation, problem solving, and full engagement of the school community, to help improve the racial climate of the schools. SPIRIT brings students, administrators, teachers and parents together to identify issues, develop solutions, and take action on conflicts within their schools.

CRS has 10 regional offices located throughout the country. CRS developed the SPIRIT program and first implemented it in Los Angeles, in response to school violence between Crips and Bloods gang members. Since 1985, SPIRIT programs have taken place in schools in all 10 CRS regions. To date, SPIRIT programs have been implemented across the country. CRS, in conjunction with the Pennsylvania Interagency Task Force on Civil Tension has conducted 24 SPIRIT programs since May of 2002 in schools across the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The schools which conducted SPIRIT programs varied from small, rural districts, to large, urban districts. They all were experiencing racial or intergroup tension. SPIRIT was conducted at the schools to help them get a better understanding of the degree of racial and intergroup tensions, and to empower the students as stakeholders in the climate of their schools.

SPIRIT brings natural student leaders of diverse backgrounds together to discover commonalities and appreciate difference. The SPIRIT model teaches students new and better ways to develop solutions and make decisions. SPIRIT improves communications among diverse student leaders and reduces racial tensions in schools. Spirit helps to improve student/teacher and student/administrator relationships. SPIRIT works to prevent violence and conflict among students in schools with changing demographic populations.

Although SPIRIT comes out of the U.S. Department of Justice, CRS conciliators do not have law enforcement authority. CRS Staff does not assign blame, impose solutions, investigate or prosecute. CRS is required by law to conduct its activities in confidence and is prohibited from disclosing confidential information. Following the two-day student dialogue, CRS conciliators prepare a detailed report of the strengths and concerns which students identify, as well as the solutions students proposed to address their concerns. This report is given directly to the school administrator who initiated the SPIRIT program. CRS does not supply copies of school reports to any person or agency, as these reports are confidential.

In summary, SPIRIT creates new safeguards to prevent future conflict and minimizes tensions. It establishes a proactive model to use for problem solving. SPIRIT: empowers students; builds collaboration; brings diverse groups together; and develops decision-making skills. By “thinking outside the box,” schools are able to harness the power of the students to generate positive changes in the climate and safety of their schools.

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THE DANGEROUS INTERSECTION OF YOUTH AND HATE CRIME

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Abstract

Crime data collected by the Federal Bureau of Investigation clearly shows a disturbing image of the youthful hate crime offender. With over 13.2 percent of hate crimes occurring at schools or colleges, and close to two-thirds of known hate crime offenders being under the age of 24, schools must arm themselves with knowledge about crimes motivated by prejudice and bias. This study will examine data at the state and national level to learn: what is a hate crime; the characteristics of hate crime victims and offenders; and what can schools do to prevent and respond to bias incidents and hate crimes.

Background

In 1990, Congress passed the "Hate Crimes Statistics Act," which required the collection of data on crimes motivated by a prejudice against race, religion, sexual orientation or ethnicity. Since that time, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, through its Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Program, has collected data from police departments nationwide. Although hate crime continues to be under-reported for a variety of reasons, patterns of data relative to hate crime offenders and victims have emerged.

According to 2005 UCR data, the third most common location nationwide for a hate crime to occur is in on a school or college campus. This fact clearly indicates that hate crime is impacting our students and our schools. With over 13.2 percent of hate crimes occurring at schools or colleges, and close to two-thirds of known hate crime offenders being under the age of 24, schools must arm themselves with knowledge about crimes motivated by bias and prejudice.

Findings

As we begin to look at hate crime data, an underlying question begins to emerge, specifically, what is a hate crime? Unfortunately, there is no standard legal definition of a hate crime. Each state is able to address (or not address) how hate crimes are classified and prosecuted. All but one state (Wyoming) have some type of legislation addressing hate crimes. Of the remaining 49 states and the District of Columbia, there are a number of differences between existing hate crime statutes. All statutes address one or more of the following:

1. Groups that are protected (e.g., religion, race or ethnicity, gender, disability, and sexual orientation).
2. A range of predicate or underlying crimes (e.g., assault).
3. A requirement that hate or bias motivated the offense.
4. Penalty enhancements.
5. Provisions for civil remedies.
6. Requirements for data collection.
7. Training requirements for law enforcement personnel.[1]

[1] Shively & Mulford. (2007). Hate crime in America: The debate continues. *NIJ Journal* 257 (2007): 8-13.

The following table highlights the similarities of state statutes.[2]

Table 1. Comparison of state statutes

State Hate Crime Statutes		Number of States
Protected Classes:	Race, Religion and Ethnicity	45
	Disability	32
	Sexual Orientation	32
	Gender	28
	Other (Political Affiliation, Age, Transgender and/or Gender Identity	19
Civil Action		32
Data Collection		28
Training for Law Enforcement Personnel		14

The United States Department of Justice's Federal Law Enforcement Training Commission (FLETC) is responsible for training members of law enforcement departments nationwide. In its Hate/Bias Crimes Training Program, FLETC breaks hate crime offenders into three categories:

1. Thrill-seekers: These offenders are motivated by a need to experience a thrill or gain bragging rights among their peers. Most often, thrill-seeking offenders are juveniles.
2. Reactive offenders: These offenders are motivated by a need to protect their way of life or to avenge a perceived threat or insult. Reactive offenders are most often middle-aged, white males who have resided in their community for all or most of their lives. They feel that their home, community or way of life is at risk by the introduction of new races, religions, lifestyles, etc.
3. Mission offenders: These offenders are often members of organized hate groups. They are consumed with their hatred and desire the complete annihilation of members of hated groups of people. Mission offenders are the most violent group of offenders; they are also the rarest type of hate crime offender.[3]

Researchers Jack McDevitt, Jack Levin and Susan Bennett expanded the above offender typology to include four categories: thrill-seeking, defensive, retaliatory, and mission. Their typology only differs from the FLETC typology in that "Reactive" offenders are split into two groups, i.e., defensive and retaliatory offenders. Their research validates FLETC's data that thrill-seekers are the most prevalent type of offender,

[2] Source: *The Anti-Defamation League state hate crime statutory provisions* (2006), available at: http://www.adl.org/99hatecrime/state_hate_crime_laws.pdf

[3] Federal Law Enforcement Training Center. (1993). *Student handbook*. Artesia, NM and Glynco, GA.

and mission offenders are the least prevalent type.[4] Specifically, out of the 169 cases analyzed in their study, 112 of the offenders were classified as thrill-seekers, as indicated in the table below:

Table 2. Type of offender and prevalence

Type of Offender	Prevalence
Thrill-seeking	66 percent
Defensive	25 percent
Retaliatory	8 percent
Mission	1 percent

While we can be thankful that mission offenders represent the smallest percentage of hate crime offenders, we must look at the largest group of offenders – thrill-seekers. Most thrill-seeking offenders are young, white males. That is not to say that white females and people of color do not commit hate crimes – they do, but not at the same rate as white males. Where race was identified in 2005 UCR hate crime data, 61.5 percent of offenders were white.[5] As for age, a number of different studies point to youthful offenders committing the bulk of hate crimes across America.

According to National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS): "Younger offenders were responsible for most hate crimes. Thirty-one percent of violent offenders and 46 percent of property offenders were under age 18.[6] By 2005, the percentage of violent youthful offenders increased, as did the number of youthful victims. Specifically, in surveying the victims of bias crimes in 2005, offenders with a perceived age between 12 and 20 was 66.2 percent for the 1,037,560 single-offender victims of the same age range. For the 411, 720 multiple-offender victims surveyed, the percentage of offenders perceived to be 12 to 20 year olds was 65.8 percent.[7]

In looking at where hate crimes are most likely to occur, schools or colleges were the third most likely location at 13.5 percent of reported hate crimes.[8] Individual states report even more startling findings. In New Jersey, for example, hate crimes occur most often in schools than at any other location. Hate crimes occurring

[4] McDevitt, Levin, & Bennett. (2002). Hate crime offenders: An expanded typology. *Journal of Social Issues 58* (2002): 303-317.

[5] "Table 9," *Hate Crime Statistics 2005,* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, October 2006, Table 9, available at http://www.fbi.gov/ucr/hc2005/table9.htm

[6] FBI's National Incident-Based Reporting Program, 1997-1999, available at http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/abstract/hcrn99.htm

[7] "Tables 41 and 47," *Criminal Victimization in the United States, 2005 Statistical Tables*, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Tables 41 and 47, available at http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/abstract/cvusst.htm

[8] "Location Type Table," *Hate Crime Statistics 2005,* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, October, 2006, Location Type, available at http://www.fbi.gov/ucr/hc2005/locationtype.htm

in school buildings accounted for 26 percent of all reported hate crime in New Jersey.[9] Pennsylvania has a similar incidence rate on school or college campuses, at 22.5 percent of all reported hate crime locations. Schools and colleges are the second most likely location for hate crimes to occur in Pennsylvania.[10]

Summary and Conclusions

The fact that hate crimes are most likely to involve youthful offenders and victims, and are extremely likely to occur in or around our schools must be a wakeup call for anyone concerned with school safety. Schools must educate students on the importance of treating others with respect. This is the first step in combating bullying, harassment, hate crimes and a variety of other violent criminal offenses. School officials should arm themselves with the knowledge of what constitutes a hate crime in their state and/or community.[11] Many school-based incidents of verbal harassment and physical violence rise to the level of criminal activity. When that criminal activity is directed towards a person or group of persons because of one or more protected class, that criminal activity may also be charged as a hate crime. Students who perpetrate criminal activities, including but not limited to hate crimes, must understand the serious nature of their actions.

Whenever a crime occurs on a school or college campus, school administrators must immediately contact the police department which has jurisdiction over that campus, so that appropriate action may be taken. This is true of hate crime activity as well. It is also important that school administrators take immediate action to notify the faculty, staff and student body that such activity is not tolerated and that the perpetrators will be punished up to and including pressing criminal charges, if applicable. It is important that this announcement happen for two reasons. First, a message must be sent to the perpetrators and future would-be perpetrators that engaging in these types of activities will not only subject them to school punishments, but may also end in their arrest and conviction. Secondly, and most importantly, a message must be sent to the victim that the school is standing with the victim in support. Failure to do so will send a very different message to the victim – a message that the school does not care about the victim and, possibly, that the school believes that the victim deserved to be treated in this way.

Nobel Peace Prize winner and Holocaust survivor Elie Wiesel summed this thought up in his Nobel Acceptance Speech with these words:

> And that is why I swore never to be silent whenever wherever human beings endure suffering and humiliation. We must take sides. Neutrality helps the oppressor, never the victim. Silence encourages the tormentor, never the tormented. Sometimes we must interfere. When human lives are endangered, when human dignity is in jeopardy, national borders and sensitivities become irrelevant. Wherever men and women are persecuted because of their race, religion, or political views, that place must - at that moment - become the center of the universe.[12]

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[9] "Section Twelve: Bias Incident Summary," *2005 Uniform Crime Report,* New Jersey: The State of New Jersey, Department of Law and Public Safety, August, 2006, available at http://www.state.nj.us/lps/njsp/info/ucr2005/pdf/2005-sect-12.pdf

[10] "Hate Crime Data," *Pennsylvania Uniform Crime Reporting System,* Harrisburg, PA: Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania State Police, Uniform Crime Reporting Unit, available at http://ucr.psp.state.pa.us/UCR/Reporting/Annual/AnnualFrames.asp?year=2005

[11] Individual municipalities may have local ordinances which provide greater protection than state laws.

[12] Wiesel, Elie, *Nobel Acceptance Speech,* Oslo, Norway, December, 1986, available at http://www.eliewieselfoundation.org/ElieWiesel/speech.html

Silence does not erase the hate crime from having taken place, nor does it erase the memory of the crime. Silence allows hate to continue to fester and grow, and gives tacit permission for future hate crimes to occur. Taking this concept one step further underscores the need for every instance of bullying and harassment to be addressed. Whether it is a classmate telling another student to "knock it off" when teasing another student, or a teacher admonishing a student for using a slur or epithet, or an administrator disciplining a student and notifying police for vandalizing school property, or verbally or physically attacking another student, these actions stop the cycle of hate.

School administrators must be deliberate in making their campus a place where each and every student is safe and respected. Students must learn to adhere to the philosophy of treating self and others with respect. This can be accomplished through a variety of curricular and extracurricular programs which address civility and respect, and are available gratis or for purchase from various governmental agencies and companies. It is important to select a program with measurable success, as well as a program that is suitable to the unique needs of individual schools.

According to a UNESCO report on global ethics, the philosophy of "Golden Rule" is present in all major faiths and cultures of the world.

> [i]t is part of the fundamental moral teachings of each of the great traditions that one should treat others as one would want to be treated oneself. Some version of this "Golden Rule" finds explicit expression in Confucianism, Taoism, Hinduism, Buddhism, Zoroastrianism, Judaism, Christianity and Islam, and is implicit in the practices of other faiths.[13]

By applying this philosophy of treating others with the same respect one gives to self to school climate, improvements would become readily apparent. School administrators must set the stage for creating an environment that supports dignity, civility and respect for all persons.

[13] "New Global Ethics: The Power of Culture," *The Report of the World Commission on Culture and* Development, UNESCO Report 1995, available at http://kvc.minbuza.nl/uk/archive/report/chapter1_3.html

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THE IMPACT OF JUVENILE RECIDIVISM ON THE EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES OF POOR AND DISENFRANCHISED YOUTH WHO WERE DRUG-EXPOSED DURING FETAL DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

The author examines practical aspects and past research on the status of school students who have been incarcerated and have poor academic and behavioral performance, in addition to fetal exposure to illegal substances. In the case study that is attached, there is evidence that supports the theory that drug exposure during pregnancy could have a major impact on emotional and cognitive development. The student reported on numerous occasions that his mother used drugs (crack) while she was carrying him. As evidenced by his academic performance, he has repeated at least two grades in school, which was attributed to poor grades, attendance and incarceration (twice). He has a history of suspensions, fighting, gang involvement, and possession of marijuana on school property. This student is not motivated for learning, his family support system is deteriorating, and he lives in substandard public housing.

Introduction

The purpose of this presentation is to examine the link between juvenile recidivism and low academic performance among students who are poor and disenfranchised, and who were exposed during fetal development to drugs and alcohol. The author will present an overview of past studies conducted on this rising issue, a closer look at a case study, and an overview of the current self-selecting population with a local juvenile detention center and alternative education programs. These programs house juveniles who have been removed from mainstream public schools for misdemeanors and felonies that they committed inside either the school system or the community at-large.

Methodology

In the case study that is attached, there is empirical evidence to support the theory that drug exposure during pregnancy could have a major impact on emotional and cognitive development. The student's case that is used in this report is an actual live case in the public school system. The student reported on numerous occasions that his mother used drugs (crack) while she was carrying him. As evidenced by his academic performance, he has repeated at least two grades in his school career, which was attributed to poor grades, poor attendance and incarceration twice. He has a history of suspensions, fighting, gang involvement, and possession of marijuana on school property. This student is not motivated for learning, his family support system is deteriorating, and he lives in substandard public housing.

A self-selecting population of 385 incarcerated juveniles was studied to gather information on the number of those who, knowingly, were exposed to drugs and/or alcohol during fetal development. Several juveniles candidly admitted to the fact that their mothers were addicted to crack cocaine during pregnancy. Others admitted that both parents used drugs before conception as well. These juveniles, unfortunately, reside in the same neighborhoods and attend the same schools. They have been recidivists throughout the district's

alternative school programs, have active cases with social services involvement, are in foster care custody or group homes, on court probation, and receive mandatory counseling and mental health services. These juveniles come from impoverished neighborhoods ridden with drugs, prostitution and gang activity. The outcomes of their academic success and overall futures are being determined by their socioeconomic status and the disadvantaged conditions in which they live. Some of them are being raised by grandparents, aunts and uncles due to the drug dependency and incarceration of their biological parents.

Just prior to a recent interview, a 14-year-old African-American male had been placed in the custody of his biological father and stepmother due to the death of his biological mother from drug addiction and AIDS. He has had a battery of tests to determine his IQ for the purpose of educational placement; however, he continues to fight other students, disrespect teachers and authority figures, and is desperately in need of therapy to address the sexual abuse he experienced while living with his biological mother during her active addiction and prostitution. He displayed a dull affect and obvious confusion when prompted during questioning. His father is now tasked with raising his emotionally disturbed and abused son, along with the other children in his household from his current marriage. The educational level of this father and his wife are high school graduates, with some low comprehension of concepts and an inability to navigate this child through the school system. They are completely dependent on school officials to guide them through the process of making sure this child receives the appropriate referrals and special needs services to be academically successful. The projected outcome for this student, if not properly monitored and guided, is not favorable. However, the question posed in this paper is: how significant was the impact of his mother's drug addiction during pregnancy on his cognitive and emotional development? Is he a product of the environment? Is there a history of poor mental health in the family? Alternatively, are all these elements determining factors in his prognosis for success?

Discussion

To review past research conducted on child development after prenatal drug exposure, the following studies examined the behavior problems of children from birth through seven years of age. One study conducted used a sample of African-American children (210 exposed, 197 non- exposed) from birth to 7 years of age in a longitudinal study on the neurodevelopment consequences of *in utero* exposure to cocaine (Accornero, Anthony, Morrow, Xue, and Bandstra 2006). This particular study did not confirm any linkages between prenatal cocaine exposures to child behavior. In another study conducted on peripheral nerve abnormalities in children exposed to alcohol in utero, this study substantiated that there were effects of prenatal alcohol exposure on the nervous system. The sample selected was 17 children exposed to 2 oz of absolute alcohol/day pre-natal and 13 unexposed children, taken from a cohort of pregnant women during prenatal care. As a result, those researchers concluded an association of abnormalities in nerve electrical properties, and electrophysiological abnormalities in peripheral nerves that could be included to the problems found in children of alcohol abusing mothers during pregnancy (Avaria et al. 2004).

When looking at current student behavior issues in public school systems and the rates of crimes committed among juveniles, it may substantiate the hypothesis of this "lost generation" born between 1989-1996, as to the amount of substance abuse and mental health issues that are derived from fetal exposure.

Within the juvenile correctional setting, the National Center for Mental Health and Juvenile Justice January 2003 issue, discussed at length, the screening and assessment of mental health and substance abuse disorders among youth in the juvenile justice system (Grisso and Underwood 2003). That article defined the most common diagnoses during the intake process of juveniles as conduct disorders, affective disorders, post traumatic stress disorders, attention deficit and developmental disability. Most screening and assessment instruments, as researched, are designed for use with the focus on adolescents' deficits and disorders, and giving little attention to areas of functioning which will display particular aptitude (Grisso and Underwood

2003).

The demands are ultimately placed on the public school system to educate and provide some level of emotional and cognitive development that is not supported by the breakdown in the family system. Community support is also needed to redirect youth in a more positive direction. Brady, Posner, Lang, and Rosati (1994) demonstrated that children entering preschool and elementary classrooms inherently bring a wide variety of behaviors, dispositions, and learning styles to the school setting. The use of illicit drugs has made an impact on the educational systems throughout the nation. The number of programs developed and designed to refine the approaches in dealing with children whose development and educational success are threatened by their mothers' prenatal drug use during pregnancy is increasingly growing every year (Brady, Posner, Lang, and Rosati (1994).

To take this hypothesis to another level, there is the most recent rise in the use of methamphetamine and oxycontin. The National Abandoned Infants Assistance Resource Center, with the University of California at Berkeley, discussed at great length in the spring 2006 newsletter, the methods of treatment and intervention that will be required for those infants born with exposure to this generation of manufactured chemicals (Shah 2006). Shah (2006) conducted research on this new wave of drug use during pregnancy, which devastatingly opens up another array of services that will be required to treat the infants who will possibly have more extensive and severe brain disorders and developmental disorders.

At this point, the questions and discussions in this school district are, as predicted around the nation, who cares for these children and what services are needed. The parents look toward the principals, teachers, social workers, case managers, foster care providers, church leaders, and school administrators to provide an environment in which these children do not continue to be labeled the "lost generation" but realize that there is hope and the potential for them to be productive citizens of the greater society. Parent/teacher organizations should redirect the focus of their committees into mentoring parents and children who may be threatened by this disparity. The issues that face our children will not be resolved overnight, or through enormous amounts of research. The issues should be addressed daily with the cooperative efforts of all social, educational, and government entities that are working towards saving our children. Stereotyping these children is doing more of a disservice than empowering them with the tools they need to be successful.

Although statistics and demographic information are pertinent to research and funding, it will ultimately be taking one child at a time, one parent at a time, one teacher at a time, and making a difference. While these issues increase at alarming rates, local and state government agencies have begun to realize that these children will become dysfunctional adults who are plagued with criminal activity, a high propensity to become sex offenders, and public safety minuses.

Where does the intervention take place, during childhood when the behaviors are first observed? In too many instances, these children are treated only by the behaviors they display and not evaluated for the root cause. When they are educationally challenged and an IEP is in place, there is evidence of psychological testing that determined their needs. In advocating for services within the school system to better meet the needs of this population, possibly a behavioral and family assessment should be conducted during the intake process at the kindergarten level. State standards demand immunizations, medical histories and screening for participation in school sports, but is there a need to examine the family history? As evidenced by previous studies, case study reviews and the need for the "no child left behind" initiative, society has clearly stated that there needs to be more emphasis on the educational development of children in this country. The challenge of this presentation is to determine what else is needed to reduce the rate of incarceration and expulsion to develop a holistic approach to dealing with this generation to gauge overall success in their emotionality, spirituality, and mental outcomes.

Summary and Conclusion

To put all of this information in a logical summary would be easy. Logically, we know what the desired outcome for all of these kids should be. Programmatically, the direction that is needed will take a lot of money and commitment from every professional in the field of education and direct client services. The benefits and anticipated results are a more productive citizen, a well-balanced human being, improved public safety, and ending generational dysfunctional lifestyle patterns. The unanticipated results – the worse case scenarios – are that things will remain the same or get worse. We consistently need programs geared towards family preservation, drug treatment, youth and peer networking, prevention and intervention, teen health connections, youthful offender treatment, sex offender therapy, child advocacy, survivors of childhood abuse, AIDS awareness, mental health, and job readiness. All of these programs have a viable need, but the success of these programs and the desired outcome for our youth rely on practitioners who are dedicated to reaching out to children in need. Real possibilities for all of these children are what they need and so desperately want. Professionals who believe in the youth also support their parents and teachers, and have a vested interested in their futures. These children should never be denied our best efforts in giving them the hope and the tools to have healthy and fulfilling lives. We owe them and they deserve it.

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Case Study

Demographic Information

Name:	John Doe, Jr. [ed. note: the name is a pseudonym.]
Age:	16
Race:	African-American
Gender:	Male
Grade:	ninth
School Status:	Alternative Education Program
Legal Status:	Probation
Residential Status:	Lives with extended family members (Aunt/Uncle)
Economic Status:	Poor

Previous Academic History

Several suspensions from 2005-2007 for gang related activity, possession of marijuana on school property, fighting, incarcerated twice in county juvenile detention facility. Poor academic performance due to attendance, lack of interest, poor family support, low expectation for success.

Family History

Mother reportedly smoked crack cocaine, powder cocaine, and alcohol during pregnancy. Mother continues to use drugs and is not involved in child's life. Father incarcerated for reasons unknown. Student lives with his older brother, aunt and uncle on his mother's side. His maternal family decided to maintain custody to avoid DSS placement in group home or foster care.

Mental and Emotional Status

Severe behavior disorders as related to "crack baby" and possible fetal alcohol syndrome. Student has a prolonged history with mental health services, child and adolescent services. Non-compliant with most or all treatment recommendations by behavior management professionals. Poor follow-up and aftercare participation.

Diagnosis:	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder Bipolar Disorder Oppositional Defiant Disorder
Medication:	Fluoxetine HCI (Prozac) 200mg cap Valproic Acid (Depakene) 250mg cap Haloperidol (Haldol) 2mg tab Benztropine Mesylate (Cogentin) 1mg tab

Incarceration History

This student was evaluated in the county juvenile detention center and prescribed the above medication for behavior management as related to clinical diagnosis. His behavior was more appropriate and manageable inside the detention center than in regular social and academic environments. He responded to a more structured setting with limits and direct consequences for his behavior.

Methods of School Interventions and Program Assignments

This student has had an array of services throughout the school system. He has periods of appropriate behavior and compliance with rules; however, due to the lack of consistency between the parents/guardians, his behavior deteriorates at a rapid rate. He has been assigned to the following programs/services in CMS:

Boot Camp
Intervention Team Case Manager
Alternative Education Liaison case manager
Referral to mental health services for follow-up, medication management
Parent/teacher conferences
In-school suspension
Out-of-school suspension

Mental Health Treatment

Student has not been compliant with medication or follow-up services. His guardians have not maintained adequate attention to his behavior disorders, which continue to present an obstacle in his behavioral and academic performance.

Recommendations

It has been recommended that professional staff with clinical/mental health experience continually monitor this student. He has been referred to mental health for screening and intake services to be re-evaluated for medication. He has also been placed in the summer program at the alternative school. There will be a family intervention scheduled immediately upon the beginning of the new school year 2007-2008 to develop a behavior contract that will address his academic and behavioral issues.

Prognosis/Expected Outcome

Unfortunately, the projected outcome for this student remains poor, as evidenced by past attempts and history of non-compliance. His case will remain open and he will continue to be assigned a case manager to follow him while he is in school. The consistency of staff will assist him in behavior management, in addition to quarterly family intervention sessions.

BULLYGUARD® – UPDATED AND EFFECTIVE STRATEGIES FOR TODAY'S YOUTH THAT FOCUS ON BULLYING AND CHILD SAFETY

Tom Patire, President [a]

[a] Tom Patire Group LLC, Park Ridge, NJ

Abstract

During the presentation to the convention audience Tom Patire, America's Leading Personal Safety Expert® and the most publicized bodyguard in the media today, will present an overview of the BULLYGUARD® program that he has researched and designed. Tom will also present evidence to show how BULLYGUARD® has worked in the communities in which it was presented.

BULLYGUARD® is a high energy, empowering seminar that is presented to elementary and middle school level students. Within the seminar, BULLYGUARD® instructor(s) discuss with students the types of behaviors to expect from a bully and the coping strategies that build confidence, awareness and avoidance as seen through the eyes of a professional bodyguard.

In an interactive setting, Tom will address questions from the audience and explain/demonstrate the BULLYGUARD® theory (formulated from his life long occupation in protective services as a bodyguard for the rich and famous) - teach students what to do, when to do it, and how to do it. In addition, Tom and a member of his staff will also discuss the BULLYGUARD® curriculum, which provides a comprehensive follow up to "Tom Patire's 5 Simple Rules/Rhymes that focus on confrontational avoidance."

Summary

BULLYGUARD® is a high energy, empowering seminar that educates students on the types of behavior to expect from a bully and the coping strategies that build confidence, awareness and avoidance. The program was researched and designed by Tom Patire, America's Leading Personal Safety Expert® and the most publicized bodyguard in the media today.

Dubbed 'The Guardian of Safety®' by Fox TV, Tom Patire took his protective service background as a career bodyguard for the rich and famous, adapted his non-confrontational techniques, infused a "cool" and significant demeanor, and developed a program that students find interesting, informative and successful. Students are accepting of the BULLYGUARD® concepts because of the mystique that surrounds bodyguards and their interaction with their clients. The essence of the program is five universal rules/rhymes of bully avoidance. Each rule is designed in a format that is rhyming in nature and easy to remember. For example, BULLYGUARD® Rule Number One is "Don't Talk - Walk™."

The BULLYGUARD® theory is simple – teach students what to do, when to do it, and how to do it. By providing a clear direction and promoting the importance of non aggressive behavior, BULLYGUARD® provides students with the confidence to Just Walk Away™. For classroom follow up, BULLYGUARD® is designed with a 10-month school curriculum that reinforces the seminar.

The following BULLYGUARD® past presentations and their overall outcomes will be discussed at the

conference:

In 2007, the Boys and Girls Club of Lodi, New Jersey implemented a pilot study using the BULLYGUARD® program. The program involved a population of 125 members (cross-section of four elementary schools from the towns/cities of Lodi, Garfield, Passaic and Saddle Brook), ages 7 – 11, that attended the BULLYGUARD® Program and received the ten BULLYGUARD® curriculum lessons. A second population of 125 members, ages 7 – 11, was created and they did not receive any BULLYGUARD® training. Both groups were monitored for six months (January – May) and the following results were reported:

- The BULLYGUARD® student population experienced a 25 percent increase in attendance at Boys and Girls Club facility.
- The BULLYGUARD® student population had a 30 percent reduction in disciplinary referrals.
- The BULLYGUARD® student population had a 50 percent reduction in incidents that dealt with fighting and incidents were students were singled out and 'picked on'.
- For 2008, the Boys and Girls Club of Lodi will implement additional BULLYGUARD® training in its programs.

Testimonial: BULLYGUARD® in the Fort Lee Elementary School, by Debbie Brigida, Head of Guidance

> When BULLYGUARD® first came out several years ago, I was one of the first schools to test it as a pilot program. The reason why I accepted BULLYGUARD® into our school was because the other programs we used fell on deaf ears. The kids would attend and listen but then get bored, so we would be back to square one with our bullying problems, which all schools have.
>
> I saw Tom Patire present in Lodi High School. He had over 600 plus teenagers in an auditorium and after two minutes of him on stage you could hear a pin drop. Now he spoke more to them about the pressures and temptations of life, but what sold me on him was that he kept the students involved in his talk by bring the talk to them, not forcing it on them.
>
> Tom and his team of bodyguards came to our school and presented in accordance to grade levels. What I especially like about all the talks was that each one was designed around that particular grade, and Tom kept them interested because he was grade specific by being scenario specific. What I mean by this is he related to them by talking to them about when he was in school and what he went through. For an established, respected professional he dropped his ego and was not afraid to talk about how he was bullied and how he felt. The icing on the cake was when he brought the kids up on stage with him and showed them how to be bodyguards. He even dressed them up with dark sun glasses and taught them how to scan, how to walk and how to avoid, yes avoid confrontation. He also spoke on how the profession has both men and women in it. In fact he had many of the girls in the audience act as the celebrities while the boys were the bodyguards.
>
> That is when he broke down the rules of bullying as seen through the eyes of a bodyguard. Once the kids bought into him and his profession, the rest was clear sailing.
>
> The results of the program were as follows:
>
> - Sixty percent drop in bullying type incidents through the year;
> - Fewer problems in the hallways when students were switching classes because we posted

Tom's number on rule – Don't Talk – Walk!;
- Many teachers used Tom's rules and advice when speaking to kids that had problems with other kids.
- Students watch Tom on a Fox Special called Stranger – Danger and then he became an instant celebrity to them, which led to positive talking in the classroom on what he does and how he does it. He became a Role Model for them to believe in, and our teaching staff to reference.
- Overall it was because Tom Patire's BULLYGUARD® Program is very 'cool', as the kids say, and more of a trendy, contemporary program. That is why I see the kids really like it. Plus Tom gets the pulse of the kids, which, in turn, gets them to get him.

Testimonial: BULLYGUARD® in the Urban Community – A Case In Point by Francine Burbridge (MSW) and Staff

Faced with the number of children pressured from gangs on the street, bullies in schools, and strangers trying to abduct or seduce them on their way home from school, as a social worker in the North Bronx in NY City, I looked for a program that would work for my children. A program that was real to them and one that would educate them about bullying and peer pressures, and yet would teach them to be safe and be confident within themselves. Social workers, like myself, in the urban communities are always looking for ways to implement new safety-type programs for their particular groups of children (those who have been listed in many studies and reports as some of the most vulnerable at-risk populations in the nation today).

Being able to motivate, encourage, and set goals is not enough if children aren't being taught how to deal with the ever growing pressures of bullies and potential dangerous situations where they are vulnerable and left unprotected.

After watching a recent Montel Williams Show episode that featured America's Leading Personal Safety Expert Tom Patire, and hearing him talk about different aspects of empowering kids to protect themselves in a non-fear based, non confrontational way, I was instantly attracted to the message that Mr. Patire was sending and portraying. I researched him through a local police department and found he was speaking at an elementary school on the topics of bullying and child safety. I went and sat in the audience and listened both as a caring social worker and as a single mother. That led me to schedule a meeting with Mr. Patire to discuss the ongoing bullying in the urban community where I have worked my entire career.

After the meeting with Mr. Patire, he called me a few days later with a re-designed group-specific program for my children, focused not only on bullying but gang pressures as well as everyday safety situations. Tom then presented his program to over 100 children from ages 8 – 12. From the minute he walked in the room I saw how he got the attention of the children by going over to them and talking to them on their level. I noticed how some parents who had never supported any of these events all watched as he interacted and laughed with them. I knew then that this was a program that was different from all the others and was very much needed in my community. Once the room calmed down, he began his interactive talk on bullying. The talk was approximately 45 minutes long and then he opened it up to questions from the children and the parents.

