Getting Results: Developing Safe and Healthy Kids Update 4

Violence Prevention and Safe Schools

California Department of Education
Sacramento • 2005

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What does a safe and effective school look like? . . . It is a place where students are on task, parents and community volunteers work one-on-one with learners, and students serve as office greeters, hall monitors, classroom organizers, playground game organizers, and equipment managers. It is a place where you will sign in and wear a visitor's badge. The rooms and halls are well lit, comfortable, and colorful, with student work on the walls. The grounds are neat and litter-free. You are greeted wherever you go, and you notice that students and adults treat each other with respect and in a friendly manner. You would see security staff, but aside from their uniforms, their roles are no different from those of other volunteers. They are engaged in friendly learning activities with the students.

— *Safe Schools: A Planning Guide for Action*

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A Message from the State Superintendent of Public Instruction

We all share a responsibility to prevent violence at school in its many forms — from social or physical bullying to schoolyard fights and gang violence. Especially since 1999, in the wake of the tragic shootings at Columbine High School in Colorado, California's parents, educators, community leaders, young people, and law enforcement officials have joined together to make school safety a top priority. The information in this fourth *Getting Results* update, *Violence Prevention and Safe Schools*, is important reading for anyone who wants to create physically safe and emotionally secure school environments.

This document presents recently published research about youth violence and efforts to create safe schools. It provides schools with up-to-date information about effective, research-proven violence prevention programs and strategies so that students and staff can feel safe at school and focus on academic and social tasks.

Clearly, efforts to improve schools need to emphasize more than instruction, curriculum, standards, and teaching techniques. We know that schools with relatively high numbers of students who report carrying weapons at school have lower Academic Performance Index (API) scores than do other schools. In addition, API scores increase as the proportion of students who report feeling safe at school increases. These results show how important it is for students to feel safe and secure at school if we want to improve academic performance.

I hope that the important information in this document will guide local efforts to provide our young people with the safe and supportive schools they need and deserve.

Sincerely,

Jack O'Connell
State Superintendent of Public Instruction

Acknowledgments

The contributions of the many people who were involved in the creation of the *Getting Results* research update on *Violence Prevention and Safe Schools* are gratefully acknowledged and appreciated.

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Introduction

This fourth update to the *Getting Results* series, titled *Violence Prevention and Safe Schools*, presents recently published key research about the dimensions of youth violence and what has been done to create safe schools. Its purpose is to provide schools with up-to-date information about effective, research-proven violence-prevention programs and strategies so that students and staff can feel safe at school and focus on the academic and social development tasks of children.

This update is not intended to be an exhaustive examination of the research. As in previous *Getting Results* publications, the research studies that are discussed in this update were selected by four well-known and nationally respected violence-prevention researchers — Albert Farrell, Michael Furlong, Paul Kingery, and Pamela Orpinas. Their charge was to select and summarize current studies about types of youth violence and school violence-prevention strategies.

Overview of the Contents

The first chapter provides information about student and teacher perceptions of violence in their schools and an overview of California's efforts to support safe schools. Chapters 2 and 3 are written by the four members of the violence-prevention and safe schools research team. Chapter 2 describes the scope of the problem. The types of violence included here are various forms of overt and subtle aggression, including bullying, relational aggression, sexual harassment, and sexual violence. Chapter 3 discusses the research evidence for a variety of classroom and school policies and interventions. This chapter concludes with a caution that the impacts of interventions must be monitored so that they achieve their desired results and do not have unintended, possibly harmful effects.

Chapter 4 focuses on the practical implications of the research for schools. Chapter 5 provides a variety of resources for implementing a safe school plan, including names of organizations, suggestions for further reading, and descriptions of effective science-based violence-prevention programs. The appendix contains excerpts from the Centers for Disease Control's *School Health Guidelines to Prevent Unintentional Injuries and Violence* (2001).

About the Researchers

Albert D. Farrell, Ph.D., is Professor of Psychology at Virginia Commonwealth University and Director of the Psychology Department's Center for Promotion of Positive Youth Development. He received his degree in clinical psychology from Purdue University. Dr. Farrell's research has focused on the application of an action-research model to develop and evaluate the effectiveness of prevention programs directed at high-risk youths. Since 1992, he has been involved in a collaborative effort with community agencies to develop effective violence-prevention programs for early adolescents. This effort has been funded by grants from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), U.S. Department of Education, and National Institute of Child Health and Human Development. These grants supported the development and evaluation of *Responding in Peaceful and Positive Ways (RIPP),* a violence-prevention program that has been designated a model program by several federal agencies. Dr. Farrell has published extensively in the areas of youth violence and drug use, assessment, and research methodology and has served on national task forces on youth violence of the CDC and the American Psychological Association. Dr. Farrell is a Fellow of the American Psychological Association and has served on the editorial boards of seven journals.[1]

Michael Furlong, Ph.D., is Program Chair of the Counseling/Clinical/School Psychology Program and a Professor in the Gevritz Graduate School of Education at the University of California, Santa Barbara. He is also the director of the Center for School-Based Youth Development and an associate editor of *Psychology in the Schools* and the *California School Psychologist.* A past president of the California Association of School Psychologists, he focuses on school violence and safety and social and emotional assessments.[2]

Paul Kingery, Ph.D., is Director of The Violence Prevention Network and a researcher at the University of Hawaii, Honolulu. From 1998 to 2002, he was Director of the Hamilton Fish Institute at George Washington University in Washington, D.C., conducting and managing primary research and evaluation studies on youth violence prevention; he also took the lead on a consortium of seven university/school/community partnerships. He is the author of numerous publications on school and community violence prevention; alcohol, tobacco, and other drug (ATOD) prevention; school health; and wellness.[3]

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Chapter 1

Violence Prevention and Safe Schools in California

CHAPTER 1

Violence Prevention and Safe Schools in California

Schools have a responsibility to provide safe, disciplined, and drug-free environments that enable students to focus on the academic and social tasks designed to foster their development into healthy, productive adults. A number of federal laws and guidelines, including the No Child Left Behind Act, support this goal of preventing violence in schools and making them safe.

In 2001 the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) developed the following recommendations for schools to prevent unintentional injury, violence, and suicide among young persons (see the appendix for guiding principles for each recommendation):

- Provide a physical environment, inside and outside school buildings, that promotes safety and prevents unintentional injuries and violence.
- Establish a social environment that promotes safety and prevents unintentional injuries, violence, and suicide.
- Implement health and safety education curricula and instruction that help students develop the knowledge, attitudes, behavioral skills, and confidence needed to adopt and maintain safe lifestyles and be an advocate for health and safety.
- Provide safe physical education and extracurricular physical activity programs.
- Provide health, counseling, psychological, and social services to meet the physical, mental, emotional, and social health needs of students.

Recent Federal Legislation on Safe Schools

The ***No Child Left Behind Act of 2001:*** States must allow students who attend a persistently dangerous school or who are victims of violent crime at school to transfer to a safe school. States also must report school safety statistics to the public on a school-by-school basis, and local educational agencies must use federal Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act funds to implement drug and violence-prevention programs of demonstrated effectiveness.

The ***Safe Schools Act of 1994/Title VII of the Goals 2000: Educate America Act*** envisions that by the year 2000, every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning.

The ***Gun-Free Schools Act of 1994*** obliges school districts to implement a policy "requiring referral to the criminal justice or juvenile delinquency system of any student who brings a firearm or weapon to a school served by such agency."

The ***Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974*** (amended 1992) guides the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention at the U.S. Department of Justice by providing funds for programs to reduce juvenile delinquency, violence, and victimization.

- Establish mechanisms for short- and long-term responses to crises, disasters, and injuries that affect the school community.
- Integrate school, family, and community efforts to prevent unintentional injuries, violence, and suicide.
- Provide staff development services that impart the knowledge, skills, and confidence to effectively promote safety and prevent unintentional injuries, violence, and suicide and support students in their efforts to do the same.

California Comprehensive Safe Schools Plan

In California, the responsibility to create safe schools that are conducive to learning is mandated by law. California's Constitution, Article I, Section 28, states in part that "all students and staff of public primary, elementary, junior high, and senior high schools have the inalienable right to attend campuses that are safe, secure and peaceful."

In 1997 the California Legislature passed Senate Bill 187 (*Education Code* Section 32280, Statutes of 1998) to mandate safe school planning at every school site:

> It is the intent of the Legislature that all California public schools, in kindergarten, and grades 1 to 12, inclusive, operated by school districts, in cooperation with local law enforcement agencies, community leaders, parents, pupils, teachers, administrators, and other persons who may be interested in the prevention of campus crime and violence, develop a comprehensive school safety plan that addresses the safety concerns identified through a systematic planning process.

Specifically, *Education Code* Section 32282 requires schools to:

- Assess the current status of school crime.
- Identify programs and strategies to provide school safety.
- Include in the safety plan the school's procedures for complying with existing laws related to school safety. The plan must include:
  - Procedures for reporting child abuse
  - Disaster, including earthquake procedures
  - Suspension/expulsion procedures
  - Procedures to notify teachers of dangerous students
  - A policy on discrimination and sexual harassment
  - A schoolwide dress code
  - Safe ingress and egress procedures
  - Procedures to ensure a safe and orderly environment
  - Rules and procedures on school discipline
  - Hate-crime policies and procedures

All school districts should have completed their safe school plan by September 1998, and schools are required to evaluate and amend their safety plans no less than once a year to ensure that they are updated and properly implemented. This commitment to school safety mirrors the national primary educational objectives.

California Student Survey

The 2001-2002 California Student Survey (CSS) is the ninth legislatively mandated biennial assessment of substance use and violence among a representative sample of California public and private secondary school students. The CSS is funded by the California Attorney General's Crime and Violence Prevention Center and conducted by WestEd's Human Development Program. The CSS was modified in 1999 to include many items from the California Healthy Kids Survey (CHKS). The inclusion of CHKS items into the CSS has created one comprehensive, integrated local and state health behavior data collection system to serve the needs of multiple agencies and programs. Through this system the state aims to efficiently increase the data available to guide prevention, health education, youth development, and school improvement efforts.

In 2001-2002 the CSS was administered to 8,400 students in grades 7, 9, and 11 attending a randomly selected sample of 112 schools representative of California schools as a whole. Findings of this CSS showed that 24 percent of students in grades 7, 9, and 11 reported harassment due to hate-crime reasons on school property in the 12 months prior to the survey. The incidents of harassment were due to race, ethnicity, or national origin; religion; gender; sexual orientation (perceived or actual); and physical or mental disability. When incidences of harassment for any other reasons are added to the total, 35 percent of 7th graders, 32 percent of 9th graders, and 30 percent of 11th graders experienced harassment on school property in the 12 months prior to the survey (Table A5.3, p. 20, 2001–2002, CSS).

When students were questioned about physical violence on school property, 29 percent of 7th graders, 17 percent of 9th graders, and 11 percent of 11th graders reported being pushed, shoved, or hit in the past 12 months. Thirteen percent of 7th graders, 10 percent of 9th graders, and 6 percent of 11th graders reported being afraid of being beaten up; and 16 percent of 7th graders, 12 percent of 9th graders, and 10 percent of 11th graders had been in a physical fight in the previous year (Table A5.2, p. 19, 2001–2002, CSS). In addition, 9 percent of 7th graders, 13 percent of 9th graders, and 16 percent of 11th graders reported seeing someone with a weapon on school property.

When asked, in general, "How safe do you feel when you are at school?" a total of 19 percent of 7th graders, 18 percent of 9th graders, and 14 percent of 11th graders responded that they feel "unsafe" or "very unsafe."

These results are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
Results of the 2001-2002 California Student Survey

Survey Item	Grade 7 (%)	Grade 9 (%)	Grade 11 (%)
Physical Violence on School Property, Past 12 Months			
Been pushed, shoved, hit, etc., two or more times	29	17	11
Been afraid of being beaten up	13	10	6
Been in physical fight	16	12	10
Reason for Harassment on School Property, Past 12 Months			
Total for top five hate-crime reasons (race, ethnicity or national origin; religion; gender; sexual orientation or perceived sexual orientation; or physical/mental disability)	24	24	24
Total for harassment, any reason	35	32	30
Awareness and Use of Weapons on School Property, Past 12 Months			
Seen someone with a weapon	9	13	16
Perceived Safety of School and Neighborhood			
Total for school considered "unsafe" or "very unsafe"	19	18	14

Perceptions of California Students and Teachers about School Safety and Security

In 1999, in the wake of the tragic shooting at Columbine High School in Colorado, a School Violence Prevention and Response Task Force was created (Assembly Bill 1113, Florez) to review California's school safety strategies and preparedness. On behalf of the task force, the California Research Bureau and the Office of Criminal Justice and Planning held 20 focus groups in school districts from two northern California counties and three southern California counties during the fall of 1999 to learn more about student and teacher perceptions of safety and security at school. Approximately 240 students in the 2nd, 6th, 8th, and 12th grades participated.

The results showed that students have the following concerns:

- Bullying (particularly in middle schools)
- Graffiti (to intimidate some students and impress others)
- School intruders (including older students entering and hanging out, causing feelings of intimidation)
- Fights (especially due to racial stereotyping and poor communication and/or misunderstandings)

Students commented that conflict management and peer mediation

techniques often are not effective because they are forced on the parties involved or because the peer leaders are students who are not well known or well respected by others. Students also remarked that police and security personnel are viewed with mixed feelings. Some students commented that police were not friendly; others felt intimidated by a strong police presence; and others felt that officers showed favoritism toward some students in the enforcement of school rules.

In contrast to the student focus groups, focus groups conducted with teachers revealed that most teachers are pleased with the level of security provided by security personnel and police officers and generally feel safe on campus. Most teachers did not know about or did not participate in the development of their school safety plan. Some teachers were concerned about the level of hostility and lack of respect students show toward them. Instead of focusing on gang members or known bullies, most teachers were more concerned with "at-risk" students — those who have difficulties at home, lose interest in school, and are in danger of dropping out.

California's School Safety Plan

In 2002 the Safe Schools and Violence Prevention Office (now part of the Safe and Healthy Kids Program Office) at the California Department of Education, together with the Attorney General's Crime and Violence Prevention Center, published *Safe Schools: A Planning Guide for Action.* It presents a vision and lays the foundation for "caring schools where students experience support for achievement and freedom from physical or psychological harm." The guide presents a clear safe school planning process, emphasizes collaborations with multiple community partners, covers all areas of investigation for a school to consider, and describes a variety of science-based interventions to improve school climate and the school's physical environment. In addition, the guide contains many useful assessment tools, prototypes for legal forms, and text of relevant laws. (See Chapter 5, "Resources for Creating Safe Schools," for information about the guide.)

The *Planning Guide* is a school's central tool for taking action. This *Getting Results* research update on violence prevention and safe schools presents recent research findings that complement the *Planning Guide*.

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Skager, R., & Austin, G. (1998). *Sixth biennial statewide survey of drug and alcohol abuse among California students in grades 7, 9, and 11.* Sacramento, CA: Office of the Attorney General.

