PROGRAM MODEL

SCHOOL VANDALISM

Aspen Systems Corporation

PROGRAM MODEL

SCHOOL VANDALISM

PROGRAM MODEL

SCHOOL VANDALISM

COUNCIL OF THE GREAT CITY SCHOOLS

Executive Committee

Officers

President	Nolan Estes
Vice-President	Louise C. Malis, Chicago
Secretary-Treasurer	Alonzo Crim, Atlanta
Past President	Paul R. Tierney, Boston

At-Large Members

Lucille Abrahamson, San Francisco
Irving Anker, New York
Bettie Benjamin, Washington, D.C.
Elbert D. Brooks, Nashville
Arthur Jefferson, Detroit
Ruth Love, Oakland
Arthur Thomas, Philadelphia
Diane Watson, Los Angeles

Standing Committee Chairpersons

Robert W. Blanchard, Portland
Frances Coe, Memphis
William Turner, Dade County
Thomas Goodman, San Diego

Council Staff

Samuel B. Husk, *Executive Vice-President*
Milton Bins, *Senior Associate*
Carolyn J. Pittman, Executive Assistant
Gail G. Fullington, Communication Specialist
Annette H. Exum, SETAC Program Coordinator & Policy Development Specialist
Joan A. Welch, SETAC Communication & Program Assistant
Michael D. Casserly, Research Specialist
Joyce A. Walker, Secretary

PROJECT STAFF

Milton Bins, Principal Investigator
Council of the Great City Schools

Scott A. Bass, Ph.D., Project Director
Centre Research Associates

John R. Garrett, Ph.D., Senior Associate
Centre Research Associates

Michael D. Casserly, Research Associate
Council of the Great City Schools

PROJECT ADVISORY PANEL MEMBERS

Mr. Peter Blauvelt	Chief of Security Prince George's County Public Schools
Dr. William Gaymon	Director Peace Corps/Africa
Mr. Don Johnson	Superintendent Sausalito Public Schools
Dr. Curt Lamb	Architect
Mr. Michael Marvin	Former Director of Research for Better Schools Investigation on School Violence and Disrupt
Mr. Don McElroy	Deputy Superintendent Portland Public Schools
Dr. Jane Mercer	Chairperson Department of Sociology University of California at Riverside
Mrs. Cecil Middleton	Principal Taft Junior High School, Washington, D.C.
Dr. John Minor	Associate Superintendent of Operations Atlanta Public Schools
Mr. Charles O'Toole	Supervisor of Security Seattle Public Schools
Ms. Suzanne Piscitello	Assistant Superintendent Lawrence, MA Public Schools
Mr. Stan Rideout	Chief of Security Pittsburgh Public Schools
Dr. Mania Seferi	Environmental Psychologist

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM 1

CHAPTER 2: SCHOOL VANDALISM IN PERSPECTIVE 9

A. What We Know 9

Incidence
Location
Types
Categories of schools
Relation to other behaviors

B. What We Do NOT Know 13

Relative effectiveness of programs
How to evaluate
Relation to other behaviors
Day vs. night
Insiders vs. outsiders
Relation to other aspects of school life (climate, discipline)

CHAPTER 3: SCHOOL VANDALISM: AN ANALYSIS OF MAJOR OPTIONS 17

Environmental Programs 21
Building Security
Target Hardening
Architectural Changes

Behavioral Programs 35
Offender Accountability/Responsibility
Behavioral Change in Students
Human Relations

System Programs 43
Community Relations
Institutional Change
Curriculum Innovation

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Cont'd.)

	Page
CHAPTER 4: CASE STUDIES OF SIX SELECTED SCHOOL VANDALISM PROGRAMS	52
Case Study A: Fresno County, California Public Schools	52
Case Study B: Flint, Michigan Community School	58
Case Study C: Madison, Wisconsin Metropolitan School System	60
Case Study D: Dallas, Texas Public Schools	66
Case Study E: Alexandria, Virginia Public Schools	70
Case Study F: Escambria County, Florida School District	73
CHAPTER 5: FRAMEWORK FOR A MODEL SCHOOL VANDALISM PREVENTION PROGRAM	78
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION	93
BIBLIOGRAPHY	
Appendix A: RESEARCH DESIGN	
Appendix B: ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA	
Appendix C: VANDALISM IN SCHOOLS: A REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH	
Appendix D: ADVISORY PANEL	
Appendix E: RESOURCE GUIDE	

CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Thirty years ago, a pioneering study entitled JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND THE SCHOOL could devote 340 pages to an extended discussion of what schools should be doing to prevent delinquency, without a word about what delinquency is doing to prevent schools.[1]

And, as recently as 1969, the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence could present a summary report on violent crime in America[2] which cited the nation's schools as part of the solution, not as part of the problem.

