ABSTRACT
              Community and Problem Oriented Policing (CPOP) is a
multidimensional strategy used by police departments to control crime and
improve the quality of life in targeted areas. This monograph presents CPOP
as a possible solution to the problem of school violence. It identifies
design components and process dimensions that can contribute to successful
applications of CPOP. Five models have gained wide acceptance as strategies
for school based problem solving around safety and security issues: the
School Resource Officer model, student problem solving, the public health
model, the Child Development-Community Policing Program, and the
collaborative problem solving model. Eight components from these five models
are fundamental to school based CPOP: police-school partnerships, problem
solving approach, collaboration that reflects full stakeholder involvement,
organizational support, education and training of problem solving group
members, effective planning approaches, appropriate problem solving group
size, and use of memoranda of understanding. The process dimensions
associated with successful implementation of CPOP in schools are partnering
between schools and police, collaborative problem solving, implementation,
and evaluation of the overall CPOP effort. (Contains 74 references.) (SM)

Community and Problem Oriented Policing in Schools

Community and Problem Oriented Policing in School Settings: Design and Process Issues

Richard L. Glover

Columbia University School of Social Work

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Community and Problem Oriented Policing in School Settings: Design and Process Issues[1]

Abstract
Community and Problem Oriented Policing (CPOP) is a multidimensional strategy used by police departments to control crime and improve the quality of life in targeted areas. However, CPOP has not been formally tested in school settings to address the multi-faceted, and often tragic, circumstances that schools face today. The argument made in this analysis is that schools are communities that are likely to benefit from the use of CPOP. This monograph identifies nine design components and four process dimensions that can contribute to successful applications of CPOP. The design and process issues presented here were selected because of their applicability to launching a school-based, problem-solving approach designed to help solve safety and security problems in schools.

The problem of youth violence in schools has risen to prominence among topics of concern to American society, particularly among those who comprise the school community and stakeholders. Recent interest has been ignited, for the most part, by a series of school shootings that have taken place over recent years. At least twenty-four shootings that received either local or national notoriety occurred between March of 1998 and March of 2001. The perpetrators ranged in age from 6 to 20 -- the victims from 6 to 8 (http://abcnews.go.com/sections/us/DailyNews/schoolshootings990420.html). These shootings culminated in the most horrific of the incidents occurring at Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado in April of 1999. Thirteen students were murdered by two fellow students who used semi-automatic weapons, shotguns, and home-made bombs to exact revenge for being social outcasts. The student perpetrators eventually killed themselves. The aftershock has left America struggling to find an effective response to such tragedies. Community and Problem Oriented Policing has shown promise as such a response.

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[1] This paper follows the format specified in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (2001)*.

Even in the absence of such tragic events, school violence captures our attention because schools are expected by students, parents, and the larger society to be relatively safe places for students to learn and socialize. Despite the fact that only one half as many youth ages twelve to eighteen are victimized at school as at other locations, in 1998 this age group were victims of more than 2.7 million crimes committed at schools (Kaufman et al., 1999). This sizable number of crimes creates the need for proven, rational, and replicable approaches to handling the problem of school crime and youth violence in schools.

As a society we are frustrated by our inability to effectively address the problem of school violence. Multiple solutions are being tried and evaluated. An examination of the current responses clearly reveals a lack of a single solution or set of solutions that have been proven to directly and effectively address the problem. None of these approaches, singularly or in combination, have been proven, through empirical research or otherwise, as the best way to address the wide variety of underlying causes or effects of the problems faced by today's schools.

Of the multitude of solutions proffered to these problems, this paper focuses on the application of Community and Problem-Oriented Policing (CPOP) in schools. CPOP, according to Atkinson (2000), is a policing philosophy reflecting the belief that the police and the community should be co-producers of crime prevention (Atkinson, 2000; Kenney and Watson, 1998). In partnership, the community joins with the police to reduce crime, the fear of crime, and social disorder using a problem-solving approach. CPOP is presented in this monograph as a rational, effective response to the crisis of crime and violence that our schools are facing. The specific application of CPOP in school settings

is an emerging trend that warrants close attention. (Kenney and Watson, 1998; Atkinson, 2000; Marans and Schaefer, 1998).

This paper will explore these several concepts to answer one fundamental question: What are the optimal design and process features involved in implementing CPOP in a school environment? The answer to this question will be arrived at by examining the definition of CPOP, why CPOP should be used in schools, the role of police in schools, the challenges schools face in implementing CPOP, the design dimensions of CPOP, and the process dimensions of CPOP.

This monograph presents CPOP as a possible solution to the problem of school violence. It does not discuss alternative solutions. The rationale for this approach is to allow for the full development of a discussion regarding the particular applicability of CPOP; the intent is not to deny the potential effectiveness of other approaches, such as the use of anti-violence curricula and peer mediation. Likewise, arguments against the effectiveness of CPOP in schools will not be presented. There are three reasons for this. First, current literature in the field predominantly promotes CPOP with regard both to its conceptualization and to its practicality. Secondly, the primary problem associated with CPOP in general has been its implementation, which will be discussed here. The main issue in schools has been overcoming a general resistance to the presence of police/law enforcement (Atkinson, 2000; Kenney and Watson, 1998). Since this analysis focuses on such implementation challenges and how to overcome them, a discussion of reasons not to use this approach would be redundant. Thirdly, the benefits of CPOP presented in the literature far outweigh its disadvantages (Prothrow-Stith, 1991; Kenney and Watson, 1998; Atkinson, 2000; Marans and Berkman, 1997).

What is Community and Problem Oriented Policing?

> *Community problem-oriented policing is defined by its two key components:*
>
> *community engagement and problem-solving.*
>
> <div align="right">(Stephens, 1996)</div>

Community and Problem Oriented Policing refers to an approach that has previously been referred to simply as community policing, a context in which CPOP referred to the Community Patrol Officer Program (California Department of Justice, 1992). However, since its inception, one of the distinguishing characteristics of this program has been a problem-solving component. Eventually, the concept itself became widely referred to in a manner that would reflect that dimension. The term Community and Problem Oriented Policing was developed to reflect the two primary components of this approach – community involvement and problem solving.

Community policing is a philosophy, a management style, and an organizational strategy that promotes pro-active problem-solving and police-community partnerships to address the causes of crime and fear as well as other community issues (California Department of Justice, 1992). Authors writing on the subject present these defining characteristics of community policing whether referring to it in the current terms or according to the earlier paradigm. Atkinson (2000) and Trojanowicz, Kappeler, Gaines, and Bucqueroux (1998) add the dimension of reducing fear of crime and social disorder as objectives of community policing; however, the authors maintain the two key elements of the approach as problem solving and community partnerships. Community involvement and problem solving are also defined as the core components of community

policing by Atkinson (2000), Bureau of Justice Assistance (1994), Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1990).

Kelling and Coles (1996) approached the concept of community policing functionally in their discussion of the "broken windows" approach to community safety. Broken windows refers generally to the fact that communities that allow signs of crime, disorder, and vulnerability to persist and proliferate will experience higher rates of crime. This concept has had a great impact on the field of law enforcement and community safety. From their analysis of various policing strategies, Kelling and Coles defined one of the basic elements of community policing as managing problems that endanger citizens and/or communities. In the Kelling and Coles scheme, community policing acknowledges the reliance of police on citizens "for authority to police neighborhoods, for information about the nature of neighborhood problems, and for collaboration in problem solving" (p. 159). According to the authors, the broadest goal of community policing is to help communities maintain a safe environment in which basic institutions (the family, churches, schools, and commerce) can operate effectively and thrive.

Prior to the emergence of the current synthesis, researchers debated the issue of community policing versus problem-oriented policing. Trojanowicz et al.(1998) explained the confusion surrounding the relationship between the concept of "community policing" and "problem-oriented policing" as resulting from an attempt to reconcile two "very different, and not always compatible concepts" (p. 6). The writings of a pioneer in the field of community policing, Herman Goldstein (1979; 1990), focused on the outputs of police services, calling for a more problem-oriented approach in contrast to simply responding to calls for service. Goldstein's ideas eventually came to form the nexus

around which problem-solving policing developed. Community policing, on the other hand, requires the involvement of the community in the problem identification and solving process as genuine partners, and not just as police tools (Trojanowicz et al., 1998; Marans and Schaefer, 1998). The term Community and Problem-Oriented Policing, then, defines an attempt to merge the concepts into a single 0approach that recognizes the most effective method as one that reflects both a collaborative partnership with an affected community and the utilization of a problem-solving approach.