Chapter 2

Types and Consequences of Youth Violence

CHAPTER 2

Types and Consequences of Youth Violence

Chapter Contents

Title of Article	Description	Outcomes/Program Effects	Page
Bullying and other forms of aggression. Furlong, M. J., Orpinas, P., Greif, J., & Whipple, A.	**Essay** An introduction to the differences between bullying, aggression, and violence and definitions of bullying. It includes examples of the magnitude of bullying in schools and indicates the emotional and physical consequences of bullying.	This essay provides a research-based discussion of one of the most pervasive and damaging types of aggressive behavior among youths.	18
Prevalence estimation of school bullying with the Olweus bully/victim questionnaire. Solberg, M. E., & Olweus, D. (2003). *Aggressive Behavior*, 29, 239–268.	**Research Summary** Description of a questionnaire for determining the relationship between frequency of bullying and outcomes for bullies and victims. Prevalence rates of bullying for children across age and gender are included.	Students who had been bullied more frequently reported higher scores on measures of internalizing emotional problems. Students who bullied others more frequently reported higher scores on measures of externalizing behavior problems.	23
Preventing bullying and victimization of children and adolescents. Horne, A. M., & Orpinas, P. (2003). In M. Bloom & T. Gullotta (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Prevention and Health Promotion.* New York: Kluwer, 233–240.	**Chapter Review** A review article that defines bullying and victimization, provides an ecological theory of behavioral influences among youths, and describes research-validated bullying-prevention interventions	This review provides school personnel with empirical evidence for selecting a bullying-prevention intervention for their school that has the "best fit" with their school ecology.	27
The role of overt aggression, relational aggression, and prosocial behavior in the prediction of children's future social adjustment. Crick, J. R. (1996). *Child Development,* 67, 2317–2327.	**Research Summary** A longitudinal study with 245 children in grades 3 to 6 in two elementary schools at the beginning of the school year, one month later, and at the end of the school year. Data were collected from peers and teachers.	With high ratings of overt and relational aggression, boys were likely to be rejected by peers at the end of the school year, and girls were likely to have poor social adjustment. Boys and girls (including aggressive children) with high ratings of prosocial behavior were more likely to be accepted.	31
Classrooms and courtrooms: Facing sexual harassment in K–12 schools. Stein, N. (1999). New York: Teachers College Press.	**Research Summary** A review of sexual harassment and sexual violence in schools in terms of levels, types, and outcomes; risk and protective factors; and programs that address the problems.	There is a need to raise awareness among students and staff about sexual harassment and to address it through school conduct codes and other interventions.	35

The term "youth violence" includes physical assault and weapons possession on one end of the spectrum and pushing, taunting, and socially isolating classmates on the other. Although school shootings have shaken America during recent years, violent acts such as those in which students seek to randomly harm others are actually extremely rare. When students take weapons to school, it is more likely to be related to a desire to retaliate against another student, to show off, or to seek a way of protecting themselves. It is not school violence but rather the nonlethal physical fights, the classroom misconduct, and the psychologically damaging verbal and relational aggression that teachers and administrators must face daily that impedes teaching.

Violence continues to be the second leading cause of death for youths, and bullying and other forms of aggression are both serious and prevalent; therefore, research on how to prevent the problem has intensified during the past decade. A basic approach to prevention of violence uses the public health model, which comprises four stages: definition of the problem, definition of risk factors, development and evaluation of interventions, and implementation of successful interventions on a large scale.

This chapter addresses the first two stages of this prevention model. Key research studies have been selected from the wide spectrum of the literature regarding the problem of bullying, aggression, and violence in schools. These studies are summarized and critiqued by the four researchers, who also comment on the action steps that are implied by the research.

The first section is an essay, "Bullying and Other Forms of Aggression," that reviews several research studies to discuss the differences between bullying, aggression, and violence as well as the definition of bullying. It also provides examples of the magnitude of bullying on school campuses and indicates the emotional and physical consequences of bullying. Next is a research summary that discusses one instrument for determining the prevalence of bullying. Developed by Dan Olweus, a pioneer researcher in the area of school bullying, the Bully/Victim Questionnaire measures bullying and victimization in terms of frequency and duration. The article points out that the way bullying is defined and identified is important in selecting appropriate interventions.

Following this is a review of a book chapter that also discusses definitions of bullying and some science-based school bullying prevention programs. Together these summaries introduce educators to the topic of aggression and bullying.

The fourth article is a research summary that focuses on a more subtle type of aggression, called relational aggression. It emphasizes how important it is that teachers prevent and stop not only overt aggression (e.g., hitting, pushing, teasing) but also relational aggression (e.g., passing rumors, isolating someone). The research evaluates the association between children's social adjustment to the class and three variables: overt aggression, relational aggression, and prosocial behavior.

Finally, another type of aggression — sexual harassment — is defined and differentiated from the larger topic of sexual violence. Girls and women are

usually the victims, although some boys are also victimized, most frequently by other boys and men. The summary also discusses the high prevalence of this problem, the consequences to the victims, and what school administrators and teachers should do to prevent it and address students' complaints when it does happen.

What this chapter underscores is that all forms of aggression produce harm to the victim and may have significant short- and long-term negative effects. All aggression should be taken seriously and efforts to reduce its occurrence implemented.

Bullying and Other Forms of Aggression: Essay

Michael J. Furlong, Ph.D., Pamela Orpinas, Ph.D., Jennifer Greif, and Angela Whipple

Extreme forms of youth violence have been a serious concern for decades, while less attention has been devoted to lesser forms of violence, such as bullying. In the United States, only during the past decade have aggression and bullying in schools moved from being considered a normal part of growing up to a public health problem that must be addressed and solved. (School bullying has been the topic of research in Europe, Australia, and other countries for much longer.) This change in perspective has been fostered by research showing the high prevalence of physical, verbal, and relational aggression in schools and the emotional and physical damage caused by all forms of aggression at school.

The distinction between bullying, aggression, and violence among youths is not always clear, and educators, researchers, and politicians may define these behaviors in different ways. Schools must correctly label a behavior before they can address its prevention and correction. Aggressive behaviors are considered less extreme than violent behaviors (e.g., homicide, rape, robbery, aggravated assault) and include physical, verbal, relational, and sexual aggression. Table 2 provides definitions and examples of these types of aggression.

Table 2
Types of Aggression

Physical aggression: The intentional use of physical force with the potential for causing death, disability, injury, or harm.

- Biting
- Burning
- Choking
- Damaging property
- Forcing someone's head into the water or mud
- Hitting, punching, or slapping with hand or fist
- Hitting with an object
- Kicking
- Poking with hands or objects
- Pulling hair
- Pushing or shoving
- Throwing objects with the intent to hurt
- Forcing someone to do any of the above

Verbal aggression: The intentional use of words with the potential for causing psychological or emotional harm.

- Blackmailing
- Coercing
- Encouraging others to fight
- Hassling
- Putting down, insulting, or name calling
- Making racist and sexist taunts
- Teasing, ridiculing, taunting, or provoking
- Threatening to physically harm
- Threatening to use a weapon
- Yelling or shouting angrily

Relational aggression: Behaviors that harm others through peer relationships.

- Disclosing personal information inappropriately
- Excluding someone from a group
- Gossiping
- Isolating during lunch or sports
- Keeping others from liking a student
- Leaving a student out of an activity
- Sending negative notes about someone
- Spreading rumors
- Withdrawing friendship

Sexual harassment: Any unwelcome and unsolicited words or conduct of a sexual nature.

- Being forced to do something sexual
- Engaging in indecent exposure
- Staring at body parts
- Peeping into dressing areas
- Making unwanted or unsolicited sexual comments or jokes, sexual propositions, suggestive gestures, suggestive facial expressions
- Touching, pinching, grabbing, or fondling; pulling on someone's clothes

Bullying

Educators continue to recognize that bullying is a prevailing problem that adversely affects the long-term development of children. Successfully preventing and intervening in bullying involves an accurate definition of this behavior, a determination of the functions that bullying serves, and uses of that information to select and implement empirically validated targeted interventions. Rather than indiscriminately conducting violence-prevention programs, school personnel are encouraged to develop an operational definition of bullying that distinguishes it from other forms of peer aggression.

For many European and American researchers, bullying is considered a subset of aggression (Smith et al. 2002; Horne & Orpinas 2002). Bullying is a type of aggression in which the bully (the aggressor) is stronger or more powerful than the victim, and the aggressive behaviors are committed repeatedly and over time. Thus, a working definition of bullying is *repeated acts of aggression, intentionally designed to harm a person who is weaker than the bully* (Olweus 2001). Viewed in this manner, bullying may be viewed as an exploitive *relationship* between students rather than as a single event. Hawker and Boulton (2000) describe bullying as including physical, verbal, indirect, and relational aggression.

Extending this work, Newman, Horne, and Bartolomucci (2000) define bullying as meeting the "double I/R" criteria, meaning that the behavior is intentional, imbalanced, and repeated. Distinct from other forms of peer aggression, only aggression that meets these three criteria should be called "bullying."

In addition, Horne and Orpinas (2003) describe two types of bullies: aggressive and passive. Aggressive bullies, the most common type, initiate aggression through physical and verbal attacks. They like to dominate others and will show little empathy for their victims. They tend to believe that they are being attacked in situations where there was no intention to hurt. Teachers are more likely to be aware of this type of behavior, but bullies attempt to keep it hidden from adult supervision. In contrast, passive bullies are described as students who follow along or encourage bullying, but they do not initiate aggression. They are more likely to use relational aggression or to join in when a fight has already started.

Current research shows that students tend to dislike students who are victims of bullying. Effective prevention programs should work toward developing social norms that prohibit bullying and encourage supportive behaviors by students. This approach includes addressing all students involved in the various roles portrayed in Olweus' (2001) "Bullying Circle" (see Figure 1).

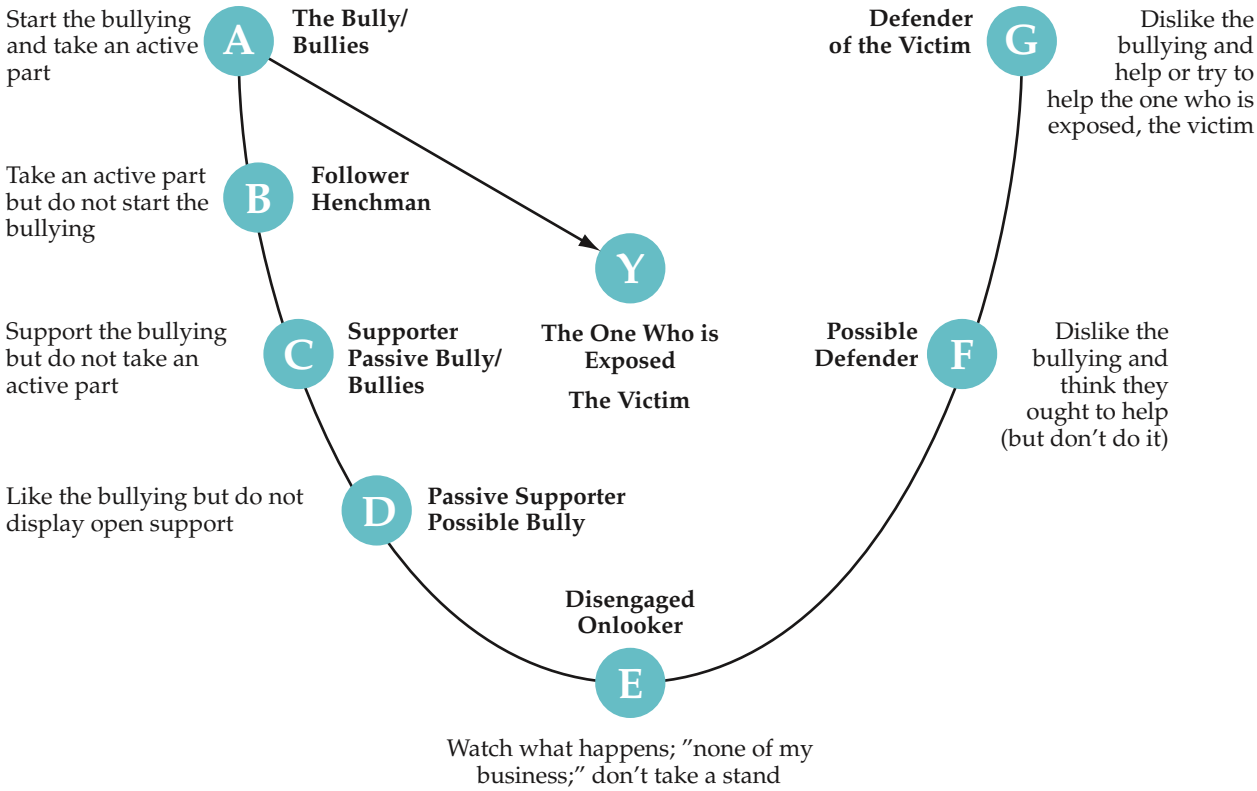
Approaching these behaviors as a series of interactions has implications for planning interventions that will be the most effective. In particular, schools are encouraged to implement programs that guide and educate (rather than punish) bullies on appropriate social interactions. Overall, programs need to address a primary function of bullying, which is the use of

power over other students to meet a need for control of others.

In addition, it is important that schools do not underestimate the impact that chronic victimization has on children who are bullied. These students are at an increased risk of poor developmental outcomes. Although in extreme cases victims of bullying may commit homicide or suicide, the vast majority of children who are bullied suffer in silence.

Figure 1

The Bullying Circle: Students' Modes of Reaction/Roles in an Acute Bullying Situation



Source: Reprinted with permission (Olweus 2001b)

Prevalence and Consequences of Bullying

There is still limited evidence on the prevalence of bullying in schools, but the existing findings suggest that bullying is a common occurrence in American schools. Consequences of being the victim or the target of aggression can range from minor emotional or behavioral problems to major forms of violence, depending on the frequency and intensity of the bullying as well as the personal and social characteristics of the victim. The most tragic consequences are homicide and

suicide. In a study conducted by the FBI, it was found that over two-thirds of the incidents of school shootings by students against fellow students had in common the acting out of anger or revenge for having been victimized by other students in the school. Commonly, the victim of bullying is likely to suffer from depression, somatic complaints, low self-esteem, and feelings of loneliness. In addition, both victims and bullies are likely to miss class because of feeling unsafe at school.

One study of the prevalence of bullying in American schools (Kaufman et al. 2000) found 10 percent of 6th and 7th graders reported being bullied, but higher prevalence rates were reported when students were asked about specific behaviors that are related to bullying.

Nansel et al. (2001) utilized a national sample of U.S. students in grades 6 to 10 and examined their bullying experiences at school. They found that about three out of ten reported moderate to frequent involvement as a victim (10.3 percent), perpetrator (13.0 percent), or both (6.3 percent). *Both bullying and victimization were higher among boys than girls and were highest in 6th grade and declined as students got older.*

A recent study collected peer reports of those who bully and those who are victims of bullying among low-income urban 6th grade students (Juvonen, Graham & Schuster 2003). The researchers found that 22 percent of their sample was involved in bullying as perpetrators (7 percent), victims (9 percent), or both (6 percent). Bullies were psychologically the strongest and enjoyed high social standing among their classmates, while victims were emotionally distressed and socially marginalized. Bully–victims were the most troubled group and had the highest level of conduct, school, and peer relationship problems.

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Prevalence Estimation of School Bullying with the Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire: Research Summary

Summary by Michael J. Furlong, Ph.D., and Jennifer Greif

This study is designed to examine how the measurement of school bullying impacts its prevalence of perpetration and victimization. Using a sample of Norwegian students, the authors explore cut points in determining the relationship between frequency of bullying and outcomes for bullies and victims. In addition, this article provides information that speaks to prevalence rates of bullying for children across age and gender.

Importance of the Study

Prevalence estimates produced by researchers have an impact on the assessment and prevention of bullying and related policy. The extent to which prevalence rates in bullying studies have varied in the past poses a problem for researchers and practitioners because the variation influences perceptions about the severity of this problem and what should be done to prevent it. Without appropriate estimations of rates of student bullying and victimization, the specific impact of bullying will be difficult to determine, and an incorrect estimation of bullying or victimization may lead to misunderstanding and misallocation of resources.

Sample and Methods

Study participants were 5,171 students in Norway, ranging in age from 11 to 15. In a two-hour time period, the students were asked to complete questionnaires measuring bullying, internalizing problems (social disintegration, global negative self-evaluations, and depressive tendencies), and externalizing problems (general aggression and antisocial behavior). The measures of bullying included a description of bullying designed to capture its characteristic elements: intentionality,

repetition, and a power imbalance. Seven items asked about specific types of bullying and victimization. For each type, students were asked to indicate the frequency of behavior by using the following scale: "not been bullied" (or "not bullying other students"), "only once or twice," "2 or 3 times a month," "about once a week" (or more often). In addition, students were asked to specify the duration of the victimization, ranging from "I haven't been bullied at school this term" to "it has gone on for several years."