That would not be possible today.

> *Clearly, things have changed: rapidly, dramatically. And these changes, encompassing a rapid acceleration of vandalism and serious crime in the nation's schools, have had profound effect on the ability of our schools to get on with the business of providing knowledge and skills to young people.*

This is not to suggest that school vandalism is new to modern America. In other times, and in other places, school-aged children have attacked their peers, teachers, and physical settings. But these acts were relatively rare, and isolated in children who were seen by peers and professionals alike as aberrant and

---

[1] William C. Kvaraceus, JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND THE SCHOOL, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y., World Book Company, 1945.

[2] National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, VIOLENT CRIME: HOMICIDE, ASSAULT, RAPE, ROBBERY. New York: George Brazziler, 1969.

disturbed. Even these "crimes" were insignificant when compared to the daily experience in many of our schools. A study of the "unadjusted" school child published in 1952, for instance, cites stealing and rowdyism as the most serious behaviors schools are likely to face.[3]

There have, of course, been homicides, arsons, willful destruction of property, and other equally damaging acts in the past. But they were frequently acts of passion committed in response to an intense emotional situation, and promptly handled by the appropriate authorities.

Today, instead, we experience vandalism in schools as part of the expected, day-to-day life in many of our settings, participated in by a broad range of children and adults, and perpetrated upon anyone and everything. It is a setting which, at best, maintains a shaky balance of control over chaos. Whoever wins, though, it is the children who come to learn who suffer most. And their teachers.

The rapid increase in frequency and intensity of vandalism in schools has been accompanied by a parallel rise in the number of studies aimed at describing, understanding, combatting it. The studies embrace a panorama of approaches and methodologies, and arrive at diverse recommendations and conclusions. This diversity is healthy and productive; but it is accompanied, as

---

[3]John J.B. Morgan, THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE UNADJUSTED SCHOOL CHILD. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1952.

well, by a scale of quality and methodological precision which runs from excellent to abominable.

Sponsored by L.E.A.A., a recent study of the literature on serious school crime[4] concludes that "although some suggested remedies may have fostered good results in some settings, there is little more than common sense available to guide a community or school district in selecting among plausible interventions."[5]

> *Further, the report states that "aside from a few vague generalities, we cannot now forecast who will be offenders, or which schools will suffer the most, or what communities will experience the worst crime, or which children are likely to become victims, or when the rates will rise or fall. Only when we can answer these questions will it be possible to design countermeasures that are both efficient and effective."*[6]

This apparently harsh analysis accurately limits even the most routine questions of research on school vandalism. Take, for example, the seemingly straightforward issues of incidence

---

[4] David J. Klaus with Adele E. Gunn, SERIOUS SCHOOL CRIME: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, Washington, D.C.: American Institutes for Research, 1977.

[5] Ibid., p. 91.

[6] Loc. cit.

and cost. In his review of incidence estimates, Klaus (1977) concludes that "differences in sampling bases, categorical definitions, and reporting standards make the development of a national picture of serious school crime enormously difficult."[7] These findings are supported in the Appendix, Analysis and Interpretation of Data.

A separate volume by Michael Casserly, available from the National Criminal Justice Reference and Referral Service, is a detailed analysis of the hundreds of studies and reports on school vandalism which have been published in the last ten years. In it, it is concluded that "the lack of uniformity in defining and therefore reporting vandalism has made it most difficult to determine the extent of property destruction in the nation's schools. The appropriateness of programs aimed at reducing vandalism is, consequently, hard to judge."[8] Rather than seeking to resolve these issues, the most recent comprehensive study of vandalism incidence merely accepted district's own diverse and conflicting definitions.[9]

Given the inadequacy of data and the pervasive complexity of the problem, how can support be provided to school systems and communities which seek to control school vandalism? This

---

[7] Ibid., p. 19.

[8] Michael Casserly, Vandalism in Schools: A Review of the Research, N.C.J.R.S., 1978

[9] National Institute of Education Safe Schools Study, 1977.

Program Model, designed specifically for school administrators, board members and community leaders, is a first step in this direction.