Why Community and Problem-Oriented Policing in Schools

The concept of community policing in schools is neither new nor novel. Michael B. Malone (1995), the Assistant Chief of the Dade County Public Schools' Division of School Police, described a concept he referred to as school-oriented policing. Malone (1995) gave recognition to "the limits of standard police procedures in dealing with school-related problems" (p. 10). Malone attributed the limitations to the reactive nature of traditional policing. School-oriented policing, which the Assistant Chief recommended as the preferred approach to providing police services in schools, was characterized by Malone as "a philosophy of policing in which officers work in a collaborative partnership with the school community to address school-based concerns using multi-faceted, innovative approaches" (p. 10). This section explores why such partnerships are an important component of CPOP, and how they are particularly important in school-police collaboration.

The California Department of Education, in partnership with the Office of the Attorney General of California (1999), described the concept of school-oriented community policing in its call for applications for school community policing partnership

grants. The Department's definition of school-based CPOP differs from traditional

definitions of community policing along the dimension that proactive problem solving

occurs in police-school relationships as opposed to relationships between the police and

the community at large. In fact, the State of California formally recognized the need for

school-based community policing by enacting Bill Number AB 1756 in 1998

(www.leginfo.ca.gov/calaw.html).[2] This piece of legislation, also referred to as the

School Community Policing Partnership Act of 1998 (www.leginfo.ca.gov/calaw.html),

lists several reasons why police are needed in schools. Among the reasons listed are:

- the high number of crimes committed in California schools
- the help needed to make schools safer
- the need to assure safe passage for children to and from school
- the need for a proactive, problem-solving approach to school safety problems
- the need for an expanded support system for schools
- the need for a school-law enforcement partnership resulting in collaboration designed specifically to meet the needs of the school community

The reasons reflected in this legislation, designed to create and maintain

partnerships between schools and police, are the same reasons that are reflected in the

literature on community policing and school safety. While other conditions and

rationales exist for schools to form partnerships with police, the legislation reflects most

of the primary issues that have emerged from public and scholarly debates on school

safety.

Frank Mickens, Principal of Boys and Girls High School in the once infamous

Bedford-Stuyvesant section of Brooklyn, New York, earned a local hero's reputation by

reversing the negative image held by his high school. This principal faced the challenge

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[2] This bill was an act added to Article 6 (commencing with Section 32296) to Chapter 2.5 of Part 19 of the Education Code, relating to school community policing.

of turning around a school with an enrollment of over 4,000 students that was

characterized by local residents as having been abandoned by those in charge of the

school system. Joseph Kelly, Executive Vice President of the American Express

Company and school corporate partner, characterized Boys and Girls High School prior

to Mickens' arrival as being "known for drugs, danger, and abysmal academic standards"

(Mickens, 1995). Mickens emphasized the role that a productive relationship with the

New York City Police Department played in supporting his efforts as the administrative

head of the School:

> [It is important to] develop a relationship with your local police precinct.
> I firmly believe that the protection of 4,300 students at Boys and Girls
> High School is a major consideration for the City of New York. I make
> this known very clearly to the local precinct captain, and even the Police
> Commissioner, whom I have phoned, faxed and written in a few cases
> when I felt we were not receiving proper legal services for our children.
> The relationship-building [sic] has paid off: the local precinct provides
> two police officers and a police van during the morning arrival and
> afternoon departure. (Mickens, 1995, p. 29)

The partnership alluded to in Mickens' comments is the foundation of effective policing

in school settings. With a mutual understanding of each others' needs, priorities, and

operational parameters, police and school officials can establish effective working

relationships and meaningful partnerships.

The reason that the National Crime Prevention Council (1998) gives for police and

principals to work together is to reap the benefits resulting from a dynamic of shared

responsibility for the safety of the school and the community they serve. The NCPC

asserts that principals should learn about the contributions police can make, while police

should gain an understanding of the school processes and problems regarding school

safety confronting principals. Such partnerships, according to the NCPC, also offer the

opportunity to recognize and pursue mutual goals, increase power to persuade others to

change and get involved, and provide greater information sources for solutions.

Atkinson (2000), in her discussion of the role of the School Resource Officer,

described outcomes that can be expected when schools and law enforcement agencies

work together and with other members of the school community (parents, students, and

other community based organizations) to address school safety problems. The outcomes

she projected can be summarized as follows:

- an increased ability among all parties involved to gather and analyze information
  about crime and disorder problems
- an increased ability to work together in developing innovative, long-term approaches
  to reducing and preventing school crime and disorder
- an increased ability to have measurable impacts on targeted crime and disorder
  problems
- improved quality of school life for all users of the school
- decreased fear of crime and violence among members of the school community

These outcomes result primarily from the School Resource Officer operating in a

community, problem-oriented policing mode to identify and solve problems.

The increased societal awareness of the scope and nature of the problems faced

by schools led to the passage of federal legislation Safe Schools Act of 1993. Among

other approaches, the Act was designed to ameliorate the safety problem by increasing

the presence of police in schools. The Act also directed funds to local educational

agencies for activities that included the involvement of law enforcement agencies (see

University of the State of New York Education Department, 1994). As a result of the

funds allocated for increased police presence in schools and the increase in programs

directly involving police, the number of schools with police presence grew and continues

to grow. The National Center for Education Statistics even counts police involvement at

a given school as one of its school safety indicators

(http://nces.ed.gov/pubs98/safety/taba4.html).

Kenney and Watson (1998), based on their research involving the Charlotte-

Mecklenburg, North Carolina school system asserted that "in few other institutions is the

need for a community or problem-oriented approach greater than in our public schools"

(p. 37). Stephens (1998) listed local law enforcement agencies as one of the partnerships

critical in establishing safe schools. Marans and Schaefer (1998) mentioned the success

of the Safe Passage program and the (SMART) School Management and Resource

Teams program, which have shown promise as problem-oriented approaches to school

violence. Both programs involve police. More importantly, the two authors described

the renowned Child Develop-Community Policing (CD-CP) program operating in New

Haven, Connecticut as a model of an effective police-community partnership to address

issues of youth exposure to violence. In one of their case studies, the authors described a

shooting that took place involving a school bus en route to school (p. 329). The incident

resulted in a six-year-old student bystander being shot in the head. Such a situation, the

authors asserted, was far beyond the capacity of the school to address appropriately or

effectively without police involvement, particularly since the incident did not even occur

on school grounds. Marans and Schaefer thus saw the incident as exemplifying the

crucial role of the police-school relationship.

The Role of Police in School-based Community Policing

The level of concern over the role of police in schools has increased along with

the numbers of police assigned to schools. Not coincidentally, the highly visible

violence that has recently occurred in schools has increased the demands on police to provide solutions to the safety and security concerns of schools. Handling school violence has not been the traditional role of police. While working with schools is not unusual for the average police force, having primary or substantial responsibility for the safety and security of the school's internal environment is relatively new ("Minimum School Safety Standards", 2001; Atkinson, 2000; Kenney and Watson, 1998).

An understanding of the role of police in school-based community policing can be gained by contrasting traditional police roles to modern approaches to policing in schools. Also, by identifying what the literature describes as typical or desired roles of law enforcement in schools, and by sifting out those roles that seem to best support community policing in schools, it is possible to identify preferred roles for police in their partnership with schools. This section will describe the various roles played by law enforcement in school settings, traditionally and currently, and isolate the roles that clearly fall within the natural or exclusive domain of police and/or are supportive of CPOP.

The services that police customarily provided to schools before the passage of the Safe Schools Act were relatively narrow in scope and fell within the three traditional police offerings: 1) visible patrol; 2) rapid response to calls for service; and 3) follow-up investigations (New York State Regional Community Policing Institute, 1999; Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1990). These three tools were used primarily to "catch the bad guys" who had committed serious crimes (Greene, 2000). When applied to schools, traditional police services adapted to the school environment and to the type of events indigenous to schools. Thus, services typically consisted of breaking up serious fights,

investigating vandalism and theft, securing the perimeter of the building or school

campus, and handling episodic criminal events (Malone, 1995; Kenney and Watson

1998; "Minimum School Safety Standards," 2001).