Findings

Solberg and Olweus (2003) found that students who reported that they had been bullied more frequently also reported higher scores on measures of internalizing emotional problems. Students who reported that they bullied others more frequently reported higher scores on measures of externalizing behavior problems. The frequency with which students had been bullied was significantly related to the duration of bullying. Students who were bullied more frequently had been bullied for a longer period of time.

Using several statistical analyses, the authors determined that the frequency of bullying "2 or 3 times a month" was a reasonable cutoff point for classifying students as "involved" or "noninvolved" as bullies and victims. When students were divided at this cutoff point, there were the largest differences between "victims" and "nonvictims" and between "bullies" and "nonbullies" on the outcome variables.

Using this criterion, Solberg and Olweus examined the prevalence of bullies and victims in their sample. Overall, 10.1 percent of all students were classified as victims of bullying (11.1 percent of boys and 9.1 percent of girls), 6.5 percent of students indicated that they bullied other students (9.7 percent of boys and 3.0 percent of girls), and 1.6 percent met the criteria for being both bullies and victims of bullying (2.3 percent of boys and 0.9 percent of girls). In general, students at younger ages reported being bullied more often than did older students. Boys, in particular, reported increases in bullying others at older ages.

Strengths and Limitations

This study addresses important questions about prevalence estimates and the idea that the cutoff for determining which students are being bullied or are victims should not be arbitrary. The data highlight the importance of recognizing the impact that the repetitious nature of bullying has on bullies and victims. The negative outcomes associated with being a bully or a victim increase substantially as the frequency and duration of bullying increase. In addition, by using a large sample of students, Solberg and Olweus were able to draw reliable conclusions about prevalence rates across gender and age.

Although Solberg and Olweus describe the utility of obtaining self-reported data from students, little is known about the possible problem of students overreporting or underreporting their experiences as bullies and victims. Cornell and Brockenbrough (2004) describe the discordance between student self-reports of bullying and victimization and reports by their peers and teachers. They argue that obtaining information from multiple informants is important in determining each student's bully and victim status.

Meaning for Practitioners

1. Solberg and Olweus found that the frequency and duration of bullying has a significant impact on the experiences of bullies and victims. As practitioners work with students, it will be helpful to recognize whether the behaviors that they are engaging in or experiencing are part of a pattern. Realizing the potential differences between students who experience one-time events and those for whom bullying is a regular occurrence will aid practitioners in developing appropriate support and interventions for students.
2. When hearing prevalence rates of bullying, practitioners should be aware that the percentage of students designated as bullies and victims will depend on the ways in which this status is determined. For example, if studies simply ask about the experience of teasing or negative behaviors, then the outcomes reported may not be related to internalizing problems in the same way that Solberg and Olweus suggest.
3. This study suggests that the experiences of bullying and being bullied vary in relation to age and gender. Understanding these differential patterns of behavior can assist practitioners in implementing programs that are geared toward supporting victims (particularly for younger students) and guiding bullies to change (particularly for older students).

4. Differences in bullying and victimization patterns across gender suggests that bullying may serve different developmental functions for boys and girls. Interventions that fail to acknowledge different gender patterns across different ages are less likely to be successful.

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Preventing Bullying and Victimization of Children and Adolescents: Review

Summary by Michael J. Furlong, Ph.D., and Jennifer Greif

Experiences of peer aggression can undermine one's sense of safety at school and compromise the healthy development of students. This chapter (Horne & Orpinas 2003) provides an overview of bullying, a specific form of aggression experienced by children and adolescents. Bullying is defined within an ecological model (examining bullying in the context of variables, including child, family, school, community, culture, and their interactions). Empirical evidence for bullying interventions is discussed with a description of the role of the school and school personnel in halting aggression.

Importance of the Study

Accurately defining bullying is essential to the development of targeted intervention programs. Understanding that bullying is a specific form of peer aggression that is characterized by repetition and a power imbalance is an important piece of defining bullying as an aggressive form of an ongoing social relationship rather than as a singular event. This process-oriented view of bullying has implications for the types of interventions used and the school's philosophy in program implementation. The repeated aggression by one student against another, more vulnerable, student is the key element in the harm that occurs to both bullies and victims. Bullies learn the powerful impact that repeated aggression can have on a weaker party and come to see this form of coercion as an effective social tool. Victims experience chronic aggression and intimidation, which increases their sense of vulnerability and often leads to the development of emotional and psychological problems.

Several interventions have been developed that target school-based bullying. It is important that school personnel are familiar with empirical evidence in order to select an intervention for their school that has the "best fit" with their school ecology. This chapter discusses evidence for different programs and suggests strategies, derived from recent empirical studies, for preventing aggression in school.

Sample and Method

Horne and Orpinas use recent literature from the fields of education, psychology, and medicine to craft a review and discussion of issues related to bullying.

Findings

Through reviewing the related literature, Horne and Orpinas address some of the principal issues underlying bullying and bullying interventions. The following is a summary of their findings and the literature that they included for consideration.

Theories. The authors highlight an ecological model as a framework for evaluating the phenomenon of bullying. This model is described as concentric circles representing multiple levels of risk factors and interventions that can influence students facing aggression: individual level (cognitive and physical characteristics), family level, school level, community and peer group level, and the larger culture. Educators should be aware that the origins of bullying are often complex, and therefore strategies to reduce its incidence require flexibility to accommodate possible intervention resources. When developing programs to reduce bullying, school personnel should consider each of these areas and their interactions.

Research. Several bullying intervention programs have been examined by empirical studies. However, of those studies, only a few have demonstrated that they are effective by strict evidence-based standards. The Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence has identified ten programs that meet high scientific standards for program effectiveness. Many of these programs have been designed to affect school violence or aggression rather than intervene in specific bullying situations. Programs that are briefly reviewed in Horne and Orpinas include the *Norwegian Campaign Against Bullying, Responding in Peaceful and Positive Ways, Second Step: A Violence Prevention Curriculum, Resolving Conflict Creatively Program,* and *BullyBusters.*

Strategies That Work. Horne and Orpinas also identified effective strategies for reducing and preventing violence. These include:

- Support from school administration and teachers
- Heightened awareness of the problem
- Development of a code of conduct that clarifies expectations
- Training of teachers and staff to handle behavioral and classroom management problems (one program that does this is BullyBusters)
- Skills training for students

Ignoring the problem or offering short-term or one-time solutions to bullying is generally not effective. It is most helpful when educators acknowledge that bullying occurs on their school campus and become

aware of its warning signs and impacts on the bully, the victim, and bystanders.

In addition, a particularly noteworthy study by Turpeau (1998) found that group counseling that included only bullies did not effect schoolwide change in reducing bullying behaviors, primarily because it ended up providing a support group for bullies and reinforced their aggressive behavior.

Strengths and Limitations

This chapter draws on many current sources to summarize the research on bullying and aggression. This is an important topic to address in schools, as research increasingly indicates that there is a high prevalence of this kind of victimization in the United States. Research reviewed in this chapter provides practical guidance to educators working to prevent and reduce bullying.

However, due to restricted space, the discussion in this chapter is somewhat limited, particularly regarding empirically supported interventions that specifically address bullying. Given that the authors' introduction highlights defining bullying as a specific form of aggression, this approach would be useful in the research and intervention sections of the chapter as well. Similarly, the importance of accurately assessing bullying behaviors and determining what types of bullying exist in a particular school is not emphasized.

A strength of this chapter is that the programs described by Horne and Orpinas have targeted bullying in children of varying ages, ethnic backgrounds, and from diverse locations. However, the chapter does not include a discussion of the impact of these variables (age, gender, ethnicity, race, urban/rural location, etc.) on the selection of appropriate programs.

Meaning for Practitioners

Accurately defining and identifying bullying as a distinct form of aggression is important for schools in forming interventions to address bullying. Instead of asking if bullying is occurring, educators should assume that bullying is occurring in all schools. The type and frequency of bullying that occurs should be identified. The following conclusions that are applicable to practitioners can be drawn from Horne and Orpinas' chapter and more generally from the existing literature on bullying:

1. Educators should continue to be aware of current research on the prevalence and impact of bullying.
2. Determining the type of bullying exhibited and the function(s) that bullying serves can guide schools toward specific and targeted interventions.

3. School interventions that are inclusive of, and supported by administrators, teachers, and students are more likely to be effective in reducing bullying behaviors.
4. Schools will be best served when there are multiple options for interventions from which personnel can select the optimal alternative for a particular bullying situation.
5. Experiences of bullying and the efficacy of intervention programs will vary as a result of individual and culture variables that affect students and the school community.
6. Because research shows that students tend to dislike students who are victims of bullying, effective prevention programs should work toward developing social norms that prohibit bullying and encourage supportive behaviors by students.
7. Bullying is the abuse of power by one student over a weaker peer, which is the most negative type of aggression for youths to learn. There is the potential for these behaviors to lead to lifelong involvement in abuse or power-seeking relationships.

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The Role of Overt Aggression, Relational Aggression, and Prosocial Behavior in the Prediction of Children's Future Social Adjustment: Research Summary

Summary by Albert D. Farrell, Ph.D.

Previous studies have shown that boys and girls tend to exhibit different forms of aggressive behavior. In contrast to boys, who tend to display overt forms of aggression that produce physical harm or physical threats (e.g., hitting, pushing), girls are more likely to use relational forms of aggression that harm others by damaging peer relations (e.g., excluding someone from group activities, spreading rumors or gossip). This longitudinal study examined the extent to which overt and relational aggression and prosocial behaviors, such as being helpful to peers, were related to future social adjustment in a classroom setting over the course of a school year.

Importance of the Study

This article broadens the study of aggression to include less obvious forms that may be particularly salient to girls. The study demonstrates the negative consequences of relational aggression and its impact on social adjustment in classroom settings. The study also highlights the importance of prosocial behavior in social adjustment.

Sample and Methods

A sample of 245 children in the 3rd through 6th grade in two elementary schools were assessed on measures of aggression, prosocial behavior, and social adjustment at the beginning of the school year, one month later, and at the end of the school year. Measures were based on peer nominations and ratings by teachers. Ratings of overt and relational aggression and prosocial behavior at the beginning of the school year were used to predict subsequent changes in social adjustment during the school year. Separate analyses were conducted for girls and boys.

Findings

Teacher and peer ratings of overt and relational aggression at the start of the school year predicted children's social adjustment at the end of the school year. Boys who engaged in high rates of overt and relational aggression based on teacher and peer ratings at the start of the school year were likely to be rejected by their peers at the end of the school year. Girls with high rates of overt and relational aggression based on peer ratings were more likely to have poor social adjustment (i.e., higher levels of peer rejection and lower levels of acceptance) at the end of the school year. Teacher ratings revealed a similar pattern for girls' overt aggression but not for relational aggression.

Prosocial behavior at the start of the school year was also an important predictor of social adjustment at the end of the school year. Boys and girls who displayed high levels of prosocial behavior at the beginning of the school year, such as helping their peers, were more likely to be accepted at the end of the school year than those displaying low levels. This finding was true regardless of their level of aggressive behavior. In other words, even aggressive students were more likely to be accepted if they engaged in high rates of prosocial behavior.

Separate analyses examined the extent to which aggression and prosocial behavior at the start of the school year could predict changes in social adjustment during the school year. This approach made it possible to determine the extent to which the relation between behavior at the start of the school year and social adjustment at the end of the school year represented a continuation of a pattern already evident at the start of the school year (e.g., that children perceived as aggressive at the start of the school year are less accepted, and that remains true at the end of the school year) or whether behavior at the start of the school year was related to changes in social adjustment (e.g., children perceived as aggressive at the start of the school year become increasingly more rejected at the end of the school year).

For boys, neither peer nor teacher ratings of overt or relational aggression predicted changes in social adjustment. Boys with high levels of aggression were more likely to have poor social adjustment at the start of the school year, and those with low levels of aggression were more likely to have good social adjustment; this difference was not any more pronounced at the end of the school year. In contrast, peer ratings of boys' prosocial behavior at the start of the school year were associated with decreases in peer rejection at the end of the school year. Boys with high levels of prosocial behavior at the beginning of the school year were more likely to show improvements in their social adjustment at the end of the school year compared with those with low levels of prosocial behavior.

For girls, both overt and relational aggression were associated with future changes in social adjustment. High levels of overt aggression were associated with decreases in peer acceptance for both teacher and peer ratings. High levels of relational aggression were related to decreases in peer acceptance for peer

ratings and to increases in peer rejection for teacher ratings. Prosocial behavior again emerged as an important predictor of social adjustment. Girls engaging in high rates of prosocial behavior at the beginning of the school year showed improvements in their social adjustment during the school year (i.e., increased peer acceptance and decreased peer rejection) even if they displayed aggressive behaviors.

Strengths and Limitations

The use of a longitudinal design and collection of data from both peers and teachers were significant strengths of this study. This design made it possible to examine changes during the school year. Because the study was conducted at schools in a medium-sized Midwestern town, it is not clear how well the results would apply to other more diverse samples of students. The extent to which these findings with elementary school students would generalize to adolescents is also unclear.

Meaning for Practitioners

1. The focus of most prevention efforts has been on more apparent, overt forms of aggressive behavior. This study demonstrates the importance of considering more subtle forms of aggression, such as relational aggression. Such forms of aggression have a significant impact on children's adjustment, particularly for girls, and should be considered by developers of prevention programs.
2. This study also highlights the unique role of prosocial behavior in predicting social adjustment. Findings of the relationship between prosocial behavior and changes in social adjustment suggest that getting children to increase their use of prosocial behaviors can lead to increases in their acceptance by peers. This is true even among those children whose aggressive behaviors have caused problems with their social adjustment. These findings underscore the need for prevention efforts that attempt to promote prosocial behavior and not just decrease negative behaviors, such as aggression.
3. Schools should also be mindful that all schools have some popular students who engage in aggressive behaviors.

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Classrooms and Courtrooms: Facing Sexual Harassment in K–12 Schools: Research Summary

Summary by Paul M. Kingery, Ph.D., M.P.H.

In this review article Nan Stein (1999) covers a wide range of topics important to those who are working to prevent sexual harassment and sexual violence in schools. She reviews the magnitude and dimensions of the problems in terms of levels, types, and outcomes; discusses legal issues and their practical implications; considers risk and protective factors that are important intervention points; and examines programs designed to address the problems. The climate of a school may be the most important risk factor, determining which behaviors are tolerated, what remedies are available to victims, and the level of respect required between individuals. Early intervention is needed for behaviors seen in elementary grades. She provides useful commentary, drawing the pieces together and filling in the gaps in research where possible.

Importance of the Study

Although sexual harassment and sexual violence have often been examined among adults, particularly in workplace and domestic settings, they have been little studied among youths in schools. Legal pressures on schools to protect children from these problems have increased as a direct result of a recent Supreme Court decision and by other pressures for progress in this area. The push for improvements in prevention in the absence of solid reviews of the science and practice in this area leaves a great void that Stein fills from available evidence. Readers gain an understanding of the types of problems that predominate, the conditions under which they flourish, and the programs and strategies that are important for prevention.

Sample and Methods

The first step in a new field of study should always be to review what can be gleaned from multiple existing databases, from the literature, and from the professional wisdom of colleagues studying the problem. Stein's review paper achieves this by presenting information from the National Adolescent Student Health Survey, the National Crime and Victimization Survey — School Crime Supplement, a Louis Harris study of randomly sampled U.S. students in grades 8–11 ("Hostile Hallways"), several state-level surveys of self-reporting students, and a number of other sources. She further gleans qualitative findings from several different studies to present a fuller picture.

Findings

Stein finds the problem of sexual harassment and sexual violence in school to be larger than was anticipated, to be little addressed through effective prevention techniques, and to take on dimensions that were entirely unexpected.