APPROACHES: NOT ANSWERS

Superintendent Smith, gazing at his fifth fire of suspicious origin since September, has little interest in whether to list it in his vandalism reporting forms as arson or accident. With a School Board enflamed, he needs to know what to do, in his city, with his budget, student population, staff capability, physical facilities. Obviously, what works in St. Louis is inappropriate in Missoula.

The experience of school districts across the nation indicates that Superintendent Smith, lacking good data on alternatives, is likely to opt for the most readily available "solution." Unfortunately the "quick fix" may cause more problems than it solves. In their final report, "Challenge for the Third Century: Education in a Safe Environment - Final Report on the Nature and Prevention of School Violence and Vandalism", February 1977, the Bayh Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency states,

> "Approaches that advocate the quick cure and easy remedy will often fail because they ignore the complex and diverse causes of these problems. Meaningful progress in this area can only be achieved by engaging in sober assessment, not hysterical reaction and instituting thoughtful measures rather

> than making glib promises. From the beginning it has been the subcommittee's contention that a proper environment for learning is not merely the absence of violence and vandalism but is the presence of an atmosphere in which parents, teachers, students and administrators have the means to address the underlying problems which result in these eruptions (p. 3)."

Instead of providing pat formulas, we have tried to describe, from programs already in existence, how board members and school administrators can go about the process of identifying the extent of their vandalism problem; selecting an appropriate set of administrative and programmatic strategies to attack it; involving students, teachers, support personnel and the community in carrying them out; and appraising whether or not the effects of the program on vandalism are worth the fiscal and human costs.

As part of this process, a wide range of potentially successful anti-vandalism strategies are described. Current programs suggest, however, that the process of selection itself is vital: a quick scan of the shopping list, appropriate at the Supermarket, is out of place here. As many school administrators have learned to their dismay, the "quick fix" of buying an attractive intrusion control device or setting up a new human relations program without a process of problem analysis and consultation causes more problems than it resolves.

NIGHT AND DAY

As this Program Model shows, school vandalism is really two different problems in one. Vandalism outside of school hours, the more frequent form, is generally addressed through diverse forms of electronic, human, and animal protection. While these strategies are described in detail in this report, much of our attention is focused on the more complex and obstinate acts of vandalism committed by students and school personnel during school hours.

Although the precise proportions are in dispute, we do know that a significant portion of all school vandalism occurs during school hours. Most districts report the majority of damage occurs at night. In the Boston Public Schools, 80% of school vandalism takes place while the buildings are in use.[10] School hours vandalism takes all forms, ranging from random breaking of windows and destruction of equipment to concerted attacks on bathroom walls and partitions, sinks, lockers, lunchrooms, and people. Despite its high known incidence, daytime vandalism may still be underreported due to the reluctance of building administrators to acknowledge their inability to control what happens during school hours.

These realities, along with parallel issues involving nighttime intrusion and vandalism, are addressed in the pages which follow. By focusing

[10] Michael Decker, "School Vandalism" It's Time to Act", The Boston Globe, Nov. 10, 1977, p. 48.

primarily on approaches, rather than quick fix "solutions", we hope to engage school managers and their communities in a process which will lead to long-term vandalism reduction without sacrificing learning or the system's responsibility to the taxpayers.

CHAPTER 2: PERSPECTIVES ON SCHOOL VANDALISM

Until the Safe Schools Study was conducted, not a great deal of information was available on why some schools are vandalized and others are not. Our knowledge is still sparse but it is important that whatever information is available be used to select appropriate strategies to reduce vandalism. This chapter is devoted to spelling out what is known about school vandalism and what remains to be learned. Only, those "truths" that have reappeared consistenly in the literature have been included here. Special consideration, of course, is given to the results of the Congressionally mandated Safe Schools Study. We must emphasize, however, that these findings represent only trends across the nation. It is essential that each school system assess carefully the nature of its own property destruction.

School Vandalism: What We Know

Dozens of surveys and studies of school vandalism have been conducted over the last ten years. The results of that research are categorized here for your information.

- Geographic location: Vandalism fluctuates from one region of the country to another. In general, if your district is located in the Northeast or the West your chances of experiencing school vandalism are greater. Districts in the South, however, experience almost as much vandalism as those in the West.

° Setting: Property destruction is not unique to the central city schools. The best available evidence suggests that suburban districts are just as likely to experience vandalism as urban ones.

° Size of schools: Property damage is more likely to occur in large school districts and in large school buildings. In fact, size is a factor which can compound the risk of vandalism. Although vandalism rates in suburban and urban schools are similar, a large school in a large district is a likely target of vandals. The greatest incidence of trespassing, breaking and entering, and theft occurs in large city school buildings.