Kenney and Watson (1998), citing the work of Kenney, Pate, and Hamilton

(1990), identified four common efforts undertaken by police since the mid-1970's. These

categories of programs comprise part of what is commonly referred to as modern era

school policing – sometimes referred to as school community policing or by a variant of

that term. These four categories are school-police liaisons, anti-truancy programs,

classroom education, and school anti-drug programs. The *school-police liaison function*

puts officers in the role of facilitating any linkages that are law-enforcement related and

includes taking measures to help prevent youth from engaging in activities that would

result in negative encounters with police. Miller and Hess (1994) attributed the

development of this function to a program developed in Flint, Michigan. Under this

model, officers make referrals, provide counseling, and provide linkages to other

criminal justice/juvenile justice organizations. *Anti-truancy efforts* taken by police are

directed toward identifying and/or locating truant students and returning them to a

designated educational facility. *Classroom education* describes a number of programs

that place officers in the classroom, along with teachers, to provide students with

information on and training in topic areas designed to help make them responsible

members of the school community. The education and training covers topics such as

resisting peer pressure, decision making, law, conflict resolution, and anger management.

School anti-drug programs are conducted both inside and outside the classroom, but

within the school setting (e.g., assemblies, one-on-one or small group counseling

sessions, and special programs). These programs have the objective of diverting youth from involvement with alcohol, tobacco, and other drugs (ATOD). This training is sometimes combined with efforts to prevent gang involvement. Such is the case with the Gang Resistance Education and Training (G.R.E.A.T.) Program and Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.), which are run by law enforcement officers assigned to schools.

The list of functions that are designated for school-based police officers extends beyond the four categories mentioned above. Jeremy Travis, Director of the National Institute of Justice, has emphasized the importance of recognizing the fact that challenges to school safety may originate outside the boundaries of a school:

> ...the school safety problem cannot be solved if it is limited to the school building – it is both intellectually dishonest and operationally short-sighted to create these artificial boundaries. (Travis, 1998: p. 5)

Similarly, the partnerships that schools form with police can result in law enforcement activities outside the school building being supportive of efforts to solve problems inside. The case mentioned earlier in this paper regarding the police response to a shooting on a school bus is but one example. Other examples clearly illustrate contributions that police, with community support, can make to efforts to make schools safer.

The threat of a gang fight that starts outside the school and threatens to spill over into the school, or starts in the school and has the potential to continue in the community, is a situation well suited to police intervention. Likewise, sales to and usage of ATOD among minors in the vicinity of schools constitute situations that would benefit from the involvement of police and other law enforcement officials.

Another category of situations that calls for police interventions outside the school environment are cases of child abuse, partner abuse, and stalking, including cyberstalking and cyberthreats. Students who are victims of abuse or exposed to abusive situations as children or adolescents are likely to become perpetrators of violence if their victimization is not properly addressed (Marans and Berkman, 1997). By addressing cases of abuse that schools are not normally staffed to handle directly, police can improve a student's behavior in school and ultimately prevent the continued harm to (or by) that student. Stalking of a student interferes with that student's ability to function properly in school. Stalking is a crime the dynamics of which school officials are not typically prepared to address. Consequently, students being stalked find little support in the school, and find themselves even more vulnerable away from school. Being in such a situation presents a danger to the student and potentially to the school. Police are better situated than school officials to examine any and all aspects of stalking and better empowered to take definitive action to prevent harm. Cases of stalking that originate in or are supported by the Internet are surprisingly numerous (United States Secret Service Electronic Crime Task Force, May 2001). Cases of schools being closed down because of threats of violence communicated through e-mail and other electronic venues have been widely publicized. Police departments, much more than school systems, are equipped to handle such problems, which can have a profound impact on a school.

Other, more commonly defined roles for police in schools in the modern paradigm include the following:

Situational policing is defined by Catalano, Loeber, and McKinney (1999) as police and communities working to reduce antisocial and criminal behavior by making it

more difficult for an offense to occur and easier to catch the offender. The associated activities include the use of physical barriers, surveillance and security technology and various forms of access control (target hardening). Police in this role also cover emergencies and crisis situations.

The public health/epidemiological approach (Catalano et al., 1999; Prothrow-Stith, 1991; Marans and Schaefer, 1998) involves the police attempting to decrease risk factors associated with violence (individual, group, and community level) or to increase protective factors. The police function such that their efforts both inside and outside the school reflect a holistic perspective on addressing causes of youth violence at school.

Mentoring focuses on providing one-on-one interaction around non-academic tasks (Gottfredson and Gottfredson, 2001; Gottfredson, et al., 2000). This function also covers the responsibility for providing role models to students being mentored (Atkinson, 2000).

Technical assistance covers those activities wherein police officers lend their expertise as law enforcement professionals/public safety specialists. This assistance can be expansive, covering help in safety planning, crisis response planning and implementation, threat assessment, security and safety audits, task force participation, policy and procedure development and review, training, assistance with employee and vendor screening, and implementation of child safety programs – to name just a few.

Youth activities sponsorship includes police-sponsored after-school and extracurricular activities, such as those conducted by Police Athletic Leagues (PAL) and sometimes conducted by officers on their personal time. Despite the multitude of roles police can play in schools, the literature on the subject does allow for clear conclusions

as to what roles police should fill when they form partnerships with other members of the school community. The four functions that were mentioned at the beginning of this section provide a solid start because they support effective CPOP efforts. The school-police liaison, anti-truancy efforts, classroom education or school anti-drug programs (G.R.E.A.T., D.A.R.E., Law-related Education, etc.), and a host of other established and emerging programs were all designed for the inclusion of police officers. More importantly, despite the challenges of carrying out these functions and implementing these programs, these approaches have become accepted as established – and sometime effective – ways to address school safety and security problems (Gottfredson, 1997; Atkinson, 2000; Miller and Hess, 1994; Bunz, 1992; California Department of Justice, 1992; Travis, 1998; Kenney and Watson, 1998; Marans and Schaefer, 1998). Within the context of a school-oriented policing strategy, these roles can be employed as strategies and tools in problem-solving efforts. True to the nature of problem-solving, however, the particular problems faced and the underlying causes identified in a given situation should be considered when determining which role to apply.

The final category of roles that should fall naturally upon the shoulders of police are those that fall exclusively (more or less) within the law enforcement domain. This category includes:

- responding to bomb threats or the presence of a bomb
- handling guns and threats of gun violence (including armed individuals)
- handling other weapons (as defined by law) and threats of their use
- identifying and disposing of hazardous materials
- cases of extreme violence or threats of extreme violence
- responding to criminal acts and criminal behavior
- addressing any safety, security, or potentially disruptive force or factor presenting itself outside of school premises

This final category of roles illustrates the simple fact that there are roles that police play that should remain, operationally, within their exclusive domain. However, like other legitimate and effective police practices, the contributions of this role are enhanced when operating within the context of a problem oriented, collaborative partnership with the school and its stakeholder community.

Major Challenges Schools Face in Integrating CPOP into their Task Environments

With so many advantages accruing from the implementation of CPOP in schools, one may question why CPOP is not implemented in every school. Several conditions inhibit the widespread implementation of school-based community policing. First, the concept and science of community and problem-oriented policing is just taking hold in police departments across this country; it is still a relatively new operational mode of policing in America. Secondly, schools are complex organizations with complex problems. This situation is compounded by the fact that maintaining safety and security are not the primary goals of schools. As important as these two factors are to successful educational endeavors, providing a safe and secure environment is subjugated to the primary goal of providing a quality education. Thirdly, the fundamental approaches to dealing with youth that characterize the cultures of police departments and schools are very different and often perceived by members of both organizations as diametrically opposed. Fourthly, defining the community of a school such that it helps instead of hinders problem solving is a challenge to both schools and police.

The basic concept of community policing is relatively new, having just emerged since the 1970's or 1980's, depending on whose version of the history one accepts (see Atkinson, 2000; Trojanowicz et al., 1998). Experts in the field, such as Goldstein (1990),

Kelling (1996), and Trojanowicz et al. (1998), have challenged the soundness of traditional approaches to policing, fostering new thinking about the most effective ways for police to operate. Given that the history of policing in this country alone dates back as early as the 1600's (see Trajonowicz et al., 1998). CPOP, having been around for less than thirty years, is relatively new. Consequently, even with the resources that have supported years of quality research on the subject, CPOP is still unfolding as the dominant paradigm for police-community partnerships. It is no surprise, then, that the concept of school community policing did not appear in the literature until the 1990's (see Kenney and Watson, 1998; Malone, 1995; Vestermark and Blauvelt, 1978).

A review of the considerable challenges faced by schools reveals the complexity of educational organizations. The task of educating children while maintaining their safety and guiding their social development requires extraordinary skill and care. Collaboration is becoming widely accepted in the educational arena as a key strategy in meeting the challenges school face (Huxham, 1996; Mostert, 1998; Donaldson, Jr. and Sanderson, 1996; Pounder, 1998; Garmmston and Wellman, 1999; Friend and Cook, 2000). The advantages of collaboration, however, come with the price that schools have to pay in terms of learning how to apply the "technology" of effective collaboration (Kenney and Watson, 1998; Pounder, 1998; Huxham, 1996). As CPOP, in any context, is supported primarily by collaborative problem solving, the difficulties faced by schools in forming and maintaining collaborative relationships operate as inhibitors to applying the principles and practices of this approach.