Harassment and violence. Differentiating carefully between the linked problems of sexual harassment and sexual violence in schools, Stein draws from court distinctions that have practical significance in schools. Harassment is unwelcome and unwanted behavior of a sexual nature, whether in the form of overt behavior or a hostile environment, that interferes with the right to receive an equal educational opportunity. In practice, a threshold is set by the courts for remedies to sexually harassing behavior that is explicitly sexual, unambiguous, repeated, and of a serious nature.

Sexual violence may be clouded in definition, but Stein brings greater clarity here. The damage may be physical, emotional, psychological, and/or material, of the mind, body, or trust, whether through action or word: "Within the range of behaviors that are considered to be sexual harassment fall some that are sexually violent. The distinguishing feature is one of liability: sexual harassment places liability on the school while liability for sexually violent behavior falls initially on the individual through criminal prosecution, though civil actions may also be pursued." Most acts are perpetrated by men and boys against girls, although boys also become victims, most often by other boys and men. An element of purported "self-defense" enters into the rationale for a significant portion of sexual violence.

Prevalence. Girls most often report sexual comments, gestures or looks, and being touched, pinched, or grabbed, usually in public with others present, often as a daily occurrence. Girls tend to respond to harassers with clear messages to stop, sometimes with physical resistance, and by telling friends, parents, and teachers. Most

events occur in the classroom, although hallways, parking lots, and playing fields are also implicated.

The magnitude of sexual violence in schools is little known because reporting mechanisms are conceptually murky to nonexistent and administrators underreport the problem. For this reason, large variations in estimated levels are seen from one source to another. The "Hostile Hallways" study found that 65 percent of girls were "touched, grabbed, or pinched in a sexual way."

Surprisingly, two-thirds of all boys and more than half of girls in a Harris study in 1996 admitted they had sexually harassed someone in a school setting. Students report that "It's just part of school life," "I thought the person liked it," "I wanted a date with the person," or they were pushed by others to do it. Victimization reports run as high as 92 percent among females and 57 percent among males in school-based self-report studies.

The problem seems to grow in 7th grade and continues throughout high school. Both boys and girls are victimized. Victims are usually known casually or well by perpetrators.

Outcomes. The most common outcomes of sexual harassment include feeling embarrassed, self-conscious, less confident, afraid or scared, doubting whether one can have a happy romantic relationship, avoiding the person, staying away from certain places, not wanting to go to school, not wanting to talk as much in class, finding it hard to pay attention in school, staying home from school, or cutting class, among others. Evidence is presented that the problem is serious and pervasive and that students can suffer poor outcomes as a result.

Actions. A student complaint, usually a female student, triggers an investigation and a course to set a remedy, which are required by law and good judgment. When the threshold set by the court for sexual harassment is met, immediate remedies are required for victims, perpetrators, and witnesses. Remedies may include counseling, education, punishment, restrictions on rights, security precautions, and strategies for preventing further manifestations of the problem while addressing the underlying issues. Prevention efforts are little studied in this area.

A strong case is made that student appeals for help are often minimized or dismissed by teachers and administrators who choose to cast the purported assaults as playful, mutual, or as a form of courtship. Stein labels this behavior as neglect and denial and calls for more serious attention to the problem. This attention would include heightened awareness of all school staff, collaboration between schools and domestic violence/sexual assault organizations in the community, a school-based version of a temporary restraining order, expanded eligibility for temporary restraining orders to include noncohabitating minors, funding, a single federal definition of "sexual violence," increased reporting, redesigned surveys, and other approaches.

Strengths and Limitations

This review draws from many sources to present the best information on the subject of sexual harassment, but that information is of variable quality and lacking in many respects, as the author points out.

Meaning for Practitioners

1. Women who serve on school staffs are more likely to support in-service training on these topics than are men, according to research reviewed by Stein. Their resources are most often in social assistance groups in the community that do not traditionally work closely with schools. School staff members may claim to know more about the subject than they actually know and claim greater skill in the area of prevention than is evident in their performance. Considerable ignorance and tolerance seem to prevail, which indicates that the subject has not yet been met squarely as a problem to be addressed.
2. Raising awareness of students and staff is indicated, along with a broad range of disciplinary and preventive policies, strategies, and interventions. This effort may start with a presentation from a guest speaker; a video shown in a health, social studies, or other class with guided discussion; counseling sessions for victims and perpetrators; referral to area agencies providing resources; rules added to the school conduct code; educational sessions; improvements to reporting and referral procedures; and involvement of parents, police, and other authorities.
3. Educators are urged to regard events from the student's perspective, consider the impact of even one event on the overall climate of the school, think about the broader message that the school's reaction or lack of reaction conveys to the students, and to regard a student's complaint as worthy of investigation. A few programs are available for implementation although their effectiveness is not well understood yet. In this void, community groups may be sought for help, and experts such as Stein may be sought for consultation. This area of study is badly in need of attention.

Reference

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Chapter 3

Research Summaries on School Violence-Prevention Strategies

CHAPTER 3

Research Summaries on School Violence-Prevention Strategies

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School-based aggression prevention programs for young children: Current status and implications for violence prevention. Leff, S. S., Power, T. J., Manz, P. H., Costigan, T. E., & Nabors, L. A. (2001). *School Psychology Review,* 30(3), 344–362.	A critique of five effective school violence-prevention programs. The discussion of each program includes an overview, research design, outcome evaluation, and critique.	The effective programs were *Promoting Alternative THinking Strategies (PATHS); Second Step* (universal elementary); *First Step to Success* (selected kindergarteners); *Anger Coping Program* (aggressive 8- to 14-year olds); and *Brain Power* (aggressive boys, grades 3-6).	43
Impact of the *RIPP* violence-prevention program on rural middle school students: A between-school study. Farrell, A. D., Valois, R. F., Meyer, A. L., & Tidwell, R. P. (2003). *Journal of Primary Prevention* 24, 143–167.	Evaluation of a two-year intervention using *Responding in Peaceful and Positive Ways (RIPP)* with students in 6th and 7th grades.	Students in the intervention reported statistically less aggression, higher life satisfaction, and more favorable attitudes toward using nonviolent alternatives and scored higher in problem solving. Girls endorsed more prosocial responses.	47
Initial impact of the Fast Track Prevention Trial for Conduct Problems: II. Classroom effects. Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group. (1999). *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology,* 67, 648–657.	An evaluation of the first-grade component of the Fast Track model for elementary school students, which integrates a classroom curriculum *(Promoting Alternative THinking Strategies,* or *PATHS)* and selective interventions for students at higher risk.	Students in intervention classrooms had lower levels of aggression and disruptive behavior, and classrooms had a more positive atmosphere. The greater the number of lessons taught, the fewer incidences of aggression occurred, as reported by student peers.	51
Zero tolerance, zero evidence: An analysis of school disciplinary practice. Skiba, R. J., & Knesting, K. (2001). In R. J. Skiba & G. G. Noam (Eds.), *New directions for youth development* (pp. 17–43). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.	The article discusses the history, definition, and prevalence of zero tolerance and reviews the controversy surrounding zero-tolerance policies as applied to school discipline. It then reviews the effects and efficacy of zero tolerance and analyzes whether zero tolerance policies make schools safer.	There is no evidence that zero-tolerance policies contribute to school safety or improved student behavior. Harsh punishments may increase student misbehavior.	55

Title of Article	Description	Outcomes/Program Effects	Page
A structural analysis of school violence and disruption: Implications for creating safer schools. Mayer, M. J., & Leone, P. E. (1999). *Education & Treatment of Children*, 22, 333–356.	An analysis of the relationships between schoolwide discipline practices and the occurrence of disruption on school campuses.	Schools focusing on Secure Building strategies (extra security measures on campus) had significantly higher levels of School Disorder than did schools following System of Law (students' knowledge of rules and consequences) strategies.	61
When interventions harm: Peer groups and problem behavior. Dishion, T. J., McCord, J., & Poulin, F. (1999). *American Psychologist*, 54, 755–764.	A review of three studies examining the role of peer influences in the development of problem behaviors and two that had negative effects on delinquent boys.	Although the interventions were designed to produce positive effects, results of the evaluations suggest that high-risk youths may be particularly susceptible to negative peer influences. Two interventions actually harmed participants.	67

Most widely used violence-prevention programs are not effective, evaluations have failed to capture their successes, or there have not been enough evaluation studies completed to definitively assess their effectiveness. Nevertheless, a small group of effective programs has emerged from which to choose. This chapter reviews evaluations of three school violence-prevention programs. The programs reviewed represent an array of the types of programs and evaluation methods commonly seen in the literature.

The chapter examines meta-analytic findings across multiple programs (a process of combining statistical outcomes across studies that examined the effectiveness of a program). Meta-analytic studies provide one way of comparing the positive outcomes of programs by using a common scale.

The chapter concludes with a presentation of cautions and other issues to consider when a comprehensive school safety approach is designed and implemented.

School-Based Aggression-Prevention Programs for Young Children: Current Status and Implications for Violence Prevention

Summary by Paul M. Kingery, Ph.D., M.P.H.

An assessment of five violence-prevention programs prepackaged for dissemination to schools is offered by Stephen Leff and others as a sampling of available programs and as a comparative study of strengths and weaknesses of programs. The intent was to review a broad range of programs and to present only those that are effective.

Importance of the Study

The article serves as a useful critique of five programs and as a guide for assessing the effectiveness of programs by presenting criteria and commentary that might be adopted in the review of additional programs or strategies. This review does not rise to the level of meta-analysis since it reviews only five programs, yet it cogently presents the kinds of strengths and weaknesses that might be found more broadly among programs. It is a "must read" for those considering adoption of one of the five programs reviewed.

Sample and Methods

This review focuses on school-based aggression-prevention/reduction programs for kindergarten, elementary, and early middle-school-age children. The programs were selected because they specifically targeted school-based aggression prevention, conflict management, or social skills development. Peer mediation programs were not examined because they have been reviewed elsewhere as marginally effective to ineffective. Accepted research standards to determine effectiveness were applied to the 34 studies and found appropriately referenced. Five programs that met the criteria were selected and examined in depth. The examination includes a brief description, research design, outcome evaluation, and critique of each program.

Findings

The authors reviewed two universal prevention programs *(Promoting Alternative THinking Strategies (PATHS)* and *Second Step)* and three programs for youths exhibiting risk factors for violence (*First Step to Success, Anger Coping Program,* and *Brain Power*). The authors found these five to be "possibly efficacious" according to their criteria rather than "efficacious." Statistical standards of significant changes in treatment condition versus control condition were used to make this distinction. The authors examined the use of randomization and control groups, the validity and reliability of outcome measures, the method of measuring dosage, statistical handling of the outcome evaluation, and general strengths and weaknesses that could be identified by the program developers and their own evaluation or from reading between the lines of the published studies.

Strengths of the studies included:

- Well-designed treatment protocols
- Strong research designs
- Monitoring of treatment integrity
- Structured training and comprehensive manuals
- The use of classrooms as the unit of analysis rather than the individual or entire schools
- Examination of dosage, sample size, and diversity
- Testing in combination with other strategies and programs
- Extensive preparation for dissemination
- Large effect size

Limitations of the studies included:

- Failure to address whether the program was equally efficacious for boys and girls and for one ethnic group rather than another
- Failure to measure effects in unstructured school contexts, such as playgrounds and hallways
- Inadequate breadth of measures
- Failure to include all measures both at pretest and post-test
- Low inter-rater reliability of assessments (i.e., low level of agreement among those rating the assessments)
- Weaker evaluation of any family components
- Low effect size for treatment group in relation to comparison group and issues that may have altered effect size
- Distinguishing the effect of the program over time

On the basis of their analysis of these five programs, the authors recommend that **program developers**:

- Define aggression broadly.
- Target multiple forms of aggression.
- Be comprehensive.
- Provide services in naturalistic settings.
- Evaluate outcomes through empirical research that ensures treatment integrity; uses culturally sensitive, multimethod outcome measures; provides effect sizes; examines longitudinal effects; ensures social validity; and provides replication studies.

In the **implementation of school violence-prevention practice**, the authors suggest that educators:

- Focus on prevention and early intervention.
- Recognize multiple forms of aggression.
- Promote collaborations among schools, communities, and mental health agencies.
- Select empirically supported programs.
- Invest in promising programs.
- Use school psychologists.
- Emphasize prevention programming in the lunchroom and on the playground.
- Monitor effects of interventions and evaluate their outcomes.

Strengths and Limitations

This review provides a useful sample of the types of questions that should be asked about published program evaluations before deciding whether to adopt the programs in a particular setting. Although critiques are provided for only five programs, each is worth investigating. Because the emphasis was on programs for younger children, a smaller pool emerged than in other violence-prevention meta-analyses.

Peer mediation programs were dismissed too readily in the review, however, because of concerns raised by other evaluators and other reviews of such programs. Peer mediation programs, taken as a whole, are neither more nor less effective than other types of interventions. The authors did not statistically adjust the magnitude of each program's effects to account for the use of different statistical methods, as would be suggested by scientists for making more precise comparisons of the relative effectiveness of these programs (to ensure apples are compared to apples).

Meaning for Practitioners

1. School staff must ask some difficult questions about the effectiveness of any intervention before adopting it, as the costs of even a single-year implementation can be very high. Failure of a new program may be costly in real dollars and also in terms of wasted efforts, loss of prestige of the implementers, and loss of participation by students.
2. Once a program is determined to be effective, educators must decide whether to select it. Criteria for districts to accept or reject a program are well described and applied to five sample programs. Examples include:

- Relevance to local needs
- Appropriateness to the age groups and type of community to be served

- Availability of materials, training, and other supports
- Proven effectiveness in one or more evaluations using accepted research methods
- Ability to monitor effectiveness and revise as needed

3. This article is a good resource for practitioners to learn how to critically examine the strengths and weaknesses of programs.

Reference

Leff, S. S., Power, T. J., Manz, P. H., Costigan, T. E., & Nabors, L. A. (2001). School-based aggression programs for young children: Current status and implications for violence prevention. *School Psychology Review,* 30(3), 344–362.

Evaluation of the RIPP Violence-Prevention Program on Rural Middle School Students

Summary by Pamela Orpinas, Ph.D.

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the impact of *Responding in Peaceful and Positive Ways (RIPP)*, a violence-prevention program for middle school students, in a diverse sample of students. Two years of intervention were evaluated. Sixth graders participated in *RIPP-6* during the academic year. The following year, as 7th graders, they participated in *RIPP-7*.

Importance of the Study

RIPP is the product of a series of evaluations, and subsequent revisions. *RIPP* was originally developed for students in urban public schools in Virginia. These students were mostly African American and lived in low-income neighborhoods. The curriculum was subsequently tested in rural schools in Florida with a diverse population of Caucasian, Hispanic, and African American students. Multiple evaluations of the program have shown positive results in most measures of aggression.

Sample and Methods

RIPP includes three curricula. The 6th-grade curriculum *(RIPP-6)* is composed of 25 lessons; the 7th-grade curriculum *(RIPP-7)* is composed of 12 lessons; and the 8th-grade curriculum *(RIPP-8)* also contains 12 lessons. In this study the combined effect of *RIPP-6* and *RIPP-7* was evaluated. The 50-minute lessons are taught weekly during the academic subjects of social studies, health, or science. Ideally, they are taught starting at the beginning of the academic year. Students are instructed on how to use a problem-solving model and are encouraged to choose nonviolent alternatives when faced with conflict and potentially violent situations. The curriculum is taught by a trained facilitator.

Four schools were assigned to receive the *RIPP* curriculum, and four were assigned to receive other programs or no programs. Participants were 6th-grade students who entered school in fall 1998. Students in the intervention schools received *RIPP-6* in 6th grade and *RIPP-7* in 7th grade. Of the total sample, 65 percent of students

self-identified as Caucasian, 22 percent as Latino, and 11 percent as African American. Students completed a survey five times: a pretest (at the beginning of 6th grade), two mid-point assessments (end of 6th grade and beginning of 7th grade), and two follow-up assessments (end of 7th grade and beginning of 8th grade).