What made the talk different was that he first got the children to understand his story on how

he was bullied and how he grew up small in stature and eventually at the age of 19, he blossomed and grew to what he is today. It was because he was picked on and bullied that he dedicated his life to protecting others, first as a bodyguard and now as child protector. Our children sat still in their seats and watched closely as Mr. Patire took them through the world of protection, asking them to role-play as celebrities and bodyguards. They had a great time and once captured by Patire's message, he back-doored the rules of protecting oneself from bullying and dangerous situations. He then spoke about Bully Safe People and Bully Safe Zones and showed them a way out when they run into these situations.

The BULLYGUARD® presentation set the groundwork for his monthly curriculum where he and his team came back to reinforce and instill the 5 Key Rules on BULLYGUARD, as well as where safe zones are and who are considered safe people. I personally attended all the classes. what I realized is that Mr. Patire first gets the kids to trust them by showing how he was vulnerable himself when he was a child. He then goes to their level and sends his message so it pertains to them. I have attended different bullying workshops and many have a good message but the way some of them were portrayed did not reach everyone. BULLYGUARD® reached every one of the children for the reason Tom Patire told me. He said "I see it from their eyes because I was one of them and that is why my message hits home."

The program was ongoing for over 8 weeks and was well received. Many of the parents attended as much as they could just so they could reinforce the message further at home.

My group that participated was a cross-section of the NY City Parks Dept. After-School Program and the Derek Jeter Turn 2 Foundation. This allowed me to cover a multi-diverse group throughout the Bronx and to see how they would all respond as individuals as well as a single unit.

Following is the feedback directly from the children to me on how they felt about the BULLYGUARD® presentations:

"We like how cool the bodyguard talked to us."
"He showed us how to walk away and feel good about it."
"Mr. Patire cares and took the time to answer each one of our questions."
"He was big but not scary. He was very funny."
"The stuff they taught was in cool rhymes that were easy to remember."
"He showed us that even tough people like him have the confidence to walk away."

Following is the feedback from my staff:

"Mr. Patire showed the kids how to be confident. He didn't just tell them."
"What hit home with everyone in the room was when he talked about how he was bullied as a kid and how he did not let that effect him and went on to pursue his dream."
"Mr. Patire is a big guy with a blank expression on his face when you first meet him. Yet when he talks his passion and energy show through and you know then he is the real deal."
"He took the time to take the kids through the journey of how they can be confident in everything they do and be safe while doing it."
"The BULLYGUARD® talk is completely different because it teaches kids to be their own bodyguard through total avoidance and non-violent techniques."
"This program gets kids to buy into an ongoing program on a tough subject like bullying.

What else needs to be said, it's one of a kind."

In closing I can go on and on about Tom Patire and his BULLYGUARD® Program but I would like to end with this:

Tom sent a message of hope through the eyes of a bodyguard who cares because he himself at one time was one of them. At the end of the day we want to instill confidence in our children but because of the tough environment in which they are growing up, we want them to believe in tomorrow by meeting a role model of today. Tom Patire is that role model. And yes, he and BULLYGUARD® will be back in our program this year to empower more kids!

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ESTABLISHING RELATIONSHIPS TO REDUCE BULLYING AND INCREASE STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

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Abstract

Educators have used the research-based concepts of Process Communication very effectively to reduce bullying and other student negative behaviors and to improve the motivation and academic achievement of every student. Participants will learn the concepts and how to apply them to establish relationships with all students, thereby enabling them to reach and teach every student, especially the reluctant learner. Several case studies will be discussed, including one in the Watts District of Los Angeles, another in the Ware Youth Center in Louisiana, and a third in Montgomery County, Maryland.

Introduction

As every teacher knows, bullying is a major problem in most schools today. Moreover, the advent of the internet has provided additional means for students to bully others. Frequently cyberspace bullying is meaner and more degrading than the face-to- face bullying occurring in schools. In addition, the No Child Left Behind Act and Annual Yearly Progress have put increased pressure on schools to improve the academic achievement of their students – a very difficult task if students do not feel they are in a safe school environment. Recent research shows that if teachers show students that they care about them and establish positive relationships with all of their students, the bullying stops or is greatly reduced and the students are more motivated to learn.

Savage (1991) put it this way: “Students who get their needs met in the classroom seldom cause problems, because doing something that interferes with getting a need met is not in their self interest.” Therefore, if we want to reduce bullying and improve academic achievement, teachers must establish positive relationships with all of their students. Most teachers do establish positive relationships with some students. However, many do not know how to establish those relationships with all of their students, especially with those students who are not motivated the same way that their teachers are. Frequently these students get labeled “reluctant learners”, act out in class, make life difficult for their teachers, and bully other students.

Summary

This paper will discuss the concepts of Process Communication, a communication model developed by Kahler (1982), an internationally acclaimed clinical psychologist. The paper also will briefly describe four of several hundred case studies, where teachers who applied the concepts of the Process Communication Model® were able to reduce bullying and other negative behaviors of their students and improve the students’ academic achievement.

Discussion

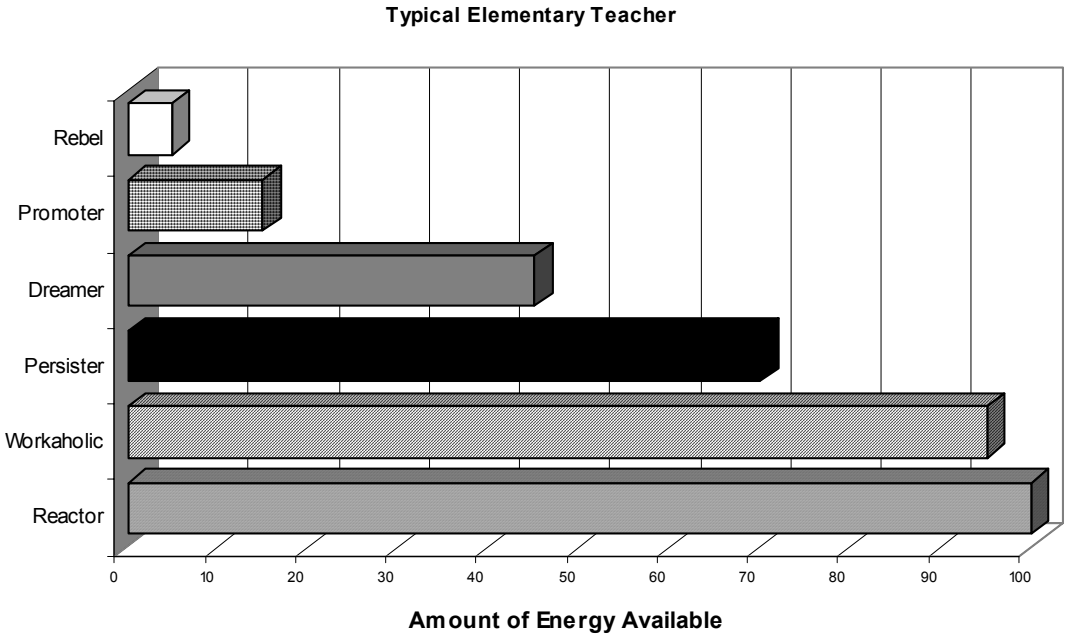
Kahler has shown that the key to forming positive relationships with students in the classroom is to help them get their motivational needs met positively and to speak their language (Kahler, 1991). Kahler's Process Communication Model® describes the characteristics of six distinct personality types. Each of the six types learns differently, communicates differently, is motivated differently, and does different things when in distress. If teachers individualize instruction and include something in every lesson to help each of the six types get their needs met positively, the negative behaviors, including bullying, stop, students are more motivated to learn, and their grades improve.

Kahler called the six personality types Reactors, Workaholics, Persisters, Dreamers, Rebels, and Promoters.

- Reactors are compassionate, sensitive and warm and perceive the world through their emotions. They need to be appreciated because they are nice people and not for anything they have done. They also need a comfortable environment. In distress, they tend to make silly, or sometimes tragic, mistakes.
- Workaholics are responsible, logical and organized. They think first and want people to think with them. They learn best in a classroom that is structured, has clear rules and adheres to schedules. Teachers can motivate them by recognizing their hard work, good ideas and their accomplishments. In distress they over-control and may criticize others for not thinking clearly.
- Persisters are conscientious, dedicated and observant. They form opinions very quickly and have an ability to stick at a task they believe in until it is completed. Values are important to them. They need to be respected for their beliefs and their values and have a very hard time learning from teachers who do not respect them or whom they do not respect. They also need to be recognized for their accomplishments and dedication. In distress Persisters may attack others for their lack of commitment.
- Dreamers are reflective, imaginative, and calm. They need their own private time and their own space. They see connections between things that the other types do not see. They have difficulty taking multiple-choice tests because they see so many possible connections that, to them, there is no one right answer. Dreamers feel suffocated when surrounded by many people and cannot think in a noisy environment. In addition, they have a difficult time prioritizing tasks and tend not to be able to do more than one or two things at a time. In distress Dreamers shut down.
- Rebels are creative, spontaneous and playful. They react immediately to their environment and to people with strong likes and dislikes. Humor is their currency and they will work hard for teachers who encourage their creativity and include activities in each lesson that are fun. In distress Rebels blame others for everything that happens and may act out. They frequently are in trouble in school and head the list of students who get expelled. Many also drop out of school.
- Promoters act first without thinking and are motivated by challenges, action, and excitement. They are persuasive, adaptable and charming and may be Mr./Ms Popularity in class. They thrive in leadership positions and in the spotlight and like to make deals that make them look good to their peers. In distress they manipulate, con, ignore the rules and frequently get others in trouble (Kahler, 1991).

Although everyone is one of these six personality types, everyone has parts of all six in them. Kahler describes this as a six-floor condominium in which some floors are more fully developed than others. See Figure 1, next page.

Figure 1. Typical elementary school teacher



Research shows that most adults can access two or three of the parts of their personality fairly easily. Most children can access only one or two of their parts. (Pauley, Bradley, & Pauley, 2002). Because each of the types learns differently and is motivated differently, students who are like their teachers tend to do well in those teachers' classes. Those who are not like their teachers tend to have difficulty. See Figures 2 and 3, next page. Gilbert (2004) showed that many teachers have Reactor, Workaholic, and Persister as their most well developed parts. Consequently Workaholic, Persister and Reactor students tend to do well in school. Bailey (1998) found that teachers listed Rebels and Promoters and sometimes Dreamers as the students they had the most difficulty teaching. Because of the miscommunication between them and their teachers, Rebels and Promoters tend to be the students who frequently are in trouble in school. They also make up the highest percentage of dropouts. (Pauley & Pauley, 2006). It is no one's fault. Everyone is doing the best they can with what they have available to them at the time. The teachers are doing the best they can. The students are doing the best they can. That raises the question, how can everyone do better?

Kahler's model talks about three levels of distress – 1st degree, 2nd degree, and 3rd degree. The levels are of increasing intensity with first degree being the least intense and third degree being depression. They are sequential and observable once people understand the behaviors that are associated with each level. In keeping with the analogy of a condominium, Kahler describes these levels as a doorway (1st degree) that leads to a basement (2nd degree) and a cellar (3rd degree). Bullying behavior occurs when people are in 2nd degree distress, i.e. their basement. They get into their basements when their motivational needs are not met positively. Therefore, the key to getting people out of 2nd degree distress is to help them get their needs met positively. In order to stop bullying, therefore, teachers need to establish a personal relationship with each student by helping them get their needs met positively. If students feel they belong, they will not need to bully others in order to get negative attention.

The literature about bullying says that some people are always bullies, some are always victims and some people sometimes are bullies and sometimes are victims. How does this happen? In his research, Kahler found that two-thirds of the people in North America change their motivation at least once during their lifetimes as a result of sustained, severe distress caused by not getting their motivational needs met for a prolonged period of time. Kahler called this a phase change. When people experience a phase change they move to the next floor in their personality condominium and live there anywhere from two years to a lifetime. This is a complete life change, i.e. their motivation changes and their distress behaviors change. The concept of phase may explain why some people are victims some of the time and bullies at other times.

For example, Persisters and Workaholics attack people when in their basement of distress. If they are in distress they tend to be bullies. Rebels and Promoters blame and manipulate others when in their basement. They also tend to bully others. In his Drama Triangle, Karpman (1968) identified two roles for people in 2nd degree distress – Persecutors and Victims. Therefore, Persisters, Workaholics, Promoters, and Rebels are Persecutors and bully. Reactors and Dreamers are Victims. Kahler also found that in normal distress people show the distress sequence of their phase personality type and in severe distress, show the distress sequence of their base personality type. This explains how people sometimes may be bullies and sometimes victims. For example, a Reactor in a Workaholic phase may bully when in normal distress and may be a victim when in severe distress.

Research shows that students of all six types can do well in school when they are motivated according to their needs (Bradley, Pauley, & Pauley, 2006). A working knowledge of the concepts of Process Communication enables teachers to understand how to motivate each of their students so that they can build activities into their lesson plans that address the motivational needs of each type. To do so, teachers can ask themselves the following questions as they prepare their lesson plans and units.

1. Reactors need to know that people like them just because they are nice people. Therefore, teachers can ask themselves, “How can I provide personal recognition for the Reactor?”
2. Workaholics need to be recognized for their hard work and their accomplishments. They also need to know when things are due. Therefore, teachers can ask, “How can I give recognition for work and provide time structure for the Workaholic?”
3. Persisters need to be respected and have their opinions sought. They also need to know that what they are doing is meaningful. Therefore, teachers can ask, “How can I ensure that the task is meaningful for the Persister?”
4. Dreamers need their own private space and time to reflect. Therefore, teachers can ask, “How can I provide reflection time, space and structure for the Dreamer?”
5. Rebels need to be able to move around and have fun. Therefore, teachers can ask, “How can I make this fun for the Rebel?”
6. Promoters also need to be able to move around and they need action and excitement. Therefore, teachers can ask, “How can I incorporate action and a challenge for the Promoter?”

If teachers will do this, student motivation and academic achievement will improve and they will stop or, at least greatly reduce, their negative behaviors. As described in the examples below, this includes bullying. Knaupp, a professor at Arizona State University, said “We can give students what they deserve or what they need. If we give them what they need, they will deserve more” (Knaupp, 1990). Helping students get their motivational needs met positively in every class is the key to establishing relationships with them and reducing bullying and other disruptive behaviors. Indeed, it is the key to the success of every student.

Figure 2. Typical secondary school teacher

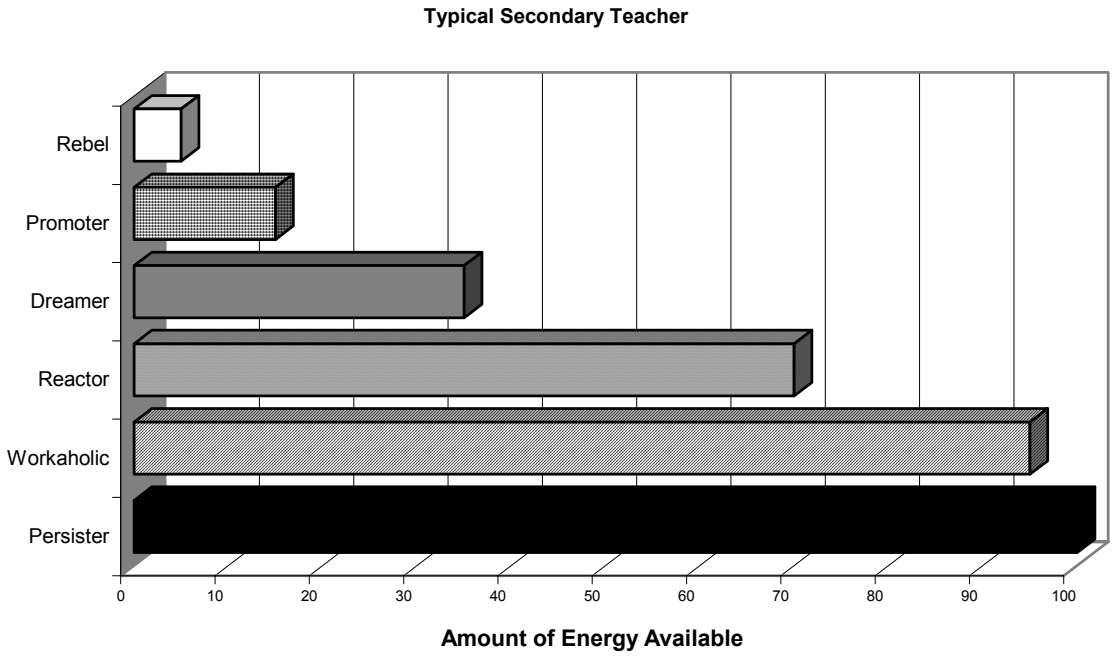
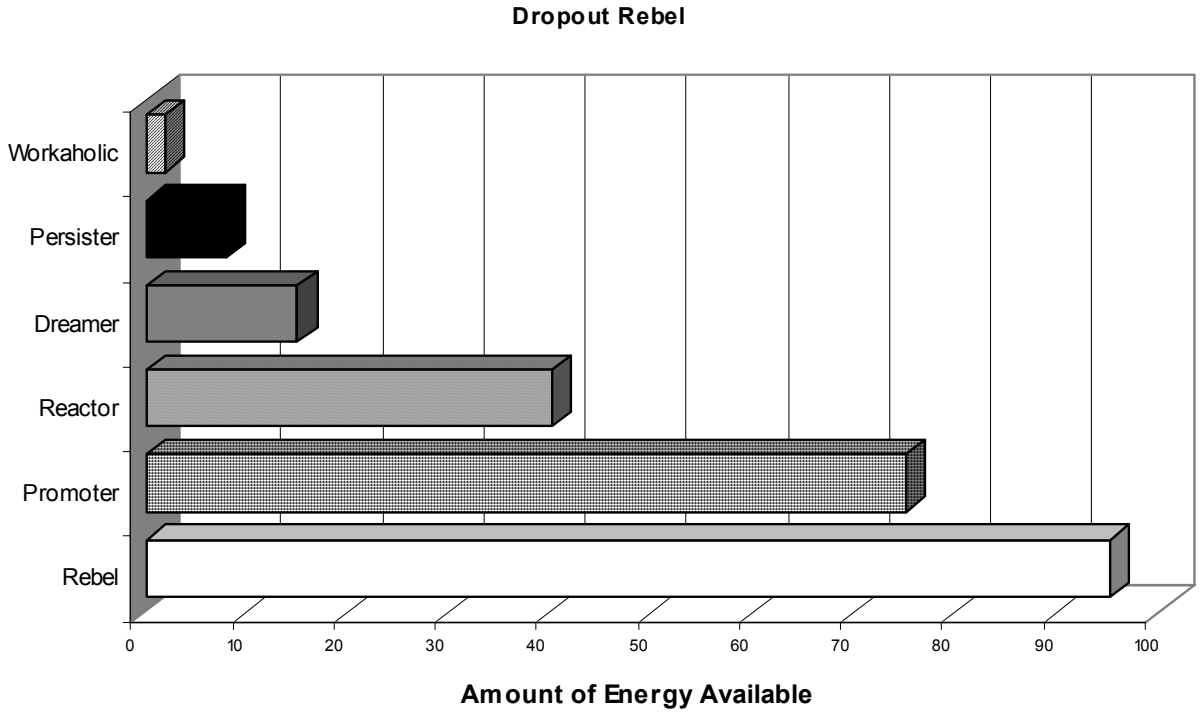


Figure 3. Typical dropout rebel



Program Summary and Findings

In their book, "Effective Classroom Management: Six Keys to Success," the authors have included 68 true stories from teachers all over the country demonstrating the impact of this approach. Shioji (2004) conducted a study in which she measured the impact of teaching style on student motivation in a population of low-achieving students in the Watts community of Los Angeles, an area with a high dropout population. She was a second year high school biology teacher. She had Reactor, Workaholic, and Persister well developed in her personality structure, but did not have much Rebel and Promoter energy. She was having an especially difficult time with one class and was discouraged because they were not motivated to learn and were out of control. Eleven of the students were Rebels, three were Promoters, three were Workaholics, two were Reactors, seven were Dreamers and 12 were Persisters. Shioji was working on her master's degree at UCLA and, after learning about the concepts of Process Communication, decided to take that class as the experimental group and her other physiology class as the control group. She designed her daily lesson plans to ensure there were elements that appealed to each personality type and incorporated a variety of activities into each class to appeal to each of the personality types. For example, she gave the class a variety of tasks, used group work and independent work, had the students use technology, gave each of the students individual "battery charges" for their needs several times in each class period, and brought a guest speaker in to speak to the class about the topics they were studying, thereby demonstrating the relevance of the material (Shioji 2004, p. 46). She also met each of the students in the experimental class one-on-one throughout the study. During these sessions, the students told her that they were more motivated to study and learn because she showed them she cared about them and because the guest speaker showed them they could use the information she was teaching them in their own lives. She increased the rigor of the content by using a college text for the course. Ironically, the students thought the material was easy because of their increased motivation (Shioji, 2004, p. 43).

Through pre- and post- testing, Shioji found that all six personality types in the experimental class showed an increase in motivation, every type's grade improved and all the bullying and other negative behaviors stopped. She taught her other physiology class the way she always taught. In that class there was no increase in motivation. No student's grade improved and by the end of the term, that class was out of control and many of the students were bullying others (Shioji, 2004). The following summer, Shioji attended a course taught by the authors at California State University at San Marcos to get more proficient in applying the concepts. The following year she applied the concepts in all of her classes with positive results. Because she was the only teacher reaching the students, she was promoted and made the Least Restrictive Environment Coordinator for the school. Her advisor at UCLA told the authors that she hoped Shioji would continue to teach in the inner city because "she has a knack for teaching inner city students"(Swanson, personal communication, 2006). According to Shioji, "the knack" was her ability to use the concepts of Process Communication (Shioji, personal communication, 2006).

This is true even in cases with students who have run afoul of the law and been placed in juvenile detention centers. The staff of the Ware Youth Center in Coushetta, Louisiana began using the concepts of Process Communication with their students in 2002. In the first eight months after they began applying the concepts, there was a 44 percent reduction in student incidents compared with the previous six months. In addition, only two students were expelled in that time compared with 14 in the previous six months. Also, every student's grades improved (Loftin, 2001). Since then, six members of the staff have been trained to administer the program and teach the concepts to the staff, the students, and to a lesser extent to the parents of the juveniles. The parents are required to come to the facility every week for meetings and training. The goal is for everyone to be reading off the same page in helping the juveniles adjust to society on their release – usually after six months. As a result of the program they have referred only one juvenile to a psychiatric hospital in the past two years. In addition, the recidivism rate is only 25 percent, the lowest in Louisiana. Because of the success they are enjoying, the Ware Youth Center has just been given responsibility for all the juvenile

detention programs in northern Louisiana, including the Swanson maximum-security facility. They have also been given responsibility for all female juveniles who have been adjudicated to the penal system and have just received a grant to construct a new building to house them (Ware, personal communication, 2007).

In Montgomery County, Maryland, a 15 year old who had been in trouble with the Office of Juvenile Justice since he was 12, was court ordered back to school as a condition of his release from detention. He did not want to return to school. He was disruptive in class and was abusive to his teachers and fellow students. He was placed in a school for students who were labeled severely emotionally disturbed. His bullying continued in every class. He refused to sit or do any work and he was failing every subject. His teacher heard about the concepts of Process Communication and, in desperation, began including activities in every class to help him get his needs met positively. To her surprise and delight, all the bullying stopped. He began doing his homework. His grades improved; and he became a model student and positive student leader. In short, he turned his life around because he was getting his needs met positively. Because his needs were being met positively, he had no need to do things to get them met negatively.

In Cecil County, Maryland, a sixth grade student (Promoter in a Rebel phase) was acting out in class and bullying his classmates. He was identified as being at risk and was enrolled in the Choice Middle School Program. The Choice Program got its name because judges give juveniles who run afoul of the law, a choice - go to jail or get in this program. The program was so successful that they decided to start a preventive program for middle school students who were identified as being at risk of getting involved in the juvenile justice system. The sixth grade team was about to expel the student. The Choice Program counselor suggested that the entire team be trained in the concepts of Process Communication. They were trained and began applying the concepts immediately. They began including activities in every class to help the student get his needs me positively. Immediately the bullying stopped, the student began doing his homework, and his grades improved.

In late January 1997, the authors returned to the school and asked the members of the sixth grade team how the student was doing. They replied that he had reverted to his old behaviors and again was bullying everyone. One of the trainers asked if they were doing anything differently. Silence. Then, almost in unison, the team members said that they had gone back to teaching the way they used to teach, proving the adage, “If you always do what you always did, you will always get what you always got”. They immediately began brainstorming to devise ways they could help the student get his needs met positively. The guidance counselor said that the student liked to write songs. Immediately the history teacher said he would have him write a song about what they were studying in history and sing it to the class. The English teacher said that she would have the class act out passages that they were reading and would make sure that the student had a chance to participate so that he would look good in front of his peers. She added that when they began to study poetry, she would show him how songs were really poems set to music. She then would have him write poems and set them to music. The other teachers on the team devised other creative ways to motivate him. The result? The bullying stopped; he began doing his schoolwork again; and his grades improved. At the end of the school year the principal offered to write an endorsement describing what happened.

Conclusions

This is what is possible when teachers (or mentors) establish positive relationships with students and help them get their motivational needs met positively. Bradley, a professor at the University of Maryland, has researched the over-representation of African American males in special education. The teachers and principals she interviewed for her study were aware of cases where students were placed in special education because of behavior problems that could have been avoided if their teachers had individualized instruction by including something in every lesson to help each student get their motivational needs met positively (Bradley, 2007).

Bradley compiled a list of cultural differences between the qualities in the Euro American culture that predominates in our school system and the African American culture. She found that African American students, especially boys, need movement, a strong appreciation for visual and performing arts, emotional expressiveness, a preference for oral communication, spontaneity, practice and experimentation. They also need to see the total context of the information being studied (Bradley, 2007). Ironically, these are the same traits that are common to Rebels and Promoters. If teachers include some of these activities in every lesson, will they be able to establish positive relationships with more students and help reduce bullying in school and close the achievement gap? Research by Bailey, Bradley, Gilbert, Pauley, Shioji and others indicates that this is exactly what is needed to reach every student and is the key to stopping school violence, raising student achievement, and closing the achievement gap.

Implications

If educators want to stop or greatly reduce bullying and increase the academic achievement of their students, then every educator should understand the concepts of Process Communication and be able to include something in every class to motivate and communicate with each student. How can this be done? Courses in the concepts can be taught in every education department and graduate education department in the country. In addition, school systems can include Process Communication as part of their staff development program and rate the teachers on their ability to apply the concepts in their annual evaluation reports. The Apache Junction Unified School District in Arizona has done this for the past 23 years. After the first three years, the number of students in trouble on any given day was reduced from 33 percent to less than 2 percent. The failure rate at the 7th and 8th grade level was reduced from 20 percent to less than 2 percent; student achievement at every grade level improved dramatically; graduation rates increased and students entering into post secondary training increased from less that 19 percent to more than 43 percent; employee turnover was reduced from 43 percent to less than 5 percent; and employee satisfaction and staff morale were at an all time high (Wright, personal communication, 1989). The school district continues to train their new teachers in the concepts of Process Communication every year. One of the teachers who took the training 20 years before said, “I have not had a single discipline problem since I took this course 20 years ago” (Farris, personal communication, 2003).

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CREATING SYNERGY FOR GANG PREVENTION: TAKING A LOOK AT ANIMAL FIGHTING AND GANGS

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Abstract

Animal fighting is one of many gang activities that threaten families and neighborhoods. Animal fighting, like drugs, gambling, weapons, and other violent behavior, is one manifestation of the same problem – gangs. Until recently, there have not been systematic and coordinated strategies by law enforcement bodies and other agencies responsible for gang prevention and animal fighting reduction. That is changing. Project SAFE, recently launched in Chicago, is based on the successful gang prevention models that identify members of the community in order to "interrupt" violent behavior before it starts. A combination of violence interruption, community mobilization, public education, criminal justice participation, and faith-based leader involvement, Project SAFE already has seen success in the Austin neighborhood of Chicago.

In addition to describing Project SAFE, this discussion details the empirical evidence for the link between animal fighting/cruelty with other crimes. Next, state and federal policies – introduced, recently signed into law, and established – that address gangs and animal fighting are described. Creating synergy between public agencies and private citizens concerned about gangs and animal fighting could, it is proposed, bring more resources to the problem and contribute to the safety of families and communities.

Introduction

The U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) established the National Youth Gang Center (NYGC) in response to the rapid increase in gangs and gang activity. The proliferation of gangs since 1980 has alarmed local government officials, law enforcement, and community organizations. Some have gone so far as to call the growth of gangs an epidemic (Maxson 1998).

Highlights of the National Youth Gang Survey (Egley & Ritz, 2006) reveal that in 1999, 25 percent of jurisdictions classified their gang problem as "getting worse," and in 2002, this number increased to 42 percent. In part, the growth of gangs seems to be associated with size of the community. Compared with the 1999-2001 survey period, in the 2002-2004 survey period, the average percentage of agencies that report gang problems was slightly higher in smaller and larger cities, and slightly lower in rural counties; in suburban counties the rates are unchanged.

Testifying on February 15, 2007, before the Subcommittee on Crime Terrorism and Homeland Security on Gang Violence, Paul A. Logli, State's Attorney of Winnebago County, Illinois and Chairman of the Board of the National District Attorney's Association emphasized that "numbers don't tell the full story" (Logli 2007, 2). He pointed out that law enforcement is seeing younger children recruited into gangs such as the 6-year-old child who claimed to be a member of a gang in Wichita, Kansas.

Like gangs, animal fighting is a serious and growing problem. Law enforcement recognizes that animal fighting is closely linked to gang activity. Superintendent of the Chicago Police, Philip Cline has reported that dog fighting is directly connected to the violent world of gangs, drugs and weapons. Reinforcing Superintendent Cline's observation, the Animal Crimes Unit of the Chicago Police Department conducted a statistical review of offenders arrested by the Chicago Police Department for the period of July 2001 through July 2004. They found that "when compared to offenders arrested for non-animal related offenses, persons who act violently toward animals are much more likely to carry and use firearms in the commission of other crimes, and are involved in the illegal narcotics trade. Further, a strikingly large percentage is members of criminal street gangs" (Degenhardt, 2005, p. 1). For example, 59 percent of offenders arrested for animal cruelty crimes either admitted or were established to be gang members; 70 percent of those arrested for animal crimes have also been arrested for other felonies.

The link between animal fighting and gangs can be seen in the recent arrest of a leading San Diego gang in October, 2006 (see http://www.sandiego.gov/police/about/media/pdf/061006.pdf):

> At the scene, officers seized five pit bulls being trained for dog fighting, cash, and narcotics. "The arrests have resulted in the dismantling of the leadership of one of the largest street gangs in southeastern San Diego," said San Diego Police Chief William Lansdowne (personal communication with Media Office, San Diego Police Department, August 14, 2007).

Another experienced law enforcement officer and street gang specialist, Scott Giacoppo of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, said that in many cases, a gang member's dogs are literally sitting on top of a stash of drugs hidden in the base of the dogs' cages. These same dogs are often used to intimidate neighborhood residents to keep them from going to the police (personal communication, August 12, 2007).

In Los Angeles, City Attorney Delgadillo initiated efforts to target gang members who used dogs to intimidate, harass, and assault Los Angeles residents and their pets. His strategy of amending existing gang injunctions is described in detail in the section on Changes in Federal, State, and Local Legislation, below.

The Larger Context: Gang Membership, Delinquent Behavior, and Animal Cruelty

What We Know About Gangs and Delinquency

We know that gang members account for a disproportionate share of delinquent acts, particularly the more serious offenses (Thornberry & Burch, 1997). We also know that gang membership has a greater association with delinquency than associating with delinquent peers (Pearson, Thornberry, Hawkins, & Krohn, 1998). The most serious offense, homicide, is linked to gang activity, especially in cities with populations of 100,000 or more. In addition, there has been relative stability in gang homicides from 1999 to 2001 at the same time that the overall numbers of homicides in cities with 100,000 or more fell dramatically (Egley, Howell, & Major, 2006).

In addition to the link to homicide, gang membership is linked to other violent offenses, including firearm use and drugs. One problem for accurate measurement is that more than half of reporting agencies do not record criminal offenses as "gang-related." Given that limitation of the agencies that regularly record offenses as gang-related, the types of criminal offenses most often recorded were violent crimes (85 percent), property offenses (75 percent), and drug offenses (74 percent) (Egley, Howell, & Major, 2006).

Delinquency, Other Deviant Behavior, and Animal Cruelty

Just as the lack of consistent reporting of "gang-related" offenses attenuates the tracking of these crimes, the tracking of animal cruelty crimes suffers a similar, and more serious, problem. Egregious acts of animal cruelty are a felony in 43 states and the District of Columbia. Dog fighting is illegal in all 50 states and the District of Columbia; 48 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands have made dog fighting a felony offense. There also is federal legislation that addresses animal fighting. However, animal cruelty/fighting are not assigned a separate category by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), so that when local and state police agencies report their crime statistics to the FBI, animal cruelty/fighting offenses fall into the category of "Other offenses," making them impossible to disaggregate and track. Until the FBI institutes a policy of assigning animal cruelty to a separate category in the agency's crime date reporting system, there is no way to obtain reliable data to track these crimes in a systematic fashion (Randour, 2004).