School and police departments are often perceived as incompatible organizations by the public and by members of both organizations:

Schools and law enforcement agencies have often found themselves at
odds. Holden (2000) has observed that 'Tension between public schools
and justice agencies is a continuous problem that must never be
overlooked. The roots of the conflict are found in the competing
philosophies of the contending institutions.'

(Atkinson, 2000, p. 18)

Atkinson went on to explain that juvenile justice authorities seek to get troubled youth

back into schools, while school officials rely largely on their option of removing problem

students from the classroom. Citing the work of Holden (2000), Atkinson explained the

contrast in perspectives between school and law enforcement. Police are accustomed to

dealing with a single youth offender at a time; putting troubled youth in an environment

with stable youth is seen as a viable alternative to addressing the problems of that one

individual. Schools consider the interests of the whole student body. The troubled youth

is seen as disruptive to the educational and socialization processes. Additionally, some

educators may seek to shield individual students from the consequences of their criminal

acts, viewing law enforcement involvement as too harsh and unnecessary for "good kids"

(Atkinson, 2000, p. 18).

This difference becomes a practical challenge when a distinction has to be made

between a crime and a disciplinary problem. Schools may perceive problems involving

illegal drugs as being non-security or non-crime problems; police are clear on the

specifications of the laws they enforce (Miller and Hess, 1994). Activities and events that

can be interpreted by police as criminal, such as yelling and screaming in a public place

(disorderly conduct) or fighting (assault) often appear as simple disciplinary problems to

school administrators. The decision to handle the incident one way or another will have a

significant impact on the individual student(s) and the school (Marans and Schaefer, 1998).

Recent events also indicate that the public is divided over the value of defining child and adolescent behavior as criminal ("Minimum School Safety Standards", 2001; Malone, 1995). As public sentiment influences the operations of both schools and police departments, the influence of public sentiment can divide the two organizations as well. Trojanowicz et al. (1998) cited an example of the actions of a Denver police officer operating out of a substation located within a school that sparked a parent protest. The basis of the protest was the belief that the presence of the substation created a "prison-like" atmosphere. Subsequent to the protest, the police officer was removed, the principal of the school resigned, and plans for an expanded police presence were halted.

Another natural divide emerges from the fact that schools act "in loco parentis," or in place of the parent, for students. This temporarily assigns to school administrators the role of guardian while the children are in school. Police, on the other hand, are responsible to uphold and enforce the law. These two positions can put police and principals at odds. In issues of search and seizure, for example, a principal who calls in the police to search a student suspected of having a weapon must find a way to ensure that student's constitutional protection against illegal searches. A principal who seeks a student's arrest must also look after the welfare of the student and represent that student until the actual guardian becomes involved. Having to protect a student's rights will often place a principal in the position of having to oppose the action that police feel justified in taking or that an officer is obligated to take. Without a clear understanding of

the operational parameters of their working relationship, school officials and police will

find implementation of CPOP, or any other collaborative relationship, difficult.

Finally, as much as schools may reluctantly accept or shun police involvement,

many police officers do not view work with schools as real police work and may resent

being assigned to a school:

> When an officer is unhappy with an assignment or feels frustrated in not
> being allowed to handle a situation as he feels it should be handled,
> problems will arise, not only for the police, but more importantly, for the
> school administrator. Another fact that must be recognized is that some
> students and faculty members will actively resent the presence of police in
> their schools. This resentment can lead to major confrontations.
> (Vestermark and Blauvelt, 1978, p. 65)

The need to overcome these obstacles is of paramount importance if CPOP is to be

successful in schools. Yet evidence for the value of implementation continues to mount.

First of all, Tjosvold and Tsao (1989) found in their research that effective collaboration

will build employee loyalty and commitment when it is coupled with appropriate vision,

values, goals and the desire to work in partnership (coordinate and cooperate). Secondly,

Greene (2000) concluded from his case studies that CPOP had proven impacts that can

be of value to schools. Moreover, while the impact on crime is only modest, large

impacts on the quality of interaction between the police and the public accrue from this

approach. Additionally, police job satisfaction increases with its use (Greene, 2000).

One of the tougher challenges of Community and Problem-Oriented Policing in a

traditional setting is defining who constitutes "community." Community can be

confused with the concept of neighborhood, the latter being defined by physical

boundaries, the former more characterized by interactions and relationship ties. Defining

which individuals represent the community can present as much, if not more, of a

problem in attempts to implement CPOP. This fact is reflected in the statement that "among the more vexing problems for advocates of community-based policing has been the development of a consensus on the meaning of the basic concepts" (Kenney and Watson, 1998, p. 32). Of the most basic concepts, that of "community" most confounds both police and school officials. Police officers discover immediately upon initiating community policing that no single entity emerges as "the community." Schools, on the other hand, tend to become confused when the definition of community extends beyond the boundaries of the school (Sergiovanni, 1994; Furman and Mertz, 1996). The challenge to school administrators considering community-based problem solving is how far to extend the boundaries of an otherwise clearly defined, stable environment.

These challenges, however, are balanced by the advantages school environments offer. Unlike their surrounding communities, schools present several characteristics desirable in problem solving partnerships, among which are:

- relatively stable membership
- defined geographical boundary
- defined hours of activity/inactivity
- formal and definable informal social structures and roles
- predictable operations
- defined resource base
- high visibility
- community acceptance as a legitimate institution

These characteristics can all support efforts to implement CPOP in schools.

While the challenges facing schools seeking to adopt CPOP are substantial, research reveals that the benefits realized from doing so will justify both the difficulties and the cost. The following section will specify the design dimensions that will support the successful implementation of CPOP in schools.

School-based CPOP: The Design Dimensions

Five models have gained wide acceptance as models of school-based problem

solving around safety and security issues. The designs that will be presented here are

based on the School Resource Officer model (Atkinson, 2000), student problem solving

(Kenney and Watson, 1998), the public health model (Hamburg, 1998; Prothrow-Stith,

1991), Child Development-Community Policing Program (CD-CP), and the collaborative

problem-solving model (Citizens Committee for New York City [CCNYC], 1994). After

briefly describing these models, I will isolate the key design components that should be

included in any school-oriented, problem-solving efforts designed to involve school-

police partnerships in addressing safety and security problems. It should be noted that

these models are not to be seen as competing alternatives dismissed by the present

analysis, but as programs that offer useful lessons for the design of effective CPOP

programs for schools.

The five programs to be described do not all address CPOP directly. They do,

however, represent experience in applying at least one of the fundamental tenets of

CPOP and/or emphasize the involvement of police as partners. By focusing on either

school-police partnerships or problem solving, these five models distinguish themselves

as particularly informative with respect to elements that can be used to integrate modern

community policing approaches into schools.

The five models under analysis are all multidimensional, ranging in focus from

public health, to police intervention, to school/problem specific approaches. To render

these models useful to the current analysis, I will focus on these models only as they

specifically relate to school-police relationships.

The first model, the use of School Resource Officers (SRO's), takes the form of SRO programs commonly focused on crime reduction and enhanced relationships with youth (Atkinson, 2000, Center for the Prevention of School Violence, 2001). This approach can be traced back to applications first implemented in Michigan in the 1950's. The model regained lost momentum in the 1990's.

No standard mode of operation defines SRO initiatives (Center for the Prevention of School Violence, 2001). However, the program is characterized by police officers using community and problem oriented policing methodologies. The SRO program is typically defined by the provision of various memoranda of understanding (MOU) between school districts and local police departments. Ideally, the MOU is support by operational procedures that guide how decisions are made and that set the parameters for actions to be taken in anticipated situations. As a design consideration, the MOU functions as the focal point of SRO initiatives. The MOU in school-based policing functions as a performance contract specifying what services will be provided, under what conditions, and in accordance with what standards. The features of the police-school partnership and problem solving should be clearly delineated in the contract; otherwise, the approach applied to a given school or school district can lack structure and be difficult to manage. Some of the recommended provisions of such an MOU are included at the end of this section.