The mediating variables measured were knowledge about the *RIPP* curriculum and problem solving, attitudes toward nonviolent resolution of conflict and toward violent behavior, selection of prosocial or aggressive responses to conflict situations in which students are provoked, and peer support for nonviolence. The outcome variables measured were frequency of aggressive behavior, delinquent behavior, drug use, victimization, and peer provocation as well as a measure of life satisfaction.

Facilitators who taught the curricula received four days of training for *RIPP-6*, two days of training for *RIPP-7*, and five additional days for general training on classroom management, violence prevention, and facilitation skills. They all had prior teaching experience.

Findings

Although the results were inconsistent across measures and time, the results were in the right direction and the intervention did show an impact on reducing and preventing student aggression. The most important statistically significant results were as follows:

- Students in the schools where the curriculum was taught reported less aggression over time. This difference was not statistically significant in the first evaluations. The trend, however, was a greater difference between intervention and control schools over time, and the difference in the second evaluation was statistically significant. Students who received the curriculum also reported a significantly higher life satisfaction than students who did not receive the curriculum.
- Students in the comparison schools were more likely to report carrying a weapon to school and using it to threaten someone than were students in the intervention schools.
- The program had a positive impact on modifying students' attitudes toward violence and increasing students' knowledge about problem solving. Students who received the curriculum reported a more favorable attitude toward using nonviolent alternatives and a less favorable attitude toward using aggression than students who did not receive the curriculum. Students who received the curriculum also scored higher in the problem-solving and *RIPP* knowledge test. Girls who received the curriculum also endorsed more prosocial responses than did girls in the comparison schools; no difference was observed in prosocial responses among boys.

Strengths and Limitations

The study used a strong methodology that included multiple measures, use of control schools, two years of intervention, and five assessments. Overall, *RIPP* was effective in reducing students' aggressive behaviors and in increasing students' perception of life satisfaction.

A limitation of the study was the nonrandom assignment of schools to conditions. Not all measures and not all time points indicated a significant difference between intervention and comparison schools, and the significant impact on aggressive behaviors was not observed until the last evaluation point. A potential limitation of the program is the use of a trained facilitator to deliver the curriculum.

Meaning for Practitioners

The *RIPP* curriculum is a theory-based, well-designed curriculum for middle school students. The curriculum includes lessons for 6th, 7th, and 8th graders. The evaluation shows a cumulative effect of training, suggesting that initial effects of the 6th-grade program are more likely to be sustained if the 7th- and 8th-grade programs are also implemented. The program also appears to have stronger effects if it is implemented on a schoolwide basis. One of the key features of the program is its implementation by a trained facilitator committed to nonviolence. Further research is needed to establish the extent to which teachers can implement the program with similar levels of success.

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Initial Impact of the Fast Track Prevention Trial for Conduct Problems: II. Classroom Effects

Summary by Albert D. Farrell, Ph.D.

This study evaluates the 1st-grade component of the Fast Track model for elementary school students. The interventions are grounded in a developmental model of social and emotional competence. This model integrates universal interventions directed at all students and selective interventions designed for students at higher risk. The universal intervention includes a 57-lesson curriculum called *PATHS (Promoting Alternative THinking Strategies)*, designed to teach students self-control, emotional awareness, peer relations, and problem solving. The *PATHS* program is taught by teachers on a regular basis during most of the school year and includes other efforts to integrate the curriculum into the entire school (e.g., posters in hallways, changes in school behavior guidelines).

High-risk students within these schools also participated in a more intensive program that included parenting classes, home visits, small-group social skills classes, and academic tutoring. This article focuses on the schoolwide effects of implementing both the universal and selective interventions. Although interventions are designed to cover grades 1 to 5, this study focused on interventions for the 1st grade.

Importance of the Study

This study is part of a systematic program of research being conducted on a large scale in four diverse communities. It represents the first reported study of a universal social competence intervention for elementary school students that examined change at the level of classrooms rather than of individual students. The intervention components are well grounded in theories and relevant research on the development of social competence. The use of multiple components, including both universal and selective interventions, makes this a particularly promising approach.

Sample and Methods

This study used a randomized clinical trial in which sets of schools were matched on size, student achievement levels, poverty, and ethnic/racial diversity and then were randomly assigned to intervention and no-intervention control conditions. The schools were selected to include high-risk schools in urban, rural, and suburban areas in Durham, North Carolina; Nashville, Tennessee; Seattle, Washington; and central Pennsylvania. The universal and selective interventions were implemented at each of the intervention schools for three consecutive years with each class (cohort) of students who started the first grade. Across the three years students in 198 classrooms received the intervention, and 180 classrooms served as a control group.

Teachers were trained to implement the *PATHS* curriculum during a two-and-a-half-day training workshop and received weekly consultations and observations from project staff. Lessons were 20 to 30 minutes long and were taught two to three times per week. The dosage of the intervention was determined by having teachers report the specific lessons they completed each week. Fidelity of implementation was assessed by educational consultants who observed the teachers and rated them each month in terms of their quality of teaching the concepts, modeling of concepts, quality of classroom management, and openness to consultation.

Outcomes were measured on teacher ratings of students' behavior at the beginning and end of the school year. Post-test data were also obtained at the end of the school year on peer nominations assessing aggression, hyperactive-disruptive behavior, prosocial behavior, and likability. Observers also rated classroom atmosphere (e.g., amount of disruptive behavior, level of cooperation, ability to stay focused and on task).

Findings

Several intervention effects were evident on the post-test measures. Peer nomination data indicated that students in classrooms at schools receiving the intervention had lower levels of aggression and hyperactive-disruptive behavior than did students in schools not receiving the interventions. There were, however, no differences in prosocial behavior. Observer ratings indicated that intervention classrooms had a more positive classroom atmosphere than those that did not receive the intervention. Comparison of pre- to post-test changes on teacher ratings did not reveal any differences between classrooms in the intervention and control schools.

The researchers also examined the effects of intervention dosage and the quality of implementation on outcomes. Higher dosage, as measured by the number of lessons taught, was related to somewhat

lower peer ratings of aggression. Higher dosage was also related to more positive classroom atmosphere ratings. Ratings of the teachers' skill in teaching concepts, managing the classroom, and modeling and generalizing intervention concepts throughout the school day were significantly related to teacher ratings of students and to observer ratings of classroom atmosphere, but not to any of the student peer ratings. Teacher experience with the program also played an important role in that those teachers who taught more cohorts of students produced stronger effects on ratings of classroom atmosphere.

Strengths and Limitations

This was a well-designed study based on interventions well grounded in developmental theory. Strengths include the focus on the classroom level, use of multiple measures of outcome, evaluation of program implementation and its relation to outcomes, and inclusion of schools representing diverse settings in different parts of the United States.

Although a number of positive effects were found, effects were inconsistent across outcome measures. Because this study focused on outcomes at the end of the 1st-grade school year, the extent to which positive effects of the intervention will be maintained remains to be determined. Because the universal intervention was implemented with a targeted intervention focused on higher-risk students, it is not clear to what extent any observed effects were due to the universal intervention, the targeted intervention, or the synergistic effects of both. Although the quality of implementing the program was related to outcomes, it may be that teachers who implemented the program well were simply better teachers who managed their classrooms better.

Meaning for Practitioners

1. This study suggested that a universal intervention focused on social and emotional competence implemented with high dosage and fidelity can alter classroom climate during 1st grade. This study underscored the importance of the quality of program implementation. Teachers who understood the concepts in the curriculum, infused the curriculum into other activities, and managed their classrooms had a stronger impact on classroom aggression. Dosage had a minor effect, suggesting that it is not the number of lessons completed but the quality of implementation that is key to producing change.

2. The evaluation findings indicate this is an excellent violence-prevention program for schools to consider, especially with students who are disengaged from school and likely to have multiple problems in the future.
3. When considering the program, schools should examine it carefully to determine if it is appropriate for their students, teachers, and administration. It is a complicated program and therefore may not be easy to implement.

Reference

Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group. (1999). Initial impact of the Fast Track Prevention Trial for Conduct Problems: II. Classroom effects. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 67, 648–657.

Zero Tolerance, Zero Evidence: An Analysis of School Disciplinary Practice

Summary by Michael J. Furlong, Ph.D., Megan M. Redding, and Angela Whipple

Because of recent incidents of violent behavior on school campuses across the United States, creating safe schools is a major goal of educators and policymakers in the twenty-first century. Several strategies have been used in an attempt to make schools safer, but none has created as much controversy as zero-tolerance policies applied to school discipline. Zero-tolerance policies are defined as school or district policies that mandate predetermined consequences or punishments for specific offenses regardless of the circumstances or disciplinary history of the students involved.

Zero-tolerance policies have prompted the attention of the national media in certain cases where severe punishments were given for seemingly minor infractions. Such cases include the suspension of a five-year-old who had a five-inch plastic axe as part of his firefighter Halloween costume; the jailing and suspension of an 18-year-old National Merit scholar who had a kitchen knife in the backseat of her car; and the suspension of an 11-year-old for possessing a 10-inch chain that attached her Tweety Bird wallet to her key ring.

Zero-tolerance policies grew out of a program created by Peter Nanez, a U.S. attorney in San Diego, that punished seagoing vessels for crossing the border with trace amounts of drugs and charged those individuals in federal court. The public quickly latched onto this policy, and within months the term and strategy was applied to a broad range of issues, such as trespassing, skateboarding, and school discipline.

Beginning in 1989, local school districts used this policy to mandate expulsion for drugs, fighting, and gang-related activity. Zero-tolerance policies became national policy when President Clinton signed the Gun-Free Schools Act of 1994, which mandates the following: a one-calendar-year expulsion for possession of a firearm; referral of law-violating students to the criminal or juvenile justice system; and the provision that state law must authorize the chief administrative officer of each school district to modify such expulsions on a case-by-case basis. Recent amendments to this law now include any instrument that *may* be used as a weapon. Additionally, state legislatures and school districts have broadened the mandate of zero tolerance to apply to drugs and alcohol, fighting, threats, and swearing.

Zero-tolerance policies held some appeal to those wanting to make schools safer. The policies sent a message that any type of

"dangerous" or "unsafe" behavior would not be tolerated on school campuses. However, controversy has arisen and continues to arise over these policies because harsh punishments are being applied for relatively minor offenses and because impoverished and minority students are suspended and expelled from schools at higher rates than are other groups of students. In addition, controversy arises in schools with zero-tolerance policies because certain disciplinary responses are standardized, leaving little or no room for flexibility in disciplining students. The goal of zero tolerance is to keep schools safe and to change student behavior. With the implementation of these policies, it is important to accumulate evidence to determine whether these policies are indeed keeping schools safer and changing student behavior.

Intent of the Study

This Skiba and Knesting article is part of the *New Directions for Youth Development* series, entitled *Zero Tolerance: Can Suspension and Expulsion Keep Schools Safe?* The study includes six articles that provide an in-depth review of this important topic. The Skiba and Knesting article is specifically reviewed here because it discusses the history, definition, and prevalence of zero tolerance and reviews the controversy surrounding zero-tolerance policies as applied to school discipline. It then reviews the effects and efficacy of zero tolerance, emphasizing the impact of racial and economic fairness in these policies as well as examining the evidence on whether suspension and expulsion are effective means of discipline. Finally, it analyzes the question of whether zero-tolerance policies make schools safer and outlines recommendations for effective school discipline practices.

Importance of the Study

Because elements of zero-tolerance policies are implemented in 80 percent of the nation's schools, it is important to examine their efficacy as a strategy for disciplining students and keeping schools safe. In addition, because students of impoverished and racially diverse backgrounds are overrepresented in school disciplinary actions, it is particularly important to ensure that these policies are being fairly applied to all students.

Findings

Skiba and Knesting emphasize that in the current climate of educational accountability, one would expect that some data should have emerged concerning the effects and efficacy of zero-tolerance approaches, especially the use of suspension and expulsion. However, they found that there is surprisingly little national-level data on trends concerning the use of suspension and expulsion. State and local data suggest that since the introduction of zero-tolerance policies in school discipline, the number of suspensions and expulsions has increased. Expulsion is usually reserved for incidents of moderate to high severity. Suspension, in contrast, is a widely used disciplinary technique and is applied to a variety of offenses, including fighting, disobedience and disrespect, attendance problems, and general classroom disruption. Zero-tolerance policies potentially replace a graduated system of discipline with a more severe system of discipline that punishes minor offenses with serious consequences.

In their review Skiba and Knesting note that a small percentage of students account for the majority of all disciplinary referrals. For example, in one study of 19 middle schools in a large midwestern urban district, 6 percent of students were responsible for 44 percent of all referrals to the office. In addition, studies of school suspension have consistently documented overrepresentation of low-income students and minority students. The authors emphasize that this overrepresentation of minority students is not merely a function of these students misbehaving more, because research has not shown that African Americans (in particular) misbehave at a significantly higher rate than do other groups of students.

Although one would assume that behavior is the main reason that students get sent to the office, several studies demonstrate that disciplinary actions are also a function of classroom and school characteristics. For example, Skiba and Knesting cite a study in which two-thirds of all disciplinary referrals of middle school students came from 25 percent of the school's teachers. School factors also influence the rate of suspension. Teachers' attitudes, teachers' perceptions of student achievement, administrative centralization, the quality of school governance, the racial makeup of the school, and the overall suspension rate appear to be stronger predictors of school suspension than are student attitudes and behavior.

Skiba and Knesting note that the impact of suspension and expulsion on student behavior or overall school safety has not been directly studied. However, indirect data suggest that suspension may be an ineffective disciplinary action for those students who are most at risk of and are most often targeted for disciplinary consequences. In fact, rates of repeat offending resulting in school suspension are quite high, ranging from 35 percent to 45 percent, suggesting that this segment of students is not affected by the message of zero tolerance. Conversely, suspension may reinforce misbehavior by removing these students from situations that are not to their liking.

Furthermore, the long-term outcomes of suspension are not promising. National studies report that students who have been suspended were three times more likely to drop out of school by their sophomore year. In addition, studies have shown that students who are more bonded to school are less likely to be involved in the juvenile justice system. Removal of repeat offenders from school decreases the amount of time these students spend at school, thereby reducing their chances of feeling connected to school. Skiba and Knesting suggest that harsh punishments may, in fact, increase student misbehavior because these students may interpret this confrontational discipline as a challenge to escalate their misbehavior.

Research from behavioral psychology suggests that the application of punishment is unpredictable and unlikely to lead to the learning of new behavior. In fact, a host of negative side effects of punishment have been documented, including escape and counteraggression, habituation to progressively stiffer consequences, and reinforcement of the punishing agent.

Skiba and Knesting provide recommendations based on best-practice knowledge of what works in school safety and school discipline. Recommendations include the following: (a) reserve zero-tolerance disciplinary removals for only the most serious of disruptive behaviors, such as weapons offenses; (b) replace one-size-fits-all disciplinary strategies with graduated systems of discipline, in which consequences are geared to the seriousness of the infractions; (c) expand the array of options available to schools for dealing with disruptive or violent behaviors; (d) implement preventive measures that can improve school climate and reconnect alienated students; and (e) evaluate all school discipline and school violence-prevention strategies to ensure that these strategies are truly reducing student misbehavior and improving school safety.

Skiba and Knesting emphasize that there is still no evidence that zero-tolerance policies contribute to school safety or improved student behavior. Currently, research indicates that for at-risk students the most commonly documented outcome of suspension and expulsion is further suspension and expulsion and eventual school dropout. This evidence is extremely troubling because of the overrepresentation of disadvantaged and minority students involved in school discipline. Since there is an almost complete lack of empirical evidence that zero tolerance is effective in creating safer schools and changing student behavior, it is important that more effective, less intrusive alternatives for preserving school safety are implemented in the nation's schools.

Strengths and Limitations

This article provides an informative review of the history, definition, and effectiveness of zero-tolerance policies applied to school discipline. It contains a review of the literature that demonstrates the ineffectiveness of zero-tolerance punishments in changing students' behavior and making schools safer. Examples of students' lives that have been irrevocably changed by zero-tolerance policies are outlined. It also reviews studies that demonstrate the overrepresentation of minority and disadvantaged students in school discipline and show that school discipline varies as a function of schools and classrooms, not just of student misbehavior.