Despite the lack of national leadership in the collection of animal cruelty statistics, research in the last twenty years has confirmed a close link between animal abuse and family violence. Animal abuse has been determined to be an early marker of children at risk for continued delinquency and adult criminality.

It appears that there is an association between animal abuse and the development of aggressive and antisocial behavior in children. "The Pittsburgh Study," an ongoing longitudinal study of the causes and correlates of antisocial behavior, began in 1987. One finding from this study is that cruelty to people and animals was one of four factors associated with the persistence of aggressive and criminal behavior. Another important finding of this study was that the development of disruptive and delinquent behavior takes place in a progressive fashion (Kelley, Loeber, Keenan, & DeLamarate, 1997), emphasizing the importance of early identification of aggressive behavior.

Moreover, one of the first symptoms of conduct disorder often is cruelty to animals. In a meta-analytic review of the symptoms for conduct disorder, cruelty to animals was considered to be one of the earliest reported symptoms (at 6 years and 9 months of age) (Frick, et al 1993). In addition, children who are cruel to animals exhibit more severe conduct disorder problems than other children (Luk, Staiger, Wong & Mathai, 1999). Retrospective studies of incarcerated offenders, taken together, suggest that animal abuse is characteristic of the developmental histories of between one in four and nearly two in three violent adult offenders (Miller & Knutson, 1997; Schiff, Louw, & Ascione, 1999; Tingle et al. 1986).

Regarding animal cruelty and family violence, for example, an early study found that there was animal abuse in 88 percent of families who were under state supervision for the physical abuse of their children (DeViney, Dickert & Lockwood, 1983). Animals may be used by perpetrators to coerce children into silence. As noted by Davidson (1998), the threat of animal abuse to silence child sex abuse victims has been a factor in a number of criminal convictions. For example, courts in Maine and Idaho affirmed child sex abuse convictions, noting that the defendant had threatened, as well as actually killed, animals in front of the child victims.

A recent study of the ownership of high-risk dogs as a marker for deviant behavior demonstrates the importance of the link between animal cruelty and child abuse and neglect, as well as other crimes (Barnes, Boat, Putnam, Dates, & Mahlman, 2006). This study found the following:

> Owners of cited high-risk ("vicious") dogs had significantly more criminal convictions than owners of licenses of low-risk dogs….(suggesting) that the ownership of a high-risk…dog can be a significant marker for general deviance and should be an element considered when assessing risk for child endangerment" (p. 1,616).

State and national surveys of domestic violence victims consistently find that as many as 71 percent of battered women report that their male partners had threatened to or had, in fact, harmed or killed their pets

(Ascione, 1997). Another result from this study points clearly to the deleterious effect on children who witness animal abuse in families – 32 percent of the women with children reported that one of their children also had committed acts of animal cruelty. Other studies reinforce the findings that animal abuse often is a child's maladaptive response to witnessing domestic violence and that children exposed to domestic violence are at significantly increased risk for behavior problems (Baldry, 2003; Currie, 2006; Moss, 2003).

Of most significance, an authoritative research study found that animal cruelty was one of four predictors for engaging in intimate partner violence (IPV) (Walton-Moss, Manganello, Frye, & Campbell, 2005). The case-control study of 3,627 women and 845 controls was conducted from 1994 to 2000 in 11 USA metropolitan cities sought to identify risk factors for intimate partner violence. The finding that pet abuse was one of four risk factors identified with IPV supports the findings that animal cruelty may be an early indicator of aggressive and deviant behavior in childhood.

What We Need to Know

Researchers, practitioners, law enforcement, and policy makers must rely on sound empirical information in order to develop more effective interventions and reduce the problem of gangs and animal fighting. The systematic and universal reporting of gang-related activities by law enforcement would provide more reliable information about the nature and activities of gangs and allow for more comprehensive tracking.

Despite the established relationship between animal cruelty/fighting and gangs, family and other types of interpersonal violence, property crimes, substance and drug abuse, as well as the development of deviant behavior, including the most extreme one of serial killing, there is no national or state system designed to track these crimes. In the section on Changes in Federal, State, and Local Legislation below, the authors make legislative and policy recommendations that would address this gap.

Project SAFE: One Model for Linking Gang Prevention with Animal Fighting

Overview of Project SAFE and Its Goals

The central goal of Project SAFE: Stop Animal Fighting Everywhere is to develop a violence interruption program to penetrate neighborhoods most prone to dog fighting and change the behavior of those who engage in the crime. Working with The Humane Society of the United States, Tio Hardiman, Founder of Project SAFE, works with community members from targeted at-risk communities. Individuals from the community are hired and trained to develop relationships with community members, especially those members who are known to participate in deviant behavior, listen to the news on the street, and to intervene before violence occurs.

More than an information gathering operation, Project SAFE aims to recruit key individuals to carry the non-violence message to their peers and, by so doing, to change the "street code" in which violence is linked to enhanced status. One block at a time, "interrupters" take to the streets to break up dog fighting encounters. One person at a time, they challenge ingrained social perceptions.

Project SAFE has five major components:

1. Violence Interruption: Described earlier, the "violence interrupters" hired for their knowledge of the street, operate in the areas most prone to dog fighting – vacant lots, abandoned buildings, garages, alleys, and at the time when these fights more likely occur – on the weekend, in the evenings and late at night. "Persons of interest" to the violence interrupters are individuals who have a history of dog fighting and violence, as well as their networks and interrelationships. Just as importantly, they will

identify individuals who are at high risk of becoming involved in dog fighting, but have not yet done so.

2. Community Mobilization: In order to challenge and change the "street code" that violence is a tool to achieve prominence, the community mobilization effort seeks to involve residents, local businesses, service organizations and members of the faith community. A coalition of community members creates a prevention plan for animal fighting/gangs that is specific to each of their communities. In addition to the formal plan to identify methods and means to bring visibility to the problem, participants in the community use their informal social network, such as weekly community walks in the target area, obtaining data from the Chicago Police Department, identifying hot spots where dog fighting occurs, establishing a 24 hour phone line, identification of high risk youth who fight dogs and want to change, distribution of 500 public education materials weekly, and provide positive alternatives to reformed dog fighters, which often are the most effective in spreading the message that animal fighting and gangs have to end.

3. Faith-based leader involvement: Because of their leadership role in these communities, recruiting faith-based leaders to join Project SAFE is critical. These groups can provide an important forum, network, as well as the moral authority to challenge the existing acceptance of animal fighting and to change that.

4. Public Education: This facet of Project SAFE reinforces the goal of changing the street code by launching a "marketing" campaign intended to shift community attitudes away from acceptance of dog fighting. In brief, the goal is through public education, faith based leadership, and community mobilization to enlist an expanding group of community members who will reject animal fighting as an acceptable activity and will help those groups, law enforcement and community, trying to prevent it.

5. Criminal justice participation: Project SAFE has relationships with, and encourages cooperation between, courts and correction agencies and community agencies. In addition to joining the effort to educate the community, criminal justice authorities share data on target areas and individuals most likely to perpetrate violence against animals in this coordinated effort.

In addition to the above five components, Project SAFE uses information gained from focus groups of former dogfighters and young children conducted by the University of Chicago Lab to understand the appeal of dog fighting. With a more exacting knowledge of dog fighting's appeal to some, we can craft cultural messages that might stigmatize, rather than glamorize, dog fighting. Several focus groups have been conducted with Chicago Public School students and individual session with former dog fighters and want to be dog fighters. The ages range from 12- 28 years old.

Anticipated and Unanticipated Results

To date, Project SAFE has formed a viable coalition in the Austin Community that meets once a month to evaluate the programs progress. Project SAFE continues to gain support from new members joining every week to help in the efforts to stop dog fighting. Project SAFE never imagined that dog fighters were willing to help and stop dog fighting in the Austin area, yet staff have identified over 15 young men who want to participate in positive alternatives for their dogs.

What's Next

Project SAFE has been established, and will continue to build on the success described here. In addition to building relationships in the community to stop animal fighting, there are three major tasks to be accomplished: a) identify professional trainers to help retrain aggressive dogs; b) create school-based curriculum to educate the youth; and, c) rescue and find shelter for 30 pit bulls. All of the tasks accomplished and planned support the Project SAFE goal to reduce dog fighting in the Austin area by 30 percent in 2007.

Changes in Federal, State, and Local Legislation

Federal Legislation

U.S. Senate Bill 456, "Gang Abatement and Prevention Act of 2007," recently passed the Senate. On the House side, a similar bill, U.S. House of Representatives Bill 1582, will be introduced. In general, these bills are designed to enhance law enforcement resources for the successful investigation and prosecution of gangs, revise and enhance criminal penalties for violent crimes, and to expand and improve gang prevention programs. Among other things, it establishes a National Gang Research, Evaluation, and Policy Institute.

The U.S. Congress first prohibited the interstate and foreign commerce of animals for fighting 28 years ago. However, until recently, the USDA, the agency responsible for enforcement, has pursued only a handful of dog fighting and cockfighting cases. That may be changing. Recently the agency, as well as state and municipalities, have stepped up enforcement of animal fighting. Arrests have occurred in at least 14 states in recent months (see http://www.hsus.org/acf/campaign/animal_cruelty_and_fighting_campaign.html).

A major shift in attitudes toward animal fighting can be seen with the passage of a new federal law, the "Animal Fighting Prohibition Enforcement Act," which was signed into law by the president in May 2007. Designed to crack down on organized dog fighting and cockfighting, it provides felony-level penalties for interstate and foreign animal fighting activities, and outlaws commerce in cockfighting weapons.

Following the passage of the Animal Fighting Prohibition Enforcement Act, another federal bill to address animal fighting was introduced. H.R. 3219 and S. 1880, "The Dog Fighting Prohibition Act," would further strengthen federal animal fighting laws by making participation in dog fighting, including being a spectator at a dogfight and possessing dogs for the purpose of fighting, a federal felony, and would increase the maximum penalty from three years to five years in prison.

In addition to the above legislation, H.R. 2862, FY 2006 Science-State-Justice-Commerce Appropriations Bill, contained language to provide funding to the Joint County Gang Prevention Task Force, established by Montgomery County and Prince George's County, Maryland in 2004.

State and Local Legislation

As reported by the NYGC, gang-related legislation has been enacted in every region of the U.S. Like domestic violence, gang activity is not a separate crime category. Instead, local jurisdictions use curfew ordinances (62 percent), abatement ordinances and civil injunctions (12 percent) and firearm suppression (20 percent) (Egley, Howell, Major, 2006).

Actions taken by Los Angeles City Attorney Rocky Delgadillo demonstrate how prosecutors creatively apply existing laws to gang activities. Noting that "gangs – like any terrorist – don't always use conventional weapons," City Attorney Delgadillo launched a new effort to target Los Angeles gang members who misuse and abuse dogs. He noted that gang members use dogs to intimidate, harass, and assault L.A. residents and their pets.

Since 2001, the City Attorney in Los Angeles has increased the number of permanent gang injunctions from eight to 33, covering more than 50 gangs of nearly 11,000 gang members. They are thought to have played a key role in reducing gang-related crime by 13 percent over the last five years. Gang injunctions are civil lawsuits that result in court orders that prohibit members of the gang from engaging in activities that have been shown to contribute to gang activity, including associating with other gang members, trespassing on private property, and marking territory with gang graffiti within a specific Safety Zone.

The L.A. City Attorney's Office is examining the feasibility of amending gang injunctions and crafting a new Citywide ordinance that would allow law enforcement officials to seize dogs from the gang members found to be mistreating them or who have been used in the course of violating a gang injunction prohibition (Velasquez, 2007).

Over 70 percent of all states have enacted some form of legislation relating to gangs. A review of state legislation relevant to gangs shows the following:

- The types of gang-related legislation most frequently encountered pertained to enhanced penalties and sentencing for gang activities, drive-by shootings, graffiti, gang activity and forfeiture, and gang member recruitment.
- Legislation designed to address gang activity continues to evolve. In 1999, new categories of legislation specific to gangs included carjacking, expert testimony, law enforcement training, and school dress codes/uniforms.
- A number of states have enacted Street Gang Terrorism acts similar to the act established originally in Illinois. These states also seem to be heavily influenced by the Chicago area in terms of street gang culture.
- Public nuisance laws around the United States are increasingly noting gang activity as a factor in determining a nuisance. Indiana has defined real estate/dwellings as "psychologically affected property" if they are the location of criminal gang activity. This factor must be disclosed, by law, in real estate transactions.

Laws against animal fighting exist in every state (See Appendix). In 48 states, the animal fighting laws contain felony provisions and misdemeanors in two states. However, there are loopholes in these state laws that at times can make them difficult to investigate and prosecute. For example, in four states it is a misdemeanor to possess dogs for fighting and in three it is legal. Similarly, in 26 states it is a misdemeanor to be a spectator at a dogfight and it is legal to do so in two. Other recommendations to strengthen state animal fighting laws include making the possession of animal fighting paraphernalia a crime. As noted earlier, passage of S.B. 1880 and H.B. 3219 would close the loopholes in those states in which possessing or watching an animal fight is either legal or a misdemeanor.

In addition to the various state and federal laws that address animal fighting, as with gang prevention and suppression strategies, many communities across the United States are actively targeting dog fighting by coordinating local and regional dog fighting task forces.

Discussion

The trend at the state and federal level is to recognize the close association between animal fighting/cruelty and other crimes. Referring to the Law Enforcement National Data Exchange (N-DEx), the FBI's most recent crime date reporting system under development, the 108th U. S. Congress stated, "The Committee believes that N-DEx should be capable of reporting on the incidence of animal cruelty crimes." In addition, House Report 1008-576 – Departments of Commerce, Justice, and State, the Judiciary, and Related Agencies Appropriations Bill, Fiscal Year 2005, directed the Federal Bureau of Investigation "to provide a report to the

Committee on the advantages and disadvantages of adding animal cruelty crimes as a crime category in the Uniform Crime Report."

Similarly, federal legislation to address gang prevention and suppression has been introduced, having already passed the Senate. The proliferation of youth gangs since 1980 "has fueled the public's fear…" (Starbuck, Howell, & Lindquist, 2001). In 1996, the OJJDP inaugurated annual surveys to determine the trends of gang activities and the nature of gangs.

At the state and local level, gang prevention and animal fighting prevention efforts, such as the formation of task forces, are having success in influencing the creation of new laws and the enforcement of existing ones.

Despite these commendable efforts, the problems of gangs in our communities persist. The Humane Society of the United States estimates that animal fighting is more prevalent now than ever before. We believe that when there are similar manifestations of a problem, and overlapping goals in dealing with it – as there is in gang activity and animal fighting – it makes sense to join forces.

There are a number of practical ways in which this can happen. At the local level, there needs to be communication and collaboration between the law enforcement community responsible for addressing problems of gangs and those that target animal fighting. Joint task forces might be ideal, but this cooperation can begin at the informal level, as well.

Training law enforcement personnel assigned to gangs how to recognize animal fighting activities, including how to identify whether or not animals have been used in a fight, as well as the resources available to handle the animals would further their gang suppression goals.

Similarly, law enforcement working on the reduction of animal fighting should be trained how to identify signs of gang activity and how to make the most effective response.

Passage of federal legislation that deals with gang prevention would add another layer of resources to a national problem. Similarly, federal animal fighting legislation that closes loopholes in animal fighting statutes and encourages the aggressive enforcement of animal fighting laws would benefit animals and the communities in which those animals live.

Until the FBI includes animal cruelty as a separate category in its crime data reporting system, crimes of animal cruelty and animal fighting are not going to get the attention they deserve from law enforcement, public policy makers, and program planners. Animal cruelty crimes do not simply harm animals; they also can have a very real and direct effect on the children in those families, the community, and public health in general. If program planners, law enforcement, and policy makers do not have access to the most basic information about animal cruelty crimes, they are seriously disadvantaged at planning effective responses to these crimes and to the anti-social and deviant behaviors related to animal cruelty – family violence, juvenile delinquency, gangs, and other criminal behaviors.

Prosecutors frequently exhibit ingenuity by developing a case with laws not previously used in a particular manner. Certainly animal cruelty legislation has aided the prosecution of domestic violence cases – sometimes offering prosecutors the only tool to use as well as increasing the likelihood of a successful outcome and enhancing penalties.

Whether at the state or federal level, perhaps adding animal fighting to the definition of what constitutes gang activity would encourage cross fertilization and bring more resources to both problems.

Commenting on what is needed in gang prevention and reduction strategies, Spergel (1995) concluded that "new institutional cross-agency and cross-jurisdictional arrangements must evolve, and new policies and programs must be developed and then rigorously and widely tested, so that we will know what truly works and what does not." In that spirit, we hope that this presentation will provoke discussion and collaboration between those agencies charged with preventing and reducing gang violence and those that address animal fighting. Creative synergy between these two important groups could advance the protection of our families and communities.

Table 1. Dogfighting: State laws, updated July 2007

Dogfighting is illegal in all 50 states and the District of Columbia, and the interstate transportation of dogs for fighting purposes is prohibited by the federal Animal Welfare Act. 48 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands have made dogfighting a felony offense; 47 states, the District of Columbia, and the Virgin Islands prohibit the possession of dogs for fighting; and 48 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands prohibit being a spectator at a dogfight.

State	*Dogfighting: on the Law Books*	*Dogfighting: a Felony or a Misdemeanor*	*Loophole: Possession of Dogs for Fighting*	*Loophole: Being a Spectator at a Dogfight*
Alabama	§ 3-1-29	Felony	Felony	Felony
Alaska	§ 11.61.145	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Arizona	§ 13-2910.01 to 02	Felony	Felony	Felony
Arkansas	§ 5-62-120	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
California	§ 597.5	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Colorado	§ 18-9-204	Felony	Felony	Felony
Connecticut	§ 53-247	Felony	Felony	Felony
Delaware	§ 1326	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Florida	§ 828.122	Felony	Felony	Felony
Georgia	§ 16-12-37	Felony	**Legal**	**Legal**
Hawaii	§ 711-1109.3	Felony	Felony	**Legal**
Idaho	§ 25-3507	***Misdemeanor***	**Legal**	***Misdemeanor***
Illinois	510 ILCS 5/26-5	Felony	Felony	Felony[1]
Indiana	§ 35-46-3-4 to 9.5	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Iowa	§ 717D.1 to 6	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Kansas	§ 21-4315	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Kentucky	§ 525.125 to 130	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Louisiana	14:102.5	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Maine[2]	17 MRS §1033	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Maryland	Art. 27 § 59	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Massachusetts	Ch. 272 § 94 to 95	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Michigan	§ 28.244	Felony	Felony	Felony
Minnesota	§ 343.31	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Mississippi	§ 97-41-19	Felony	Felony	Felony

Missouri	§ 578.025	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Montana	§ 45-8-210	Felony	Felony	Felony
Nebraska	§ 28-1005	Felony	Felony	Felony
Nevada	§ 574.070	Felony	**Legal**	Felony[1]
New Hampshire	§ 644:8-a	Felony	Felony	Felony
New Jersey[2]	§ 4:22-24	Felony	Felony	Felony
New Mexico	§ 30-18-9	Felony	Felony	Felony
New York	Agr & M § 351	Felony	***Misdemeanor***	***Misdemeanor***
North Carolina	§ 14-362.2	Felony	Felony	Felony
North Dakota	§ 36-21.1-07	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Ohio	§ 955.15 to 16	Felony	Felony	Felony
Oklahoma	21 § 1694 to 1699.1	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Oregon	§ 167.365	Felony	Felony	Felony[3]
Pennsylvania	18 Pa.C.S. § 5511	Felony	Felony	Felony
Rhode Island	§ 4-1-9 to 13	Felony	Felony	Felony
South Carolina	§ 16-27-10 to 80	Felony	Felony	Felony[1]
South Dakota	§ 40-1-9 to 10.1	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Tennessee	§ 39-14-203	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Texas	§ 42.10	Felony	***Misdemeanor***	***Misdemeanor***
Utah	§ 76-9-301.1	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Vermont	13 VSA § 352	Felony	Felony	Felony
Virginia	§ 3.1-796.124	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Washington	§ 16.52.117	Felony	Felony	Felony
West Virginia	§ 61-8-19 to 19a	Felony	***Misdemeanor***	***Misdemeanor***
Wisconsin	§ 951.08	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
Wyoming	§ 6-3-203	***Misdemeanor***	***Misdemeanor***	***Misdemeanor***
		48 Felony 2 Misdemeanor	43 Felony 4 Misdemeanor 3 Legal	22 Felony 26 Misdemeanor 2 Legal
Washington, DC	Ch. 106	Felony	Felony	***Misdemeanor***
American Samoa		**Legal**	**Legal**	**Legal**
Guam	§ 34205	**Violation**	**Legal**	**Legal**
Puerto Rico	15 LPRA § 235	Felony	**Legal**	***Misdemeanor***

[1] A repeated offense can trigger a felony prosecution.
[2] These states do not have felony or misdemeanor offenses per se, but rather have felony and misdemeanor equivalent penalties.
[3] Dogfighting paraphernalia also illegal.
Source: Fact Sheet, Updated July 2007, The Humane Society of the United States.

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GIRLS CIRCLE NATIONAL RESEARCH PROJECT: EVALUATION RESULTS YEAR ONE [1]

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[a] Ceres Policy Research

Abstract

Girls Circle is a model of structured support groups promoting healthy relationships and lifestyles for adolescent girls. Ceres Policy Research conducted an evaluation of 15 Girls Circle programs across the country in juvenile justice, school, and community settings, with completed surveys from 278 girls. Girls Circle facilitators administered pre- and post-participation surveys measuring the expected short- and long-term outcomes for girls completing 8-12 week programs. Statistical analysis of the data, completed by Ceres, found that participants reported gains in six of twelve short-term skills. Participants also reported statistically significant improvements in: (1) a decrease in self-harming behavior, (2) a decrease in alcohol use, (3) an increase in attachment to school, and (4) an increase in self-efficacy. Looking across different sub-populations of respondents, most girls benefited equally from participating in Girls Circle.

Girls in Juvenile Justice System

For the last 30 years, researchers have focused on the ways gender might shape different academic and social outcomes for girls and boys. Beginning in the 1970's and continuing into the 1990's, researchers focused on gender differences in academic achievement. The early education literature in this area initially found that girls exhibited higher verbal skills that led to higher grades and test scores in English. This same literature found that boys exhibited higher visual-spatial and computational skills that led to higher grades and test scores in mathematics. Further research found that, while these differences continued to be statistically significant, they diminished by 1990 (Vogel 1990; Hyde, Fennema, & Lamon 1990). Nonetheless, interest in gender differences in academic achievement continues.

More recently, researchers have become interested in differential delinquency patterns. A particular interest in girls within the juvenile justice system began as arrest rates for girls rose 103 percent between 1981 and 1997 while the arrest rates for boys only rose 27 percent (Acoca & Dedel 1998). Detailed analysis of juvenile justice data found that girls were being arrested and detained for different reasons than boys. Boys are more likely to be arrested and detained for violent offenses. Girls, in contrast, are most often detained for technical violations, theft, or drug and alcohol related offenses. Girls in many jurisdictions are also more likely to be held in detention for prostitution. In addition, judges sometimes decide to hold girls in detention to protect them from domestic violence, which is not the case for adolescent boys (Sherman 2005).

In addition, researchers began to uncover the reasons for these differential delinquency patterns. Girls involved in the juvenile justice system diverge from their male counterparts in how they handle stress and

[1] This is a bonus paper. During the conference, Beth Hossfeld and Kitty Tyrol will present a workshop on Girls Circle: Promoting Resiliency in Girls through Gender Responsive Groups.

trauma. They internalize traumatic experiences that can manifest as depression, self-harming behavior, and substance abuse.

With different emotional and social patterns, girls benefit from gender-specific programming. This paper reports the findings from an evaluation of one gender-specific program, Girls Circle.

The Girls Circle Program

Girls Circle Association (Girls Circle) was founded in 1996 as a support system to help young girls make healthy decisions. Girls Circle is a research-based model that encourages girls to be themselves within a structured support group. Girls Circle developed nine separate activity guides to be implemented within these support groups that represent unique 8-12 week programs organized around themes of friendship; being a girl, body image; diversity; connections between the mind, body and spirit; expressing individuality; relationships with peers; identity; and paths to the future.

Girls Circle groups are held weekly in most cases and last approximately an hour and a half. The groups are led by women trained to implement the Girls Circle guidelines, which involve giving each girl a turn to speak without being interrupted and ensuring a safe and confidential space. The structure helps foster respect in the young girls for themselves and for each other. The group offers them an opportunity to express themselves using journaling, poetry writing, acting, role playing, drawing, working with clay, and/or dancing. The mission of Girls Circles is to instill self-confidence and improve girls' interpersonal relationships. The expectation is that these improved relationships will, in turn, improve girls' current lives as well as their futures.

Girls Circle has trained over 500 organizations nationally on their model of support groups. As a result, Girls Circle programs have been implemented with girls representing many socio-economic groups, geographical areas, ethnic identities, religions, and sexual orientations.

Research Design

Ceres Policy Research worked with Girls Circle to design a pre- and post-participation survey that would reflect a range of short- and long- term outcomes. The survey also measured the self-efficacy of the girls before and after the program and rated their satisfaction at the groups' closing. Ceres also incorporated a number of demographic questions as well as questions about detention history, history in the child welfare system, and school engagement. All sections were designed to measure outcomes for all participants as well as different subgroups within the population. In this way, Ceres could explore whether some subgroups benefit more than others from participation in the groups.

The authors collected 278 surveys from 15 national sites in 19 cities that hosted Girls Circles. These cities include Mansfield and Magnolia in Arkansas; Cortez and Longmont in Colorado; La Grande, Umatilla, Hermiston, Pendleton, Milton, and Albany in Oregon; Santa Rosa, California; Phoenix, Arizona; Fallon, Nevada; Tampa, Florida; Columbia, South Carolina; St. Louis, Missouri; Manchester, New Hampshire; Rathdrum, Idaho; and Honolulu, Hawaii.

All participating groups followed the Girls Circle format. Each group used Girls Circle curricula. Study groups selected units from all nine activity guides according the interests and needs of their respective groups. Twenty-nine percent of the circles were 8 weeks long, 24 percent of the circles were 10 weeks long, 18 percent of the circles were 12 weeks long, and 20 percent of the circles were 14 weeks or longer.

Each organization distributed and collected pre- and post-surveys. These organizations then entered the data into the database created by the evaluators and sent the completed databases back to the evaluators for analysis.

Data Analyses

Ceres Policy Research analyzed the surveys from the Girls Circle groups. The evaluators relied on three statistical tests. The evaluators used a t-test to determine whether variables changed over time for the girls in the circles. The evaluators used analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine differences between subpopulations of girls. If more than one variable appeared to be shaping an outcome, the evaluators used regression analyses to sort out which variables were shaping the outcomes.

Findings from these tests were considered "statistically significant" when there was a 95 percent likelihood that change occurred over time ($p \leq .05$), that the groups were different, or that particular variables shaped an outcome. The statistically significant results are reported below (see Girls' Outcomes below).

Demographics of Girls

The girls varied by race, age, sexuality, and languages spoken. They also varied in how many children they had, those who had been suspended and expelled, and those who had experience with home removal, in detention or in the foster youth system. Demographic details about respondents are provided below:

- The girls were 52 percent white, 17 percent were African American, 16 percent were Latina, 4 percent were Native American, 3 percent were Asian, 7 percent were other.
- Twenty-nine percent of the girls fell between 10-13 years of age and 71 percent were 14 to 18 years old.
- The majority of the girls identified as heterosexual (81 percent), 9 percent were bisexual, 1 percent identified as lesbian/gay, and 1 (0.4 percent) participant was transgender; 3 percent were unsure.
- Sixteen percent of the girls were bilingual, Spanish/English speakers, 7 percent were bilingual in English and another language, and 73 percent spoke English only; 4 percent were other.
- Ninety-two percent of the girls did not have children, while 6 percent had 1 child, 1 respondent had 2 children (0.4 percent), and 1 respondent had 3 children (0.4 percent).
- Fifty percent of the girls had never been suspended from school, while 79 percent had never been expelled; 45 percent of the girls had one or more experience(s) with running away.
- Over half (67 percent) of the girls had not been removed from their home while 28 percent had experienced home removal.
- More than one in four (26 percent) of the girls had been in foster care or been placed in a group home and 42 percent had been held in juvenile detention or another secure facility.
- Almost three-quarters (73 percent) of the girls reported that they attend school regularly and 61 percent reported that they complete homework regularly.
- Over half (57 percent) of the participants talk to parents or other family members about what is happening in their life.
- Sixty percent of Girls Circle participants were involved in some form of community activity in the last year.

Girls' Outcomes

The Girls Circle survey has four outcomes sections: skills acquired after Girls Circle participation; a section to measure long-term effects of Girls Circle; a section to measure changes in self-efficacy; and a section to measure girls' overall satisfaction with Girls Circle.

Short-term Skills

T-tests were run to see if there was a change of skills for girls after participating in Girls Circle. That is, the evaluators wanted to determine whether there was a change between the pre-participation survey and the post-participation survey.

The results of these tests are reported in Table 1. The first column reports the question number. The second column reports the survey question. The third column reports whether the t-test was significant. Significance levels are reported if the test was significant. The evaluators report "ns," or "not significant," if the test was not significant. The evaluators report "as," or approaching significant," if the test was close to being significant (a significance level between 0.05 and 0.10).

Table 1. Skills acquired after Girls Circle participation

Question Number	Survey question	Significance Level
B1	When I meet a new person, I find things that we have in common.	$p \leq 0.03$
B2	I try to see beyond girls' reputations.	as
B3	I use my words to express my feelings.	ns
B4	I tell adults what I need.	$p \leq 0.00$
B5	I feel good about my body.	ns
B6	I forgive myself when I make a mistake.	$p \leq 0.01$
B7	I pick close girlfriends and boyfriends who treat me the way I want to be treated.	$p \leq 0.03$
B8	I tell people how much they mean to me.	$p \leq 0.01$
B9	I treat girls who are NOT my friends with respect.	ns
B10	I am proud to be a girl/young woman.	ns
B11	When I make a decision, I think about all of my options.	ns
B12	When I'm mad at someone, I try to talk things out.	ns

Analysis of variance tests and regression analyses were also run to see if there were any subgroups among the participants that had different rates of improvement than others.

There were very few differences across subpopulations of girls. This indicates that most groups of girls benefit equally from participating in Girls Circle. We did find that girls held in juvenile detention, residential treatment or another secure facility did improve, but not as much as girls who had never had these experiences.

Long-term Effects

T-tests were run to see if girls achieved the anticipated long-term outcomes of Girls Circle participation. The results from these tests are reported in Table 2. The first column reports the question number. The second column reports the survey question. The third column reports whether the t-test was significant. Significance levels are reported if the test was significant. The evaluators report "ns," or "not significant," if the test was not significant. The evaluators report "as," or "approaching significant," if the test was close to being significant (a significance level between 0.05 and 0.10).

Table 2. Long-term effects of participation in Girls Circle

Question Number	Survey question	Significance Level
C1	I like school.	$p \leq 0.05$
C2	I participate in a sport, activity, or hobby that I love.	ns
C3	I try to take care of my emotions and body.	ns
C4a	I make my own decisions about if or when to have sex.	ns
C4b	I make my own decisions about if or when to drink or use drugs.	ns
C5	I use protection if I have sex.	ns
C6	I eat healthy food.	$p \leq 0.01$
C7	I don't hurt my body when I'm upset.	$p \leq 0.02$
C8	I don't drink.	$p \leq 0.02$
C9	If I drink, I don't get drunk.	$p \leq 0.02$
C10	I build relationships with adults who help me with my goals.	ns

Analysis of variance and regression tests were run to determine which subgroups improved in relationship to each other and at what magnitude.

There were very few differences across sub-populations of girls. This indicates that most groups of girls benefit equally from participating in Girls Circle. We did find that LGBT youth like school more after being in Girls Circle, but not as much as heterosexual youth.

Self-efficacy

A t-test was run to see if there were changes in participants' self-efficacy (Schwarzer & Scholz, 2000). Girls' self-efficacy did improve overall ($p \leq 0.02$).

Analysis of variance tests and regression analyses were run to determine if subgroups had different patterns of increased self-efficacy. A number of subpopulations experienced differences in self-efficacy gains:

- LGBT girls experienced a larger increase in self-efficacy than heterosexual girls.

- Girls of color experienced gains in self-efficacy, but not as much as white girls.
- Girls with no children and those who were mothers experienced gains, while pregnant girls experienced a decrease in self-efficacy.
- Girls who had been suspended experienced a gain in self-efficacy, but not as much as girls who had never been suspended.
- Girls that who had been held in detention, been placed in residential treatment or another secure facility experienced a gain in self-efficacy, but not as much as girls who had never been held institutionally.