The second model, student problem solving, is most closely associated with the work done by Kenney and Watson (1998) as part of their work with the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF). The involvement of students in cooperative problem solving

efforts with police was also mentioned by Vestermark and Blauvelt (1978), who

recommended that such involvement be voluntary and provide an opportunity for

students to voice their feelings, and that adults working within the model be open to

students' points of view. Stephens (1998) emphasized a critical dimension of student

problem solving – student involvement in the planning process. In fact, all the authors

mentioned above point to this as a critical component. Including students in the safety

equation without making them part of the planning process overlooks the potential

contribution that students can make. Excluding them from planning also reduces the

likelihood of students seeing themselves as stakeholders in whatever plans are

implemented.

The Kenney and Watson (1998) model distinguishes itself as one of the most

comprehensive models of school problem-solving involving police. These authors'

approach details the components that they feel underlie successful school problem-

solving efforts. The design features offered by Kenney and Watson involve the

following:

- Adoption of a problem solving model[3]
- Training
- Planning as design, including planning for evaluation
- Group size determination
- Setting rules for problem solving groups

The components of the student problem-solving model were then combined in order to

lead the school community in a collaborative effort, driven by students, to improve the

safety and security of West Mecklenburg High School in South Carolina, where the study

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[3] In this regard Kenney and Watson emphasized that the approach be grounded in problem solving as a comomunity effort. They also reported that the "design group", as Kenney and Watson refer to the school

took place.

The third approach, based on the public health model, emerged after the United

States Surgeon General and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC)

labeled youth violence as a public health problem in 1979 (Prothrow-Stith, 1991). The

perspective became school specific when a 1993 CDC study showed that 16.2% of

students had been in physical fights on school property during the school year preceding

the study and that one-fourth of students nationwide had carried weapons to school in the

month preceding a 1995 survey (Hamburg, 1998). The CDC researchers concluded that

the toll that youth violence was taking on the lives of America's youth, combined with

the various health costs incurred by society as a result of violence against youth, clearly

qualified this as a public health problem. Prothrow-Stith, a public health educator and

former Massachusetts Health Commissioner, concluded dramatically that a problem

(youth violence) that destroys health by causing so much injury and death is a health

problem (1991, p. 28). Among the essential features of the public health model that yield

design features applicable to schools are: 1) community-based methods for problem

identification and the development of solutions across entire population groups; 2)

epidemiologic analysis to identify risk factors and cofactors associated with the health

problem; and 3) intervention design and evaluation (Hamburg, 1998, p. 40).

Within this model, according to Hamburg, intervention categories for violence

reduction address risks in the individual, family, school, and community; however, police

are included primarily in neighborhood-level interventions. Prothrow-Stith (1991)

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collaborative planning group, decided early in this project to have both the SRO and the students make
presentations on the concept of community problem-oriented policing in a school setting.

practitioners point out that there is a long-standing collaborative relationship between schools and public health. Schools are one place in which youth, including many violent youth and their victims, are a captive audience. The public health model capitalizes on this relationship and on the access to youth that schools afford. While not directly applying CPOP conceptually as a tool for use in schools, Prothrow-Stith (1991) characterized community policing as "the public health of police work" (p. 195).

The fourth approach, Child-Development Community Policing (CD-CP), gained notoriety as a collaboration between the New Haven (Connecticut) Department of Police Services and the Child Study Center at Yale University School of Medicine. The program was designed to address the psychological impact of youth overexposure to violence. The model primarily serves as a guide for police-mental health practitioner partnerships. However, as the child development focus implies school involvement, CD-CP can offer guidance on how to design effective school-police collaborations (Marans and Berkman, 1997).

The design of the CD-CP model rests on the use of a full range of anti-violence programs, including activities associated with or within the domain of law enforcement. Locker searches, metal detection and juvenile offense tracking to increase the detection of serious and repeat offenders all fit within this model (Marans and Schaefer, 1998). The strength of the model, and what distinguishes it from the traditional application of law-enforcement-oriented approaches, is the context in which the approaches are applied. CD-CP borrows from the fields of education, social work, and psychology to place a heavy emphasis on prevention through the use of knowledge-building programs; behavior change; environment enhancement; interpersonal and life skills building (e.g., anger

management); ATOD avoidance; gang resistance; and problem solving.

The model also relies heavily on the involvement of police as part of problem-solving efforts in "Safe Passage" programs and as participants in School Management and Resource Teams (SMART). The New Haven, Connecticut model has at its core police-mental health collaborations that function to engage students in needed mental health and related services that can positively impact on children and their environment:

> Thus far, the program [CD-CP] has emphasized through several mechanisms early intervention within the community as well as alternatives to sentencing for arresting persons: ... A police/mental health response to children indirectly affected by neighborhood violence and the aftermath of a violent event. Police and clinicians engage other systems, e.g., they work together with parents and/or teachers to arrange a discussion with peers in a child's school or classroom. (Marans and Schafer, 1998, p. 328)

The fifth model, collaborative problem solving, was formally recognized as a model of school intervention instead of a mode of interaction by the Citizens Committee of New York City (CCNYC) in their 1993-1994 school year pilot study conducted in the New York City Public Schools. CCNYC described the model in their tip sheet on school-community partnerships for collaborative problem solving (CCNYC, 1994). The model they advocated was designed around building a strong team, conducting effective meetings, relying on a structured problem-solving process, and using the report of committee activities to reinforce the accomplishments resulting from the collaborative process. According to CCNYC (1994):

> The tip-sheet will teach you how to use a tested, comprehensive, but practical approach to planning for, and achieving school safety, called collaborative problem-solving. Collaborative problem-solving is based on the principles of community policing as well as school-based

management. It involves every group with a stake in school safety in planning and carrying out strategies to produce a safer school community. (p. 1)

The approach developed by CCNYC in working with community groups and police agencies in New York City and around the country was among the highlights of a special report by an advisory panel on school safety (Travis, Lynch, and Schall, 1993). The advisory panel report recommended that the New York City Public Schools adopt the CCNYC approach to school problem solving.

The five models discussed above provide a basis for identifying the design components that can comprise a CPOP approach to school safety and security. In what follows, I identify and discuss eight components from these five models that present themselves in the literature as fundamental to school-based CPOP. These are the following:

1. Police-school partnerships (community involvement)

2. Problem-solving approach

3. Collaboration that reflects full stakeholder involvement

4. Organizational support

5. Education and training of problem-solving group members

6. Effective planning approaches

7. Appropriate problem-solving group size

8. Use of Memoranda of Understanding

Police-school partnerships (community involvement)

The first design challenge is for school administrators and police to form a partnership that extends beyond traditional school-police relationships characterized by

police simply responding to calls for service and operating from an approach that is much more reactive than proactive (Atkinson, 2000). Police should develop the perspective that schools are "communities within communities" best served by collaboration between schools and police departments and by a problem-solving approach on both sides (Marans and Schaefer, 1998). Schools should develop the view that many of the objectives they promulgate are compatible with those of law enforcement professionals, and specifically police. Working from this perspective, schools should form partnerships based on these common objectives and build relationships that can effectively address any differences between the two organizations.

One concern that should be noted is the need for police departments to demonstrate a high level of commitment to school-community policing through the direct involvement of upper level police management. As a principal is the chief executive of a school, and is perceived as such in public school systems, having a police officer or first level manager negotiate on behalf of the police department can send the message that a school is low on the department's priority list. My experience in working as a liaison between police and schools has indicated that when the top level managers from both the school system and the police organization(s) become involved and maintain interest in school-based CPOP, the chances of success increase.

Problem-solving approach

A proactive approach to school safety and security on the part of schools and police departments was cited by almost all researchers as critical to reducing crime. Key to a proactive approach is problem solving. Not surprisingly then, all the models presented in this section established problem solving as a pillar of effective school safety

and security programs. Atkinson (2000), in contrasting traditional policing to community policing in schools, described one of the characteristics of the latter as "law enforcement presence viewed as taking a positive, proactive step to create orderly, safe, and secure schools" (p. 11). Kenney and Watson (1998) described one of the elements at the core of the community policing concept as "the police becoming proactive in resolving community problems" as they discuss their student problem solving model (p.32). These two authors contended that police, working in a proactive mode, can diverge from the traditional, response-driven, police mode to one that is focused on eliminating the underlying causes of associated with crime and disorder (p. 32). The public health model (Hamburg, 1998; Prothrow-Stith, (1991) reflected the perspective that school violence is a public health problem that, like other health problems, should be prevented. The other two models, CD-CP (Marans and Berkman, 1997) and collaborative problem solving (CCNYC, 1994) also emphasized prevention as the best means of minimizing the harm that can befall members of the school community – particularly students.