Although this article provides recommendations for alternatives to zero-tolerance policies in school discipline, it does not review current programs that have been demonstrated as effective in creating safer schools and reducing antisocial behavior. Such a review would have provided practitioners with a range of possible programs that could be implemented at their schools. An additional limitation of this chapter is that while the authors talk about the overrepresentation of minority students in school discipline, they refer only to African American students. A more comprehensive review of how other minority groups are affected by school discipline would have been pertinent.

Meaning for Practitioners

1. Reserve zero-tolerance punishments for only the most serious offenses and clearly define these offenses in the school discipline code.
2. Implement graduated systems of school discipline in which the consequence matches the seriousness of the infraction.
3. Implement research-based programs that are effective in dealing with disruptive or violent behavior in schools. Programs may include bullying prevention, conflict resolution, peer mediation, early identification and intervention, and improved classroom behavior management.
4. Implement preventive measures and programs that improve the school climate and bond alienated students to schools.
5. Evaluate all programs that are currently in place dealing with school discipline and school safety and ensure that these programs are truly having an impact on school safety and student behavior.

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Osher, D. A., Sandler, S., & Nelson, C. L. (2001). The best approach to safety is to fix schools and support children and staff. In R. J. Skiba & G. G. Noam (Eds.), *New directions for youth development* (pp. 127–154). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Skiba, R. J., & Knesting, K. (2001). Zero tolerance, zero evidence: An analysis of school disciplinary practice. In R. J. Skiba & G. G. Noam (Eds.), *New directions for youth developmen*t (pp. 17–43). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

A Structural Analysis of School Violence and Disruption: Implications for Creating Safer Schools

Summary by Michael Furlong, Ph.D., Jenne Simental, and Angela Whipple

Mayer and Leone provide a technical analysis of the relationship between schoolwide discipline practices and the occurrence of disruption on school campuses. A point of possible tension in any school safety and security plan is whether to focus on security through surveillance, control devices, and procedures or to develop security by cultivating a shared vision and purpose. The authors used the School Crime Supplement (SCS) to the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) to examine the relationship between violent behavior and school climate, specifically safety plans and procedures. Advanced statistical procedures (structural equation modeling) were utilized to examine the relationships amongst the several constructs and variables associated with violent behavior in public schools. The findings demonstrate the importance of positive measures, such as nurturing supportive school climates and building a sense of community while implementing a clear and fair schoolwide discipline policy aimed at reducing school violence.

Importance of the Study

Beyond a technical interest to improve the SCS for research and policy purposes, Mayer and Leone's study should encourage all educators to pause and consider the fundamental purposes and philosophy of their school safety plan. What is it that motivates educators to design and implement a school discipline plan and strategies to reduce school violence? This study looks at the motivation that forms the foundation of prevention programs. It suggests that the school violence program decisions, actions, and strategies implemented will naturally flow from the school community values that are an important part of the school safety planning process.

Sample and Methods

This study analyzed the 1995 SCS data derived from 6,947 public school students in grades 7–12. It was hypothesized that school violence outcomes would differ by how schools implement and enforce school rules and respond to discipline infractions. In this study Mayer and Leone designed a conceptual model that comprised four constructs: *Secure Building* (extra security measures on campus), *System of Law* (students' understanding of rules and consequences), *School Disorder* (degree of disruption within campus), and *Individual Self-Protection* (students' responses to campus violence). Each construct had two or more indicator variables that were used in the statistical analyses. This model is further shown in Figure 2.

The analysis examined the strength of the relationships among the Secure Building and System of Law as predictors of School Disorder, which in turn was hypothesized to be positively related to Individual Self-Protection; again this is shown in Figure 2. A two-step structural equation modeling analysis was performed. First, confirmatory factor analysis was used and from these results a measurement model was fit to the data. The results were significant and supported the model. Additional care was added by splitting the sample and grouping it in various ways in order to cross-validate the structural model. These analyses were also significant and increased confidence that the results were stable.

Findings

The final analysis revealed a strong association among Secure Building, System of Law, School Disorder, and Individual Self-Protection. First, efforts to secure a school through restrictive physical means (Secure Building) were strongly associated with higher levels of School Disorder (problematic student behavior) and further decreased student perceptions of their overall level of personal school safety. Second, System of Law (knowledge of rules and regulations and presence of drugs on school campus) was also significantly associated with School Disorder, but in the negative direction. This means that those schools focusing on Secure Building strategies had significantly higher levels of School Disorder than did schools following System of Law strategies. Another important finding was that School Disorder was positively and significantly related to Individual Self-Protection. This commonsense finding points out that at schools that implement Secure Building strategies and have higher levels of School Disorder, the students are likely to take specific steps to limit their exposure to potential violence.

Mayer and Leone (1999) conclude with the suggestion that ". . . less attention should be paid to running schools in an overly restrictive manner and rather, schools

Table 3
Description of School Constructs and Indicators

Constructs	Indicators
Discipline Philosophy	
Secure Building	The degree to which the school implements programs that focus on measures to increase control of the physical environment. In this study, the indicator variables are: • Presence of security guards, hallway supervision, visitor sign-in policies • Presence of metal detectors, locked doors, locker searches
System of Law	The extent to which the school implements programs that seek to develop within the students a clear understanding of the school rules and the consequences for rule violation. In addition, efforts are made to implement the system of rules in a consistent, fair manner. In this study, the indicator variables are: • Student perceptions of knowledge of rules and consequences • Consistency and strictness of rule enforcement
School Safety Outcomes	
School Disorder	The degree of violence and disruption present in the school. In this study, the indicator variables are: • Presence of gangs • Presence of drugs • Incidents of personal attack and personal theft
Individual Self-Protection	The feelings experienced and actions taken by students in response to school disorder. In this study, the indicator variables are: • Places in and around school that students avoid from fear of attack • Self-protective actions taken due to fear for personal safety

should concentrate more on communicating individual responsibility to students" (p. 351). In addition, the authors propose that further research examine the more positive aspects of school engagement in order to promote a violence-free environment in a proactive rather than reactive fashion.

Strengths and Limitations

The school safety models examined in this study are timely and important because they have implications for how schools plan for and select violence-prevention programs. The limitations of this study include the use of a national survey database designed for the SCS study, which constrained the conceptual model to the constructs defined and measured by the SCS. The development of an enhanced model would hold the possibility of including additional constructs in order to further study the relationship between school climate and violent behavior.

Meaning for Practitioners

1. Each school is unique in the challenges it faces and the resources to respond to those challenges. Nonetheless, when considering how to increase school safety, every school will need to consider its primary motivations. The issue surrounding how to best respond to school safety threats is complicated and enduring. On the one hand, the need to guarantee physical safety requires attention to environmental and security strategies. On the other hand, schools are primarily social settings that must cultivate good will and a shared sense of purpose in order to be successful. The question posed in this study is, How is it possible to address these apparently competing needs? It appears that consistent, understandable, and fair rules decrease school violence and disruption.
2. Thus, practitioners should consider strategies to establish and maintain a rule-based school environment. Such a school environment is not permissive; instead, the rules are clear and generally acceptable to the school community, and the consequences for violation and compliance are enforced fairly.
3. In contrast, it appears that procedures that focus primarily on altering physical aspects on the school campus, such as locking doors, installing metal detectors, and so forth, seem to have the opposite effect of increasing adverse student behaviors. In addition, focusing heavily on personnel components, such as security guards or hallway supervision, in the school also may have a harmful impact on school climate.
4. One basic way to consider the subtle importance of the distinctions made in the study about school security is for schools to consider if they are implementing strategies to increase "surveillance" (Secure Building — keeping an eye on students) or to provide better "supervision" (System of Law — looking out for the safety and welfare of students).

Reference

Mayer, M. J., & Leone, P. E. (1999). A structural analysis of school violence and disruption: Implications for creating safer schools. *Education & Treatment of Children*, 22, 333–356.

When Interventions Harm: Peer Groups and Problem Behavior

Summary by Albert D. Farrell, Ph.D.

This article reviews the results of three longitudinal studies that examined the role of peer influences in the development of problem behavior, such as violence, and discusses the findings. The studies evaluated the impact of interventions that included a component in which high-risk youths participated in small groups. The authors use these articles to caution that interventions using peer groups to reduce problem behaviors among high-risk youths may produce negative effects by inadvertently reinforcing problem behavior.

Importance of the Study

This article demonstrates that some well-intentioned efforts to reduce violence and other problem behaviors by high-risk youths may actually do more harm than good. It identifies the aspects of interventions that are most likely to contribute to such effects. At a more general level, it underscores the importance of evaluating the effects of interventions rather than assuming the interventions produce their intended effects.

Sample and Methods

The authors describe three longitudinal studies that examined the role of peers in reinforcing delinquency, substance use, violence, and adult maladjustment. In these studies, pairs of 13- to 14-year-old boys were videotaped during 25-minute interactions. Videotapes were coded to determine the extent to which participants tended to reinforce each other through laughing, gesturing, or other behaviors for talking about their involvement in problem behaviors. These data were then used to predict involvement in problem behaviors two to five years later.

The authors also describe two experimentally controlled studies that were developed to evaluate promising interventions that were subsequently found to have negative effects on participants (i.e., increased

participants' involvement in delinquent or maladjusted behavior). The results of these evaluations suggested that high-risk youths may be particularly susceptible to negative peer influences. The Adolescent Transitions Program study examined the effects of an intervention that included a teen focus component delivered to participants in small groups. The second intervention study, the Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study, matched pairs of boys and randomly assigned them to intervention and control conditions. Although treatment was individualized, counselors encouraged boys in the intervention to participate in local community groups and summer camps. Long-term follow-up data provided a basis for examining the impact of this program on their adult adjustment.

Findings

Results of the longitudinal studies indicated that pairs of delinquent boys were more likely to react to deviant talk by laughing, smiling, gesturing, or otherwise reacting positively; whereas pairs of nondelinquent boys tended to ignore deviant talk and move on to other topics. The authors refer to the process of responding positively to deviant talk as deviancy training. They found that adolescents who displayed high levels of deviancy training in videotapes of these interactions were more likely to become involved in delinquency and violent behavior two years later. They were also more likely to have problems with adjustment as young adults five years later.

In the Adolescent Transitions Program study, participants in the teen focus groups were more likely than nonparticipants to increase tobacco use at a three-month assessment and had higher rates of tobacco use and teacher reports of problem behaviors at a one-year assessment. Increased rates of tobacco use and delinquency persisted at a three-year follow-up assessment. Older adolescents with the highest initial level of problem behaviors who participated in the intervention were most susceptible to these negative effects. Analysis of videotaped interactions revealed that these adolescents received more attention in the groups than did younger, less deviant participants.

Follow-up analysis of matched pairs in the Cambridge-Somerville study indicated that individuals who participated in the intervention were more likely than nonparticipants to have poor outcomes as adults. Poor outcomes included premature death, criminal convictions, and psychiatric impairments. Those who received the most intensive levels of treatment were the most likely to have negative outcomes. A careful review of the data revealed that individuals with repeated involvement in summer camp programs displayed the most negative effects.

Strengths and Limitations

The longitudinal studies were carefully controlled studies that found relations between deviancy training and negative outcomes at a fairly long-term follow-up. The intervention studies were designed to evaluate interventions that were designed to produce positive effects. The role of deviancy training in these interventions is based on a plausible but post hoc interpretation of the findings. Further work is clearly needed to establish the circumstances under which these negative effects occur.

Meaning for Practitioners

Results of these studies suggest that interventions in which young high-risk adolescents are placed together into groups should be avoided because they may inadvertently produce harmful effects. Such effects may be most evident during early adolescence. Mixing prosocial and aggressive youths may also reduce such negative effects. At a more general level, this article demonstrates how even well-intentioned interventions have the potential for producing harm and thus underscores the importance of evaluating program effects.

Reference

Dishion, T. J., McCord, J., & Poulin, F. (1999). When interventions harm: Peer groups and problem behavior. *American Psychologist*, 54, 755–764.

Chapter 4

From Research to Practice

CHAPTER 4

From Research to Practice

Previous chapters of this update have described research on numerous violence-prevention programs and approaches that can be applied within a comprehensive safe school framework. This chapter describes the elements of such a framework to achieve the physical and social aspects of a school where students and staff feel secure and free to focus on the traditional educational tasks of learning and growth.

In addition to this chapter, several publications listed in Chapter 5, "Resources for Creating Safe Schools," provide step-by-step processes for assessing needs, planning, and achieving a safe school.

Framework for a Safe School

A comprehensive approach to school safety involves six components: (1) administrative planning, monitoring, and support; (2) security of the school facility itself (e.g., lighting, a secure campus perimeter, visitor monitoring); (3) schoolwide education and skills training to reduce aggressive and violent behaviors; (4) counseling to assist students involved in violence or at risk of violent behavior; (5) alternative education for youths who are chronic and serious offenders and have special needs; (6) and involvement of parents, policymakers, juvenile justice authorities, business people, and community organizations in planning and interventions to create a safe school.

Characteristics of a Safe School

The desired outcome of the effective operation of these components — the characteristics of a safe school — is one that (1) begins violence-prevention strategies in preschool and early elementary grades; (2) respects and connects students while communicating high behavioral expectations; (3) promotes effective classroom management; (4) creates connections with the community; (5) uses tested security measures; and (6) evaluates the results of its efforts (California Department of Education 2002).

Science-Based Strategies

This update has described research on several classroom and schoolwide policy and educational interventions for decreasing bullying and other aggressive behavior. Information about reviewing and selecting programs that are appropriate to an individual school is also provided. Following are some of the practical action steps derived from these research summaries.

Bullying and Other Aggressive Behavior

- Accurately defining and identifying bullying as a distinct form of aggression is important for schools in forming interventions to address bullying. Instead of asking whether bullying is occurring, educators should assume that bullying is occurring in all schools. The focus of identification should be on the type and frequency of bullying that occurs.
- In particular, schools are encouraged to implement programs that guide and educate (rather than punish) bullies on appropriate social interactions. Overall, programs need to address a primary function of bullying, which is the use of power over other students to meet a need for control of others.
- There are differences in bullying and victimization patterns across gender, which suggests that bullying may serve different developmental functions for boys and girls. Interventions should take into account different gender patterns across different ages.
- Most prevention efforts are on overt forms of aggressive behavior. However, more subtle forms of aggression, such as relational aggression, have a significant impact on children's adjustment, particularly for girls, and should be considered.
- Schools should also be mindful that all schools have some popular students who engage in aggressive behaviors.
- Research shows a need for prevention efforts that promote prosocial behavior and not just decrease negative behaviors such as aggression. The school should work toward developing social norms that prohibit bullying and other aggressive behaviors and encourage supportive behaviors.
- Violence-prevention interventions are more effective if they include and are supported by administrators, teachers, and students.
- Because there is considerable ignorance about and tolerance of sexual harassment, raising awareness of students and staff is indicated, along with a broad range of disciplinary and preventive policies, strategies, and interventions.
- Educators should regard sexual harassment events from the student's perspective, consider the impact of even one event on the overall climate of the school, think about the broader message that the school's reaction or lack of reaction conveys to the students, and regard a student's complaint as worthy of investigation.