Participant Satisfaction

In the final section of the survey, girls were asked to report on their experiences. They were provided a set of questions and asked to circle "1" if the statement is never true; "2" if the statement is sometimes true; "3" if the statement is usually true; or "4" if the statement is always true. Participants' responses are reported in Table 3. The first column reports the survey question number. The second column reports the survey question. The third column reports the average response.

Table 3. Participant satisfaction

Question Number	Survey question	Mean
E1	I could share what I was thinking in Girls Circle.	3.2
E2	I could ask Girls Circle leaders for help.	3.4
E3	Everyone supported me when I made decisions about my life in Girls Circle.	3.2
E4	Everyone respected me in Girls Circle.	3.4
E5	Girls Circle leaders focus on what I'm good at.	3.5
E6	Girls Circle is fun.	3.5
E7	No one shares others' secrets in Girls Circle.	3.2

On average, girls gave their circles and facilitators high scores. Girls felt that all of the statements were somewhere between "usually true" and "always true."

In addition, girls were asked a series of open-ended questions. The evaluators report the five most common answers to each of the questions below.

When asked, "What have you learned about yourself since starting Girls Circle?"

- 17 percent of the girls reported that they learned respect for themselves and their bodies;
- 10 percent learned that they can be open and still be respected;
- 9 percent gained self-esteem, confidence, and independence;
- 5 percent reported that they learned nothing; and
- 3 percent said they learned self-awareness.

When asked, "What have you learned about the other girls in Girls Circle?"

- 22 percent reported that they have a lot in common with them;
- 18 percent reported that they thought the other girls were sweet, friendly, and strong;
- 7 percent learned that they are all different and unique;
- 3 percent learned other girls have difficulties in life at times surpassing their own hardships; and
- 5 percent reported that they didn't know.

When asked, "What have you learned about relationships from Girls Circle?"

- 5 percent of girls reported that they learned that they bring happiness to other people and that they are important from being in Girls Circle;
- 5 percent learned that they are difficult for other people to handle;
- 4 percent realized that they are the decision makers in the own lives;
- 4 percent learned about trust and honesty in relationships; and
- 3 percent said they learned nothing about relationships.

When asked, "Have you changed in any way from being a part of Girls Circle?"

- 21 percent of the participating girls report that they had changed in a good way after being a part of Girls Circle;
- 14 percent reported they didn't learn anything;
- 5 percent said that they became more open and talkative:
- 5 percent reported that they learned to be nice and respectful to others; and
- 4 percent reported that their attitude in general changed as a result of being in Girls Circle.

Finally, girls were asked seven questions that measure the quality of the circles and their facilitators. They were provided a set of questions and asked to circle "1" if the statement is never true, "2" if the statement is sometimes true, "3" if the statement us usually true, or "4" if the statement is always true. On average, girls rated each question between "usually true" and "always true." This indicates that girls were very satisfied with the circles and their facilitators.

Conclusions

Girls Circle participants reported an increase in six skills developed over the short-term:

- Finding things they have in common with a new person;
- Trying to see beyond girls' reputations;
- Telling adults what they need;
- Feeling good about their body;
- Picking friends that treat them the way they want to be treated; and
- Telling people how much they mean to them.

Participants also reported an increase for four long-term outcomes:

- A decrease in self-harming behavior;
- A decrease in rates of Alcohol use;
- An increase in attachment to school; and
- An increase in Self-efficacy.

When looking at differences across subgroups, there were very few differences across sub-populations of girls. This indicates that most groups of girls benefit equally from participating in Girls Circle. Two subgroups had more than one statistically significant difference: LGBT Girls and Girls Held in Juvenile Detention, Residential Treatment, or Another Secure Facility.

LGBT Girls

LGBT girls experienced a larger gain in self-efficacy compared with heterosexual girls. In addition, LGBT girls like school more after being in Girls Circle, but not as much as heterosexual girls.

Girls Held in Juvenile Detention, Residential Treatment, or Another Secure Facility

Girls who had been held in a secure facility are experiencing gains in short-term skills, but not as much as girls who had never been held in a secure facility. These girls are also experiencing gains in self-efficacy, but not as much as girls who had never been held in a secure facility.

Implications

There were very few differences found for girls who participated in Girls Circle suggesting that it is a promising model for girls in multiple locations (i.e. urban, suburban, rural); in multiple settings (i.e. juvenile justice, education, after-school care); for different lengths of time (i.e. 8-week, 10-week, 12-week, and 14-week cycles); and across different demographic sub-groups (i.e. ethnic/racial identity, sexual identity, age). Moreover, these findings suggest that the Girls Circle model is particularly flexible, as facilitators may choose from the full range of activity guides and obtain the same outcomes for girls participating in circles. Implications for foster youth, LGBT youth, girls who have been suspended and expelled, and girls who have been held in a secure facility are described in more detail below.

Girls in Foster Care & Group Home

There were no differences found between girls who had experience with being a foster youth or living in a group home and those who had not. Girls who had been in foster care or lived in a group home showed the same gains in short-term skills, self-efficacy, and long-term skills when compared with girls who hadn't experienced foster care or group home settings. These outcomes suggest that Girls Circle is a very promising model for girls involved in foster care and group home settings.

LGBT Girls

There were very few differences between LGBT and heterosexual girls. LGBT girls had greater gains in self-efficacy than did heterosexual girls. LGBT girls also reported liking school more after being in Girls Circle, but not as much as heterosexual girls. This suggests that LGBT youth have the potential to gain in long-term life skills and to improve how they feel about themselves from participating in the circles. In order to understand the differences in rates of improvement between these girls, interviews should be conducted with Girls Circle participants. These outcomes suggest Girls Circle is a promising model for organizations providing direct services to girls who are LGBT identified.

Girls Expelled or Suspended

There were few differences between girls who had been suspended and expelled and those who hadn't. Girls that had been expelled did not show differences in short-term skills, long-term skills, or in self-efficacy. Girls that had been suspended did experience a gain in self-efficacy but not as much as girls who had never been suspended. In order to understand the differences in rates of increase in self-efficacy, interviews with Girls

Circle participants are recommended. Interviews are also recommended to understand the reasons why no differences were found between girls who had been expelled and those who hadn't. Overall, these outcomes suggest that the Girls Circle is a promising model to use when working with girls who have been suspended and/or expelled.

Girls Held in Juvenile Detention, Residential Treatment, or Another Secure Facility

There were also very few differences among girls who had been held in a secure facility such as juvenile detention and those who had not. Girls with experience being in a secure facility reported that they are gaining in short-term skills but not as much as girls who hadn't been detained in a secure facility. These girls are also gaining in self-efficacy but not as much as girls who hadn't been detained in a secure facility. These outcomes suggest that girls in detention have special needs regarding short-term skills and self-efficacy. Interviews with Girls Circle participants are recommended to understand the differences. Overall, the outcomes suggest that Girls Circle is a promising model to use with girls who have had experience in a secure facility.

Future Research Directions

The next phase of the Girls Circle evaluation project will take two different directions. Ceres Policy Research will be conducting qualitative interviews and/or focus groups with girls who are participating in circles to better understand the experiences of girls in juvenile justice settings. We will also expand our quantitative analysis of outcomes for girls in juvenile justice and school settings. By collecting administrative data on recidivism, suspension, expulsion, and other disciplinary processes, we will explore the relationship between Girls Circle participation and girls' paths within disciplining institutions.

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CRIME PREVENTION THROUGH ENVIRONMENTAL DESIGN AND SECURITY TECHNOLOGY FOR SCHOOLS [1]

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Introduction

The physical structure of a school should be both safe and inviting. Children who feel safe are both psychologically and physiologically more receptive to learning. Most schools will never experience a shooting, but they will very likely have to deal with bullying, custody battles, drug dealing, gang activity, theft or extreme weather. Often, changes to the physical structure can help mitigate these types of problems, but determining what changes to make can be complicated. A comprehensive examination of site weaknesses must occur before an effective solution can be put in place. Such a broad examination falls under the field known as Crime Prevention through Environmental Design (CPTED). CPTED is the broad study and design of environments to encourage desirable behavior, heighten functionality and decrease antisocial behavior. Fundamental CPTED emphasizes physical design, while advanced, or "second generation" CPTED, addresses the affective, psychological and sociological environment. This guide emphasizes CPTED fundamentals.

Basic Concepts

Fundamental CPTED is built on natural surveillance, natural access control and territoriality. Natural surveillance is the capacity to see what's occurring without having to take special measures. Natural access control is the capacity to limit who can gain entry to a facility, and how. Territoriality is the capacity to establish authority over an environment, clarifying who is in charge, who belongs, and who is trespassing.

CPTED Planning: Key Questions

Although the fine details of safe school planning can become overwhelmingly complex, an excellent framework to start with can draw on the following eight questions:

1. What risks and opportunities do students encounter between home and school?
2. What risks and opportunities are posed in areas directly adjoining school property?
3. Can office staff observe approaching visitors before they reach the school entry?
4. Do staff members have the physical ability to stop visitors from entering?
5. How well can people see what's going on inside the school?
6. Do staff members have immediate lockdown capability in classrooms and other locations?
7. Is the overall school climate pro-social?
8. Are there identifiable or predictable trouble spots or high risk locations?

These questions are addressed in greater detail below:

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1. What risks and opportunities do students encounter between home and school? Regardless of school climate and architecture, if students traverse war zones to reach school, they are in danger. Even after reaching safe schools, high states of anxiety can compromise students' ability to learn.

Solutions

Provide students with safe routes to school. Arrange for trustworthy neighbors, volunteers, parents or police officers to provide a presence along the way, and to extend themselves to children in distress. Businesses and residents can work with police in establishing safe havens along the route into which children can retreat when they feel threatened, and where help is readily available.

2. What risks and opportunities are posed in areas directly adjoining school property? An offender looking for child victims can predict accessibility at these locations. Drug or alcohol outlets anywhere near a school increase the likelihood of substance-abuse fueled antisocial behavior.

Solutions

Build partnerships with neighbors. Neighbors are positioned to serve as critical eyes and ears for a school. Open up areas hidden from view. No security service can compete in terms of providing a continual presence, as well as in commitment to the neighborhood. Attend to conflicts. Ignoring a problem because it is technically off campus is short-sighted.

3. Can office staff observe approaching visitors before they reach the school entry? The office is the screening tool for most schools, expected to evaluate and direct visitors, bar undesirables, placate the disgruntled and generally solve problems. Most offices are poorly-sited to fulfill these roles.

Solutions

The office and window locations, reception desk and counter layout should give the receptionist wide views of the entry area, inside and outside.

4. Do staff members have the physical ability to stop visitors from entering? Even if staff can see intruders approaching, can they really do anything about it? Are the doors already locked as a matter of course once school starts? How quickly and easily can staff lock all entries? Can staff protect themselves as well as the student body, or are they simply set up to be the first victims?

Solutions

Strengthen the receptionist's ability to detect and stop potential offenders as follows:

- Secure all secondary entries making them alarmed emergency exits. This obliges all visitors to use the main entry. Electronic controls governing the front door empower the receptionist to immediately lock doors against a threat. Communication devices should make it possible to alert the entire school that a lockdown is in place.
- An entry vestibule could be added, adjacent to the main office. When visitors enter an entry vestibule, they physically cannot proceed further until cleared by the receptionist who controls all adjacent doors electronically.

5. How well can people see what's going on inside? Blind corners, alcoves and stairwells provide "cover," or hidden areas, for misbehavior.

Solutions

Provide direct, natural surveillance. Staff should be able to look up and see the source of a noise directly through openings or windows, or, indirectly, through mirrors or cameras.

6. Do staff members have immediate lockdown capability in classrooms and other locations? For every indoor location, how do people call for help, make themselves safe, or protect students? Any room might have to serve as a haven during a crisis. Unfortunately, most would be very difficult to lock down, and

only some have reliable communication devices. Most rooms will have outward opening doors. If the door is standing open during an emergency, a teacher will have to reach out into the hallway – which could be a dangerous location, with bullets flying – to pull the door closed. Even worse, she may have to insert a key on the outer, hallway side in order to lock the door. That means she will have to step into the hallway, extract a key ring, find the correct key and insert it into the lock – possibly while shots are being fired.

Entrapment is also a risk. If an intruder blocks the classroom door, students will need a secondary escape route.

Solutions

- Every room should be evaluated as a potential safe haven. It should be possible to easily lock the door during a crisis without entering a danger zone.
- Each room should contain a reliable communication device. The office needs the ability to tell everyone, immediately, to lock down, relocate or evacuate.
- Each location in the school will provide unique opportunities and challenges as safe havens. Hallways are sometimes too vulnerable to internal threats, in which case students will be better off retreating to a more enclosable space. Libraries can serve well only if securable, with thick furniture and piles of books offering protection. Gymnasiums rarely have communication devices in them or quick means by which to secure doors. Panic-bars are usually secured with hex keys, and only one or two staff members usually carry these keys. Solutions include wider distribution of the key (and practice using it) or retrofitting the panic-bars with conventional keys on the inside. Each room should be examined to determine where best to "take cover," or hide from flying bullets.
- Escape routes also have to be considered, using emergency doors or windows.

7. Is the overall school climate pro-social? The dangers of an anti-social school climate far outweigh the benefits of a pro-social physical environment. In the extreme, a highly secure but affectively toxic school resembles nothing more than a prison.

Solutions

Establish an overall pro-social behavior management plan for the school. Have a clear flow chart of preventive actions, crisis intervention and remediation that staff can easily follow. If the same concepts are taught to all staff and students, they are more likely to be accepted and followed. If staff all know their responsibilities when misbehavior arises, problems are less likely to fall through the cracks or escalate into larger crises.

8. Are there identifiable or predictable trouble spots or high risk locations? Students often identify the entrance, any hallway or stairs, parts of the cafeteria and restrooms as hotspots. Each of these locations merits individual attention.

Parking Lots and Bus Stops

Conflicts often erupt in parking lots and at bus stops. Cars provide convenient, hidden areas for illicit behavior. Closed car doors muffle sound, and activity in one car can be camouflaged in a sea of other vehicles. Students anxious to escape after school jostle with each other for limited space at bus pickup areas. Normal traffic-related conflict between buses, cars, bicycles and pedestrians compounds the potential for violence or accidents. Crime on buses, including hijacking, can be a concern as well.

As the demand for parking exceeds available space, new parking areas surface, officially or unofficially. When this occurs, the pedestrian flow may shift to a secondary entrance. If the administration ignores this new reality, the office can become dysfunctional as a gate keeper. If, on the other hand, the secondary entrance remains locked and students are forced to walk a

considerable distance to the main entrance, they may be at risk of victimization along the way.

Solutions

Contain parking within a compact, easy-to-patrol area. Investigate vehicles that circumvent this restriction. Require registration stickers for all students' vehicles, and keep records of license plate numbers and vehicle descriptions, to make identification easier. Enclose parking lots with fencing, to restrict access by offenders. At the same time, leave escape routes for pedestrians, to avoid entrapment.

Another possibility is to assign parking spots. This makes a trespasser's vehicle stand out. CPTED principles call for avoiding the use of "dead" walls adjacent to parking lots, using windows or openings to improve visibility. In addition, the alignment of rows of parked cars can be designed to enhance natural surveillance.

If parking shifts to a new location, and students start using the most convenient entry point, supply adequate controls and supervision at that point. This can replace the original office, or augment it during peak hours. Another option is to place another type of service at that location, such as the library, using the librarian as a gate keeper.

When all else fails, video surveillance and human patrolling can be added. For immense parking lots, emergency call buttons may be wise investments too.

Hallways

Hallways suffer from a population explosion every forty five minutes. Hallway locker doors and locker owners create obstacles for pedestrian traffic, as do clusters of students. Staff members generally avoid hallways during these brief rush hours, and when they are present lack natural surveillance beyond the students closest at hand. A commotion at the far end of the hall is camouflaged by the chaos blocking the view. Overcrowding, combined with petty conflicts, can lead to violence.

Solutions

Wider spaces and otherwise unoccupied niches often act as social gathering spots. By selectively building these spaces out of the traffic flow, some of the congestion can be reduced. Lockers can be spread out, reducing conflict between neighboring locker users. Lockers can be moved to separate bays, but as with any isolated spot, if there is no natural surveillance over this area it is at risk. Where second stories exist, use them to provide natural surveillance for staff. Place staff break-rooms at appropriate locations to at least give the impression of surveillance – mirrored windows can leave students guessing as to whether or not they can be seen. Convex mirrors placed high improve surveillance over crowds and around corners. Where the architecture fails to enhance surveillance, cameras or human patrolling may be considered. Avoid allowing the line of sight to be blocked by vending machines or other obstacles. In many schools, classroom doors swing outward, due to fire codes. If doors remain ajar, jutting into the hallway, they may block natural surveillance along the length of the hall. Classrooms are more secure if doors are kept locked and shut. While they are open they should be opened fully, flush to the wall.

Stairwells

Stairwells, like hallways, may suffer from intermittent congestion, alternating with periods of disuse. Stairwells are often hidden from view; fire doors may seal them off entirely. In between rush hours, stairwells can provide hidden areas, and fire doors can muffle sound. Stairs may be "travel predictors," which offenders can rely on to place victims in their paths

at certain times.
Solutions
The more open the stairway design, the better. Wherever solid walls are blocking surveillance, look for ways to install openings or windows. Exterior, isolated fire stairwells can be made safer by the extensive use of glass or wrought iron grates for exterior walls. Mirrors, cameras and patrolling are additional options.

Grounds
Outdoor areas are extremely difficult to control. Especially if designed for multi-purpose use, territoriality is often vague – anyone who wants to is welcome to treat school grounds as open public space. Unfortunately, this can lead to visits from undesirables who put students at risk. If schools serve double duty as community centers and unofficial skateboard parks, nobody really knows who is in charge anymore. Landscaping and outbuildings can hide illicit activity, while outdoor shelters can become magnets for people with no better place to go. Playing field bathrooms are frequently problematic serving as illicit meeting places or predictable locations for cornering prey.
Solutions
Wrought-iron fencing is the territorial-marker and access control device of choice. It is extremely vandal resistant, and lacks enough surface space to attract graffiti. Although it's relatively expensive, it is a good long-term investment that enhances school image and climate, and leaves natural surveillance intact, while defining and controlling official entry points.

Heighten area definition to enhance territoriality. Invite students, service clubs and area residents to develop paths, swing sets, gardens, sandboxes, slides, wetlands, natural meadows, tennis courts, and amphitheaters, as well as traditional athletic fields. Student, neighbor or service group participation can give them a sense of ownership. If they subsequently see problems occurring on the site, they will be more likely to call authorities.

Amenities should be factored into grounds development. Driveways and service roads will be needed, but can attract unwelcome users if not controlled with gates, barricades and/or speed bumps. Large crowds for soccer tournaments generate parking overflow, litter and sanitation problems. They will need bathrooms, drinking water, and shelter. Benches or bleachers should also be considered. Boost natural surveillance of vulnerable amenities with non-glare lighting and clear sight-lines for neighbors.

Consider arranging for a resident caretaker – trade mobile home housing for an overnight presence. Video cameras and paid security represent two further possibilities.

Entry areas
Entry areas are travel predictors and gathering spots. If security measures focus on visitors only after they enter the building, violence is more likely to occur before entering the school's locus of control, so internal security can, by default, push violence outside. Pedestrian traffic jams while waiting to clear a security checkpoint create a mass of unprotected potential victims, lingering outdoors. Student conflicts initiated inside school may erupt after parties exit the front doors. Snipers and drive-by shooters can anticipate easy prey before or after school, when crowds provide targets outside the main doors.
Solutions
Upgrade front office design to provide surveillance over the exterior entry area as well as the interior foyer and hallway. Reconsider any security measures that create vulnerable gathering

spots. If tight security at the entry point is required, consider staggering attendance times for each grade, thinning the crowd. Provide an adult presence wherever students congregate, and provide communication devices. Provide shelter for students waiting for rides or entry, with low walls or stanchions that can be used for protection, either from bullets or out of control vehicles. At the same time, take care to maintain natural lines of sight – don't build walls that block surveillance.

Breezeways

Sprawling campuses often connect buildings with breezeways, which are cheaper than enclosed hallways, avoid violating code restrictions on building sizes, and may be viewed as aesthetic features. Regardless of motive, breezeways are unprotected travel predictors. They may be under-lit as well, and can lack natural surveillance. Even during rush hours, particularly in bad weather, staff members don't linger there. If surveillance cameras are used, bright daylight outside tunnel-like breezeways may backlight subjects, undermining picture quality.

Solutions

Enclose breezeways and connect buildings, shifting from a sprawling campus to more of a fortress design. At the same time, keep natural surveillance as strong as possible by using windows rather than solid walls. Seal off secondary entry points, such as breezeway entries, with fire doors. The doors should close and lock automatically. Staff should have keys or proximity cards. Doors should be staffed while open between classes.

Bathrooms

Many students avoid using school bathrooms altogether for fear of bullying or other antisocial behavior. Bathrooms are frequently located in isolated corners of buildings, out of view. Occasionally they are also near secondary entries, providing opportunities for unobserved trespassers and easy exits. Double door entries muffle typical bathroom noises, but they also muffle cries for help, sounds of assaults or vandalism, and the drift of cigarette smoke. Toilet stalls provide even greater privacy.

Solutions

Install bathrooms adjacent to supervised areas, within line of sight of school staff. Maze entries should replace double door entries, for many reasons: alarming sounds are more apt to be noticed from outside; escaping from predators is much easier; offenders cannot count on the sound of the outer door opening to warn them when an authority figure is entering; cigarette smoke is no longer masked; and as an added benefit, fewer un-sanitized hands have to share the same door knob or plate. Regular maintenance is essential. Take back ownership of toilet stalls by painting over graffiti.

Many schools have had problems with several students gathering in one stall to sell or use drugs. When officials approach the area, students typically flush any evidence. Using magnetic latches on stall doors can make it harder for students to delay entry by officials. In addition, some schools avoid the use of drop ceilings, which can be used to hide contraband. Vandalism-resistant materials can be used for stall partitions. Most important, regular patrolling of school bathrooms is always required, no matter how thoughtful the design.

Cafeterias

Cafeterias are predictable gathering spots. As a result, they can serve as attractive destination points for intruders bent on destruction.

Solutions

The greater the accessibility, the more vigilance is required. Escape routes are critical, as are

communication devices to call for help. If screening occurs at some distance from the cafeteria, there is less likelihood of an offender reaching this destination undetected.

School Size, Renovation and Rebuilding
The larger the school, the more of a challenge it is to secure. Multiple entry points will require an equivalent number of guardians, or will compromise access control. A labyrinth of add-ons often incorporates numerous blind corners, creating hidden areas attractive for delinquent behavior, thus compromising natural surveillance.

Research makes a strong case for small schools in order to promote intimate learning communities, boost academic performance, improve the likelihood of personal connections, reduce isolation and achievement gaps, build group cohesion, and make staff coordination easier, as well as to improve school safety.

Many schools do not or cannot accommodate these limitations. In those cases, a number of options can be considered. Converting excess doors into alarmed emergency exits, sealing off under-utilized school wings with accordion-style grates, recruiting volunteer hall monitors and installing surveillance cameras are some possibilities. Schedules can be staggered to reduce congestion in the hallways. Large schools can be divided into a number of smaller, specialized wings, houses, families, or schools-within-schools, focusing on arts, sciences, languages, trades, career exploration or other subjects. From a CPTED perspective, any arrangement that makes it easier for students to know each other and build bonds while enhancing staff surveillance and access control is a positive step.

Security Technology Overview

Ideally, a school's physical structure should inherently provide adequate natural surveillance, access control and territoriality to minimize the need for technological fixes. Unfortunately, this ideal structure rarely exists; enhancements are usually necessary. These may take the form of short-term fixes, major remodeling, extra staffing, or electronic technology.

New technology has a lot to offer, but identifying which specific make, model or system to use requires very up-to-date research. Installers and system integrators who can provide solid references, and who are currently active in the field, may be the best sources of up-to-date information on state-of-the-art equipment.

Communication Devices

Telephones, radios, cell phones, intercoms, public address systems and pagers are sensible, technological fixes. Trouble can occur anywhere on or near campus. If staff can immediately call for help, damage can be contained.

Annunciators are lights or buzzers indicating open doors. They can alert staff at a central console when a secondary or emergency door has been opened. Augmented with cameras, these allow staff to remotely observe behavior, and to quickly respond.

Alarms triggered by smoke or flame, or set off by manually operated pull stations, are required by fire code. More sophisticated systems can also send messages to a central receiving station, pinpointing the location of a problem. Panic button alarms can be built into intercoms or worn as pendants. Combination identification/ location alarms identify, locate and track people using them. “Smart” cameras (discussed shortly) can recognize specific shapes or movements, such as a person falling down, and trigger alarms.

Emergency Notification products are quickly becoming commonplace. A number of companies offer mass communication services and technology for schools and communities.

Personal Digital Assistants (PDAs) can be used for tracking data, sending messages, and in some cases pulling up live video images from cameras linked to a school network or an internet protocol (IP) address.

Access Control Technology

The access control field has been evolving at a break-neck pace over the past decade, and shows no sign of letting up. Reliance on conventional keys is likely to fade – but by no means disappear – as more sophisticated options become more affordable. Conventional keys can be lost, copied or stolen, at which point there is no access control. They will still be needed for emergency use in the foreseeable future, but may become backup devices rather than primary access methods. Electronic devices such as swipe cards, proximity cards, coded entries, fingerprint scanners or facial recognition technology offer far better control.

Weapons Detectors

Metal detectors, wands, portals, and X-ray machines have drawn some media attention as potential solutions, particularly for high crime schools, but are unpopular with most schools across the country.

Surveillance Technology

Surveillance cameras have come a long way over the past few years, with the biggest change being a shift from analog to networked high definition cameras. The latter offer vastly superior picture quality, even when captured images are enlarged. Smart technology allows the cameras to be programmed to watch for certain behaviors, such as climbing a fence, and to then send an alert. Power-over-ethernet capability eliminates the need to run power cables, saving costs. Wireless technology similarly saves costs and enhances flexibility.

Integrated Security Management Systems (ISMS)

The most dramatic school security changes evolving over recent years have involved an exponential growth in complexity and options for security technology. Those schools that invested in cameras, alarms and other devices, have served well as testing grounds, learning valuable lessons. Take advantage of their wealth of information about what has worked and what has not, especially in your area. Before investing in new gear, carefully diagnose your schools concerns, including: (1) what are common problems needing to be addressed, (i.e. bullying or snow storms) and (2) what are uncommon problems that you want to preemptively address (i.e. school shootings or levees breaking). For all of these,

- Brainstorm solutions. These could be structural or technological, or could involve staffing or behavioral changes.
- Research what others have done to alleviate these concerns.
- Always come back to examining how your proposed solutions would mitigate the specific problems on your list. Sample school problems and possible responses are presented in Table 1 (next page).

Table 1. Illustrations of concerns, objectives, and possible solutions

Concerns and Objectives	Possible Solutions
There have been a number of fights in the cafeteria. How can we address that?	Reduce congestion at doors – mark doors as entrances or exits. Improve ambience of cafeteria. Use tablecloths and lower lighting levels. Hang curtains to absorb sound. Play calming, classical music. Establish a culinary institute, run partly by students. Let them run one part of the cafeteria like a restaurant, accessible only to students who behave. Serve meals at tables, rather than having students competing for space in line. Provide secondary dining locations, in order to form smaller groups that eat together. Assign students to seating areas. Have staff eat with students in small groups. Have conflicting groups eat at separate times. Install surveillance cameras. Post and enforce rules. Increase supervision.
Tornados wreaked havoc in a neighboring district last year. How can we prepare for extreme weather events?	Prepare to serve as an emergency shelter. Attach shelves to walls in all rooms. Build shutters for windows facing bay. Mark emergency shelter locations. Practice emergency evacuation. Clear out basement so it can be used for shelter in an emergency. Install back-up generator and lights. Store emergency supplies. Prepare emergency communication system. (see next item.)
After a serious car wreck last year, we weren't able to alert students, staff, parents or the media as rapidly as we would have liked. How can we rapidly communicate emergency messages to staff, students, parents, media, police, or district administration?	Repair existing PA system. Install intercoms in rooms. Install phones in rooms. Provide PDAs for all staff. Provide cell phones for all staff. Provide radios for all staff. Provide electronic displays at key locations. Automate media releases. Pre-program fax machine for mass distribution. Investigate emergency mass transmission software and services. Install wireless routers throughout campus. Create group email and text message lists. Create pre-recorded emergency messages, triggered by alarms. Identify zones in school and community where electronic communications won't work.

Sometimes, problems can be addressed piecemeal. If a school is unlikely to install anything beyond a basic four camera security system, that's relatively simple and can be installed as a stand-alone device. However, problems frequently result when the solutions accumulate in a patchwork manner over time – especially technological solutions. There comes a point when a school is much better off integrating technological solutions into a cohesive system. For example, if your school wants smoke detector alarms, open-door annunciators, video surveillance over multiple locations, emergency lock down buttons, proximity card access control devices on particular doors and emergency call boxes in the parking lot, then an integrated system will

serve you best, maximizing efficiency and reliability. Integration assures software and hardware compatibility for all the involved technology, and keeps a lid on maintenance costs.

One obstacle to creating a good, integrated system is confusion about where to begin. Some of the biggest errors in this respect include the following:

- Starting with a solution (i.e. "let's get some cameras") before you've clearly identified the problem you're trying to address.
- Emphasizing low bids (i.e. "great price on these cameras!") rather than performance standards (i.e. the quality of the pictures or competence of the installers.)
- Being unclear about what hardware and software to use. A bid that requires a specific camera "or equivalent" risks ending up with something far from adequate.
- Providing sub-standard equipment for all schools, rather than quality equipment at fewer schools. In the long run, substandard equipment will be less reliable, harder to maintain and ultimately more expensive than the higher quality alternative. Gradually adding high quality equipment, rather than immediately adding low quality equipment, will be a better investment in the long run.

Safety Audits and Security Surveys

Approaches to School Safety Audits can range from basic, in-house overviews to extensive projects drawing on grants and consultants. To find CPTED specialists, contact the author (http://www.transcendingviolence.com). Local police and security agencies may be able to help as well. A variety of checklists and surveys are available nationally. One of the most extensive is available for free download from the National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities (http://www.edfacilities.org).

Conclusion

CPTED is a key component of school safety planning. A well-protected site will require less staff time and energy to defend. This leaves instructors more time for teaching, and students more time for learning.

THE APPLICATION, CONSEQUENCES, AND ALTERNATIVES TO ZERO TOLERANCE POLICIES IN FLORIDA SCHOOLS

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Abstract

Mandatory punishments for disciplinary offenses have been included in school districts' Student Codes of Conduct since the Gun–Free Schools Act of 1994 mandated that districts have zero tolerance policies in order to receive their federal education dollars. Thirteen years later, the majority of the 67 school districts in Florida have expanded their use of zero tolerance policies to include infractions other than those that were included to keep guns out of schools. This policy analysis, the first comprehensive study of its kind, evaluated the zero tolerance policies found in all 67 of Florida's Student Codes of Conduct with the intent of providing policy–makers and educational leaders with practical, action–oriented recommendations on ways they can improve how students are disciplined in Florida.

This study examined the history of zero tolerance polices, including the practice of adding offenses other than the possession of guns to these policies. This policy analysis detailed the differences between large school districts in Florida, those over 15,000 students, with the small school districts in Florida and their decisions on what to include in their districts' zero tolerance policies. This study concluded with recommendations on what should be in a model Student Code of Conduct as well as a recommendation for starting a Three–CHANCE (Changing Habits after New Character Education) system of educational placements.

The Formation and Background of Zero Tolerance Policies

In November 1998, Jordan Locke, a five-year-old attending Curtisville Elementary School in Deer Lakes, Pennsylvania "was suspended for wearing a five-inch plastic axe as part of his firefighter's costume to a Halloween party in his classroom" (Skiba, 2000). In their response to upset firefighters who criticized the suspension, school officials drafted an "Open Letter to Firemen Across the Country" stating "that they never intended to offend firefighters by referring to the axe as a weapon, but defended the zero tolerance policy against weapons as fair" (p. 4).

In May 1999, a sophomore in Pensacola, Florida loaned her nail clippers with an attached nail file to a friend. When the teacher saw this, she confiscated the clippers. The girl, aspiring to be a doctor, was given a 10–day suspension by the principal and threatened with expulsion, with the principal adding, "Life goes on. You learn from your mistakes. We are recommending expulsion" (Skiba, 2000, p. 4).

There are other stories like these in Florida and throughout the United States. Websites are dedicated to highlighting the injustices resulting from zero tolerance policies and calling for an end to them (www.thisistrue.com, www.ztnightmares.com, www.texaszerotolerance.com). One example of a non–violent youth whose life was forever changed as a result of a school district enforcing a zero tolerance policy is of the high school senior in Knoxville, Tennessee who was expelled in 1999 after a friend left a knife in his car (Potts, Njie, Detch, & Walton, 2003). Apparently despondent after being expelled during his senior year in high school, the student committed suicide. The parents of the boy sued the Knox County School Board and

eventually won their case when the 6th U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals ruled the expulsion was irrational and absent of any evidence that the student was aware of the knife's presence in his car. The judge, however, did not challenge the existence of zero tolerance policies. For some educational leaders, this holding reaffirmed their belief that there was nothing wrong with zero tolerance policies (Potts, Njie, Detch, & Walton, 2003).