Collaboration that Reflects Full Stakeholder Involvement

The design promoted by each of the five models mentioned above includes a problem-solving group convened from the members of the various school stakeholder sectors. According to the literature, stakeholders in a school-based CPOP model include the police (including SROs), the school principal, students, teachers, parents, and representatives of community organizations (Gray, 1996; Eden 1996; Capper; 1996; Pounder; 1998; Atkinson, 2000). My experience as a school safety consultant has shown that support staff representatives (preferably custodians or cafeteria workers, because of their constant interaction with the students and familiarity with the school environment)

should also be included in collaborative safety planning.

The design of the problem-solving group thus requires participation from representatives of all stakeholder sectors. Which groups or sectors are identified as stakeholders depends largely on the following:

1) The nature of the problem(s)
2) Agreement among other stakeholders
3) Availability and level of commitment
4) The direct nature of their stake in the problem/situation
5) Willingness to make a relatively long-term commitment to the group and its rules

The problem-solving groups, often referred to as "team(s)" (e.g., school-based management team or school safety action team), should be formed with the expectation of working collaboratively to identify and address school safety and security problems. Active recruitment of stakeholders who will participate in the process is a critical element in this design component (Gray, 1996; Eden 1996; Capper; 1996; Pounder, 1998; Atkinson, 2000, Stephens, 1998). The CPOP approach resulting from this design component should emphasize the importance of using a collaborative versus an "expert" approach (Vestermark and Blauvelt, 1978; Kenney and Watson, 1998). Drawing this distinction allows the SRO or other assigned officers to function as partners in problem solving instead of being saddled with full responsibility as the sole expert on safety and security.

Organizational Support

Collaborative problem-solving groups in schools operate in a dynamic environment that presents numerous constraints (see Kenney and Watson, 1998; Stephens, 1998; Prothrow-Stith, 1991). A group operating without the full support of the

school principal and/or the commanding officer of the relevant police organization(s) is presented with barriers to success that are extremely difficult – if not impossible – to overcome (Vestermark and Blauvelt, 1978; Anderson, 1998). My experience has shown that support from top level school and police administration can assure that following critical contingencies are met: 1) availability of participants (especially teachers and students) by allowing for scheduling adjustments; 2) availability of meeting space; and 3) leadership for participants from the agencies they represent.

Organizational support takes the form of the following: leadership; communication throughout the organization; clear expectations and directives; behind-the-scenes help in avoiding unexpected/unforeseen problems; scheduling flexibility; tangible support (space, equipment, materials, phones, copying services, etc.); media management (publicity); safety and security-related information; and feedback (Hackman, 1987; Kenney and Watson, 1998; CCNYC, 1994; Glover and Ellis, 1997). Other forms of support may be of critical importance episodically; however, the forms of support just mentioned are those needed most in collaborative ventures involving schools and police. The presence of these elements both reflects the necessary commitment on the part of participants and facilitates the success of specific initiatives.

Education and Training of Problem-solving Group Members

Effective problem solving requires the presence of certain knowledge, skills, and abilities within the group as a whole. Groups are most effective when members possess qualities and minimum skill levels in key areas related to problem solving. Among these skills and qualities are creativity, flexibility, negotiation skills, group work experience, and task orientation with an orientation toward group versus individual work (Hackman,

1987; Cooke and Szumal, 1994; Kenney and Watson , 1998; Erez and Somech, 1996; Mudrack and Farrell, 1995; Donaldson and Sanderson, 1996; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1993). Additionally, orientation and training regarding CPOP and its two key components of partnership and problem solving should be provided to all team members to assure a common understanding of the group's tasks and methodology.

Since the police will be considered knowledgeable in the application of CPOP, collaborators will look to officers for technical expertise. However, specific training should be provided to officers to prepare them for a school-based collaborative effort. This training should impart to officers the understanding that collaborative problem-solving will make their jobs easier (Mastrofski, 1999).

Effective Planning Approaches

Planning, as anyone familiar with basic management principles will attest, is the first task of management. Plans determine how resources will be organized and processed. Planning in the context of CPOP is particularly important because it is critical to "get it right from the beginning." The collaborative planning process is complex and requires careful focus. While flexibility should be built into any collaborative effort undertaken in a school, deliberate changes come slowly and at a cost for both police organizations and educational institutions. (Cropper, 1996)

Certain missteps at the outset of a collaborative venture can create a tailspin from which a group may not recover. Key groups or individuals can be alienated, such as students, parents, police, teachers, or the principal. Once their interest or support is undermined, too much of the group's energy must be devoted toward regaining their buy-in or compensating for the lack of support. The interest of whole groups can also be lost

if they get the impression that their undertaking is trivial, potentially inconsequential, or mere "window dressing." Similarly, if the tasks the groups take on results in early failure due to over-ambitiousness or poor implementation, the momentum needed to sustain the effort will be lost. In implementing CPOP, great care should be directed toward avoiding these dynamics by assuring that input is solicited during a structured planning phase and that the contributions of all stakeholders are recognized and considered (Kenney and Watson, 1998; Cropper, 1996; Barr and Huxham, 1996; Pounder, 1998).

Appropriate Problem-solving Group Size

Collaborative ventures can increase in size rapidly, especially if efforts to recruit members of stakeholder groups are successful. CPOP efforts in schools are no exception. Problem-solving groups ranging in size from fifteen to twenty-five are not unusual. However, effective problem solving requires that work be done in much smaller groups. Kenney and Watson (1998) recommended an optimal group size of no more than six with a minimum of four for student-led problem-solving efforts. They based their limits on school-based psychology literature. Other management literature supports this relatively small group size for problem-solving in general (e.g., Koehler and Pankowski, 1996; Fatout and Rose, 1995).

In designing a collaborative group effort, the way to accommodate small work-group size in the context of a larger collaborative group is to assign tasks or responsibilities (e.g., surveys, meeting coordination, information gathering, etc.) to groups of four to six team members. With clear direction and feedback, these small groups can function separately from the larger group and report back their accomplishments. With proper management, the efforts of the small group should reflect

the planned accomplishments of the larger group (Kenney and Watson, 1998; CCNYC, 1994).

Use of Memoranda of Understanding

The MOU should be used to define the working relationships between police departments and school systems. The MOU should serve the best interests of the students primarily; however, a good agreement will reflect the demands on and priorities of both the police and the school (Atkinson, 2000; Vestermark and Blauvelt, 1978). The MOU should be developed by the leadership of both organizations and should result from negotiations facilitated by individuals highly skilled in performance contracting (Kettner and Martin, 1996; Kettner & Martin, 1997). Such an approach, together with flexibility built into the MOU, can allow it to be an enabling document that fosters collaboration rather than the impediment that it can otherwise become.

School-based CPOP: The Process Dimensions

The above design elements are, for reasons discussed, ideal components for the formulation of effective school-based CPOP. Bringing these elements together and actualizing such programs, however, requires attention to certain key process dimensions. This section discusses the process dimensions associated with the successful implementation of CPOP in schools. Four basic processes support the successful implementation of CPOP. The first is partnering between schools and police. The second, and perhaps most critical, is collaborative problem solving. The third is implementation. The fourth is evaluation of the overall CPOP effort.

<u>Partnering</u>

Partnering as a process refers to attending to the details that support productive,

on-going relationships between two organizations and between individuals from either

organization.

As a process, partnering is an essential component of any police-school venture. Often

the relationships formed by these two groups are approached casually and are not given

the attention such a critical relationship deserves.

The literature reflects several key aspects of effective school-police partnerships.

The process, as explained by both the community policing and educational literature,

should include goal setting, the development of an MOU, constant dialogue between the

two parties, and relationship maintenance (Mastrofski, 1999; Atkinson, 2000).

Goal setting is a key process variable within partnering because clarifying goals

collaboratively encourages parties with differing views and organizational orientations to

agree on priorities. The actual process of goal setting can be approached from a number

of perspectives. Strategic planning offers several approaches, including GOFOR SWOT

(Goal formulation, strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) analysis, in which

both parties assess what they ultimately want to accomplish and use an assessment of the

internal and external environment to determine what assets and impediments exist

relative to their goals. Atkinson (2000) offers another, simpler goal setting process that

she refers to as the ABCDE method of writing measurable goals and objectives. This

process engages the planners in determining the following factors: audience, behavior,

condition, degree, and evidence. Whichever approach is used, however, the process of partnering should include a goal-setting phase.