Selection of Programs and Strategies

- Implement preventive measures and programs that improve school climate and bond alienated students to schools.
- Implement research-based programs in schools that are effective in dealing with disruptive or violent behavior. Programs may include bullying prevention, conflict resolution, peer mediation, early identification and intervention, youth development, asset building, and improved classroom behavior management.
- School staff must ask some difficult questions about the effectiveness of any intervention before adopting it, as the costs of even a single-year implementation can be very high. Failure of a new program may be costly in real dollars and also in terms of wasted efforts, loss of prestige of the implementers, and loss of participation by students.
- Once a program is determined by research criteria to be effective, educators must decide whether to select it for their school. These practical criteria for selection include:
  - Relevance of the program to local (school, community) needs
  - Appropriateness to the ages and type of school/community to be served
  - Availability of materials, training, and other supports
  - Cost-effectiveness
  - Ability to monitor effectiveness and revise as needed

Effective Implementation of Programs

- Numerous studies underscore the importance of the quality of program implementation. In one study, teachers who understood the concepts in the curriculum, infused the curriculum into other activities, and managed their classrooms had a stronger impact on classroom aggression. Dosage (the amount of time spent) had a minor effect, suggesting that it is not the number of lessons completed but the quality of implementation that is key to producing change.
- Early efforts (with 1st graders) to reduce aggressive behaviors can have a long-term impact when the students become 6th graders. Key elements of one 1st-grade classroom program were the training of teachers and the use of teacher support groups to develop creative solutions to behavioral problems.
- Interventions in which young high-risk adolescents are placed together into groups should be avoided because these configurations may inadvertently produce harmful effects.

Selection and Enforcement of Appropriate Policies

- Reserve zero-tolerance punishments for only the most serious offenses and clearly define these offenses in the school discipline code.
- Implement graduated systems of school discipline in which the consequence matches the severity of the infraction.

- Consistent, understandable, and fair rules decrease school violence and disruption. Thus, practitioners should consider strategies to establish and maintain a rule-based schooling environment. Such a school environment is not permissive; instead, the rules are clear and acceptable to the school community, and the consequences for violation and compliance are enforced fairly.
- Procedures that focus primarily on altering physical aspects on the school campus, such as locking doors, installing metal detectors, and so forth, seem to increase adverse student behaviors.
- Focusing heavily on personnel components, such as security guards or hallway supervision, in the school may have a harmful impact on the school climate.

Reference

California Department of Education and Office of the Attorney General. (2002). *Safe schools: A planning guide for action.* Sacramento: California Department of Education.

Chapter 5

Resources for Creating Safe Schools

CHAPTER 5

Resources for Creating Safe Schools

Several government agencies and nonprofit organizations have information on how to create safe schools:

Organizations

California Department of Education
1430 N Street
Sacramento, CA 95814-5901
(916) 319-0791 (main office) or
(916) 319-0920
(Safe & Healthy Kids Program Office)
Fax: (916) 319-0218
(Safe & Healthy Kids Program Office)
www.cde.ca.gov

Publications

Alameda County Office of Education and the California Department of Education. (1997). *Hate-motivated behavior in schools; response strategies for school boards, administrators, law enforcement, and communities.* Sacramento: California Department of Education.

California Department of Education. (2003). *Bullying at school*. Sacramento: Author.

Bullying at School describes research-based strategies and activities to help schools to recognize, understand, define, and respond to destructive behavior and prevent bullying. It also discusses how to build a safe, secure, and welcoming campus environment.

California Department of Education. (2001). *California safe schools assessment 1999-2000 results: Promoting safe schools.* Sacramento: Author.

California Department of Education and Office of the Attorney General. (2002). *Safe schools: A planning guide for action.* Sacramento: California Department of Education. (*www.cde.ca.gov/re/pn/rc/ap/pubcat.aspx*)

Safe Schools: A Planning Guide for Action describes the elements of a comprehensive program in two areas: the school climate and the physical environment. Processes and programs that promote a positive, caring climate include after-school programs, buddy systems, character and citizenship education, discipline policies, positive behavioral support (i.e., student behavior management), support for multiple languages and learning styles, school-community policing, and staff development. The physical environment should be safe and hospitable. Safe schools have a number of physical attributes that make them appealing as well as secure. *Safe Schools: A Planning Guide for Action* describes various interventions and programs to create a safe school and provides detailed planning and action steps.

Order California Department of Education publications from CDE Press, Sales Office, 1430 N Street, Suite 3207, Sacramento, CA 95814-5901; Fax (916) 323-0823.

California Healthy Kids Resource Center

Alameda County Office of Education
313 West Winton Avenue
Hayward, CA 94544
(510) 670-4581
Fax: (510) 670-4582
www.californiahealthykids.org

The California Healthy Kids Resource Center (CHKRC) provides high-quality resources in health education, including tobacco use prevention education and drug and violence prevention, to California teachers, administrators, other professionals, parents, and community personnel who work with students in preschool through grade twelve. Curricula; videos; laser disks; displays; teacher reference; students' literature books; and program development, research, and professional training materials are available to be loaned in California free of charge.

California Healthy Kids Survey

WestEd
4665 Lampson Avenue
Los Alamitos, CA 90720
(562) 598-7661
Fax: (562) 985-9635
www.wested.org/hks

The California Healthy Kids Survey (CHKS) is a comprehensive support system that collects data on youth health and risk behavior for grades 5, 7, 9, and 11. The core module contains items relating to alcohol, tobacco, and other drug use; school violence; and physical health. The CHKS provides local, state, and national comparisons.

Center for Mental Health Services

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration
P.O. Box 42490
Washington, DC 20015
(800) 789-2647
Fax: (301) 984-8796
www.samhsa.gov

The CMHS leads federal efforts to treat mental illnesses by promoting mental health and by preventing the development or worsening of mental illness when possible.

Publications

Center for Mental Health Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2001). *Youth violence prevention resources.* Rockville, MD: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Center for Mental Health Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2000). *Youth violence: A report of the Surgeon General.* Rockville, MD: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Osher, D., Dwyer, K., & Jackson, S. (2002). *Safe, supportive, and successful schools step by step.* Rockville, MD: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, Center for Mental Health Services.

Center for the Prevention of School Violence

1803 Mail Service Center
Raleigh, NC 27699-1803
(800) 299-6054
www.ncdjjdp.org/cpsv/

The Center for the Prevention of School Violence, at North Carolina Department of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, serves as a resource center and "think tank" for efforts that promote safer schools and foster positive youth development. The center's efforts in support of safer schools are directed at understanding the problems of school violence and developing solutions to them. The center provides information and technical assistance to any and all stakeholders involved with safe schools and youth development.

Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence

Institute of Behavioral Science
University of Colorado at Boulder
439 UCB
Boulder, CO 80309-0439
(303) 492-8465
Fax: (303) 443-3297
www.colorado.edu/cspv

The Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence (CSPV) was founded in 1992 to provide informed assistance to groups committed to understanding and preventing violence. The CSPV collects research literature and resources on the causes and prevention of violence; offers topical searches on customized databases; offers technical assistance for the evaluation and development of violence-prevention programs; and conducts data analysis and other projects on the causes of violence and the effectiveness of prevention and intervention programs.

Publication

Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence. (2000). *Safe communities — safe schools model.* (Fact Sheet). Boulder, CO: University of Colorado at Boulder, Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention

National Center for Injury Prevention and Control
Mailstop K65
4770 Buford Highway NE
Atlanta, GA 30341-3724
(770) 488-1506
Fax: (770) 488-1667
www.cdc.gov/ncipc

The National Center for Injury Prevention and Control (NCIPC) works to reduce morbidity, disability, mortality, and costs associated with injuries. The Web site contains information on injury care, violence, unintentional injury, national statistics, and funding opportunities.

Publications

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2001). School health guidelines to prevent unintentional injuries and violence. (No. RR-220). *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 2001/50.

Dahlberg L. L., Toal, S. B., & Behrens, C. B. (1998). *Measuring violence-related attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors among youths: A compendium of assessment tools.* Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control.

Thornton, T. N., Craft, C. A., Dahlberg, L. L, Lynch, B. S., & Baer, K. (2002). *Best practices of youth violence prevention: A sourcebook for community action.* Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control.

Children's Defense Fund

Violence Prevention and Youth Development Division
Attn: Violence Prevention and Youth Development
25 E Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001
www.childrensdefense.org/ss_mainvpyd.php

The goal of the Violence Prevention and Youth Development Division (VPYD) is to ensure that every child has a safe start in life by identifying and promoting programs and policies that keep children out of trouble, protect them from violence, and provide them with a safe and productive learning environment. The VPYD provides the latest juvenile justice, gun violence, media violence, and youth development policies, including background information, statistics, current research, model programs, and steps to promote positive youth development and reduce violence.

Children's Safety Network

Education Development Center, Inc.
1000 Potomac Street, NW, Suite 350
Washington, DC 20007
(202) 572-3731
Fax: (202) 223-4059
www.childrenssafetynetwork.org

The Children's Safety Network (CSN) works with maternal and child health, public health, and other injury practitioners to provide technical assistance and information; facilitate the implementation and evaluation of injury-prevention programs; and conduct analytical and policy activities that improve injury and violence prevention. The CSN's Web site includes a searchable database of all CSN publications and easy online ordering; recent library acquisitions; and updated injury and violence-prevention news.

Hamilton Fish Institute

2121 K Street NW, Suite 200
Washington, DC 20037-1830
(202) 496-2200
Fax: (202) 496-6244
www.hamfish.org

The Hamilton Fish Institute, with assistance from Congress, was founded in 1997 to serve as a national resource to test the effectiveness of school violence-prevention methods and to develop more effective strategies. The institute works with a consortium of seven universities whose key staff have expertise in adolescent violence, criminology, law enforcement, substance abuse, juvenile justice, gangs, public health, education, behavior disorders, social skills development, and prevention programs.

Publication

Bailey, J. D., & Ross, C. J. (2001). *School safety & youth violence: A legal primer.* Washington, DC: Hamilton Fish Institute.

Health Resources and Services Administration

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
National Bullying Prevention Campaign
Parklawn Building
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, MD 20857
1-888-ASK-HRSA
www.StopBullyingNow.hrsa.gov

The Health Resources and Services Administration (HRSA) directs programs that improve the nation's health by expanding access to comprehensive, quality health care for all Americans. The Stop Bullying Now! campaign was developed by HRSA in partnership with more than 70 health, safety, education, and faith-based organizations, including the American School Health Association. The campaign was unveiled by the U.S. Surgeon General on March 1, 2004. All campaign materials, including animated "webisodes;" public service announcements; and resources for educators, health and safety professionals, parents, and others, are available online or by calling the toll-free telephone number.

Institute for the Study and Prevention of Violence

230 Auditorium Building
Kent State University
Kent, OH 44242
(330) 672-7917 (Director's Office)
www.dept.kent.edu/violence

The institute promotes interdisciplinary research into the causes and prevention of violence, engages in the design and implementation of community-based programs for violence prevention, and trains teachers, law enforcement personnel, and other professionals on the principles and practices related to violence prevention.

National Center for Conflict Resolution Education

P.O. Box 17241
Urbana, IL 61803
(217) 384-4118 (workshops)
Fax: (217) 384-4322
www.nccre.org

The National Center for Conflict Resolution Education is a program that promotes the development of conflict resolution education programs in schools, juvenile justice arenas, and youth service organizations.

Publications

Bodine, R. K., Crawford, D. K., & Schrumpf, F. (2002). *Creating the peaceable school: A comprehensive program for teaching conflict resolution* (2nd ed.). Urbana, IL: The National Center for Conflict Resolution Education.

Schrumpf, F., Crawford, D. K., & Bodine, R. K. (2002). *Peer mediation: Conflict resolution in schools.* Urbana, IL: The National Center for Conflict Resolution Education.

National School Boards Association

1680 Duke Street
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 838-6722
Fax: (703) 683-7590
www.nsba.org

The National School Boards Association (NSBA) is a federation of state school boards associations. The NSBA and its federation members represent 95,000 local school board members who are dedicated to educating every child to his or her fullest potential and are committed to leadership for student achievement. This commitment has coalesced into a strategic vision — a vision of the NSBA as a powerful, united, energetic federation; as the premier advocate for public education; as an influential force for achieving equity and excellence in public education; and as a catalyst for aligning the power of the community on behalf of education.

Publications

National School Boards Association, Council of School Attorneys. (1995). *Legal guidelines for curbing school violence.* Alexandria, VA: Author.

National School Boards Association, Council of School Attorneys. (2000). *Safe schools, safe communities.* (See additional publications by The Council of School Attorneys at *www.nsba.org/cosa*.)

Swem, L. L. Preventing threats of violence in schools from turning into a tragedy. (1999). *School Law in Review.* Alexandria, VA: National School Boards Association.

National School Safety Center

141 Duesenberg Drive, Suite 11
Westlake Village, CA 91362
(805) 373-9977
Fax: (805) 373-9277
www.nssc1.org

The National School Safety Center advocates safe, secure, and peaceful schools worldwide. It provides school communities and their school safety partners with quality information, resources, consultation, and training services by identifying and promoting strategies, promising practices, and programs that support safe schools for all students as part of the total academic mission.

National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center (NYVPRC)

P.O. Box 6003
Rockville, MD 20849-6003
(866) SAFE-YOUTH
Fax: (301) 562-1001
www.safeyouth.org

The NYVPRC was established as a central source of information on prevention and intervention programs, publications, research, and statistics on violence committed by and against children and teens. The resource center is a collaboration between the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and other federal agencies. Together, the NYVPRC Web site and call center serve as a user-friendly, single point of access to federal information on youth violence prevention and suicide.

Publications

The center has more than 75 reports, bulletins, and fact sheets on school violence available in PDF, including:

- *Assessing Potentially Violent Students*
- *Indicators of School Crime and Safety* (2002)
- *Recommendations of the Crime, Violence, and Discipline Reporting Task Force*

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory

The SafetyZone
101 SW Main, Suite 500
Portland, OR 97204
(800) 268-2275
Fax: (503) 275-0444
www.safetyzone.org

The SafetyZone is a project of the Northwest Regional Laboratory's Comprehensive Center, Region X. The SafetyZone works with schools, communities, and state and local educational agencies to offer technical assistance that will enable schools and communities to create safe school environments.

Publications

Fact sheets in PDF:

- *What school administrators can do about violence*
- *What teachers can do about violence*
- *What students can do about violence*
- *School-based policing*
- *Effective threat management*
- *Early warning signs and resiliency factors for school violence*

Guides for creating safer schools:

- *Creating schoolwide prevention and intervention strategies*
- *School policies and legal issues supporting safe schools*
- *Implementing ongoing staff development to enhance safe schools*
- *Ensuring quality school facilities and security technologies*
- *Fostering school-law enforcement partnerships*
- *Instituting school-based links with mental health and social service agencies*
- *Fostering school, family, and community involvement*
- *Acquiring and utilizing resources to enhance and sustain a safe learning environment*

Partnership Against Violence Network

(Virtual library only; sign up for mailgroup by e-mailing *pavnet@nal.usda.gov*)

The Partnership Against Violence Network (PAVNet) offers a virtual library of information about violence and youths at risk. Violence-prevention professionals can communicate and share resources through PAVNet's "mailgroup." This Web site provides access to a research database, information on promising violence-prevention programs, and a list of other resources on the Web related to violence prevention.

National Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

Behavioral Research and Training
5262 University of Oregon
Eugene, OR 97403-5262
(541) 346-2505
Fax: (541) 346-5689
www.pbis.org

The Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports was established by the Office of Special Education Programs, U.S. Department of Education, to give schools capacity-building information and technical assistance for identifying, adapting, and sustaining effective schoolwide disciplinary practices. The center disseminates information to schools, families, and communities about schoolwide positive behavioral interventions and support.

U.S. Department of Education

Office of Safe and Drug-Free Schools
400 Maryland Avenue, SW
Washington, DC 20202
(202) 260-3954 or 800-USA-LEARN
Fax: (202) 401-0689
www.ed.gov/offices/OESE/SDFS/

The Safe and Drug-Free Schools Program is the federal government's primary vehicle for reducing drug-, alcohol-, and tobacco-use and violence through education and prevention activities in the nation's schools.

Publications

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U.S. Department of Justice

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention
810 Seventh Street, NW
Washington, DC 20531
(202) 307-0751
Fax: (202) 353-9094
www.ojjdp.ncjrs.org

The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) provides national leadership, coordination, and resources to state and local communities to prevent and respond to juvenile delinquency and victimization.