Zero tolerance, as it relates to behavior and discipline, has been defined as "the policy or practice of not tolerating undesirable behavior, such as violence or illegal drug use, with the automatic imposition of severe penalties even for first offenses" (Potts, Njie, Detch, & Walton, 2003, p. 16). This definition provides an opportunity for school boards and principals to expand the boundaries in which a behavior can be subjected to a zero tolerance policy simply by their labeling the behavior undesirable. Having such an all – encompassing definition for zero tolerance is the precise reason why so few lawyers will accept cases involving parents or students challenging zero tolerance policies. Zero tolerance policies and definitions can be so encompassing that judges often rule any behavior that school districts deem undesirable as punishable behaviors that are within the legislative boundaries of the law and therefore subject to severe penalties. In February 2001, the American Bar Association adopted a resolution opposing all zero tolerance policies on the ground that the policies pay no "regard to the circumstances or nature of the offense or the student's history" (Potts et al., 2003, p. 16).

The U.S. Department of Education defines zero tolerance weapons policies in two separate documents: Sec. 14601 of the Elementary and Secondary Schools Act (ESEA) – Gun–Free Requirements (otherwise known as the GFSA of 1994, a component of the Improving American's Schools Act of 1994) and the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) Sec. 4141 of 2001 (Potts et al., 2003). The GFSA defines the following:

> Each State receiving Federal funds under this Act shall have in effect a State law requiring local educational agencies to expel from school for a period of not less than one year a student who is determined to have brought a weapon to a school under the jurisdiction of local educational agencies in that State, except that such State law shall allow the chief administering officer of such local educational agency to modify such expulsion requirement for a student on a case–by–case basis. (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Safe and Drug–Free Schools, 2006, ¶ 2)

The fear of violence in schools has led American legislators and educational leaders to adopt discipline policies that are increasingly punitive in nature (Noguera, 1995). Since the enactment of the federal Guns–Free School Act of 1994, Florida has required its public school districts to create and enforce policies that offer no leniency for students (Florida State Legislature, Florida Safe and Healthy Schools Act, 1006.13, 2005). The policies in Florida, however, are stated so that they are as broad, vague, and all-encompassing as possible (Blumenson & Nilsen, 2003). While the Florida statute complies with the federal law, many school districts across Florida have broadened the policy to include expulsion for knives, drugs, bullying, and even disorderly conduct.

Of the 26,990 school related referrals to the Florida Department of Juvenile Justice (DJJ) during the 2004–2005 school year, "over three-quarters of school-based referrals (76 percent) were for misdemeanor offenses such as disorderly conduct, trespassing, or assault and/or battery, which is usually nothing more than a schoolyard fight" (Advancement Project, 2006, 6). Children in Florida are increasingly being sent to judges and jails for offenses that traditionally were dealt with in the principal's office and after school detentions (Kaczor, 2006). For example, in 1999, a Florida high school student was expelled for violating his district's zero tolerance policy against "inappropriate behavior" (Huffines, 2000). The student was disciplined for threatening to shoot up the school in a Columbine-type fashion. The student adamantly denied ever saying this. The principal could not find one credible adult or student witness to support the allegation. The police were called to the school, but after a two-day investigation, they determined that there was not enough

evidence to press any type of charge against the student. This, however, did not stop the school board from expelling the student. The American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) eventually accepted the family's case in 2000, but, at that point, the boy had already been out of school for an entire year. Such incidents are numerous not only in Florida but across the country (Skiba,et al., 2006).

Few school district policies utilize internal discipline methods that try to "address the underlying causes of behavioral problems" (Advancement Project, 2006, 6). Thirty years ago, it would have been an unusual sight to have a child handcuffed by a police officer in school. This is, however, becoming more common in today's public institutions of education. The sight of children being criminalized, handcuffed, arrested, booked, and sent to court for minor misconduct in school is a trend that is commonly referred to as the "schoolhouse-to-jailhouse track" or the "school-to-prison pipeline" (p. 6).

Children are often suspended and expelled from their regular education settings for offenses that do not pose a threat to school safety and that are far beyond the scope and intentions of the 1994 GFSA (Advancement Project, 2006). In August 2006, the American Psychological Association (APA) convened a task force to study the psychological affects that zero tolerance policies have had on the development of adolescents and their ability to learn in an atmosphere that is governed by punitive policies (Skiba et al., 2006). To highlight the urgency for zero tolerance reform, the APA pointed out how zero tolerance policies punish innocent children:

> January, 2004, Bossier Parrish, Louisiana. A 15 year old girl found in possession of one Advil tablet was expelled for one year under a district policy of zero tolerance for any drug. Closer scrutiny of previous school disciplinary actions in the school district revealed cases in which other students had received a lighter punishment for explicitly illegal drugs. (Skiba et al., 2006, p. 31)

According to the APA Zero Tolerance Task Force, there are many school board members, educational leaders, and parents who believe that suspending or expelling students is an effective behavioral modification because it promotes a safer learning environment for the children who were not involved with the incident (Skiba et al., 2006). The task force, however, reported data that contradicted this belief. APA data indicated that the behaviors that resulted in the suspension or expulsion were not modified, and that the removal of those students did not create a safer learning environment in those schools. The APA report referenced many studies that supported the idea that zero tolerance policies were not appropriate for the mindset of adolescents:

> Adolescents before the age of 15 display psychosocial immaturity in at least four areas relevant to social contexts such as those found in schools: resistance to peer influence, attitudes toward and perception of risk, future orientation, and impulse control…They tend to weigh anticipated gains more than losses when making decisions (e.g., Hooper, Luciana, Conklin, & Yarger, 2004). Young adolescents tend to be much less future–oriented than older adolescents and adults. They tend to discount the future when making choices (Greene, 1986) and to focus more on short–term rather than on the long–term risks and benefits of their decisions (Grisso et al., 2003). Finally, developmental studies on behavioral control indicate that younger adolescents are less able to evaluate situations before acting, which is in part due to greater difficulty they have in regulating their moods (Cauffman & Steinberg, 2000; Luna, Garve, Urban, Lazar, & Sweeney, 2004) (Skiba et al., 2006, p. 67).

A lack of research in early the 1990s and a lack of understanding on the effects that zero tolerance policies would have on students did not deter school districts across the country from adopting them.

In addition, more than 2,500 students drop out of high school each day as a result of expulsion or other

conditions (Kingsbury, 2006). In the United States, close to 1 million students leave school without graduating each year, "costing the nation more than $260 billion in lost wages, taxes, and productivity over the students' lifetimes" (p. 30). In addition, 4,400 juveniles are arrested each day and "68 percent of the inmates in state prisons lack a high school diploma" (p. 30). Despite these statistics, districts continue to remove students through the use of all-encompassing zero tolerance policies.

Zero Tolerance and Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004

Several changes were made to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 2004. One of the more significant changes was the inclusion of the new section relating to students with disabilities who violate their districts' Student Codes of Conducts. Prior to 2004, the term Student Code of Conduct was not even mentioned in the IDEA. The new IDEA has experienced a change in philosophy regarding how students with disabilities who inflict serious bodily injury upon another person can be disciplined, introducing more of a zero tolerance approach that is in direct conflict with the mentality that individual consideration should be given to all students, the philosophy that the IDEA was founded upon.

There may be incidences when children with disabilities who are protected under the IDEA threaten other children in the school with a weapon. In those cases, "school authorities can unilaterally remove a child with a disability from the child's regular placement for up to 45 days at a time" and may ask an impartial hearing officer to order subsequent extensions "if school officials continue to believe that the child would be substantially likely to injure self or others if returned to his or her regular placement" (U.S. Department of Education, 2004, p. 4). Another change made by the Individuals with Disabilities Improvement Act of 2004 specifically states that:

> A child with a disability who is removed from his or her current placement for disciplinary reasons, irrespective of whether the behavior is determined to be a manifestation of the child's disability, must be allowed to participate in the general education curriculum, although in another setting, and to progress toward meeting his or her IEP goals (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, 2006, p. 17).

It is important to note that students with disabilities can still be expelled, and in some states, those expulsions make up a considerable percentage of the students who are expelled each year (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics, School Survey on Crime and Safety, 2000).

Alternatives and Changes in Zero Tolerance Policies

One alternative to expelling students out onto the streets through the use of zero tolerance policies involves accepting the belief that not all kids are suited for the same, traditional learning environment. The Florida Youth Challenge (FYC) program accepts children from Florida's regular education settings and attempts to keep more children in learning environments and fewer children in the juvenile justice systems or simply off the streets. FYC is one of 15 National Guard Youth Challenge Academies sponsored in the United States, with 23 more states on the National Guard's waiting list, as highlighted in April 24, 2006 by U.S. News & World Report (Kingsbury, 2006). Their success derives from the fact that:

> The teaching at the academies is strictly organized. Cadets take one section of the high school equivalency test at a time, focusing on reading, writing, and math. The testing method, which pairs an adult education model with the military's instructional system, works. Nationwide, 70 percent of the students in the Challenge program earned their general equivalency diplomas. That's nearly double the 41 percent pass rate of other adult education programs.

> And cadets earn theirs in half the time–improving an average of two grade levels in reading and math in only 5 ½ months in class, for example. The cost of educating a cadet is 85 percent less than that of educating a high school student–and far less than the cost of juvenile incarceration (Kingsbury, 2006, p. 31).

Both successful and cost-effective, the residential academies have become viable alternatives to simply expelling children from regular education settings, teaching management skills and personal responsibility in addition to having state-certified faculty teach the basic educational curriculum found in all of Florida's schools. Unlike the juvenile justice facilities in Florida that have recently received bad publicity for their physical abuse of children, no physical restraining or force is used (Leary, 2006). Most educational leaders now believe that spanking or hitting children is not the answer to modifying the behaviors of youth (Nordling, 1999). Everything taught in these programs centers around changing one's mindset and accepting ownership for one's own behavior instead of relying on prescribed zero tolerance guidelines that offer no direction for children on how to live.

Changes in zero tolerance policies can be found in states like Texas. Texas recently reformed the way in which zero tolerance policies would be enforced, yet still abiding by the federal guidelines that mandate someone who brings a gun to school be expelled for no less than 365 school days (Crowley, 2007). Texas lawmakers passed legislation of their own that mandates all zero tolerance policies must include an investigation by the educational leadership of the district (principal, superintendents' office, etc.) as to the intent of bringing the object to school (Skiba et al., 2006). Following the decision from the legislators to reform Texas' zero tolerance laws, Marc Levin, the director of the Center for Effective Justice at the Texas Public Policy Foundation said:

> We applaud the Legislature for making much needed reforms to Texas' zero tolerance law. During this session, we learned of exemplary students who were expelled to a juvenile justice facility for unintentional mistakes, such as unknowingly bringing a pocket knife to school that was left in a jacket after hunting the day before or taking prescription pain relief medication at lunch. This legislation clarifies that expulsion is not required in such circumstances. It will restore common sense to the system by allowing school administrators to consider the intent and prior disciplinary of such students, if any, in determining the appropriate punishment. (Texas Public Policy Foundation, ¶ 2)

Those that believe zero tolerance policies have overstepped their limits are watching Texas' educational leaders as they attempt to restore common sense into their discipline policies.

Methodology of the Study

To bring public attention to the different ways in which Florida implements zero tolerance policies, the Washington, DC non–profit group Advancement Project in collaboration with the NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Inc. and the Florida State Conference of the NAACP examined the zero tolerance practices of Florida's six largest school districts in its 2006 report titled Arresting Development: Addressing the School Discipline Crisis in Florida. The report came as a reaction to the much-publicized 2005 Associated Press article that highlighted the incident of a five-year-old girl who was handcuffed and arrested by St. Petersburg, Florida police for having a temper tantrum in her classroom (Advancement Project, Florida State Conference of the NAACP, & the NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Inc., 2006). Since then, the girl's family has hired a lawyer and is suing both the Pinellas County School District as well as the St. Petersburg Police Department (Associated Press & CBS News, 2005). In an interview with the Associated Press, the lawyer for the family said:

> Unfortunately, with our system of civil justice, the way that we handle these matters is you have to sue someone in order to get reform . . . to get the reform, you have to make them pay, because if you don't make them pay, they're never going to reform themselves. If they don't have to pony up, there never will be any change. (¶ 13)

While the Advancement Project study only looked at the six largest school districts in Florida, the study at hand examined the zero tolerance policies of all 67 Florida school districts' Student Codes of Conduct in an attempt to determine differences in the Student Codes of Conduct developed by large and small school districts in response to zero tolerance policies related to the implementation of the Gun-Free Schools Act of 1994.

Research Findings

The 67 public school districts in Florida were categorized into two groups according to the mathematical divide of their student populations: (a) 33 districts with a student body population of 15,000 or more were placed in the first group, defined as large school districts, (b) 34 districts with a student body population under 15,000 students were placed in the second group, defined as small districts. Six indicators were used to determine these policy differences: (a) whether the Student Codes of Conduct included a definition of the term zero tolerance, (b) whether the Student Codes of Conduct included a zero tolerance policy against guns, © against knives, (d) against drugs, (e) against bullying, and (f) if there was an option of attending an alternative education setting for students who violated a zero tolerance policy. The data collected were compared through the use of the two categories, with the totals and percentages of the large districts compared to the totals and percentages of the small districts on all six indicators.

Description of Categories by School District Size

The Florida Department of Education website indicated that there were 2,572,963 students attending public schools in Florida's 67 county school districts in 2006 (Florida Department of Education, 2006). The first category had a total student population of 2,402,430, which accounted for 93.37 percent of Florida's public school population. The second category had a total student population of 170,533, which accounted for the remaining 6.63 percent of students in Florida's public schools. Of the 33 large districts, seven had a student population of over 100,000, with the largest district in Florida reporting a student population of 359,420 in 2006. Of the 34 small districts, five districts had student populations of less than 1,500, with the smallest district in Florida reporting a student population of 1,056 students in 2006.

Summary of Patterns

Six patterns emerged from the data gathering and coding process when determining if there were differences in the Student Codes of Conduct developed by large and small school districts in response to zero tolerance policies related to the implementation of the Gun–Free Schools Act of 1994 (Table 1, next page).

1. The student body populations of the districts signified that the overwhelming majority of students in Florida (95 percent) attended schools in districts larger than 15,000 students in 2006.
2. The Student Codes of Conduct from larger districts included a larger percentage of indicators than those of smaller districts.
3. Specifically, including a definition of the term zero tolerance was more common in larger districts' Student Codes of Conduct (55 percent) than it was in smaller districts' Student Codes of Conduct (32 percent).
4. Not every Student Code of Conduct had a policy mandating expulsion for guns, even though the Gun–Free Schools Act of 1994 mandated having this policy contingent on receiving federal funds.

Each of the 33 large districts mandated suspension or expulsion for the possession of a gun, but only 29 of the 34 small districts mandated it. Smaller districts were more inclined to include suspension and expulsion on a continuum of possible disciplinary measures. The five districts that did not mandate it allowed for lesser punishments to be administered.

5. In this study, harassment and bullying were the least coded indicators of zero tolerance policies in Florida school districts.
6. All but one of the 33 large districts provided an option of an alternative education setting, while only 16 of the 34 small districts offered an option of an alternative education setting.

Table 1. Large and small Florida school districts with zero tolerance policies in student codes of conduct

Policies	Florida n	Large n	Small n	Florida percent	Large percent	Small percent
Total Number of Districts	67	33	34	–	–	–
Student Code of Conduct includes:						
Definition of Zero Tolerance	29	18	11	43.28	54.55	32.35
Zero Tolerance against Guns	62	33	29	92.54	100.00	85.29
Zero Tolerance against Knives	45	29	16	67.16	87.88	47.06
Zero Tolerance against Drugs	54	29	25	80.6	87.88	73.53
Zero Tolerance against Bullying	14	9	5	20.9	27.27	14.71
Option for an Alternative Setting	48	32	16	71.64	96.97	47.06
District Student Population	2,572,963	2,402,430	170,533	100.00	93.37	6.63

Conclusions and Implications

This policy analysis demonstrated that giving districts the ability to expand the usage of zero tolerance policies has resulted in the preponderance of districts including infractions that do not relate to the original intent of the Gun-Free Schools Act of 1994. This proved true more often in Florida's larger districts, those with over 15,000 students, than it did with Florida's smaller districts.

Expanding Zero Tolerance Policies

Just as the percentage of students attending schools in Florida's large districts (95 percent) is considerably more than small districts (5 percent), so are the percentages of what large districts chose to include as zero tolerance policies in their Student Codes of Conduct. This research study found that large school districts in Florida have overly-broad definitions of zero tolerance policies compared to small school districts, including many more things in their policies than just guns (i.e., knives, drugs, and bullying). The inclusion of guns in zero tolerance policies by both large and small school districts is understandable because federal tax dollars are attached to such policies; the reasons for a higher rate of including weapons other than guns in Student Codes of Conduct of large districts is less clear.

Although a wide variety of alternative education programs are currently available across the country, students who attend schools in one of Florida's small districts have less than a 50 percent likelihood of attending such an alternative school because their districts do not offer it as an option. Conversely, 97 percent of Florida's large school district Student Codes of Conduct currently provide students who are suspended or expelled for violating a zero tolerance policy the option of attending an alternative education setting. Through the literature review, data collection, and findings of this policy analysis, the researcher developed four conclusions.

Conclusion 1: Student Codes of Conduct Should Include a Definition of the Term Zero Tolerance

The Gun–Free Schools Act of 1994 requires that every school district receiving federal education funds include a mandatory punishment, or zero tolerance policy, for students who bring a gun to school or a school function. Agreement or disagreement with the law should not be the deciding factor whether the district includes a definition of the term zero tolerance. A comprehensive definition of the term zero tolerance should be included in a district's Student Code of Conduct in order to provide the members of their communities with the appropriate information to make educated decisions.

Conclusion 2: Limit What Constitutes a Zero Tolerance Offense

Parents must feel confident that their children are in a safe environment when they send them to school each day. This belief sometimes leads parents to conclude that all children who perform deviant behaviors must be removed from school in order to ensure the safety of the other students and improve the climate of the school. There is little data to support the belief that removing deviant children actually improves the climate of the school or that school becomes safer after deviant children are removed. Children are sent to school to learn. Sometimes the lessons learned come from classroom experiences; other times the lessons learned come from the mistakes they make and the compassionate educators that guide them into making better choices. If zero tolerance policies are allowed to further proliferate into every element of the Student Codes of Conduct, it is likely that the number of students who violate zero tolerance policies sometime throughout the course of their K-12 education will increase, forcing more students out of their regular educational settings.

Few people question the philosophy that truly violent students must be separated from the rest of the student body in order to protect the well–being and safety of the entire student population. This same mentality (i.e., separating violent individuals from the rest of society) is the impetus of the adult prison system. Even though some citizens would like to see more zero tolerance policies for crimes committed by adults, the justice system realizes that not every broken law justifies a mandatory prison sentence. Just as the adult prison system has limits and parameters on what crimes constitute a prison sentence, so too should school districts demonstrate restraint as to which violations of their Student Codes of Conduct should result in a mandatory punishment. Zero tolerance policies should balance modifying unwanted student behavior and separating students that pose a real threat to school safety from their regular education setting. Increasing the number of zero tolerance violations in Student Codes of Conduct decreases the ability of school administrators to use good judgment when deciding if the infraction was malicious, intentional, and a danger to school safety.

Conclusion 3: Districts Should Fund Alternative Education Settings

Disagreements arise among educational leaders, policy makers, and youth advocates when trying to decide what to do with children who have demonstrated truly violent tendencies. Suspension and expulsion are two common practices, but when the students are suspended for long periods of time, or expelled from school, then the question surfaces of who should be responsible for them. The struggle involves deciding whether or not children, some as young as six years old, should be treated like prisoners and taken by youth resource

officers to detention centers to be punished, or whether educational leaders and professional teachers should attempt to reform schoo-age children so that they might lead productive and fulfilling lives. If the decision is to rely on educators, the question becomes where this can best be accomplished: in the regular education setting or in an alternative education setting.

Every public school district should provide students with the option of attending an alternative educational setting within or outside the district. Such provision would eliminate the current disparity of less than 50 percent of students who are expelled from small school districts having an opportunity to attend an alternative education setting compared to nearly 100 percent of students in large districts having this opportunity. The manner by which districts structure alternative education settings does not have to be identical, but they should at least provide adequate academic instruction combined with behavior modification components that teach students how to learn from their mistakes. The alternative education settings should be viewed in lieu of expulsion, providing students the education they need while also removing them from their regular educational setting until they have demonstrated they are no longer a threat to the safety of other students.

Implications for Policy and Practice

Revisit Current Student Codes of Conduct

Educational leaders should revisit and re-evaluate the zero tolerance policies currently defined in their districts' Student Codes of Conduct. Do the infractions currently included as Zero Tolerance Offenses truly represent a serious breach of student conduct that threatens the safety of other individuals in the school? Prior to revisiting their Student Codes of Conduct, it is recommended that educational leaders convene committees in their communities that can assist in defining the purpose and function of their Student Code of Conduct.

The purpose of Student Codes of Conduct should not be to make it is easier to push students out of their regular education setting. Rather, the purpose should reflect an emphasis on educating as many students as possible in their regularly zoned public school while simultaneously maintaining high standards of safety and healthy learning environments. Educational leaders are encouraged to work with community members to create a Student Code of Conduct that reflects community values and work to create policies that are fair, yet sensible.

Adopt a Model Student Code of Conduct

By encouraging educational leaders to work with community members to create a Student Code of Conduct that reflects their values but still retains fairness and sensibility, seven model elements are offered that every district should incorporate in their Student Codes of Conduct. The model elements are based on a review of research literature, the data from the 67 Student Codes of Conduct found in Florida's public school districts, and insights the researcher gained during analysis of Student Codes of Conduct from both small and large districts (Table 2, next page).

Create and Implement a Three CHANCE System of Educational Settings

The seven model elements proposed provide Florida's public schools with a Student Code of Conduct that upholds zero tolerance mandates as outlined in the Gun–Free Schools Act of 1994. It also supports the philosophical belief of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) that, in a democratic society, the notion of individual consideration must be awarded to all students. However, in order to truly decrease the "Schoolhouse-to-Jailhouse" trend in Florida and throughout the nation, school boards should work at eliminating expulsion from every Student Code of Conduct. Expulsions would instead be replaced with

safeguards and options that allow students to move within a Three-CHANCE system of educational settings until they obtain their high school diploma (Table 3).

Table 2. Seven elements to include in a model student code of conduct

Element 1	A definition of the term zero tolerance that reflects the philosophy that a zero tolerance offense is one where a student is guilty of a very serious breach of conduct, a breach where it is clear that the student had the intent of threatening the safety of others at school.
Element 2	A system of safeguards that provides, prior to administering any consequences, individual consideration for all students by considering their maturity level, past infractions and examining the intent of their actions.
Element 3	A matrix of all possible discipline infractions (possession of guns, knives, or drugs, as well as bullying, stealing, fighting, sexual harassment, etc).
Element 4	A restriction that includes the possession of weapons (both guns and knives) as the only zero tolerance offenses since they could threaten the safety of those at school.
Element 5	An explanation that the alternative schools are a part of the district schools and are an option for any student who violates the Student Code of Conduct.
Element 6	An Amnesty Clause that specifically states that should a student discover he or she has unknowingly brought a weapon on campus or a school bus, and if they immediately and personally notify school personnel upon such a discovery, that the zero tolerance punishment will not apply.
Element 7	The Student Code of Conduct should use an easily readable format that includes a table of contents, page numbers, a font no smaller than 12–point, and the use of ink that is neither faint nor one that smudges. It should be distributed to each student in hard copy form as well as accessible online.

Table 3. Changing habits after new character education (CHANCE) schools

First–CHANCE	All students get a chance to attend their regularly zoned educational setting. If they find they cannot successfully abide by the Student Codes of Conduct in their First–CHANCE schools, then the students are given a second opportunity to prove themselves at the Second–CHANCE school.
Second–CHANCE	Either a day school similar to the First-CHANCE school with less students and less electives, or a residential alternative education setting for at–risk or chronically disruptive students, as well as a school for students who have violated zero tolerance policies (excluding those students who were convicted of felonies).
Third–CHANCE	If students still cannot find success in their Second–CHANCE school, or have been convicted of a felony, their final educational opportunity would be the Third–CHANCE educational setting located at a residential juvenile correction facility.

Students would remain in one of the three CHANCE schools until they complete the requirements for graduation or a high school equivalent certification program.

Summary

Student Codes of Conduct are "the heart of the legal approach to student discipline" (Brown & Beckett, 2006, p. 241). Following the mandates of the Gun-Free Schools Act of 1994 and to create safe learning environments for their students, Florida's 67 school districts have each implemented their own versions of zero tolerance policies in their Student Codes of Conduct. It is the responsibility of educational leaders and community members to evaluate whether their district's Student Code of Conduct is designed with the intention of maintaining safe schools or if they are focused on pushing students out of their regular educational setting. This study analyzed these Codes of Conduct in Florida and, as a result of that analysis and a review of current literature, provided recommended guidelines for a model Student Code of Conduct and a three CHANCE alternative to expulsion from school.

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MORE EFFECTIVE AND HUMANE YOUTH POLICY STARTS BY TREATING YOUTH WITH RESPECT

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Abstract

Adults often perceive teenage behavior as oppositional. In this they are right. The question is: oppositional to what and why?

Introduction

The "what" part is obvious? Opposition takes the form of doing things that adults forbid or discourage. This covers the gamut from joining gangs, using drugs or getting drunk, having sex, truancy and damaging school property, physical risk-taking – all the way down to bizarre dress, tattoos and piercing, adult-toxic taste in entertainment, disrespectful behavior to adult authority, and so on. These choices and behaviors are expressions of something larger than individual resentment. They are the product of a teenage sub-culture that was visible by the mid 20th century and has developed spectacularly since that time.

Admittedly, there is great variation among teens – for many, a continuum of negative behaviors spans from blatant to merely annoying – while others do well in school and stay out of serious trouble (sometimes because they are careful not to be caught). Not insignificant numbers of young people belong to tightly-knit religious communities and conform to the expectations of those communities. There are also cultural differences in a highly diverse population. For example, poverty and social disorganization lead some inner-city minority youth into criminal gangs and criminality.

Why Are Young People Oppositional?

An answer to the "why" question is complex and contradicts conventional wisdom. In a nutshell, independent, often oppositional, behavior among young people is primarily a response to the ways in which we have reduced their status during the last 100 years or so. This process became explicit when influential thinkers began to view adolescence as a stage of development qualitatively different from adulthood. This was a serious error, and contemporary youth as well as the larger society are paying a price for it. Adolescence is neither physically nor psychologically a distinct state of development except insofar as we arbitrarily define it as such and proceed to treat young people accordingly. One clue to this mistake is in the way we establish adulthood through mere social and legal criteria – old enough to drive, serve in the military, vote, etc. In other words, if adolescence is real developmentally, it ought to be possible to say when it ends in the same way that childhood ends with the onset of puberty.

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Freud, Erickson and Bettelheim warned of the dangers of "infantalizing" young people many years ago. Bettelheim even put his finger on why young people were showing signs of opposition by the mid 20th century. He wrote, "What makes for adolescent revolt is the fact that society makes the next generation too long dependent – too long in terms of sexual maturity and a striving for independence" (Bettleheim, 1969).

Research and theory supporting Bettelheim's assertion have been compiled in significant quantity and quality. It is massively summarized in Epstein's recent book, *The Case against Adolescence: Rediscovering the Adult in Every Teen* (Epstein, 2007). In *The Rise and Fall of the American Teenager*, Hine (1999) provides a fascinating history of the status of youth from classical Greece to modern America. In this book, Hine reminded us that, from colonial times and into the later 19th Century, teenagers worked with adults, married, had children, and thus merged seamlessly into mature life roles. The latter notes that the word "teenager" did not appear in print until 1941! Moshman (1999), in *Adolescent Psychological Development*, argued that young people differed from adults in lack of life experience rather than in any significant developmental capacities.

Space does not permit listing all of the intellectual and social forces leading to adolescent oppositional behavior. G. Stanley Hall, the founder of developmental psychology in America, is usually credited (or blamed) for introducing the idea that young people (defined here as post-pubescent, but without specifying any arbitrary upper age limit) were developmentally different from adults, especially emotionally. However, even Hall advised "That it's a mistake to treat teens like children" (cited in Epstein 2007, p. 23). Hall's theory was based on a now long discredited biological theory – that ontogeny replicates phylogeny, e.g., that developing humans recapitulate stages of evolution. Odd as it may seem today, Hall proposed that adolescents were moody or over-reactive because they were growing through a pre-homo-sapiens stage of development. He ignored the more likely explanation – that the uptick in emotional and behavioral problems among youth was a response to an unnatural extension of childhood. By his day, access to adult social roles was already beginning to shut down for many young people. That process began in the late 19th century, accelerated in the 20th, and continues today.

The extent to which modern cultures infantilize youth is evident in comparative studies of preindustrial societies. Schlegel and Barry (cited in Moshman, 1999) in an examination of 186 such societies reported (1) there was no word for adolescence in most and, in the rest, terms referred only to the period between puberty and marriage without implying misbehavior or *sturm und drang*[2]; (2) most youth spend the majority of time with same-sex adults rather than age peers; (3) antisocial behavior was usually absent and by our standards moderate when it did occur; (4) there was little aggression or violence by teens.

In contrast, our society segregates youth in schools, bans them from "real" adult work and restricts their civil rights. Most adults may be unaware that not so long ago teens worked in many jobs now reserved for adults. This is true even for jobs that were mainly done by teenagers. For example, they can no longer run paper routes (as did this author) and be responsible for collecting subscription money from readers. There are no newsboys in big cities, either. Yes, teens can work part-time in fast-food restaurants for wages that a single adult could not survive on. Teenagers once worked in factories. On farms they did every job that adults did, including operating machinery (and some still do). Now they must attend secondary school, even when they refuse to learn. If they drop out of school, as so many do, they find that "real" jobs are reserved for adults. Whether we are better off having significant numbers of teenagers in school that hate being there should be the subject of reasoned discussion about possible alternatives. Un-cooperative, oppositional students are not good for schools, their teachers, or their peers who want to learn. Forced schooling for these youth is one of

[2]" *Sturm and drang*" is German for, literally, storm and longing, or storm and impulse, meaning free expression of emotional extremes, usually in literature and music.

several root causes of teen misbehavior. However, it is equally deplorable to have young people on the street with nothing to do. New ideas are badly needed.

Promoting and Nourishing Teen Culture

The teen culture that confronts us today is the product of youth segregation (in schools and elsewhere) and being barred from adult work and other social roles. Teen culture symbolizes opposition. It is enhanced and served by a huge industry that creates products strictly for youth – clothing, games, music, etc., contribute to the youths' sense of being different from adults. The media reinforce these impressions with images of teenage foolishness and emotional immaturity. Epstein (2007, p. 71) provides a long list of popular films and TV programs that do this. The goofy antics of youth and pompous inanity of the adult authorities they pillory displayed in films like Animal House confirm adult assumptions that teens are merely large children. To teens these same images provide models for how they should behave and what adults in authority are really like.

Many Contemporary Youth Teens Do Have Problems

Epstein (2007) notes three problem areas common among contemporary youth: conflict with parents, mood disturbances, and high-risk behaviors. Teenagers also cause problems for themselves and others. The list includes violence and crime, alcohol and drug use (AoD) (including diverted prescription medications), sexual experiences and associated law violations,[3] eating disorders, anger, risk-taking, etc. American teens, according to Epstein (2007, p. 141), are the world's most troubled, and this is supported by data that suggest that degree of infantilization experienced by U.S. teenagers is associated with psychopathology. Epstein acknowledges these findings are correlational rather than definitely causal but suggestive nevertheless.

Given the research on pre-industrial societies just cited, many if not most problems experienced or caused by adolescents could result from delaying the process of becoming an adult. However, the assumption that teens are inherently vulnerable remains the basis for the continuing process of infantilization. This assumption is also bread and butter for professionals in the business of "helping" young people. Rather than recognizing the source of our problems, some now propose that adolescence really extends into the late 20's (Arnette, 1999).

A Paradoxical Result

The belief that young people are flawed because of age-related deficits has other serious consequences. It justifies Draconian policies that ostensibly protect young people from themselves. In the principle of zero tolerance, infantilization has embraced Godzilla.[4] The society seems convinced that zero tolerance for those who break the rules will deter others from the same behaviors. In schools, this justifies policies of deterrent punishment – severe consequences for an offender in order to deter his or her peers. In-school suspension, transfers to another school, barring students from positive extra-curricular activities, virtually automatic suspension and expulsion are the result.