The Memorandum of Understanding is discussed both here and in the section on design because of its dual purpose in school-based CPOP. The MOU serves the design function of establishing a supporting structure within which the school-police partnership will operate. As a process variable, the MOU should reflect negotiations carried out between the two parties that reflect the best interests of the students while satisfying the demands of both organizations. To establish an MOU, both sides should engage in dialogue with key members of both organizations to determine the following minimum provisions:

- Lines of authority and responsibility
- Routine and special operations
- Reporting protocols and mandates
- Confidentiality of records and other information and record keeping procedures
- Police and school mandates that are non-negotiable
- Staff and other resource commitments
- Goals and objectives of the partnership
- Evaluation methodology
- Minimum number of contacts, services provided, and other considerations

The CPOP process also demands constant dialogue between the partners. The nature of the relationship that will emerge will be dynamic and demanding. As such, the potential for doing costly, irreparable damage to the partnership or the activities that ensue from the relationship is high. The risk involved justifies assuring that the collaborative effort begin as strongly as possible to assure that the conflicts and other challenges that arise will be appropriately addressed by the partners instead of leading to the termination of the partnership or the development of a dysfunctional relationship. An

ongoing, well-intentioned discussion of the quality and dynamics of the partnership can

help minimize the relationship problems that can develop.

The partnership will also demand maintenance functions beyond those contributed

by constant dialogue, negotiated working arrangements, and goal setting. The focus tends

to be on the task, often at the expense of the process and the relationships that develop.

During times of misunderstanding and conflict, someone within each organization has to

take responsibility for "smoothing" out small and large conflicts and personality clashes

that could lead to serious problems. The intervention(s) called for could occur in large or

small group sessions, one-on-one meetings, or in informal discussions.

Collaborative Problem Solving

The primary process of CPOP in schools is collaborative problem solving

(Kenney and Watson, 1998; Atkinson, 2000; Glover and Murphy, 1999; Marans and

Schaefer, 1998; Glover and Ellis, 1997; Vestermark and Blauvelt, 1978). This process

can be conceived of as a small group activity characterized by group members engaging

collaboratively in a structured problem-solving process.

The literature presents several approaches to collaborative problem solving

(CPS). The five models that I found most appropriate to consider for school-based

problem solving and that will be discussed in what follows are:

    1)   SARA
    2)   Collaborative Problem Solving
    3)   Student Problem Solving
    4)   SACSI
    5)   CAPRA

SARA

Perhaps the most popular model for problem solving in law enforcement is the

SARA (Scanning, Analysis, Response, Assessment) model (Eck and Spelman, 1987;

Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1997). This four-step process engages problem-solving

partners in first identifying patterns of crime or disruptions in quality of life that

constitute a problem. Problems are defined by scanning the environment for disruptions

or crimes that occur repeatedly within a specific area to the point that a pattern can be

discerned. Analysis leads to identifying the pattern and the underlying causes of the

problem. A response is developed based on information gathered and conclusions drawn

during the analysis phase. An assessment is conducted to judge the effectiveness of the

solutions applied to the problem. This simplified version of the SARA process, like all

the models that will be presented, can be used as the *modus operandi* of a school-based

problem-solving group. However, the involvement of a leader/facilitator who is familiar

enough with the process to maximize group member efforts and avoid common and

unanticipated pitfalls is essential.

Collaborative Problem Solving

The Collaborative Problem Solving Model (CPS), in its application to law

enforcement and school safety, can be traced to work done by the Citizens Committee for

New York City (CCNYC, 1994). The CPS model is conducted in three phases. The first

phase, assessing school safety problems, involves the five steps of getting started,

involving the right people, gathering information, asking the right questions, and

summarizing the findings in an assessment report. The second phase, holding a

collaborative problem solving meeting, occurs in progressive stages, starting with the meeting of a core group of key stakeholders (police, principal, facilitator, students, etc.), and continues until the ensuing planning meetings lead to the identification and recruitment of a school safety action team. This team, composed of representatives of stakeholder groups, works collaboratively, using a structured problem-solving process. The process described by CCNYC is a cyclical process that begins with problem identification and the determination of underlying causes, proceeds through an evaluation of interventions and refinement (correction) of implementation plans, and ends with a restatement of the problem as it then exists. The final phase is reporting to the school community on the performance of the school action plan.

Student Problem Solving

Student problem solving was formally presented to the law enforcement and educational community through the work of Dennis J.Kenney and T. Steuart Watson of the Police Executive Research Forum. This student-centered model is based on a combination of the SARA approach and a four-step problem-solving model borrowed from psychology. The psychological consultation model includes the steps of problem identification, problem analysis, plan implementation, and plan evaluation. Both approaches rely on shared problem solving. Within the Student Problem Solving scheme, the police officer acts as either a collaborator or expert and functions as a facilitator for problem solving efforts.

Staff on the Kenney and Watson project likened this student-driven model to a funnel. They perceived the step of problem identification as the widest part of the funnel and evaluation of plans as the narrowest. Students collected information to support

problem definition. The students progressed through the problem-solving process and collected feedback information. Their focus had narrowed considerably by the time their efforts were evaluated (Kenney and Watson, 1998). The distinguishing feature of this process, besides its combination of the psychology and law enforcement approaches, is its emphasis on student-led problem solving.

SACSI

The SACSI (Strategic Approaches to Community Safety Initiative) model is referred to by Coldren (2000) as a "data driven partnership." The focus of SACSI is the particular, active involvement of research partners in leadership roles. Within this model researchers assist administrators with needs assessment and process feedback. This model is also comprised of a number of steps to be followed progressively. The SACSI approach starts with the identification and development of resources followed by the convening of a planning group. This group collects information and selects a target problem for the SACSI process. Out of the group's efforts comes a strategic plan supported by an organizational structure. The plan is then implemented, followed by internal feedback loops for ongoing assessment of implementation and short-term impacts.

CAPRA

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police recently developed the CAPRA problem-solving model (RCMP, 1997). CAPRA (clients, acquire/analyze, partnership, response, assessment) emphasizes the establishment of partnerships and trust within communities for service delivery and preventive problem solving, establishing priorities from the client's perspective, and encouraging ongoing feedback for continuous improvement.

This model differs from CPS in that it locates the step of forming of a partnership with "clients" within the problem-solving process itself. The first "A" in CAPRA, the second step of the model, is the step in which problem identification and analysis begin. The "P", the partnership step, emphasizes the importance of developing and maintaining working relationships with (in this case, those of the police) partners. The response and assessment steps are similar to those presented in the other models (http://www.rcmp-ccaps.com/capra.htm#sectionfour).

This model gives equal recognition to two key aspects of process – partnering and problem solving. By including a client orientation and partnership development as an actual part of the process, the CAPRA model offers a perspective that should be particularly useful to police organizations that seek to establish effective relationships with schools.

Implementation

One of the key dimensions of the CPOP process is taking action. The processes that drive CPOP should result in more than just meetings and planning. Problem-directed, preventive action is a primary, manifest purpose of this approach. Recent research has revealed that successful collaborations often rest on the strength of the implementation of plans (Gottfredson and Gottfredson, 2001). The process factors that contribute to effective implementation are:

- Effective implementation planning
- Clear and timely feedback
- Managerial support of the CPOP effort
- Information management
- "Just-in-time" training
- Use of research-based prevention and anti-violence programs and strategies

Effective implementation planning should be a relatively simple process. The planning conducted by the school-based team will be done within the tight constraints of time limits, application of new problem-solving technology, and various distractions that come from working in a school environment (school bells, interruptions, conflict, etc.). The simpler the planning process, the more likely a diverse group will be able to navigate it. I recommend that planning be structured by first deciding minimally who is going to do what and when. After attending to these basic components, the planning discussions can lead to the identification of specific aspects of implementation. Additional dimensions of defining what resources will be used and the standards that will be met are useful and should be clarified. However, the questions of "to what standards" and "with what resources" should be answered only in support of determining the who, what, and when of the implementation plan. Additionally, clear and timely feedback should be built into the implementation plan to assure that those responsible for both implementation and monitoring actions are able to identify and quickly resolve process problems.

Managerial support of the CPOP effort, too, is critical enough to warrant separate consideration (NYS Regional Community Policing Institute, 1999). I will limit my comments here to the fact that CPOP efforts are sensitive to the environments in which they are undertaken and depend on organizational support from both police and school managers. Management can either greatly help or hinder efforts. Administrative support must be present both directly (up front) and indirectly (behind the scenes). Direct support should take the form of freeing up staff time, the provision of resources for planned events, stated support from upper level management, and the occasional

presence of top management at meetings and/or related functions (Cronin, 1995).