Publications

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Stein, N., and Sjostrom, N. (1996). *Bullyproof: A teacher's guide on teasing and bullying for use with fourth and fifth grade students.* Wellesley, MA: Wellesley College Center for Research on Women and the NEA Professional Library.

Stein, N., and Sjostrom, L. (1994). *Flirting or hurting? A teacher's guide on student-to-student sexual harassment in schools* (grades 6 through 12). Washington, DC: NEA Professional Library.

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Science-Based School Violence-Prevention Programs

The following programs for preventing violence at school are based on scientific studies:

Border Binge-Drinking Reduction Program

Grades K–12

The *Border Binge-Drinking Reduction Program* provides multilevel, community-based interventions proven effective at reducing alcohol-related trauma caused by cross-border binge drinking by young Americans. It is a binational effort with Mexico that employs environmental management and media advocacy approaches to curb these irresponsible drinking practices. Results show a 31 percent reduction in pedestrians under age 21 crossing into Mexico on weekend evenings and a 40 percent reduction in pedestrians under age 21 returning to America with measurable blood alcohol content.

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Child Development Project

Grades K–6

The *Child Development Project (CDP)* is a multifaceted, schoolwide improvement program that helps elementary schools become "caring communities of learners" for their students (5 to 12 years old). The CDP significantly reduces children's early use of alcohol and marijuana and their involvement in violence-related behavior. The CDP strengthens connections among peers and between students of different ages, teachers and students, and home and school. Results of 5th and 6th grade students show that alcohol use declined from 48 percent to 37 percent of students; cigarette use declined from 25 percent to 17 percent of students; marijuana use declined from 7 percent to 5 percent of students; and other risky behavior declined, including possession of weapons, threats of violence, and involvement in gang fights.

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Web site: *www.devstu.org/cdp/index.html*

DARE to Be You

Pre–K

DARE to Be You (DTBY) is a multilevel, primary prevention program for children 2 to 5 years old and their families. It significantly lowers the risk of future substance abuse and other high-risk activities by dramatically improving parent and child protective factors in communication, problem solving, self-esteem, and family skills. Results show increased parental effectiveness and satisfaction, increased setting of appropriate parental limits, decreased parental blaming and harsh punishment, and increased child developmental level, all maintained for at least two years.

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Early Risers Skills for Success

Grades K–6

Early Risers is a high-intensity program for elementary school children (6 to 10 years old) who are at high risk of early development of conduct problems, including substance use. Early Risers is based on the premise that early, comprehensive, and sustained intervention is necessary to target multiple risk and protective factors. The program uses a full-strength intervention model with two complementary components to move high-risk children onto a more adaptive developmental pathway. Evaluation results include gains in social competence, gains in academic achievement, reductions in self-regulation problems, less parental distress, and improved disciplining methods.

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Good Behavior Game

Grades 1–6

The *Good Behavior Game* (GBG) is a classroom management strategy designed to improve aggressive/disruptive classroom behavior and prevent later criminality. It is implemented when children are in early elementary grades in order to provide students with the skills they need to respond to later, possibly negative, life experiences and societal influences. It is primarily a behavior modification program that improves teachers' ability to define tasks, set rules, and discipline students and allows students to work in teams in which each individual is accountable to the rest of the group.

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High/Scope Perry Preschool Program

Pre–K

The *Perry Preschool Program* provides high-quality early childhood education to disadvantaged children to improve their later school and life performances. The intervention combats the relationship between childhood poverty and school failure by promoting young children's intellectual, social, and physical development. By increasing academic success, the *Perry Preschool Program* is also able to improve employment opportunities and wages as well as decrease crime, teenage pregnancy, and welfare use.

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I Can Problem Solve

Pre–K

I Can Problem Solve (ICPS), originally called *Interpersonal Cognitive Problem-Solving*, is a primary prevention curriculum that offers teachers and parents concrete skills for helping children ages 4 to 7 learn to resolve typical, everyday interpersonal problems. By teaching children how to think, not what to think, the program changes thinking styles, enhances children's social adjustment, promotes prosocial behavior, and decreases impulsivity and inhibition.

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Web site: *www.thinkingchild.com/icps.htm*

Incredible Years

Grades K–3

The Incredible Years series features three comprehensive, multifaceted, and developmentally based curricula for parents, teachers, and children. The program is designed to promote emotional and social competence and to prevent, reduce, and treat behavioral and emotional problems in young children (2 to 8 years old). Results showed that 66 percent of children previously diagnosed with oppositional defiant disorder/conduct disorder whose parents received the parenting program were in the normal range at both the 1-year and 3-year follow-up assessments; the addition of the teacher and/or child training programs significantly enhanced the effects of parent training. There were significant improvements in peer interactions and behavior at school.

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LifeSkills Training

Grades 6–8

LifeSkills Training (LST) seeks to influence major social and psychological factors that promote the initiation and early use of substances. *LifeSkills* has distinct curricula for elementary school students (8 to 11 years old) and middle school students (11 to 14 years old). The lessons are delivered in a series of classroom sessions over three years. The sessions use lecture, discussion, coaching, and practice to enhance students' self-esteem, feelings of self-efficacy, ability to make decisions, and ability to resist peer and media pressures. Results show that up to six years after the intervention, alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana use was cut 50 percent to 75 percent; multiple drug use decreased up to 66 percent; pack-a-day smoking was reduced by 25 percent; and use of inhalants, narcotics, and hallucinogens was reduced.

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Olweus Bullying Prevention

Grades K–8

Olweus Bullying Prevention is a multilevel, multicomponent school-based program designed to prevent or reduce bullying in elementary, middle, and junior high schools (6 to 15 years). The program attempts to restructure the existing school environment to reduce opportunities and rewards for bullying. School staff is largely responsible for introducing and implementing the program. The efforts of staff are directed toward improving peer relations and making the school a safe and positive place for students to learn and develop. Results show a 30 percent to 70 percent reduction in student reports of being bullied and bullying others; significant reductions in student reports of general antisocial behavior; significant improvements in classroom order and discipline; and a more positive attitude toward schoolwork and school.

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Positive Action

Grades K–12

Positive Action (PA) is an integrated, comprehensive, and coherent program that has been shown to improve the academic achievement and behaviors of children and adolescents (5 to 18 years old) in multiple domains. It is intensive, with lessons at each grade level (from kindergarten to 12th grade) that are reinforced all day, schoolwide, at home, and in the community. It includes school, family, and community components that work together or can stand alone. Results show that violence and substance use were reduced 26 percent to 56 percent; academic achievement improved 12 percent to 65 percent; general discipline improved by 23 percent to 90 percent; absenteeism

improved 6 percent to 45 percent; truancy decreased by 14 percent to 20 percent; and suspensions were reduced 8 percent to 81 percent.

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Project ACHIEVE

Grades Pre-K–8

Project ACHIEVE is an innovative school reform and school effectiveness program developed for use in preschool, elementary, and middle schools (3 to 14 years old). It is designed to help schools, communities, and families develop, strengthen, and solidify their youths' resilience, protective factors, and self-management skills. *Project ACHIEVE* works to improve school and staff effectiveness and emphasizes increasing student performance in the areas of social skills and social-emotional development, conflict resolution and self-management, achievement and academic progress, and positive school climate and safe school practices. Results show overall discipline referrals to the office decreased 16 percent; out-of-school suspensions decreased 29 percent; grade retentions decreased 47 percent; special education referrals decreased 61 percent; and school bus discipline referrals to the office decreased 26 percent.

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Project Towards No Drug Abuse

Grades 9–12

Project Towards No Drug Abuse (TND) is a highly interactive program designed to help high school youths (14 to 19 years old) resist substance use. A school-based program, Project TND consists of twelve 40- to 50-minute lessons that include motivational activities, social skills training, and components on decision making that are delivered through group discussions, games, role-playing exercise, videos, and student work sheets. *Project TND* teaches participants increased coping and self-control skills. Results show that cigarette use was reduced 27 percent; marijuana use was reduced 22 percent; alcohol use was reduced 9 percent; other drug use decreased 26 percent; and weapon carrying among males was reduced 25 percent.

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Promoting Alternative THinking Strategies

Grades K–6

The *PATHS* curriculum is a program for educators and counselors designed to facilitate the development of self-control, emotional awareness, and interpersonal problem-solving skills in elementary-school-aged children and educational processes in the classroom. *PATHS* has shown a 32 percent reduction in teachers' reports of students exhibiting aggressive behavior; 36 percent increase in teachers' reports of students exhibiting self-control; 68 percent increase in students' vocabulary for an identification of emotions; 20 percent increase in students' scores on cognitive skills tests; significant improvement in students' ability to tolerate frustration; and significant improvement in students' ability and willingness to use effective conflict-resolution strategies.

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Reconnecting Youth

Grades 9–12

Reconnecting Youth is a school-based prevention program for youths 14 to 18 years old who are at risk of being a school dropout. These youths may also exhibit multiple behavior problems, such as substance abuse, aggression, depression, or suicide risk behaviors. *Reconnecting Youth* uses a partnership model involving peers, school personnel, and parents to deliver interventions that address the central program goals: decreased drug involvement, increased school performance, and decreased emotional distress. Results show an 18 percent improvement in grades in all classes; 7.5 percent increase in credits earned per semester; 54 percent decrease in hard drug use; 48 percent decrease in anger and aggression problems; 32 percent decline in perceived stress; 23 percent increase in self-efficacy; and 33 percent self-reported end of alcohol use.

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Responding in Peaceful and Positive Ways

Grades 6–12

RIPP is a school-based violence-prevention program designed to provide students in middle and junior high schools with conflict resolution strategies and skills. It combines a classroom curriculum of social/cognitive problem solving with real-life

skill-building opportunities such as peer mediation. Students learn to apply critical thinking skills and personal management strategies to personal health and well-being issues. Results show students were less likely to have disciplinary code violations for possession of weapons and in-school suspensions; had lower reported rates of fight-related injuries; and were more likely to participate in their school's peer-mediation program.

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Web site: *www.wkap.nl/book.htm/0-306-46386-5*

Second Step

Grades Pre-K–8

Second Step is a classroom-based social skills program for preschool through junior high students (4 to 14 years old). It is designed to reduce impulsive, high-risk, and aggressive behaviors and increase children's social-emotional competence and other protective factors. Group discussion, modeling, coaching, and practice are used to increase students' social competence, risk assessment, decision-making ability, self-regulation, and positive goal setting. Results show a 20 percent reduction in physical aggression during lunchtime and recess; 10 percent increase in positive social behavior during lunchtime and recess; 36 percent less aggressive behavior during conflict-arousing situations; 41 percent reduction in the need for adult intervention during conflicts; and 37 percent increase in likelihood of choosing positive social goals.

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Skills, Opportunities, and Recognition (SOAR)

Grades K–6

SOAR, formerly known as the *Seattle Social Development Program*, is a three-part intervention for teachers, parents, and students in grades 1 through 6. It is a universal prevention program with interventions designed to reduce specific, empirically identified risk factors and to increase protective factors at the individual, peer, family, and school levels. Results show greater self-knowledge of how specific behaviors can escalate a conflict situation; greater frequency of self-reported prosocial acts; increased intentions to use nonviolent strategies in future conflicts; and increased self-reports of never getting into trouble at home, at school, and in the community.

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Students Managing Anger and Resolution Together (SMART) Team

Grades 6–9

SMART Team is a Macintosh-only multimedia, computer-based violence-prevention intervention that uses games, simulations, graphics, cartoons, and interactive interviews to engage young adolescents (11 to 15 years old) in learning new skills to resolve conflicts without violence. Eight modules cover anger management, dispute resolution, taking perspective, and mediation.

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Appendix

School Health Guidelines to Prevent Unintentional Injuries and Violence

Recommendation 1: Social environment. Establish a social environment that promotes safety and prevents unintentional injuries, violence, and suicide.

Guiding Principles

- Ensure high academic standards and provide faculty, staff members, and students with the support and administrative leadership to promote the academic success (i.e., achievement), health, and safety of all students.
- Encourage students' feelings of connectedness to school.
- Designate a person with responsibility for coordinating safety activities.
- Establish a climate that demonstrates respect, support, and caring and that does not tolerate harassment or bullying.
- Develop and implement written policies regarding unintentional injury, violence, and suicide prevention.
- Infuse unintentional injury, violence, and suicide prevention into multiple school activities and classes.
- Establish unambiguous disciplinary policies; communicate them to students, faculty, staff members, and families; and implement them consistently.
- Assess unintentional injury-, violence-, and suicide-prevention strategies and policies at regular intervals.

Recommendation 2: Physical environment. Provide a physical environment, inside and outside school buildings, that promotes safety and prevents unintentional injuries and violence.

Guiding Principles

- Conduct regular safety and hazard assessments.
- Maintain structures, playground and other equipment, school buses and other vehicles, and physical grounds; make repairs immediately after hazards have been identified.
- Supervise all student activities to promote safety and prevent unintentional injuries and violence.
- Ensure that the school environment, including school buses, is free from weapons.

Source: Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, Dec. 7, 2001: 50 (No. RR-22).

Recommendation 3: Health education. Implement health and safety education curricula and instruction that help students develop the knowledge, attitudes, behavioral skills, and confidence needed to adopt and maintain safe lifestyles and be advocates for health and safety.

Guiding Principles

- Choose prevention programs and curricula that are grounded in theory or that have scientific evidence of effectiveness.
- Implement unintentional injury- and violence-prevention curricula consistent with national and state standards for health education.
- Use active learning strategies, interactive teaching methods, and proactive classroom management to encourage student involvement in learning about unintentional injury and violence prevention.
- Provide adequate staffing and resources, including budget, facilities, staff development, and class time, to provide unintentional injury- and violence-prevention education for all students.

Recommendation 4: Physical education and physical activity programs. Provide safe physical education and extracurricular physical activity programs.

Guiding Principles

- Develop, teach, implement, and enforce safety rules.
- Promote unintentional injury prevention and nonviolence through physical education and physical activity program participation.
- Ensure that spaces and facilities for physical activity meet or exceed recommended safety standards for design, installation, and maintenance.
- Hire physical education teachers, coaches, athletic trainers, and staff members of other physical activity programs who are trained in injury prevention, first aid, and cardiopulmonary resuscitation and provide them with ongoing staff development.

Recommendation 5: Health services. Provide health, counseling, psychological, and social services to meet the physical, mental, emotional, and social health needs of students.

Guiding Principles

- Coordinate school-based counseling, psychological, social, and health services and the educational curriculum.
- Establish strong links with community resources and identify providers to bring services into the schools.
- Identify and provide assistance to students who have been seriously injured, who have witnessed violence, who have been the victims of violence or harassment, and who are being victimized or harassed.

- Assess the extent to which injuries occur on school property.
- Develop and implement emergency plans for assessing, managing, and referring injured students and staff members to appropriate levels of care.

Recommendation 6: Crisis response. Establish mechanisms for short- and long-term responses to crises, disasters, and injuries that affect the school community.

Guiding Principles

- Establish a written plan for responding to crises, disasters, and associated injuries.
- Prepare to implement the school plan in the event of a crisis.
- Have short-term responses and services established after a crisis.
- Have long-term responses and services established after a crisis.

Recommendation 7: Family and community. Integrate school, family, and community efforts to prevent unintentional injuries, violence, and suicide.

Guiding Principles

- Involve parents, students, and other family members in all aspects of school life, including planning and implementing unintentional injury-, violence-, and suicide- prevention programs and policies.
- Educate, support, and involve family members in child and adolescent unintentional injury, violence, and suicide prevention.
- Coordinate school and community services.

Recommendation 8: Staff members. For all school personnel, provide staff development services that impart the knowledge, skills, and confidence to effectively promote safety; prevent unintentional injuries, violence, and suicide; and support students in their efforts to do the same.

Guiding Principles

- Ensure that staff members are knowledgeable about unintentional injury, violence, and suicide prevention and have the skills needed to prevent injuries and violence at school, at home, and in the community.
- Train and support all personnel to be positive role models for a healthy and safe lifestyle.