The fact that zero tolerance has not worked in eliminating negative behaviors among school-age youth is ignored. Nor is the possibility considered that deterrent punishment of some probably increases resentment of many and thus furthers active opposition.

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[3] Epstein (2007, p. 137) offers a thought-provoking observation on teenage sex, ". . . there's no question about the meaning of the sex they have: they're behaving like the adults they really are, exactly as evolution intended."

[4] An extensively researched draft report sponsored by the American Psychological Association on the negative impact of zero tolerance policies on youth is available at http://www.apa.org/releases/ZTTFReportBODRevisions5-15.pdf.

Criminalization: The Other Face of Infantilization

Zero tolerance has also resulted in greatly increased criminalization among many youth (and even children) through constant addition of new laws and punishments and the intrusive surveillance tactics that accompany them. It is ironic that infantilization has been accompanied by a parallel increase in punitive response by law enforcement and schools. Epstein (2007) provides a list of new youth crimes by year. This is a continuing process as more and more activities become explicitly illegal. Epstein (2007, p. 63) further notes that the juvenile justice system (now also in decline with adult punishments allowed for some serious crimes) denies 5th and 6th Amendment rights (due process and trial by a jury of peers) to juveniles. Imagining that this open door would not be abused by police and court authorities is certainly naive. Worse, incarceration creates lifelong criminals of many youth through association with experienced criminals (Dishion, McCord, & Poulin, 1999), and an arrest and prison record bars entry to employment at all but the most meager levels.

Epstein (2007, Appendix 5) documents how this process is paralleled in school suspensions and expulsions for offenses such as ". . . throwing spitballs, making gun gestures with one's hand, or having a dull kitchen knife in one's car." Even the mental health system has joined the party. "Oppositional Defiant Disorder" is enshrined in the psychiatric and psychological DSM manual as "a pattern of negativistic, hostile, and defiant behavior" towards adults lasting at least six months (Epstein 2007, p. 362). Included among the eight criteria – meeting only four is sufficient – are: "often argues with adults", "deliberately annoys people, and "is often touchy". This diagnosis is used to justify treatment (and prescription of psychoactive drugs to get the young person under control) for behavior that is hardly uncommon among teens.

Alternatives to Current Thinking and Practice

Suggesting that it is time to abandon infantilization policies and zero tolerance ideology in the treatment of youth may seem like shouting into the wind, but there are indeed alternatives. The basic principle in achieving positive relationships between adults and young people is treating them with respect. Using the terms "teen" or "teenager" is indicative of the problem, since in our society they reflect the assumption of deficit when "adolescence" is primarily a cultural invention rather than a stage of development that is significantly distinct from adulthood.[5]

Young people who have good relationships with adults and their school are much less likely to engage in oppositional behaviors and more likely to avoid risks to their health (Resnick et al., 1997). Tobler and Stratton (1997) reported that interactive approaches to drug education were more effective than top-down lecturing and information dispensing. Not surprisingly, overall student "connectedness" to school is lower in schools which impose severe punishments for minor infractions (McNeely, Nonnemaker, & Blum, 2002). Cook-Sather (2002) has suggested that listening to young people (thus signaling respect) is badly needed in education. "There is something fundamentally amiss about. . . (not) consulting . . . those it is ostensibly designed to serve. . . Authorizing student perspectives can directly improve educational practice. . . (when adults) begin to see the world from those students' perspectives." Two way conversations in which young people participate as equals illustrate a way out of a continuing crisis of mutual disrespect.

The much larger issues of youth infantilization, teen culture, and adult response gradually emerged during the author's work on alcohol and drug education (Skager, 2006; Skager, in press). The author eventually realized that what he had discovered in this work applied to other areas of oppositional youth thinking and behavior

[5]Attending a recent International Conferences on Drugs and Young People sponsored by the Australian Drug Foundation, the author discovered that these terms were avoided as a rule of policy. "Youth" or "young people" were the terms of preference.

and likewise gave clues for the reasons why youth are often oppositional as well as ideas about how to respond to what we have wrought.

Respectful Drug Education and Student Assistance

The first step was finding an approach to drug education that promoted mutually respectful interaction between young people and the adults who deliver it. The author was fortunate to find this kind of education in the UpFront program at Oakland High School.[6] Sitting in on group sessions provided me with a convincing illustration of how positively and productively young people respond when led by adults who know group process, who are knowledgeable about AoD, and sensitive to how and when to share their knowledge.

UpFront also identifies and assists (rather than ignores or punishes) youth who have progressed to problematic alcohol or drug use. The format is discussion rather than lecture. There are five regular sessions for all students and additional discussion groups or individual counseling for students needing to evaluate their own involvement with AoD or that of friends or family members. Groups are led by adults who have internalized the content rather than delivering it out of a manual. They establish credibility by sticking to honest information. Both appealing and negative aspects of substance use are allowed on the table. There is too much experience among high school students to permit scare tactics or misinformation. When the facilitators do not know the answer, they say so and may ask participants to research it. They never judge the person. Withholding judgment is OK even when the behavior is not. Students also understand that there are "No put-downs!" They are encouraged to share what they know or think on all topics. Adult facilitators are also alert to "teachable" moments – when participants want to know something. Perhaps most important, sharing personal experience with AoD by self or others is encouraged, something inconceivable in zero tolerance education programs. One of the rules established at the start is, "What's said here stays here!" Experience shows that, when the great majority of youth are treated with respect, they respond in ways worthy of that respect.

Table 1 (next page) summarizes the UpFront process by contrasting it with current zero tolerance approaches to drug education.[7] However, locating this process at the beginning of the teen years does not mean that age-appropriate educational strategies characterized by respect, interactivity and linked support services would not be effective earlier as well. Programs for children from AoD families are probably the greatest single need at the elementary level.

Finding an Alternative to Deterrent Punishment

The last piece of the youth policy puzzle emerged during discussions of the California Statewide Task Force on Drug Education.[8] It began with realizing that deterrent punishment for AoD offenses and other misbehaviors is virtually universal in U.S. secondary schools (as might be expected in a zero tolerance society). If youth substance use is symbolic of opposition to adult rules and behavior, perceived inhumane and unfair treatment of peers merely adds to feelings of resentment to school and the adults in it. A different approach is needed, one that seeks to reform and reintegrate rather than stigmatize and banish. That approach

[6] Developed by Charles Reis, information on this program can be accessed at http://www.upfrontprograms.org. Oakland High School is an inner city school enrolling mainly students of color and children of recent immigrants to the U.S.

[7] This table is taken from the author's article in *Drug and Alcohol Review* (Skager, in press).

[8] This group was formed under the aegis of California State Senator John Vasconcellos, then Chair of the Senate Education Committee, and Assemblymember Jackie Goldberg, Chair of the California Assembly Education Committee.

turns out to be the school-based analogue of restorative justice, the result of new thinking in criminology that has lead to revolutionary ideas and practice in adult criminal justice. Important contributors to the theory and practice of restorative justice have been the distinguished Australian criminologist Braithwaite (1989) and U.S. practitioner Zehr (2005) among many others.

Restorative justice brings offenders and their victims together in a structured, mediated process which (a) confronts the former with how his or her crime affected others and (b) works toward a mutual agreement on what the offender can do to make amends. Restorative strategies accompany, but do not replace current punishments such as fines or imprisonment. However, this process, when successful, benefits the victim in a way that trial and sentencing procedures cannot. In standard practice, victims may be called to testify, but beyond that are ignored. Many want the offender to demonstrate in a credible way the personal impact of what he or she has done and express sincere regret. Restorative justice addresses the emotional needs of victims and promotes insight and often positive personal development in offenders. Research comparing restorative approaches to conventional criminal justice in the U.S. and other countries, especially Great Britain and Western Europe, has demonstrated that restorative justice (a) reduces recidivism significantly and (b) promotes emotional relief (including relief of post traumatic stress symptoms) and repair that victims do not find in the usual criminal justice process (Sherman & Strang, 2007).

Table 1. Comparing current approaches to drug education and student assistance to the UpFront process

CURRENT	PROPOSED by UpFront
Pre or early secondary	Secondary, age 13-14 and older
Curriculum dominant, information and skill development/practice	Process dominant, students share experience
Didactic, adult centered	Facilitated, interactive, non-judgmental
Sequenced content	Flexible, seeks/creates ”teachable moments”
Abstinence only goal	Advocates abstinence, but also addresses reducing harm/risk for users
Focus on AOD only	Includes issues and experiences related to both use and abstinence
Does not identify/assist users	Identifies/assists problematic AOD users
Indoctrinates, only negative information on AOD	Acknowledges positive aspects of AOD use in order to establish credibility

Restorative practices in schools have devolved from restorative justice for adults. Schools deal mainly with disruptive behaviors rather than crimes. In school, young offenders can often repair or otherwise compensate for what they have done. Voluntary service, cleaning up, painting over graffiti, etc. are concrete ways of “making things right” in restorative practices terminology. So is expressing credible regret and public commitment to changed behavior in the future.

The role of restorative practices in schools is significantly broadened to include changing school culture to promote better collaboration among staff members and create school-wide climate of caring and respect (Morrison 2005). As one school principal summed it up, “It’s changed the way we teach kids; it’s changed the

way we think about discipline and behavior management. We get along here (now), and that's because the kids are respected and they know it."[9]

Restorative approaches in schools have received considerable attention internationally, especially in Canada, Britain and Western Europe, Australian and New Zealand. The latter nation has recently incorporated them into all youth criminal justice proceedings. A recent chapter by Morrison (2005, p. 48) summarizes the goals, scope, strategies and evaluation findings on restorative practices in schools. She concludes, in part, that ". . . restorative justice empowers the school community to be more responsive and more restorative. It is about re-affirming and re-building the social and emotional fabric of relationships within the school community."

Restorative practices in schools have three components: (1) conferencing, like restorative justice interventions with adults, addresses offenders and those they have harmed; (2) circles, a regular classroom group discussion conducted by teachers to enhance cooperation and group cohesion, often by dealing with personal or interpersonal problems among students, if possible before they escalate into disruptive incidents; and (3) restorative questions, a counseling strategy that promotes positive connection with an adult while at the same time examining the intentions underlying the behavior and its effects on others. The key to all of the above is a mantra at the International Institute for Restorative Practices (IIRP): the way to change the nature of relationships between adults and students, children or youth, is to do things with them rather than to or for them.[10] Punitive sanctions do something to offenders while alienating them from the school; permissive responses do something for them without holding them accountable; neglect is not responding to their behavior at all.

Pilot studies of implementation by the IIRP of restorative practices in high and middle schools showed significant reductions in disruptive and disciplinary infractions over a two to three year period (Mirsky, 2003). In one high school, incidents of disruptive behaviors dropped from 273 to 153 between 1999 and 2002. In the same period out-of-school suspensions declined from 105 to 65, detentions assigned by teachers from 145 to 50, and administrative detentions from 716 to 282. Similar reductions were seen in the other schools studied. Principals and staff at all three schools reported significant positive change in student behavior and school climate and in the way staff related to one another and their students.

A Last Word

This paper outlines an inevitably controversial perspective on youth development. Adults are accustomed to thinking of adolescence as a biologically distinct stage of development. Adolescents thus lack the capacity to assume adult roles, or so the thinking goes. Instead, adolescence is an artifact of post-industrial social forces. At the macro level, the latter include two 20th century developments: (1) increasing limitations on employment opportunity until all forms of significant work became "adults only" coupled with (2) requiring that virtually all youth complete an academic high school education, whether they like it or not. Concomitantly, society tries to protect young people from themselves with more and more rules and controls. Youth reactions to their experience of mandated immaturity include conflict with parents and outside adult authorities, psychological disturbances, and risky behaviors associated with an increasingly powerful teenage culture. These symptoms are in turn cited as justification for further controls to "protect" teenagers from themselves by means of a veritable storm of new rules in schools and laws in civic society, many of the latter

[9] Edward Baumgartner, Principal of Palisades Middle School, PA (cited in Morrison 2005, p. 4).

[10] I am deeply grateful to Ted Wachtel, President of the IIRP, and his staff for introducing me to restorative practices in schools and encouraging my participation in their training classes. The institute has an extensive on-line library on restorative practices http://www.restorativepractices.org and information on training materials and conferences (including a regular international conference) at http://www.safersanerschools.org.

criminalizing offenders. How a society can, without harming itself further, "protect" and at the same time restrict and criminalize more and more young people is a question left for the reader to ponder.

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THE SILENT VICTIMS OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE PROGRAM: DEVELOPMENT, IMPLEMENTATION AND EFFECTIVENESS OF A SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE INTERVENTION AND PREVENTION PROGRAM

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Abstract

An initiative started in 2001 with the Dallas Independent School District (Dallas ISD) that was intended to raise the awareness of educators to problems related to domestic violence and child abuse has grown into a comprehensive program about the multiple forms of violence that can impact children and their families. Since the launch of the program in 2003, approximately 15,000 faculty and staff of Dallas ISD have been trained; referrals and inquiries related to the abuse have increased (~70 percent); and the city has witnessed a drop in the number of domestic violence and child abuse offenses. This presentation will discuss the planning, development, implementation and adaptations of the "Silent Victims of Domestic Violence" program, its successes and the future of the recently updated program.

Background

Youth violence in America's school systems has been a significant concern of parents, educators, law enforcement professionals and students for many years. Violent incidents that cover a broad spectrum ranging from name calling to murder occur every day in our educational systems. The City of Dallas is no exception.

Student enrollment figures for the school year 2005-2006 indicated that 161,972 predominantly minority (93.5 percent) persons attended classes in the Dallas Independent School District ((Dallas ISD). Many of these children live in high risk situations where they are exposed to violent and abusive environments characterized by child abuse, neglect, domestic violence, substance abuse, and community violence. These conditions are further exacerbated by socioeconomic factors that include poverty, unemployment and crime, with many of these students living in areas of the city where the median family income is below the county average of $49,062.00 (US Bureau of the Census, 2000).

An examination of the socioeconomic factors and rates of family violence has revealed that the areas with the lowest per capita income and lowest median family income correspond to the areas of the City of Dallas with the highest rates of domestic violence and confirmed child abuse. While this analysis does not confirm a link between violence and poverty, the co-localization does raise concerns about the link between socioeconomic issues and the exposure of children to multiple risk factors.

Estimates derived from statistics compiled for the City of Dallas indicate that approximately 22,000 (~6

percent) of the youth in the City of Dallas are living in environments where they are at significant risk for victimization by abuse or neglect (Appel and Holden, 1998) or harmed by the violence between their adult caregivers. Still, because of the diverse behaviors associated with the multiple risk environments, as well as the co-morbid development of these conditions in each situation, establishing the true rates of exposure for children that fall into these categories proves difficult.

The Texas Department of Protective and Regulatory Services (TDPRS) 2004 records of Child Protective Services (CPS) indicate that 3,581 (29.6 percent) of 12,106 child abuse and neglect investigations were confirmed, finding that 5,518 children were living in abusive situations in Dallas County (TDPRS, 2005). However, underreporting of child abuse (Newton, 2001) complicates the efforts to assess, reliably, rates of child abuse / neglect in Dallas.

Domestic violence between the adult caregivers also poses a serious risk to the children living in these violent environments. In the City of Dallas, 14,371 family violence offenses (1,147.1 DV offenses/100,000 population) were reported during 2004, a figure that many agree may be under-reported by 50 percent or more (Bachman et al. 1995). Dallas Police Department records documenting the presence of young children at the scene of domestic violence incidents have indicated the presence of children at approximately 31 percent of the 14,371 domestic violence offenses for 2004. Additional data from the Dallas Police Department indicates that an average 1.2 children were present at each domestic violence incident (Dallas Police Department, personal communication, 2003). Accepting the national estimates of 50 percent underreporting of domestic violence offenses, an estimated 10,700 children could potentially be at risk for exposure to domestic violence in the City of Dallas alone.

A sizable body of evidence demonstrating a link between domestic violence and child abuse suggests that as many as 40 percent of all children who may be living with adults who are involved in abusive relationships are also targets of abuse and neglect (Appel and Holden, 1998). Based on this data, it is reasonable to expect that thousands of children enrolled in the Dallas Independent School District are exposed to domestic violence while they are simultaneously victims of child abuse and neglect.

A victimized child in a school setting may exhibit a broad range of signs/symptoms indicative of the abuse (reviewed in Cole at al., 2005). The research of Dr. Bruce Perry in Houston suggests that many of the problems manifested by a child who has been traumatized by violence at home are linked to neurological complications effecting one or more regions of the brain (Perry, 2001). Maladaptive stress responses which, under healthy conditions, serve to protect the body, instead wreak havoc upon the autonomic nervous system, immune function, and brain development and function. Brain dysfunction that is manifest as emotional and behavioral problems, ineffective executive functioning, dysregulation of basic physiological functions, and uncontrolled impulsivity are coupled with physical injuries, health concerns, eating disorders, truancy, inconsistent or poor academic performance or thoughts of suicide to name but a few of the signs suggestive of an at-risk child (Appel and Holden, 1998).

The effects of these problems are not limited to just the victimized child. A child living in a violent home may manifest these problems in a classroom, effectively disrupting a teacher's ability to present lessons. A child who is showing signs of poor academic performance could be mislabeled as ADD/ADHD or in need of Special Education services (Famularo at al., 1996). A child exhibiting behavioral problems could be redirected, unnecessarily, to an alternative school setting (Thomas, 1995).

School system performance can also be impacted by students exposed to the violence or to a troubled youth in the classroom. Standardized testing scores may reflect an inability on the part of a child to effectively focus on the subject matter. Ultimately, each of these scenarios places a strain on an educational system that is

already struggling to provide basic services to its student population and meet established standards of performance.

The Silent Victims of Domestic Violence (SVDV) program is an effort of considerable magnitude that was created as a community response to the concerns of school administrators to problems faced by children living in violent homes. Despite its complexity, this program meets the basic recommendations for effective violence intervention and prevention efforts identified in a publication produced in April 2000 jointly by the U.S. Departments of Education and Justice entitled *Safeguarding our Children: an Action Guide* (U.S. Dept of Education, 1998). The report, a follow-up to the 1998 report entitled *Early Warning, Timely Response: A Guide to Safe Schools* (U.S. Department of Justice, 1998) defines the fundamental criteria for the establishment of a school safety program.

The criteria, which included: 1) education, 2) early intervention and 3) intensive intervention, were established in response to the events similar to the violence of Jonesboro, AR (March 24, 1998), Springfield, OR (May 21, 1998), and Littleton, CO (April 20, 1999). During these incidents, multiple students and faculty were seriously wounded or killed by a student(s) during a shooting spree on a school campus. Each report details strategies aimed at preventing these types of incidents and many of the recommendations are applicable to the population of students who, on a daily basis, deal with recurring abusive experiences in the home. In many cases, the violent student responsible for the spate of school shootings may, in fact, be a long time victim of abuse.

Other evidence supports the direction of this program. An Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) publication entitled Safe from the Start: Taking Action on Children Exposed to Violence (U.S. Dept of Justice, 2000) describes a series of key components needed for development of a successful intervention program. The OJJDP report recommends eight principles for organization and stimulation of efforts to address children's exposure to violence that include working together, beginning early, addressing child development needs, safety, making resources available and working from a sound knowledge base. Together, these principles were the foundation of the collaborative process in Dallas County that began in 2000 with the formation of the Children and Domestic Violence Subcommittee of the Child Abuse Prevention Coalition (CAPCO) and ultimately led to the development of the Silent Victims of Domestic Violence program with the Dallas Independent School District. This report examines the development of the training and intervention components of this comprehensive program which is designed to meet the needs of all student populations.

Methodology of Program Development

This program was established to help children of all ages who are exposed to violence at home and, ultimately, afford each child the opportunity for healthy development and successful academic performance. Supported by the No Child Left Behind Act (U.S. Dept of Education), the "Silent Victims of Domestic Violence" program meets the guidelines of the legislation established under the U.S. Department of Education to support standards for optimal student achievement. Through increased awareness of professional educators and health care providers, these students are identified and directed to services within the school district and the community to address concerns triggered by the violence at home.

At the start of the development of this program, the need for aggressive prevention and intervention efforts was well documented by the annual Dallas County Community Plan (Dallas County Office of Budget and Evaluation, 2001). Prepared by a multidisciplinary panel of professionals from the Dallas/Fort Worth metroplex, the report identified specific needs and resources for the Dallas County community that were relevant to a variety of criminal justice issues including child abuse, children living in multiple risk

environments, domestic violence, juvenile crime, law enforcement, mental health, mental retardation, substance abuse and victims of crime.

In September 2001, an initiative in the Vickery Meadows area of Dallas was organized by Presbyterian Hospital of Dallas in collaboration with a local elementary school. The early efforts were intended to raise the awareness of teachers and support staff to key issues related to domestic violence, child abuse and exposure to violence in the home, a significant concern for this region of the city.

In late September, a coalition of professionals from law enforcement, health care, education and social service agencies convened to begin development of educational materials for the teachers, counselors and staff of the entire Dallas Independent School District (Dallas ISD). The coalition consisted of representatives from the Dallas ISD, Generations Center (a Dallas-based, not-for-profit agency), New Beginning Center (a local domestic violence program), Dallas ISD's Youth and Family Centers, the Dallas Police Department and the United States Department of Health & Human Services, Administration for Children and Families (Region VI). These key contributors were additionally supported by the Parkland Foundation, Texas Health Resources and Genesis Women's Shelter in Dallas. Each partner committed their expertise, time, and dedication to children and families in the development of this comprehensive, multifaceted program.

The Scope of the Program

This program has been developed in multiple stages and has successfully: 1) raised the awareness of the targeted professionals to the signs of abuse and violence, 2) enhanced opportunities for referrals within the school district, and 3) offered counseling services within the school district and the community for those children and their families affected by violence. This program has undergone adaptations and modifications periodically to meet the evolving needs of the children, their families and the professionals who serve these students.

Video Production

Initially, the scope of the project was limited to the production of a brief informational video for educators that described the effects of exposure to domestic violence upon children. With input from the members of the development committee and under the guidance of a professional script writer a video script was developed. The video was produced by the Media Production Unit of the Dallas ISD with the support of the General Superintendent, the Chief of Police for the Dallas Police Department and members of the development team. The 28-minute video began airing in February 2003 at the first training session for Dallas ISD and has been viewed by well over 15,000 Dallas ISD educators, administrators and staff members.

In June 2005, production of an updated video began. The updated version once again stressed the significance of childhood exposure to violence in the home, potentially related problems that may appear in the classrooms and on the campuses of the districts, safety concerns and appropriate interventions. The second video, also produced by the Dallas ISD media production unit began airing to the Dallas ISD during the summer of 2006 and continues to air daily over DSTV, the school district television network.

Reference Manual Preparation

Accompanying the first video was a reference manual that provided support materials to the staff of the Dallas ISD. The manual contained general information about violence in the home, recognition of abuse, safe and appropriate intervention strategies, and resources within the district and the community. In early 2006, to enhance the scope of the material that was available, revisions of the original manual were undertaken. The

updated manual includes sections on sexual violence and substance abuse as well as an updated resource section with the most current information about available assistance for the children and their families. The updated manual will eventually be distributed in an electronic format, either in a CD format or accessible via an internet based format.

Training Program

In February of 2003, after 18 months of preparation and development, the video and resource manual were unveiled. Each of the 218 schools within Dallas ISD received a single copy of the video and manual for use by the staff and counselors. The program developers also launched the first workshops on the issues related to family violence and abuse. The initial two-hour training was presented to approximately 200 counselors, administrators and law enforcement personnel. Subsequent trainings were expanded to a full day based upon recommendations of the Dallas ISD staff members.

During the ongoing evaluation processes, the program content was also examined for the effectiveness and thoroughness of the presentation and its relevance to the issues associated with the violence experienced by the children and their families. As the program evolved, it became more comprehensive and inclusive of the recommended topics. The training agenda for a typical one-day workshop devotes 3-4 hours on general information and the dynamics of violence experienced by students while at home. The remainder of the training is devoted to practical applications of the information and includes recognition of the warning signs indicative of abuse/violence and neglect; safe and effective intervention techniques; and, available resources for the children and their families.

Crisis Counseling

In 2005, the Dallas ISD and Generations Center partnered to establish a program that provides crisis counseling services for at risk youth who are dealing with trauma related to abuse and domestic violence. The intervention strategy combines well established protocols from a variety of disciplines that address the very dynamic needs of a highly vulnerable population. The professional response is enhanced by the services of a Licensed Professional Counselor (LPC), a professional familiar with the complex dynamics of domestic violence, child abuse and neglect and an understanding of the care that must be exercised to avoid further harm to the victim, other students and faculty members. Supported by a Safe and Drug Free Schools grant from the Office of the Governor for the state of Texas, the LPC provides counseling services for the children and their families.

Counseling services are provided in response to referrals made through established protocols of the district. The referral process is set in motion when a faculty or staff member recognizes signs suggestive of an at-risk youth. Such signs may include behavior problems, academic performance concerns, physical evidence of exposure to violence, emotional disorder(s), persistent health concerns or any combination of these indicators. Referrals are made from each of the 218 Dallas ISD school campuses to the Child Abuse and Domestic Violence Prevention Office. The at-risk children and their families that are referred for services through the established protocols within the school district are evaluated and matched with resources based upon the individual needs of the child and non-abusive parent.

Currently, the program's LPC offers crisis intervention services for the students and families at one elementary school location selected because of the needs of the community and student population. Plans for an expansion of the crisis intervention services into other Dallas ISD campuses are currently being explored.

Parent Training

Beginning in September 2005, the Dallas ISD and Generations Center collaborated to present a series of workshops at the Dallas ISD parent training academies. The parent training academies are annual events that focus upon the most important family issues facing parents. The materials focus upon issues such as discipline and abuse, family violence and media violence, child safety, and internet threats. These topics were identified by parents as the most relevant topics about child safety, violence and abuse that they face each day. Having completed its second year, the awareness program has been presented to the parents of hundreds of Dallas ISD students with plans for additional opportunities already identified.

Program Results and Discussion

Training

A key function of the Silent Victims of Domestic Violence program is the training program that has been conducted since February 2003. The initial offering of the training agenda was presented to approximately 200 counselors, nurses and law enforcement officers within Dallas ISD. Since that initial offering, there have been approximately 500 counselors, administrators, nurses and teachers trained to recognize potential signs indicating that a child is at risk for exposure to violence at home and the appropriate responses to the revelations. After having received the in-depth training, many of these counselors and educators have returned to their campuses and assisted in presenting the basic program information to their colleagues. This approach to the training has been instrumental in raising the awareness of approximately 15,000 Dallas ISD teachers and staff to the issues related to exposure to violence in the home and the signs indicative of that exposure.

Training Evaluation

Since the first training exercise, data have been collected to evaluate the effectiveness of the training program. At each training exercise, data are collected to examine the existing levels of understanding of issues related to domestic violence, child abuse, dating violence, sexual assaults and childhood development. In addition, pre and post training testing is conducted in order that the program administrators may effectively measure the impact of the training upon the knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSAs) of the audience.

Survey results detailed in Table 1 (next page) indicate that the responses were mixed about the participants' initial levels of understanding about youth violence and childhood development. The results indicate that a majority of the respondents considered themselves to be knowledgeable or very knowledgeable about domestic violence, child abuse or domestic violence effects upon child development respectively. However, the majority of the respondents rated themselves as possessing limited or no knowledge of dating violence and sexual assault.

The pre- and post-training evaluation instruments are brief survey instruments of 253 statements each that were adapted from a survey developed by Lynn Short, Ph.D. while at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in Atlanta, GA. The original survey, designed for health care workers, is an inventory of the knowledge, skills and attitudes about domestic violence. Participant responses to each statement are measured using a seven point Lickert scale with responses ranging from 1: absolutely disagree to 7: absolutely agree.

The adapted survey examines the knowledge, skills and attitudes about interpersonal violence against children and adults. The evaluation of the KSAs of the program audience was categorized into five broad topics that include:

- ☐ Witnessing Domestic Violence
- ☐ Domestic Violence
- ☐ Child Abuse

- ☐ Recognition
- ☐ Intervention

Table 1: Results of the pre-training survey regarding prior knowledge/skills/attitudes about interpersonal violence and its effects upon children.

		Domestic violence	Child abuse	Dating violence	Sexual assault	DV and child development
A	no knowledge	4	1	2	2	2
B	very limited knowledge	13	12	20	13	15
C	limited knowledge	65	49	105	101	78
	Total A+B+C	82	62	127	116	95
D	Knowledgeable	133	145	92	100	114
E	very knowledgeable	10	18	7	10	17
	Total D+E	143	163	99	110	131
Total (A, B, C, D, + E)		225	225	226	226	226
n = 226						

The data that was collected from the multiple training exercises (n = 226) was coded to one of the five broad categories listed above. Descriptive statistics were prepared for each statement (pre and post) and for the total of all answers in each category. Subsequently, t-test analysis (2 sample assuming unequal variances) was performed on each statement and category to identify significant measurable changes in knowledge, skills and attitudes.

The results indicate a statistically significant change in the KSAs among professional educators, counselors and nursing staff as measured by the pre and post training test scores (mean pre-test score = 107.8; mean post-test score = 118.75) (P (one tail), $p < 0.0001$). Among the broad categories, four of the five categories revealed statistically significant changes (detailed in Figure 1, Appendix) in KSAs with only the child witnessing of domestic violence category showing no significant changes between pre and post training scores.

Referrals within Dallas ISD

The launch of this program in 2003 saw an immediate increase in the number of inquiries and referrals regarding child abuse and domestic violence from within the district. The Child Abuse/Domestic Violence Office had averaged approximately 10,000 calls per year prior to the debut of the program in February 2003, mostly inquiries about abuse and reporting. However, with the establishment of the program, this office has witnessed a sustained increase in referrals and inquiries. Data from the Dallas ISD showed that the numbers of referrals from the Child Abuse/Domestic Violence Prevention Office have increased each year since the 2002 – 2003 school year with the only exception occurring during the 2005-2006 school year. The 05-06 drop

in the number of referrals is an artifact of an incomplete data set for the school year and not a decrease in the numbers of referrals for the school year. Figure 2 (Appendix) details the increases in referrals that have been made beginning with the 2001-2002 school year.[1] Figure 2 shows the five-year trend of Dallas ISD referrals for child abuse and domestic violence related issues. Referrals were made through the Child Abuse and Domestic Violence Office of the Dallas ISD.

Domestic Violence Reporting

In the years since the program development began, the city of Dallas has experienced a reduction in the number of domestic violence offenses reported to law enforcement. Records from the Texas Department of Public safety have shown that the city of Dallas has experienced a 26.98 percent drop in rates of reported offenses, a change that has outpaced the remainder of the municipalities in Dallas County with populations of 100,000 or more (Figure 3, Appendix). For these cities, the rates of domestic violence have been constant or slightly lower over the same time period with the exception of the city of Mesquite, Texas which witnessed a 14.81 percent drop in the rate of domestic violence, nearly half of the percentage drop for the city of Dallas. However, the correlation between the drop in domestic violence for the city and the Dallas ISD program has not been confirmed and will require additional studies to demonstrate the link between the Dallas ISD program and offense reports.

Counseling Services

This component of the program has been operational for one year. Services have been provided at a single elementary school in an area of Dallas that has been identified to have rates of domestic violence and child abuse above the mean rates of abuse for the city of Dallas. During the year, with a limited schedule of counseling services, 33 children and their families have received services that include individual and group counseling services and limited play therapy services. These services have been offered for behavioral and emotional problems related to exposure to violence and abuse at home. Many of the children and their parents have received services at multiple counseling sessions that are offered on campus at the school for the convenience of the children and their parents.

Documented effectiveness of this component of the program is not yet available. Evidence of the success of the counseling services is limited to anecdotal reports of improved behavior and academic performance of the children receiving counseling services. Teachers and counseling staff at the school have reported that the program participants have exhibited demonstrable changes in their behavior since beginning the program. Formalized evaluation is currently planned to document the effectiveness of the counseling component of this program.

Summary and Conclusions

The Silent Victims of Domestic Violence Program is a progressive, proactive idea with modest beginnings, that developed into a multi-phased program with potential for recognition as a best practices model. Based upon sound principles for intervention, this program provides multiple levels of service that benefits the student population, families of these students, teaching staff, the Dallas ISD and the community. Evidence of its success is seen in the numbers of referrals to the Child Abuse/Domestic Violence Prevention Office of the Dallas ISD; the measurable changes in staff knowledge about this significant social issue; and reported improvement in behavior and academic performance of the children receiving counseling services. In

[1] The Silent Victims of Domestic Violence Program was introduced during the 2002-2003 school year. The dataset was incomplete for the 2005-2006 school year.

addition, decreases in the rates of domestic violence offenses reported to the Dallas Police Department have outpaced changes in the rates of abuse for other cities in Dallas County.

The Silent Victims of Domestic Violence program has undergone a number of significant changes in the four years since its inception. A number of milestones have passed with many more still on the horizon. In January 2006, Generations Center convened an advisory group to assess the content and effectiveness of the educator program in anticipation of the release of the second iteration. Professionals representing a broad range of disciplines from across the state, parents, and students from Dallas ISD have committed their valuable time and expertise to serving on one or more subcommittees that focused upon specific aspects of the program. In September 2006, the updated program was debuted to educators and counselors in the Dallas area. Eventually, this program will be converted into an electronic format with broad availability to professionals from many disciplines.