Hackman (1987) adds the need for management to support group efforts by setting up

boundaries, tasks, and norms. This direct support should be viewed as part of the CPOP

process, as it is so essential that without it success is unlikely.

Indirect support should come in the form of what can be referred to as

subroutines. Assistance may be needed in the areas of facilitating the political processes,

technical assistance, allotting or obtaining additional resources, assistance in intense

conflict/personality clashes, and sharing of pertinent information that might otherwise

escape the group process.

Information management should also be an ongoing process in support of CPOP. As

Hackman (1987) wrote: "The information system of an organization is critical to a

group's ability to plan and execute a task-appropriate performance strategy" (p. 330) The

literature offers guidance on the types of information needed by those conducting

community-safety-oriented problem solving efforts. Among the most developed and

discussed problem solving tools for safety in schools are the various site assessment

forms and strategies that offer school administrators and police effective methods for

gathering information (Atkinson, 2000; Vestermark and Blauvelt, 1990; Kramen et al.

1999).

Information gathering is a necessary prerequisite for information management. A

basic but effective form of information management can be structured within the

framework of the crime triangle. The crime triangle is an analytical tool that requires

users to define a problem according to the associated victim(s), offender(s), and

location/opportunity. Adding the dimension of defining what is needed to address the

dynamics relevant to each side of the triangle creates a comprehensive analytical framework ideal for school-based CPOP.

The term "just-in-time" training refers to an approach characterized by the provision of training and technical assistance as it is needed instead of as part of general or comprehensive preparation for an anticipated task or set of tasks (Stagg, 1999-2000 Winter). This approach to training seeks to assure that group members have the requisite knowledge and skills to address the presenting problem at the time they need these attributes. The "just-in-time" feature also economizes on time and effort by eliminating the need for anticipatory training sessions. Also avoided is training people who drop out of the process before they can contribute to specific problem-solving efforts.

Implementing CPOP will inevitably lead to calls for police to be involved in the classroom, as counselors, and in other non-traditional policing roles. However, schools and police managers should be careful to give priority to programs and approaches that have been empirically demonstrated to be effective.

By choosing programs that have proven to have a significant, direct, positive effect on students and/or the school environment, energy can be directed toward proper implementation of these programs as adjuncts to CPOP efforts. Research has shown that many programs fail due to ineffective implementation (Gottfredson, 1997; Gottfredson and Gottfredson, 2001). Programs in schools that involve police in expanded roles such as G.R.E.A.T. and Law-Related Education are among those that have been shown to work. Including such research-based programs will enhance the probability of success for CPOP efforts and lend credibility to an evolving approach to school-based community policing.

Evaluation

The emphasis on the evaluation of CPOP reflects the overall concern for accountability of both school and police organizations. Evaluation is the tool traditionally relied upon to justify expenditures and to establish the possibility of duplicating successful programs and approaches.

The CPOP evaluation process should consist of process, outcome, and impact evaluation (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1997; Carter and Sapp, 1998). Stephens (1996) also includes tracking inputs in his scheme for measuring CPOP. The expanded systems model described by Kettner and Martin (1996) provides a tool for the comprehensive assessment of CPOP. The training curriculum for the managerial support of CPOP developed by the New York State Regional Community Policing Institute (1999) recommends the use of the Kettner and Martin model. The Expanded Systems Model includes the tracking of inputs, processes, outputs (intermediate and ultimate), quality outputs, and outcomes (proximal and distal). This evaluation approach fits CPOP well, as it is client oriented, comprehensive, and geared towards human service endeavors.

Evaluation of CPOP should determine: 1) the activities that were planned; 2) what actually occurred; 3) the results of collaborative efforts[4]; 4) program costs in terms of resources devoted to CPOP activities and support of CPOP; and 5) how much of the target audience participated and were served by CPOP efforts. The process by which

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[4] Eck and Spelman (1987) offer a useful way to consider results. They present five positive potential outcomes: 1) elimination of the problem; 2) incident reduction; 3) harm reduction; 4) improved response to problems; and 5) shifting responsibility to a more appropriate agency. This scheme allows problem-solving groups to set reachable objectives that increase the probability of success.

these items are determined should reflect the collaborative problem-solving process

itself. Since no commonly accepted measure of overall success exists (Stephens, 1996),

students, police officers, administrative staff of the school and police department and

other key stakeholders should have input in evaluation design as well as program

planning (Kettner and Martin, 1996; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1997; Kenney and

Watson, 1998; Stephens, 1996). Group involvement in evaluation can ultimately improve

group process when used as part of a feedback loop (Zander, 1994; Hackman, 1987).

In summation, then, the evaluation process, is one that reflects the following

steps:

- Get agreement during the planning phase on how CPOP will be evaluated
- Select indicators that will be used to indicate success or failure
- Define the information that is needed to conduct the evaluation, the sources of that information, and how it will be managed
- Enlist professional evaluators that can lend technical assistance during the implementation and the evaluation phases
- Schedule reflective learning sessions that allow the group time to learn from their field experiences
- Define input, process, output, quality output, and outcome measures

To summarize the process features discussed above, CPOP should consist of a

process that minimally includes active partnering, collaborative problem solving,

effective implementation, and evaluation. Partnering should be deliberate and should be

made part of the process itself, as reflected in the CAPRA problem-solving approach.

Collaborative problem solving should be structured, borrowing from one or more of the

models presented above. The combination of the CAPRA model and one of the other

models should prove particularly effective. Implementation should be considered the

critical aspect of CPOP. The quality of the planning and implementation process will

define what is accomplished in the end. Finally, evaluation should reflect the collaborative process. The collaborating group should participate in defining what they were trying to do and how well they achieved what they planned. Partnering with professional researchers/evaluators will prove useful to groups seeking technical assistance during implementation and evaluation and in seeking to validate their conclusions.

Conclusion

School-based CPOP offers the advantage of providing a mechanism by which school-police partnerships can engage the stakeholder community in problem solving for safety and security issues. The CPOP approach offers viable solutions to the serious, persistent, and ubiquitous problem of school violence.

CPOP has enjoyed popularity and acceptance in the law enforcement field. The use of CPOP in schools, while not new conceptually is, in terms of applications, in a stage of infancy. Yet, in this regard, the literature reflects widespread agreement that a collaborative approach is a key ingredient to creating and maintaining a safe and secure environment in schools. CPOP is a dynamic approach that should be supported by equally dynamic components. The primary support for this approach, identifying and engaging the members of the school community, can be used to enhance problem-solving efforts. Involving community members based on the potential role they can play or how a specific problem impacts on them allows for the inclusion of those community members most likely to benefit from CPOP. Using a "school-centric" approach can also help manage the size of collaborative groups. These groups should be kept manageably small

by effectively identifying stakeholders, and should be divided into task-specific teams where appropriate.

School-based CPOP reflects a shift in the roles of police from traditional, independent actions (doing "police work" for the school) to collaborative approaches (solving problems with the school community). The new police role is redefined not only in the school building. Actions outside the school are also newly considered according to the impact or potential impact on the internal environment of the school. The use of CPOP also requires clarifying those areas that necessitate the involvement of police. The list provided includes weapons and serious fights within the school and problems that have their nexus outside the school such as cybercrime and perimeter problems.

Adopting school-based CPOP as an approach presents the challenges of potential conflict between traditional police and school roles, opposing organizational cultures, and external mandates that place schools (acting "in loco parentis") in opposition to police as representatives of the state. Research demonstrates, however, that efforts to overcome these challenges will justify the costs.

Nine critical design dimensions emerged from this analysis: 1) police-school partnerships; 2) a problem-solving approach; 3) a collaborating group that reflects full stakeholder involvement; 4) organizational support; 5) education and training of problem-solving group members; 6) effective planning approaches; 7) appropriate problem-solving group size; 8) the use of Memoranda of Understanding; and 9) the use of research-based prevention and anti-violence programs and strategies. These dimensions are supported in the literature as design components that have been present in successful

programs, and are therefore strong candidates for inclusion in police-involved school problem solving.

Four process areas emerged from the literature as activities that most enhance the effectiveness of CPOP efforts: 1) partnering; 2) collaborative problem solving; 3) implementation (and implementation support); and 4) evaluation. Attending to these four process dimensions will enhance the impact of a combination of approaches that have been accepted and approved among law enforcement (community policing) and in schools (collaborative problem solving). School-based Community and Problem Oriented Policing, properly designed and implemented, offers schools and police a dynamic, research-supported approach that can effectively address the haunting problem of school violence.

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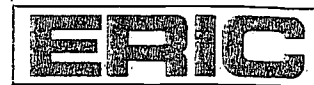
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