The program also began the second year of parent trainings to address issues of violence and abuse in the family. The information presented is used to raise awareness among parent and community groups. With increased awareness has come the need for increased demand for crisis counseling services. A second school site has been identified and is now preparing to offer these specialized services. In particular, the second site will target the Hispanic population for which there exists a strong need for these services.

Finally, as this program has developed, it became increasingly apparent that it has been successful in its mission. Staff and parents are becoming increasingly aware of the potential benefits of this program. Anecdotal evidence suggests that the children are showing signs of positive changes after receiving the services. Testing indicates that staff members are receiving useful tools for practical application. All of this evidence suggests that this program has the potential to be highly successful in helping children and families recover from violent incidents, to adapt through counseling services, and, ultimately, reduce the impact of violence against children and promote healthy physical, emotional and intellectual growth and development.

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Appendix

Figure 1. Detail of category scores from pre- and post training evaluation

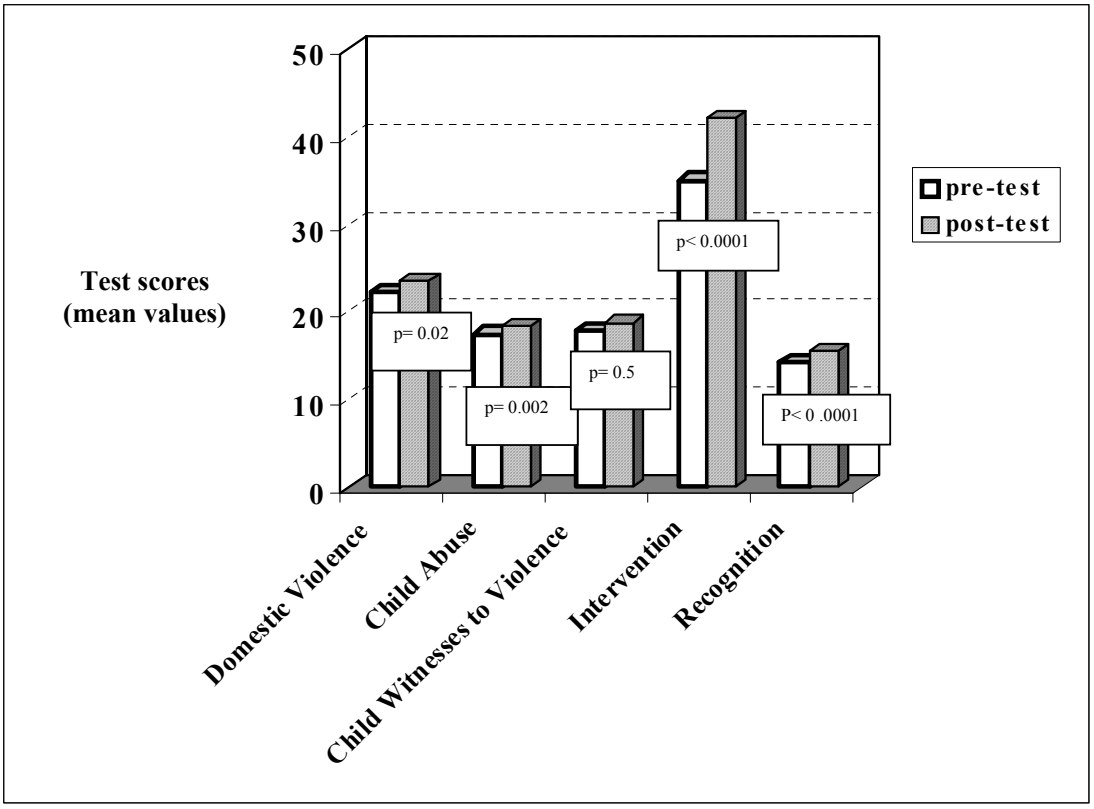


Figure 2. Child abuse / domestic violence office referrals

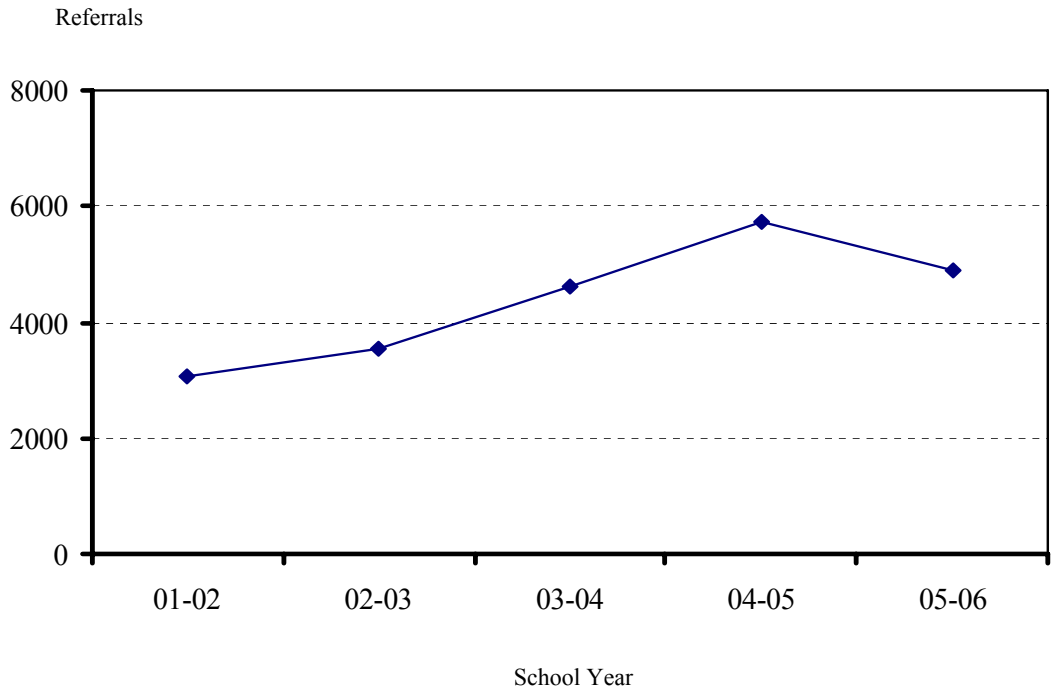
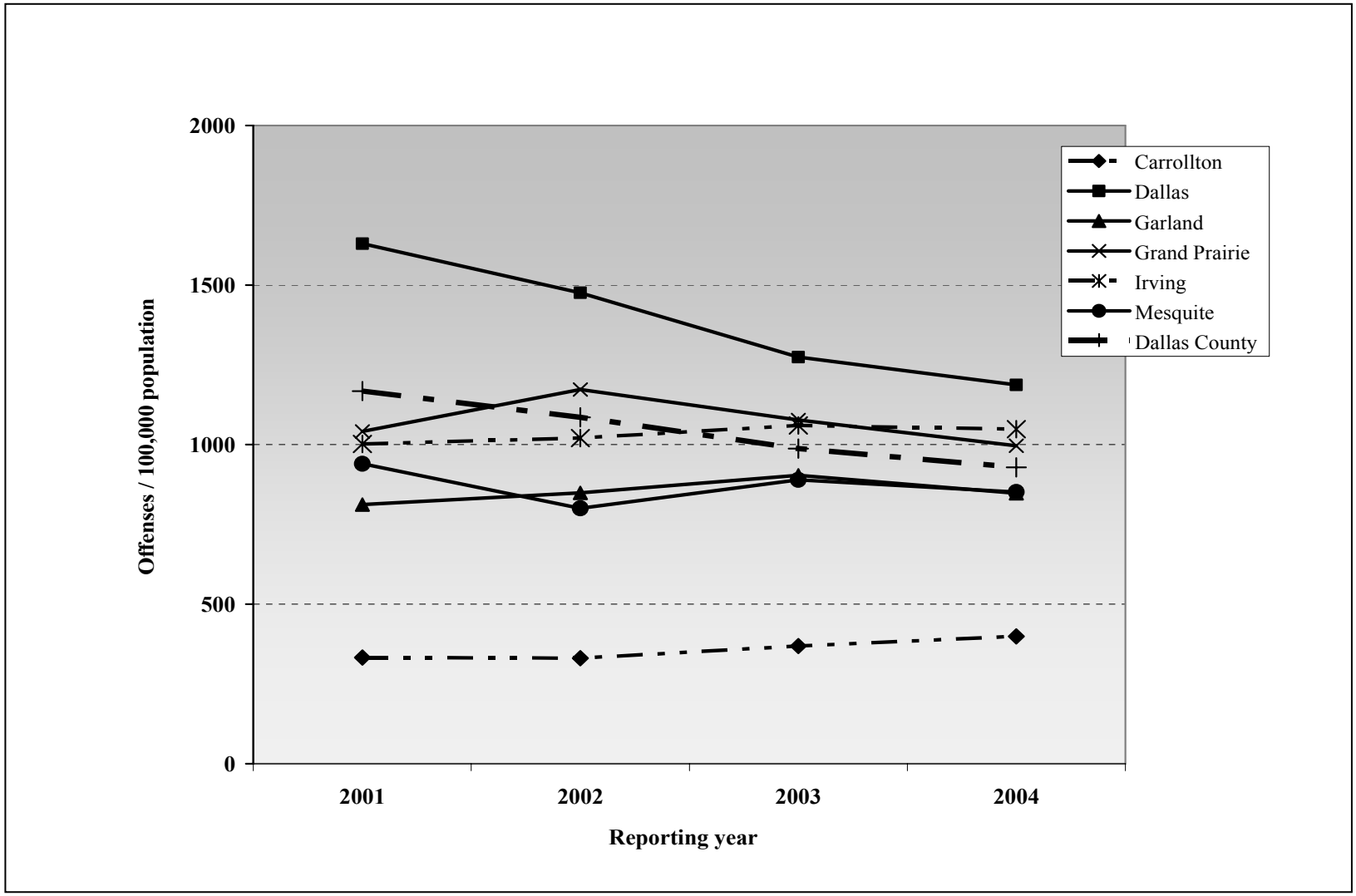


Figure 3. Rates of domestic violence for Dallas County cities with populations exceeding 100,000 residents were compared against the rates for the City of Dallas (solid line, square symbol)



YOUTH-TURN: TURNING ADVERSITY INTO ACTION

Sandy E. Spavone, Executive Director [a]

[a] National Organizations for Youth Safety, Gainesville, VA

Session Overview

Abstract

Working together is a very important part of working smarter; not harder. To create safe and healthy environments for our youth, uniting our efforts is key to continued success. National Organizations for Youth Safety will describe the effective collaborative efforts and programs developed by national organizations and their youth leaders.

Summary

National Organizations for Youth Safety (NOYS) brings together organizations that focus on youth safety and health to work jointly on common efforts. In every collaborative effort, each party brings to the cause different sets of expertise, experience, excitement, and external outreach potential. This workshop will highlight some of the successful collaborative efforts of the NOYS and how these collaborations have led to greater successful outcomes that would not have been possible without networking through the NOYS membership. Attendees will learn about the work being done by the NOYS member organizations and discover where the needs are and how the paths to collaborative success can be found in any environment.

Unfortunately, we all face tragic events and adversity in our communities. It is how we react and use these tragic events turn adversity into action that can impact our communities and prevent repeat occurrences. NOYS has recently launched a web-based program – YOUTH-Turn – to help young people turn adversity into action. This highly interactive presentation will equip attendees with tools necessary to address adversity in their communities and empower youth to make the difference. In addition, a recently updated project planner and organizer that assists youth in planning and implementing their projects will be reviewed.

What was done? Program tools have been developed to assist youth and their advisers in creating projects to address youth safety and health.

Why was it done? The youth felt that they and their peers along with their adult leaders needed a tool that could be universally used to plan and implement youth led projects and programs.

Who did it? NOYS youth and adult leaders

Who/what was supposed to benefit? Youth who are seeking to make a difference in their community

What were the anticipated results? Increased effective planning and implementation of projects by youth across the country

What will happen next? Trainings are being implemented at national conferences and local meetings

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CHOOSING AND CREATING SCHOOL WIDE PREVENTION PROGRAMS [1]

Jeffrey R. Sprague, Ph.D. [a]

[a] The University of Oregon, Institute on Violence and Destructive Behavior

What This Guide Covers

The goal of this Guide is to describe current information and empirically-supported practices in the process of making schools safer and violence free.

In this Guide, we will cover the following topics:

- Why school wide prevention strategies are critical to comprehensive and effective safe school planning and implementation;
- Four sources of vulnerability to school violence: What we need to know to match our needs with strategies;
- Conducting school safety needs assessments;
- Planning for and implementing school wide prevention strategies; and
- Useful web and print resources.

Why Prevention and Intervention Strategies Are Critical to Safe School Planning

Many schools in the U.S. are relatively safe places for children, youth, and the adults who teach and support them (U.S. Departments of Justice and Education, 1999). However, the fears about personal safety of students, teachers, parents, and community members are real and need to be addressed. It also is true that some schools have serious crime and violence problems and most schools are having to deal with more serious problem behaviors (e.g., bullying, harassment, victimization, drug and alcohol abuse, the effects of family disruption, poverty, and so on) (Kingery, 1999). An understanding of the complex, interconnecting relations and factors affecting the safety and climate of schools is necessary for (a) identifying antisocial and violent youth early in their school careers and (b) developing and implementing effective interventions in the contexts of schools, communities and families.

We recommend use of the USEd Office of Safe and Drug Free Schools "Principles of Effectiveness"[2] as an organizing framework for planning and implementing whole-school approaches. The steps outlined include: (1) a local **needs assessment** of the risk and protective factors affecting model sites, (2) establishment of **measurable goals and objectives** by the school in collaboration with project personnel, (3) selection of **research-based and research-validated curricula and interventions**, and (4) a comprehensive and

[1] This paper is the Preface to Creating Schoolwide Prevention and Intervention Strategies by the author in the forthcoming series on *Effective Strategies for Creating Safer Schools and Communities*, to be published by the Hamilton Fish Institute and Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory with the support of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice.

[2] See Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Subpart 1, Section 4115(A), http://www.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/pg52.html#sec4115 or http://captus.samhsa.gov/Western/resources/bp/step6/bpdoeprn.cfm.

rigorous evaluation plan, which features an experimental research design and includes evaluation of the inputs (resources, staff, materials), outputs (actual costs, description of the process of implementation), outcomes (e.g., student behavior change), and impact (overall satisfaction with project products and outcomes). In this Guide, we will discuss each step and provide sample applications.

The following strategic approaches can move schools in the direction of greater safety and will reduce the likelihood over time of a school tragedy occurring: **(1) Secure the school; (2) Address the peer culture and its problems of bullying and harassment; (3) Create a positive, inclusive school culture; (4) Involve parents in making the school safer; and 5) Develop a written school safety and crisis-response plan.** As a school is perceived to be more at-risk, these strategic approaches become that much more important and the investment made in them should be potentially greater.

THE POWER AND BENEFITS OF MENTORING

Susan G. Weinberger, Ph.D.
Founder and President [a]

[a] Mentor Consulting Group, Norwalk, CT

Session Overview

This workshop will provide participants with an understanding of the definition of youth mentoring. It will trace the history of the mentoring movement and differentiate between informal and formal mentoring. The current state of mentoring today in the United States and across the world and the powerful benefits for mentors, mentees, educators, corporate leaders and parents will be discussed.

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HOW TO BEGIN, MAINTAIN AND EVALUATE A YOUTH MENTORING PROGRAM

Susan G. Weinberger, Ph.D.
Founder and President [a]

[a] Mentor Consulting Group, Norwalk, CT

Session Overview

Participants will gain an understanding of how to begin a youth mentoring program based on quality assurance standards. These will include establishing a long-range program plan, recruiting of mentors and mentees, screening, training, matching, tips and strategies for mentoring sessions, closure steps and program evaluation. Key to effective programming is on-going support of the mentor matches and the ability to sustain the program. The workshop will discuss each of these strategies for success. A period for questions and answers will be provided.

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Keynote, Author, Panelist, and Presenter Biographies

Howard S. Adelman, Ph.D. 7533
Mental Health and Safe Schools Panelist

Howard Adelman is Professor of Psychology and Co-Director (along with Linda Taylor) of the School Mental Health Project and its federally-supported National Center for Mental Health in Schools at UCLA. He began his professional career as a remedial classroom teacher in 1960 and received his Ph.D. in Psychology from UCLA in 1966. He directed the Fernald School and Laboratory at UCLA from 1973-1986. His research and teaching focuses on policies and practices for addressing barriers to students' learning (including educational, psychosocial, and mental health, problems). In particular, he is interested in system variables (e.g., environmental determinants and interventions, models and mechanisms for system change) and intrinsic motivational factors (e.g., self- perceptions of control, competence, relatedness) relevant to the causes and correction of emotional, behavioral, and learning problems. In recent years, he has been involved in large-scale systemic reform initiatives to enhance school and community efforts to address barriers to learning and promote healthy development.

Sherry L. Allen, LPC, NCC 7562

Sherry Allen is the Executive Director of the Southeastern Network of Youth and Family Services. She is a graduate of Vanderbilt University with a Bachelor of Science Degree in Mathematics and a Masters Degree in Human Development Counseling. She has over 25 years of experience in working with youth and families as a teacher, a youth worker, professional counselor and administrator. Sherry has been the Executive Director of the Southeastern Network since January 2002 where she facilitates and administers the delivery of training, technical assistance and advocacy support services to youth services agencies in eight southeast states.

Prior to joining the Southeastern Network staff, Sherry worked 13 years with Oasis Center, Inc. in Nashville, TN, serving as youth worker, therapist, program director, and finally associate director. Sherry is a Licensed Professional Counselor in the state of Tennessee. Through her agency work and private practice, Sherry has provided trainings and consultation throughout the south- and northeastern United States and Western Europe, with an emphasis on youth development, community youth development, runaway and homeless youth issues, parenting, leadership, board development, grant development, and organizational development. Most recently, Ms. Allen served as the representative for the National Board of Certified Counselors (NBCC) and NBCC-International to the UNESCO Experts Panel on violence against children.

Susan Armoni, Ph.D. 7549

paxUnited's Executive Director, Susan Armoni, began the conflict mediation movement in the schools of Texas over a decade ago. Susan, a 20-year veteran in education, has worked in the field of prevention for nearly 20 years and has over 250 hours of training in mediation. She founded and directed the Texas Mediation Initiative through the Office of the Attorney General as well as paxUnited.

Michael Bell, M.D. 7504
Mental Health and Safe Schools Panelist

Michael Bell is featured in the "Guide to America's Top Psychiatrists" May 2007 edition from the Consumers Research Council of America, Washington, D.C. Dr. Bell, who joined the staff of Milwaukee Health Services,

Inc. (MHSI) as a psychiatrist in August 2004, previously served as Director of MHSI's Behavioral Health Services Center (BHSC). He is an Assistant Clinical Professor of Psychiatry and Behavioral Science at the Medical College of Wisconsin. Dr. Bell has published on manic-depression (NeuroPsychiatric Review) addressing effective treatment approaches for patients affected by bipolar disorder, and reviewed the autobiography of the famous black intellectual and scholar John Hope Franklin for Psychiatric Services. Dr. Michael Bell is one of several contributing professionals to the Mental Health Matters for Violence Prevention Project in Milwaukee.

Gene R. Bertie 7520

Gene Bertie graduated from Pima Community College, in Tucson, Arizona, with an associate's degree in Police Administration. He has 20 years service with the Tucson Police Department. During his tenure with TPD, Mr. Bertie directed police academy training, worked in the Crime Prevention Unit, and helped create a specialized Officer Street Training program. He joined the County Attorney's Office in 1998.

Sara Ann "Sally" Black, Ph.D. 7516

Dr. Sally Black is assistant professor in the Health Services Department at Saint Joseph's University and serves as an independent evaluator for community based youth violence prevention programs. Dr. Black advocates for a public health approach to youth violence prevention, an approach that respects youth development while addressing the needs of universal, selected, and indicated groups of children. Her major projects include prospective evaluations of bullying prevention, reducing children's exposure to domestic violence, firearm injury prevention, juvenile justice interventions, and positive youth development programs.

Ellen R. Brown, Esq. 7523

Ellen Brown has been with the Juvenile Division of the Pima County Attorney's Office off and on for 11 years. She has worked the SMART program in 15 different schools. As part of her responsibilities, she has worked with a school district under the Federal Safe Schools Grant as the juvenile justice component implementing the SMART program in four high schools and three middle schools.

Michael W. Burns, M.S. 7521

Mike Burns began his criminal justice career at the Pima County Juvenile Court in May of 1979 and earned a BPA in Correctional Administration from the University of Arizona, and a master's degree in Educational Psychology from Northern Arizona University. In January of 1994, he was hired by the Pima County Attorney's Office and currently directs the Community Justice Unit.

Deborah T. Carran, Ph.D. 7510

Deborah T. Carran is a methodologist with an interest in special education, developmental psychology, and program evaluation. Dr. Carran has conducted numerous outcomes-based and longitudinal studies with special needs populations and has engaged in risk factor evaluations for dropouts and early intervention programs. Dr. Carran is widely-published, has spoken at numerous international and national conferences and is involved with the National Center of Outcomes Research, Technical Advisory Committee.

Keynote, Author, Panelist, and Presenter Biographies

Karina Cervantez 7514

Karina Cervantez is a Ph.D. student in the Social Psychology program at the University of California, Santa Cruz. Her research interests include access to higher education, youth and immigration, and the political mobilization and collective action in communities of color. She received her B.A. in psychology at the University of California, Santa Cruz.

Andrea Chomistek 7543

Ms. Chomistek is the Program Coordinator for the STOP the Violence Program at Family, Career and Community Leaders of America (FCCLA).

Bebs Chorak, M.Ed. 7541

Bebs Chorak, Deputy Director, Street Law, Inc., holds a Masters in Education and has thirty years experience developing educational programs and training staff in secondary schools and juvenile justice agencies, including international curriculum development in Eastern Europe and the Middle East. She is co-author of several of the "Street Law Series," manuals for specific audiences, including the Street Law for Resource Officers.

Kevin A. Curtin 7525

A licensed clinical professional counselor (LCPC) in the state of Maryland, and a Ph.D. candidate at The George Washington University, Kevin Curtin has more than 18 years in the field of counseling. He has presented at conferences on a variety of counseling related topics, including community service learning, therapeutic community, multi-family therapy, adolescent egocentrism, and the microskills of counseling.

Cybele K. Daley, Acting Assistant Attorney General **Keynote**
and Deputy Assistant Attorney General, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice

Daley was appointed Deputy Assistant Attorney General for the Office of Justice Programs (OJP) in June 2005. Deputy Assistant Attorney General Daley serves as the principal liaison between OJP and its major stakeholder groups. She brings to her position 15 years of experience with legislation, law enforcement policy, appropriations, and budget processes.

Ms. Daley began her career on Capitol Hill, where she served on the Senate subcommittee responsible for appropriations to the Department of the Treasury, the Postal Service, and other government agencies. From there, she moved to the executive branch, where she served as a policy advisor to the Treasury Department's Undersecretary of Enforcement. Her duties entailed providing guidance on law enforcement issues affecting the Department and its enforcement bureaus and serving as liaison with state and local law enforcement agencies. She later was offered an opportunity to help reinvigorate the legislative program at the U.S. Marshals Service and became chief of the agency's Office of Congressional Affairs.

In 1999, Ms. Daley joined the Office of Legislative Affairs (OLA) in the Department of Justice. As Special Assistant to the Assistant Attorney General of OLA, she advised senior Department officials, including the Attorney General and the Deputy Attorney General, on legislative policies. She also coordinated legislative efforts with Congress, other Department of Justice components and executive branch agencies, and the private

sector. In addition to serving as advisor on major bills related to counter-terrorism and homeland security, she managed a portfolio of issues that included intellectual property rights enforcement, computer crimes, critical infrastructure protection, cyber security, weapons of mass destruction, transportation security, economic espionage, electronic surveillance technology, the budget, and the appropriations process.

After serving four years at OLA, she joined the private sector, where she was director of government affairs for a forensic technology company. She advised the company's president and senior management on policy, legislation, and appropriations and served as its representative on Capitol Hill and with government agencies. She also managed the operations of the company's Washington, D.C. office.

Ms. Daley received her bachelor's degree in political science from the University of Arizona.

Jeffrey A. Daniels, Ph.D. 7519

Jeffrey A. Daniels obtained a Ph.D. in Counseling Psychology from the University of Nebraska in 1997. He is currently an assistant professor in the Counseling Psychology program, School of Education at Indiana University. His research interests focus on averted school violence, including school hostage events. Dr. Daniels presently serves on the Editorial Board of the Journal of School Violence and the

Rachel Dinkes, M.Sc. 7501

Rachel Dinkes is a research analyst for American Institutes for Research. Ms. Dinkes is lead author of Indicators of School Crime and Safety 2006, and 2007 (in press). These 200 page reports commissioned by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) present the most recent data available on school crime and student and teacher safety from an array of data sources. Ms. Dinkes is also a co-author and contributor to the Congressionally Mandated Condition of Education 2007, and 2008 (forthcoming) as well as a co-author on an NCES graduation and drop out rate report. She has an MSc in Social Research Methodology (Statistics) from The London School of Economics and is currently pursuing a PhD at the George Washington University in Public Policy and Public Administration.

David Eisner, J.D., CEO, CNCS **Inter-Agency Federal Resource Panelist**

David Eisner is Chief Executive Officer of the Corporation for National and Community Service, the Federal Agency that oversees America's service and volunteering programs, including AmeriCorps, VISTA, NCCC, Senior Corps, Learn and Serve America and other domestic service and volunteering programs.

Eisner came to the Corporation in December 2003, at a time of challenge and difficulty for the organization, and immediately brought strong management and passionate advocacy to its service programs. Under Eisner, the Corporation has expanded the reach of its programs, reduced administrative burdens on grantees, increased its efficiency and accountability, and lowered many of its per unit program costs.

In addition to its ongoing grant making and program management, the Corporation has overseen the unprecedented national service response to the Gulf coast hurricanes, released groundbreaking studies on volunteering and civic engagement in America, transformed Martin Luther King Jr. Day into a national day of service in every state, and created the first Federal Mentoring Council, which is building greater coordination among mentoring activities of the Corporation and key federal agencies.

Today, operating under the guidance of a new five-year plan, Eisner is leading the Corporation in forging powerful alliances with other agencies and private sector leaders to use service as a support platform for youth in disadvantaged circumstances, to engage more college students in service, to harness the skills of retiring Baby Boomers and, generally, to drive greater numbers of Americans to have greater impact through service and volunteering in communities.

Prior to his service with the Corporation, Eisner was an executive with AOL and AOL Time Warner, where he oversaw the AOL Foundation and became a nationally recognized leader on nonprofit capacity-building, infrastructure, and organizational effectiveness. He has served on the boards of several national nonprofit organizations, including Independent Sector, the National 4-H Council, and Network for Good. A graduate of Stanford University, he received his law degree from Georgetown University Law Center, and lives in Maryland with his wife, Lori, and their four young children.

Elizabeth K. Englander, Ph.D. 7503

Elizabeth Englander is the Director of the Massachusetts Aggression Reduction Center at Bridgewater State College. She is a nationally recognized expert in the area of bullying and childhood violence. She completed her doctorate at USC and was an NIMH Research Fellow before becoming a Professor. She holds many awards and is the author of dozens of articles and of the book, Understanding Violence (2006).

J. Robert Flores, J.D. **Keynote**
Administrator, U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention

J. Robert Flores was confirmed by the Senate on April 12, 2002, and sworn in on April 17, 2002, as the Administrator, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP), Office of Justice Programs (OJP), U.S. Department of Justice.

As Administrator, Mr. Flores is responsible for the agency that Congress has mandated to address the public safety issues of juvenile crime and youth victimization. His OJJDP leadership responsibilities include identifying effective strategies for addressing juvenile crime through research; coordinating, implementing, and supporting effective programs and encouraging innovative approaches to deal with existing and emerging juvenile justice issues; developing priorities and goals and setting policies to guide Federal juvenile justice issues; providing technical assistance and training to essential components of the juvenile justice system; disseminating information on juvenile justice trends, programs, and new approaches; and awarding funds to States to support local programming nationwide.

Prior to his OJJDP appointment, Mr. Flores was the Vice President and Senior Counsel for the National Law Center for Children and Families. From 1989 to 1997, Mr. Flores was Senior Trial Attorney and Acting Deputy Chief in the Child Exploitation and Obscenity Section, Criminal Division, of the U.S. Department of Justice. During his tenure in the Criminal Division, he supervised several national investigations, including the U.S. Customs Service's "Operation Long Arm," which targeted individuals in the United States who imported child pornography from a foreign-based bulletin board service, and the Federal Bureau of Investigation's "Innocent Images" effort to halt distribution of child pornography images through America Online, the Internet service provider. Mr. Flores prosecuted United States v. Kimbrough, the first Federal computer child pornography case to go to trial. He successfully argued the appeal to the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals.

Keynote, Author, Panelist, and Presenter Biographies

Prior to his service in the U.S. Department of Justice, Mr. Flores was an Assistant District Attorney in Manhattan where he successfully prosecuted numerous child sexual abuse cases, including highly publicized cases involving a major child prostitution network and a millionaire philanthropist who operated a non-profit organization through which he seduced and sexually abused children. Mr. Flores regularly lectures at conferences and seminars throughout the United States on child abuse and exploitation, criminal procedure, criminal and constitutional law, and investigative procedures and computer crime. He has also served as a consultant to Federal and State legislators and government officials. In 1999, he was appointed to the Child Online Protection Act Commission by U.S. House Speaker Dennis Hastert.

Mr. Flores earned his Juris Doctor degree from the Boston University School of Law and Bachelor of Science degree in business administration from the Boston University School of Management. He and his wife Ingrid have three children.

Mary Hatwood Futrell, Ed.D. **Keynote**

Mary Hatwood Futrell is the dean of The George Washington University Graduate School of Education and Human Development (GSEHD).

A professor of education and co-director of GW's Center for Curriculum, Standards, and Technology, Dean Futrell specializes in education reform policy, professional development, and diversity issues. She is chair of the Holmes Partnership Board and is a member of the Boards of the National Society for the Study of Education, The Kettering Foundation, Horace Mann Insurance Company, and Lynchburg College.

Prior to becoming dean of GSEHD in 1995, Dr. Futrell was president of the National Education Association (NEA) for an unprecedented 6-year term and, before that, served as president of the Virginia Education Association (VEA). In 2004, she completed her term as president of Education International (EI), a global federation of 30 million educators from 152 countries that works with governmental and non-governmental organizations in advocating education for all. She also is the former president of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession and served as a senior consultant for Quality Education for Minorities Network.

First and foremost a teacher, Dean Futrell is an advocate for human and civil rights and improved education worldwide. She has received over 20 honorary degrees from universities and colleges and has won numerous awards. Some of her honors include the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education David G. Imig Award for Distinguished Achievement in Teacher Education (2002), the NEA Foundation Award for Outstanding Service to Public Education (2003), and UNESCO's Jan Amos Comenius Medal (2004).

Michael Garringer 7526

Michael Garringer is an information services professional with extensive experience providing mentoring programs nationwide with information, consultation, and resources to assist in the development, improvement, and evaluation of their program practices. Michael is also the author and editor of several NMC publications and guidebooks.

The HAMILTON FISH INSTITUTE's *Persistently Safe Schools: The 2007 National Conference on Safe Schools*

Keynote, Author, Panelist, and Presenter Biographies

Beverly Caffee Glenn, Ed.D. **Conference Chair**

Dr. Glenn is the Executive Director of the Hamilton Fish Institute on School and Community Violence. Prior to accepting this position, Glenn worked at the National Education Association (NEA), where she was the director of the human and civil rights division. A former Dean of the School of Education at Howard University, she taught in the Department of Administration and Policy. She also served as a senior policy analyst at the Center for Law and Education at Harvard University. Glenn has consulted for many institutions, including Aurora Associates in South Africa, the Yale University Child Study Center, Project ATLAS (the partnership between James Comer, Theodore Sizer, Howard Gardner and the Education Development Center), the Public Education Fund Network and the U.S. Departments of Justice and Education.

Robert M. Gonzales, MRE, M.Div. 7549

paxUnited's Deputy Director, Robert Gonzales has served as the Texas State Coordinator for the Southwest Regional Center for Safe and Drug Free Schools. Previously he directed the drug prevention and education program at St. Mary's University in San Antonio, Texas. While at St. Mary's, he developed the Student and Employee Assistance program and also coordinated the Campus Mediation Center.

James P. Griffin, Jr., Ph.D. 7535

For the past 32 years, Dr. James P. Griffin, Jr. has participated in behavioral health promotion, training, education, and research. He has an earned doctorate in psychology with specialized training in behavior modification, school psychology, and community/organizational psychology. His experience includes prevention work in substance abuse, HIV/AIDS, hepatitis, and violence. He directs two community-based prevention initiatives, and works with a city-wide violence prevention partnership in Atlanta, Georgia. Married for 24 years, he has three children.

Tio Hardiman, M.S. 7517

Mr. Tio Hardiman, a recognized leader in violence prevention, holds a master's degree in Inner City Studies from Northeastern University. A grant recipient of the Illinois State Board of Education as well as the Chicago Public Schools, he has been recognized by the White House, an invited speaker at Department of Justice conferences and interviewed by various print and broadcast media.

Ms. Josephine Hill, B.S., LBSW 7506

Josephine Hill is a graduate of Prairie View A&M University, Prairie View, Texas. Ms. Hill is a Certified Classroom Teacher and Advanced Certified Child Protective Services Specialist. During her career, Ms. Hill has served as a classroom educator, an investigator/social worker/caseworker for Adult and Child Protective Services. Currently, she is employed by the Dallas Independent School District as a manager in the District Child Abuse/Domestic Violence Office and serves as a liaison between Child Protective Services, Dallas Independent School District and the Dallas Police Department. Ms. Hill served as the key representative to the committee that developed the Silent Victims of Domestic Violence program and has trained other professionals since the program's debut in 2003.

The HAMILTON FISH INSTITUTE's *Persistently Safe Schools: The 2007 National Conference on Safe Schools*

Keynote, Author, Panelist, and Presenter Biographies

Peter W. Hochuli, Esq. 7523

Peter Hochuli has been with the Juvenile Division of the Pima County Attorney's Office for over 11 years. He was one of the original deputy county attorneys to start the SMART program in two local schools. He has trained attorneys on SMART and helped start new programs. Peter has presented on the SMART program both locally and nationally and acts as a resource to those starting similar programs.

Beth Hossfeld, MFT 7514

Beth Hossfeld, MFT, Associate Director and Co-Founder of Girls Circle, a licensed marriage and family therapist, is a co-developer, national consultant and trainer of the Girls Circle model, curricula, and implementation. She is a contributing author to a handbook on prevention and interventions for adolescent girls. A Girls Circles facilitator since 1994, she has also served as clinical director of a K-12 school-based mental health program and provides consultation to providers of adolescent and family services since 1987.

James C. (Buddy) Howell, Ph.D. 7539

Dr. Howell is the Senior Research Associate at the National Youth Gang Center in Tallahassee, Florida. He has more than 30 gang publications. Topics of his recent gang research include risk and protective factors for gang membership, myths about gangs, gangs in schools, gangs in small towns and rural areas, and effective gang programs. Buddy enjoys empowering states and localities to assess and address their own gang problems.

Thomas Hutton, Esq. 7529

Thomas Hutton's work as a senior staff attorney for the National School Boards Association (NSBA) includes amicus curiae advocacy on appellate cases affecting public schools and providing legal resources and support to state school board associations, local school boards, and the NSBA Council of School Attorneys, the national professional association for attorneys who represent school districts. He is a frequent speaker and writer on school law topics and has represented school board positions in major media including C-SPAN's "Washington Journal" and National Public Radio's "Talk of the Nation." He serves as editor of NSBA's weekly Legal Clips e-newsletter and Leadership Insider, the school law and policy newsletter for NSBA affiliated school districts.

Prior to joining NSBA, Mr. Hutton practiced housing and community development and non-profit law in the Washington, D.C. offices of Powell Goldstein LLP. He earned his J.D. from Georgetown University Law Center. Before attending law school, he worked for eight years in state government in Hawaii. He is a co-founder and former chair of the board of trustees of Thurgood Marshall Academy, a charter high school in the District of Columbia that has a thematic focus on law and democracy. He currently serves on the board of directors of the 21st Century School Fund, a Washington, D.C.-based non-profit that focuses on issues related to school facilities, especially in urban communities. He was educated in public schools in New Hampshire, Wisconsin, and Colorado, and is a graduate of Connecticut College.

Angela Irvine, Ph.D. 7514

Angela Irvine holds her doctorate in Sociology from Northwestern University, where she studied social policy and critical race theory. The Ceres Policy Research specializes in program evaluation and policy research

related to youth who have been suspended or expelled from school, held in juvenile detention, or involved in the child welfare system. Her research has identified links between vulnerable populations such as gay, lesbian, bisexual and questioning youth, and social and educational dislocation. She is helping the Annie E. Casey Foundation develop a data collection tool for their Juvenile Detention Alternatives Initiative (JDAI) sites to analyze girls' experiences. Dr. Irvine sits on the collaborative Santa Cruz Girls Task Force, which is developing girls' prevention programs that are linked to the community rather than the justice system.

Millicent H. Kellner, Ph.D., LCSW 7510

Millicent H. Kellner, Ph.D., LCSW, licensed clinical social worker and certified educational supervisor, has worked in child welfare, mental health and special education. She developed the In Control (2001) anger management program and has conducted studies on the outcomes of special education. Dr. Kellner has published and made numerous presentations about anger management. She is also the author of Staying In Control (2003) and Being In Control Bingo (2006). She was New Jersey's 2003 School Social Worker of the Year.

Elizabeth Koller 7511

Ms. Elizabeth Koller is Founder and Executive Director of Perspectives On Growth And Development, Inc., a not-for-profit organization whose mission is to promote tolerance and patience among those who work with at-risk children and adolescents by providing them with a neuorscientific understanding about behavior, thus enabling them to help youth make healthier choices and improve their performance and moods. She studied the science of the brain and behavior under two neuroscientists. Ms. Koller is a noted national speaker who has dedicated her career to teaching professionals in schools, law enforcement, mental health, drug rehab, parents, and the legal field about the science of brain chemistry and its impact on youth. She has given seminars to hundreds of organizations nationwide with direct impact on more than one million youth.

Krista Kutash, Ph.D. 7532
Mental Health and Safe Schools Panelist

Dr. Kutash is Professor and Deputy Director of the Research and Training Center for Children's Mental Health at the University of South Florida in Tampa. Dr. Kutash has been with the Center since 1984 and has been Principal Investigator on several grants examining issues related to children who have disabilities and their families. Dr. Kutash has over 100 publications and presentations in the area of improving the outcomes for children including a comprehensive review of the empirical base of the system of care for children who have emotional and behavioral disabilities and their families.

Fannie LeFlore, M.S., LPC, CADC-D 7504
Mental Health and Safe Schools Panelist

Fannie LeFlore, a writer/editor and special projects consultant, is a former newspaper reporter and psychotherapist. From 1993 to August 2005, LeFlore was a Provider or Manager in non-profit social services, education and community health programs. LeFlore worked as freelance co-writer/editor of a book, "The Road Less Traveled and Beyond," by M. Scott Peck, M.D. LeFlore maintains professional licenses as a mental health and substance abuse counselor in Wisconsin. She is also a professional member of the American Mental Health Counselors Association (AMHCA). As owner/president of LeFlore Communications, LLC since August 2005, Fannie LeFlore engages in writing/editing and corporate

communications services, and development and facilitation of trainings and special projects for schools, community organizations and businesses of all sizes. Among LeFlore Communications' local client companies are: Froedtert Hospital and the Milwaukee Health Care Partnership, a coalition. LeFlore Communications and Community Intervention Programs Inc., the non-profit organization affiliated with LeFlore Communications since 2005, are the lead organizations for the Mental Health Matters for Violence Prevention Project in Milwaukee.

Mary A. Lentz, Esq. 7550

Mary A. Lentz is a former public school teacher and is an Ohio attorney who specializes in public and private school law. She has been an attorney over 30 years and has served as legal counsel to the Ohio State Board/Department of Education, counsel to hundreds of public school districts and private schools, as an assistant county prosecutor in the criminal division, and as a municipal police prosecutor.

Ms. Lentz writes, teaches, provides training to public and private school administrators, teaches School Resource Officers, and also lectures nationally and internationally. She is certified by the Ohio Attorney General/Ohio Peace Officer Training Council to instruct Ohio police officers. She is the editor of Baldwin's Ohio School Law Journal and author of Lentz School Security, a 900 plus-page manual for educators and law enforcement, published by Thomson West. Ms. Lentz is also the author of many articles including, but not limited to search and seizure in schools, drug and alcohol testing, sexual harassment, liability in the educational environment, interviewing children as victims and witnesses, special education, preventing child sexual abuse, child safety and background checks, and Internet bullying.

Ms. Lentz holds degrees from Georgetown University and Cleveland Marshall College of Law of Cleveland State University and is licensed to practice in the United States Supreme Court, all Ohio courts, the District of Columbia Court of Appeals, the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, the U.S. District Court (Northern District of Ohio), and the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Sixth Circuit. Ms. Lentz is a recipient of the FBI Director's Community Leadership Award (Washington, D.C.).

Shannon Machado, Program Coordinator 7541

In her work at Street Law, Inc., Shannon Machado coordinates a variety of Street Law initiatives including programs for school resource officers, pregnant and parenting teens, youth in transition, and incarcerated youth. She also coordinates Youth for Justice, the U.S. Department of Justice's national law-related education program. She received her B.A. in Psychology from The George Washington University.

Cheryl Neverman, Senior Program Manager **Inter-Agency Federal Resource Panelist**
National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA)

Cheryl Neverman has more than 25 years experience in the injury prevention and highway safety field as an educator, trainer and national presenter. Ms. Neverman is a Senior Program Manager and the Youth Team Leader at the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), and represents the agency on the Federal Interagency Coordinating Committee for the Prevention of Underage Drinking, the Federal Interagency Committee on Education, and the Federal Network for Young Driver Safety.

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Joe M. Nguyen 7522

Joe Nguyen is a Community Coordinator with Safe School Campus Initiative. He has over seven years of experience working with schools, community-based organizations, law enforcement and community members. He is a current member of the Mayor's Gang Prevention Task Force, the California Gang Investigators Association, and sits on Mt. Pleasant School District Truancy Reduction Board. He holds several training certification from the California Police Officer Standards and Trainings for gang identification and investigation.

Michelle Gwinn Nutter 7509, 7524

Michelle Gwinn Nutter, a PA-certified teacher, is a Safe Schools Coordinator with the Center for Safe Schools. Previously, she was a civil rights investigator Pennsylvania's Attorney General's Office. During her 10 years with that office and now as a Safe Schools Coordinator, Michelle continues to provide technical assistance to schools and communities on: hate groups; hate crimes; school-based harassment; prejudice reduction; diversity; SPIRIT; gangs; terrorism awareness; and First Amendment Issues.

Amy M. Muldowney 7503

Amy Muldowney is the Senior Graduate Assistant at the Massachusetts Aggression Reduction Center (MARC) at Bridgewater State College in Bridgewater, Massachusetts. She has been involved at MARC both as an undergraduate, as a Graduate Research Assistant, and as the Senior GA. Amy has presented her research at numerous conferences and has led the Center's efforts to educate children in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts in bullying and cyberbullying prevention. She regularly presents to K-12 schools in Massachusetts and assists in the Center's research efforts. Amy has also been involved with the Bridgewater State College Children's Physical Developmental Clinic since 2003. Her professional interests include special needs children and bullying. Ms. Muldowney received a Bachelors of Science in Psychology from Bridgewater State College in 2005. She is currently working towards a Master of Arts degree in the Clinical Psychology program at BSC.

Shauna D. Parks, M.A. 7508

Shauna D. Parks is the alternative education program liaison for Charlotte Mecklenburg Schools in Charlotte, North Carolina. Previously, Parks worked as a clinical liaison with the City of Norfolk, Virginia working with the homeless population, dually diagnosed, and involuntary commitments for mental health and substance abuse services. While in Norfolk, she also served drug-addicted pregnant women in a residential treatment facility, providing them with housing and case management services. Prior to arriving in Virginia, Parks spent her career working in the South Carolina Department of Corrections Women's Correctional Center. She provided clinical supervision and program management to the female youthful offender population, substance abuse unit, and HIV inmates. Parks received her B.S degree in Counselor Education, and M.A. degree in Rehabilitation Counseling, both from South Carolina State University in Orangeburg, South Carolina. Over the past 14 years, her career has been dedicated to helping people with substance abuse problems and providing mental health services to adolescents and adult populations.

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Tom Patire 7507

Tom Patire has worked as a V.I.P. bodyguard for the past 25 years and has been educating kids for 15 years. He is known as America's Leading Personal Safety Expert and is a published author of "The Personal Protection Handbook." Mr. Patire is the on air safety expert for shows such as Montel, Rachael Ray, and Fox TV. His FOX one-hour child safety show Stranger Danger was nominated for an Emmy Award.

Joseph F. Pauley, Ph.D. 7515

Joseph F. Pauley has taught at every level from elementary school through graduate school. He worked and lived in Asia for 21 years and is an expert in communicating with and motivating people from other cultures. For 20 years he has trained teachers in the concepts of Process Communication so that they can individualize their instruction, thereby motivating and energizing every student. He was guest editor of the Winter 2003 National Dropout Prevention Newsletter.

Judith Ann Pauley, Ph.D. 7515

Dr. Judith Ann Pauley taught chemistry and physics for 42 years in universities and high schools in the United States and Asia. She has used the concepts of Process Communication in the classroom to help motivate every student, especially hard to reach students, and to mentor new teachers. Dr. Pauley has received several outstanding science teacher awards. She has written several articles, is co-author of two books for educators, and presents annually at about 18 conferences.

Joseph Persichini, Jr. **Keynote**
Assistant Director in Charge, FBI Washington Field Office

Joseph Persichini is considered one of the FBI's experts in law enforcement corruption and has been involved in law enforcement corruption training throughout the U.S. and internationally.

As head of the WFO, Mr. Persichini manages and directs all FBI national security and criminal investigative programs in a territory that includes the District of Columbia and 13 counties and independent cities in Northern Virginia.

Mr. Persichini entered on duty with the FBI as an Accountant in September of 1976 and was assigned to FBI Headquarters, Budget and Accounting Section, conducting cost benefit analyses. Mr. Persichini received his appointment as a Special Agent of the FBI on June 9, 1980, and, upon completion of training, was assigned to the Alexandria, Virginia, Field Office. He subsequently served in the Denver Field Office and the New York City Field Office.

Mr. Persichini was promoted as Supervisory Special Agent at FBI Headquarters in the Office of Professional Responsibility in March 1988. In May 1991, he was transferred to the Miami Field Office, where he served as Supervisory Special Agent of the Law Enforcement Corruption Squad. In this capacity, Mr. Persichini was the Program Manager responsible for the direction and support of the FBI Miami's Public Corruption and Governmental Fraud programs.

Mr. Persichini was selected to conduct law enforcement training in Moscow, Russia; Bangkok, Thailand; Dubai, United Arab Emirates; and Islamabad, Pakistan.

Keynote, Author, Panelist, and Presenter Biographies

In November, 1996, Mr. Persichini was designated the Assistant Special Agent in Charge of the Cleveland Field Office with responsibilities for the White Collar Crime, Organized Crime and Drug Programs.

In November of 2002, Mr. Persichini was designated Special Agent in Charge, Administrative Division of the Washington Field Office, with responsibility for all human resources, facilities, technical operations, security, training and budget matters.

Mr. Persichini attended Canisius College in Buffalo, New York and received a Bachelor of Science degree with a major in Accounting. Prior to entering on duty with the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Mr. Persichini worked in a family-owned commercial light service corporation.

Mr. Persichini is married and has two children.

Scott Bernard Peterson **7547**
Federal Program Manager, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice **Inter-Agency Federal Resource Panelist**

Upon graduation from the State University of New York at Buffalo in 1991, Scott accepted a position to help open a homeless youth shelter in New York. After three years, he then became the founding director of the Colonie Youth Court and executive director of Youth Courts of the Capital District, Inc. During this time, Scott was appointed by Governor George E. Pataki to the New York State Juvenile Justice Advisory Group, and he also served on the Town of Colonie Youth Bureau Board and the Colonie Senior Service Centers, Inc. Board of Directors.

In 1997, Scott relocated to Washington, D.C. where he accepted a position at the U.S. Department of Justice within the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Scott is responsible for managing and establishing numerous national projects. Scott is recognized as the leading international expert on the topic of Youth Court and Teen Courts. He is the recipient of the 2003 Paul F. Chapman Award presented by the American Foundation for the Improvement of Justice and the 2006 Lewis Hine Award from the National Child Labor Committee. In 2007, he graduated from the FBI Citizens Academy, was published in several professional journals, and traveled to England to help the UK government launch the first youth court program in Europe.

Melanie Prescott, B.A., M.S., LPC 7506

Melanie Prescott is a graduate of Texas Tech University in Lubbock and the University of North Texas in Denton. During her career, Ms. Prescott has worked as a therapist with the Collin County Children's Advocacy Center as well as the Child and Adolescent Program Coordinator, Victim Outreach Director and Director of Non-Residential Services for New Beginning Center in Garland, Texas. Early in the program, Ms. Prescott served as a key contributor to the development of the Silent Victims of Domestic Violence program. Later she served as a valuable trainer of other professionals. Ms. Prescott is currently in private practice in the Dallas area.

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Deborah A. Price, Assistant Deputy Secretary **Keynote**
Office of Safe and Drug Free Schools, U.S. Department of Education

Deborah A. Price oversees the Department's activities related to safe schools, crisis response, alcohol and drug prevention, the health and well-being of students, and building strong character and citizenship. She also leads the Department's homeland security efforts.

Prior to this appointment, Price served as chief of staff of the Office of Federal Student Aid (FSA), where she was responsible for day-to-day FSA operations and for resolving problems that may impact student aid delivery or implementation of the FSA performance plan. She was also responsible for the operation of the immediate office of the chief operating officer, ensuring that it was responsive to internal and external audiences. In addition, she served as a liaison with other key Department of Education principal offices, including the Office of the Secretary, Office of the Deputy Secretary, Office of Postsecondary Education, Office of Management and the Chief Financial Officer.

For two years, Price was senior adviser to the deputy secretary, providing strategic policy guidance on Departmental issues within the Office for Civil Rights, the Office of the General Counsel, the Family Policy Compliance Office and the Office of Safe and Drug-Free Schools. Price represented the deputy secretary to external organizations and other constituencies on issues of civil rights, privacy rights, safe and drug-free schools, and character education. She also worked with the Office for Civil Rights and the Office of the General Counsel to increase policy coherence on issues of common concern. In addition, Price reviewed policy guidance on implementation of current Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act and Protection of Pupil Rights Amendments.

Price was the executive director of the Secretary's Commission on Opportunity in Athletics, the blue-ribbon panel charged with examining Title IX. In this role, Price planned and directed all aspects the secretary's commission, including: developing the structure of the commission process and format for its meetings; developing and implementing policy and communications strategies; overseeing the process of developing and writing the commission's report to the secretary; and working with and briefing the secretary, other senior officers from the Department and White House officials on the commission and its progress.

For 16 years, Price worked for two senators. She was policy adviser to U.S. Sen. Don Nickles (R-Okla.), who was then assistant majority leader. Prior to this, she was director of research and administration for the Senate Republican Policy Committee under Sen. Nickles. Before joining Nickles' staff, Price was a scheduler for Sen. William L. Armstrong (R-Colo.).

Between 1984 and1985, Price directed the National Prayer Breakfast, where she supervised its planning office, and coordinated its invitations, registration and accounting and related activities. She also worked in conjunction with the Joint Congressional Committee on the National Prayer Breakfast.

A native of St. Louis, Mo., Price earned a bachelor's degree from the University of Missouri-Columbia.

Keynote, Author, Panelist, and Presenter Biographies

Mary Lou Randour, Ph.D. 7517

Dr. Randour, a psychologist, addresses the connection between animal cruelty and other crimes through research, training, and policy. She has published numerous articles in professional journals on this topic, authored two handbooks for mental health and social service professionals, and is first author of a forthcoming publication, "A Common Bond: Child Maltreatment and Animals in the Family."

Jessica Roa, M.S. 7514

Jessica Roa has worked with Ceres Policy Research since 2004. She has worked with Barrios Unidos to complete a community-based health needs assessment of low-income Latinos living in north- and mid-Santa Cruz County. She has also been part of the Youth Reentry Team working with Santa Cruz County Probation Department and four community-based organizations to better serve detained youth as they integrate back into their communities. Most recently, Ms. Roa assisted the Girls Circle Association in co-authoring their program evaluation report. She is currently a Social Psychology graduate student at UCSC where she is focusing on the juvenile justice system and its impacts on girls. She completed her M.S. in Social Psychology at UCSC in 2004 and anticipates acquiring her Ph.D. in the spring of 2008.

Terri E. Royster, M.A. 7519

Supervisory Special Agent Terri Royster earned a Master of Arts Degree in Forensic Psychology. In June 1989, she entered on duty with the Federal Bureau of Investigation and in May 1996, SSA Royster was assigned to the FBI's Behavioral Science Unit. She presently teaches a course entitled, "Gangs, Developmental Issues, and Criminal Behavior," to the FBI's National Academy students and provides instruction on "Psychopaths" and "The Psychology of Perception and Memory" to FBI New Agents.

Tod Schneider 7530

Tod Schneider is a Eugene, Oregon police department crime prevention specialist and a private consultant on Crime Prevention through Environmental Design (CPTED), and Safe, Healthy and Positive Environmental Design (SHAPED) for schools. He has consulted to the National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities, the Department of Education Office of Safe and Drug Free Schools, OJJDP, the Department of Homeland Security, the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, the Hamilton Fish Institute and numerous school districts across the country. He is the author of Transcending Violence (Trafford 2002), senior author of Safe School Design (ERIC 2000), and a contributing author for Safe and Healthy Schools (Oxford Press 2006). He is a certified Second Step violence prevention curriculum instructor, and is the author of The Uncle Bunkle stories.

Brian J. Schoonover, Ph.D. 7537

Dr. Schoonover has worked in the field of education for 10 years, including assignments in the Tokyo Public Schools, Peru, Chicago, and Florida. He first became an administrator in 2002 in a K-12 located in downtown Chicago and has since moved with his wife to Florida where he currently is the Assistant principal of a Title I school of 600 students in St. Augustine, Florida.

Keynote, Author, Panelist, and Presenter Biographies

Rodney Skager, Ph.D. 7505

Rodney Skager is Professor Emeritus in the UCLA Graduate School of Education and Information Studies; Co-director of the Attorney General's California Student Survey; member of the Phoenix Houses' Board; a senior research associate at WestEd; and a consultant to the Drug Policy Alliance.

Donald J. Smith, Jr., Ph.D. 7506

Donald J. Smith, Jr., President / Chief Executive Officer of Generations Center, is a graduate of Texas Tech University and the University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center in Dallas. Early in his career, Dr. Smith served as a member of a major metropolitan police agency in Texas. His research career path in interpersonal violence began as the Director of Research Activities for the Violence Intervention and Prevention (VIP) Center at Parkland Hospital in Dallas and has continued with his Fellowship at the Child Trauma Academy in Houston. In 2004, Dr. Smith established Generations Center in Dallas where he has continued to focus primarily on the biological/physical manifestations of long-term exposure to domestic violence and child abuse, including an emphasis on the physiological/emotional impact of strangulation attacks related to interpersonal violence.

Sandy E. Spavone 7551

Sandy Spavone is the Executive Director of the National Organizations for Youth Safety (NOYS) in Gainesville, Virginia. She has worked with youth and youth leadership organizations as a high school teacher and as the Director of Programs for FCCLA. She has served on various youth safety and health steering committees and developed programs to support and enhance youth peer-to-peer education efforts.

Joseph Spinazzola, Ph.D. Moderator – Mental Health and Safe Schools Panel

Dr. Spinazzola is the Executive Director of the Trauma Center at Justice Resource Institute. Dr. Spinazzola received his Ph.D. from Duke University and completed his internship at New York University/Bellevue Hospital. Currently, Dr. Spinazzola runs the adult clinical program, oversees the Research Department, and is the Principal Investigator of the youth violence prevention program. Dr. Spinazzola specializes in complex trauma in children and adults. He has over 30 publications and presentations in this area.

Jeffrey R. Sprague, Ph.D. 7528

Jeffrey Sprague is a Professor of Special Education and Co-Director of the University of Oregon Institute on Violence and Destructive Behavior. In 2001, Dr. Sprague worked with the Oregon legislature to establish the Oregon Center for School Safety, of which he is the director. He was a classroom teacher for seven years, a school behavioral consultant for two years and the Director of the Center for School and Community Integration at the Indiana University Institute for the Study of Developmental Disabilities before returning to Oregon to co-direct the IVDB. He directs federal, state and local research and demonstration projects related to whole school discipline, youth violence prevention, alternative education, juvenile delinquency prevention, school inclusion, school-to-work transition and employment, school systems change, and self-advocacy. His research activities encompass applied behavior analysis, positive behavior supports, functional behavioral assessment, school safety, youth violence prevention, and juvenile delinquency prevention. Dr. Sprague is a contributor to Early Warning, Timely Response and to the 1998, 1999, and 2000 President's annual reports on school safety. He has written a book on Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design for school

administrators; a book on school safety with Hill Walker for Guilford Publications (Sprague and Walker, 2005), and a book on school-wide positive behavior supports with Annemieke Golly (Sopris West, 2004).

Linda Taylor, Ph.D. 7533

Mental Health and Safe Schools Panelist

Linda Taylor is Co-Director of the School Mental Health Project and its federally-supported national Center for Mental Health in Schools at UCLA. Throughout her career, she has been concerned with a wide range of psychosocial and educational problems experienced by children and adolescents. Her early experiences included community agency work. From 1973 to 1986, she co-directed the Fernald Laboratory School and Clinic at UCLA. From 1986 to 2000, she also held a clinical psychologist position in the Los Angeles Unified School District. In the latter part of the 1980s, she co-directed a project focused on the mental health facets of school-based health centers (funded by the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation). In the early 1990s, she directed the Early Assistance for Students and Families Project (funded by the U.S. Department of Education) at the School Mental Health Unit of the Los Angeles Unified School District. This project led to her involvement in systemic reform initiatives designed to enhance school and community policies and practices to address barriers to learning and enhance healthy development.

Kitty Tyrol, Senior Training Manager, Girls Circle Association 7514

Kitty Tyrol has diverse experience in youth program development, staff development and training, and quality assurance. As a consultant and trainer for the state of Connecticut Judicial Branch and Department of Children and Families Bureau of Juvenile Services, she trains probation, parole, and detention staff as well as community-based service providers in a wide array of evidence-based curricula and risk reduction approaches. She has authored several training and intervention curricula, is a co-founder of the Connecticut Girls Consortium, and serves on various advisory committees. Ms. Tyrol is an advocate for gender equity and gender justice throughout the continuum of social services. She and her family live in Connecticut.

Gregory M. Vecchi, Ph.D. 7519

Gregory M. Vecchi, Ph.D. is an FBI Supervisory Special Agent in the Behavioral Science Unit at the FBI Academy. Dr. Vecchi is a certified negotiator with the FBI and London Metro Police Department and he has experience working and researching domestic hostage and crisis situations as well as international kidnapping matters. He has also published articles in the area of hostage and crisis situations.

Sharon L. Walker, B.S., RN, M.S., M.P.H., Ph.D. 7506

Sharon L. Walker is a graduate of the McMaster University in Hamilton, Ontario and the University of North Texas at Denton and Fort Worth. Dr. Walker has served as a dispute mediator in North Texas and Manager of the Violence Intervention and Prevention Program in Dallas. Dr. Walker has served as a lead in the update of the Silent Victims of Domestic Violence program in 2006 and is a highly respected trainer of the most recent update of this program. Dr. Walker currently serves as the Chief Operating Officer for Generations Center in Dallas.

Keynote, Author, Panelist, and Presenter Biographies

Susan G. Weinberger, Ph.D. 7527, 7548

Dr. Susan G. Weinberger, an international authority on mentoring, is the Founder and President of the Mentor Consulting Group based in Norwalk, Connecticut. Dr. Weinberger was a pioneer in designing and developing a school-based mentoring program, the Norwalk Mentor Program in the early 1980's and served as its Director for 12 years.

Dr. Weinberger has been recognized for her expertise in establishing, maintaining, and evaluating school, corporate and community-based mentoring programs and school-to-work initiatives. These include internal coaching programs within the business environment. Her work has been published widely and the program she designed has been replicated in 48 of the United States, as well as Bermuda and Canada.

She received her Bachelor of Science in Modern Languages from Carnegie-Mellon University; a master's degree in Elementary and Bilingual Education from Manhattanville College and her doctorate from the College of Business and Public Management at the University of Bridgeport.

Dr. Weinberger's latest book, Mentoring A Movement: My Personal Journey was released in December 2005. It is an account of her experiences over more than two decades as a pioneer in the field of mentoring. Additional publications include:

My Mentor & Me Series: Elementary School Years; Middle School Years; High School Years
Business Guide to Mentoring
Manual for Mentors
Guidebook to Mentoring
Strengthening Native Community Commitment through Mentoring
The Mentor Handbook
How to Start a Student Mentor Program (Phi Delta Kappa Fastback #333)

Dr. Weinberger is the former chair, Public Policy Council, MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership and is a founding member of its Technical Assistance Corps. She is a trainer for the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Programs; a consultant to the Departments of Labor, Education, Health & Human Services, Housing and Urban Development, Center for Substance Abuse Prevention, Big Brothers/Big Sisters of Canada and the Governor's Prevention Partnership in CT. Her clients include Allstate Insurance Company, EDULINX of Canada, Save the Children Federation, Hollywood Education and Literacy Project, Communities In Schools and U.S. Dream Academy.

In 1993, Dr. Weinberger traveled to the East Room of the White House to receive President Clinton's coveted Volunteer Action Award for her work in mentoring. Among her greatest joys is being a mentor to a 20 year old woman that began when her mentee was in second grade. Information about Dr. Mentor, as she is affectionately called in the field, can be found on http://www.mentorconsultinggroup.com or by contacting her at DrMentor@aol.com.

Keynote, Author, Panelist, and Presenter Biographies

Rosalinda Perez Yater, B.S., M.Ed. 7506
Professional Counselors Certification, and Mid Management Certification

Rosalinda Yater is a graduate of North Texas State University in Denton, East Texas State University in Commerce, Texas and Texas Women's University in Denton, TX. Ms. Yater has served her entire career with the Dallas Independent School District eventually leading to her service as an Executive Director for Student Services. Ms. Yater played a key role in facilitating the introduction of the program into the Dallas Independent School District in 2003 and continues to advance these services for the students and families of the Dallas Independent School District.

Hamilton Fish Institute Recognition for Service

WILLIAM LASSITER, M.P.A.
Manager, Center for the Prevention of School Violence
North Carolina Department of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention

William Lassiter Serves as the Manager of the Department of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention - Center for the Prevention of School Violence. Lassiter received his Masters Degree in Public Administration from North Carolina State University and began working for the Center in January of 1998 as a researcher. In 1999, he became the project coordinator for North Carolina's statewide school safety tip line and its accompanying educational campaign, Working Against Violence Everywhere (WAVE). By 2001, Lassiter had been promoted to the Center's School Safety Specialist. In this position, Lassiter coordinated a number of projects for the Center including the "What We Want to be is Bully-Free" awareness campaign, North Carolina's annual census of School Resource Officers, the North Carolina portion of the National Institute of Justice sponsored national evaluation of School Resource Officers, North Carolina's critical incident response-kit project, North Carolina's pre-service teacher conflict management project, and the Center's character education effort.

Today, Lassiter serves as the Manager of the Center where he strives to meet its vision of "every student attending a school that is safe and secure, one that is free of fear and conducive to learning." In his current role, he serves on the state Advisory Board to the State Board of Education on School Safety, the Advisory Board for the National Law Enforcement and Corrections Technology Center, and the Attorney General's working group on Bullying.

Lassiter has coauthored the script for "A Critical Incident: What to do in the First Twenty Minutes" video and the accompanying "Critical Incident Response Booklet: Recommendations to Schools, Law Enforcement and Emergency Responders for Putting Together the Tools they Need to Respond to a Crisis." Lassiter has been featured on a number of major news networks and national publications including CNN, Fox News, the BBC, USA Today, the Los Angles Times, the New York Times and many others.

Recent published works by Mr. Lassiter include:

Lassiter, W. and McDaniel, J. (n.d.). … School under siege... Reality Checking the Security of Our Schools. *Campus Safety Journal*.

Lassiter, W. and McDaniel, J. (2005). Time to Put Your Child's School to the Test. *Southeastern Education Network 7*(2), Fall/Winter 2005.

Finn, P., Lassiter, W., McDevitt, J., Rich, T., and Shively, M. (2005). *Comparison of Program Activities and Lessons Learned among 19 School Resource Officer Programs*. National Institute of Justice.

Lassiter provides presentations and workshops on the following topics:

- trends in school violence and school violence prevention
- safe school planning
- crisis planning and management / critical incident response
- School Resource Officers
- character education
- student involvement / Students Against Violence Everywhere
- bullying
- conflict management / peer mediation
- safe school tip lines / Working Against Violence Everywhere (WAVE)
- CPI's Nonviolent Crisis Intervention, and
- working with difficult parents

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