° Grade level: Secondary schools predictably experience greater damage and disruption than do elementary schools. The type of vandalism also varies with the grade level. Senior high schools report more trespassing, theft of school property and fires than do junior high schools. On the other hand, breaking and entering, and general property destruction are more common in junior high.

° Types of vandalism: One of every four schools in the country can expect to experience at least one incident of property destruction in a typical month. The damage is most likely to be glass breakage. Overall, property destruction accounts for 49% of the total number of property related offenses occuring on school grounds. Another 16% of the offenses relate to trespassing, 15% to the theft of school property, 13% to breaking and entering, while only 6% involve fires and false alarms, and 1% identify bomb

offenses. In other words, in an average month, one out of every nine schools in the country can expect a trespasser, one of every eight will report a theft, and one of every 20 will have a false alarm or a fire.

• Targets of vandalism: The school's physical plan per se is the most frequent target of vandalism; damage to school equipment and school supplies follows. Windows, lavatories, furniture, walls, classrooms and textbooks are usually the most common targets.

• Incidents: The best guess available is that the national cost of school vandalism runs to approximately $200 million per annum. About 87,000 property related offenses are committed in the schools in an average month.

• Time of vandalism: The greatest share of school property damage does occur during non-school hours. Each vandalizing act, however, does have its own time pattern. Obviously offenses such as bomb incidents, fires, and false alarms which are generally committed to disrupt school routine, are most likely to occur during school hours. Week-ends bring the greatest risk of break-ins. In looking at theft, trespassing, and property destruction, a distinction emerges between the rate of risk and the aggregate number of incidents. The risk per hour of these offenses is greater while school is in session, though the absolute risk of these crimes is greatest on week-ends. Non-school hour fires are also most likely to occur on week-ends. Bomb incidents, however,

which do not occur during school hours are most likely to occur during the week-day, non-school hours--not over the week-ends. There are very general trends in the data; the pattern appears to change, however, in accord with the grade level and the setting of the school.

• Seasons of vandalism: Most vandalism occurs toward the end of each semester. Schools are particularly vulnerable during the months of November and December.

• Days of the week: When break-ins and other property offenses occur on the weekdays, they are most likely to occur on Monday. Disruptive events, e.g., bomb incidents, fires, etc., occur most frequently on Tuesdays.

• Community characteristics: The amount of property damage experienced in a school is not usually related to the socio-economic level of the surrounding community or the amount of unemployment. It is, however, moderately related to the community crime rate and to the concentration of students living close to the school. This overall pattern fluctuates somewhat depending on the grade-level and setting of the school.

• Family characteristics: Family discipline and participation in the activities of the school do influence the amount of school vandalism. Schools where parents participate in school activities and where parents exercise strong discipline over their children experience less property damage. There is no correlation between

the number of families on welfare and the amount of school vandalism.

• Student characteristics: Vandalism is not related to the gender or race of the student; nor is it related to any psychological characteristic of the vandals, as far as is presently known. Most property destruction is caused by students, although burglaries are done by those not enrolled in the victimized schools.

• School characteristics: By and large, school vandalism is not related to the racial or ethnic composition of the schools or to the ratio of teachers to students in the schools. The leadership ability of the principal, the morale of staff, the consistency and fairness of school discipline, the identification of students with the school and the access that students and staff have to school administrators do influence school vandalism. As each of these increase, the school's chance of property destruction declines.

School Vandalism: What we do NOT Know

Despite the recent gains in our understanding of school vandalism, a great deal still need investigating.

• Incidents: There is little uniformity or consistency in the way school districts define and report vandalism. Almost all districts include property destruction and glass breakage in calculating their vandalism rates; yet there is tremendous variation in reporting practices for such offenses as deliberate damage to

automobiles, bombs and bomb threats, and graffiti. Many districts include only malicious property destruction when estimating their vandalism losses. Systems also vary in their methods for calculating their dollar losses. Some include only those dollars which could be reclaimed from an insurance company; others on the basis of dollars which could not be reclaimed from an insurance company; and the remainder, the largest group, on the basis of reclaimable and non-reclaimable losses. There is also variation in the financial costs included. With such discrepancies in the reporting of vandalism and in the calculation of losses, much of the current data is built on shaky statistical foundations.

• Setting: Current data suggests that urban and suburban schools experience the same chance of being vandalized. This data, however, does not take into account the differing value of urban and suburban school property. In fact, there is some evidence which suggests that suburban schools tend to report a wide range of acts of vandalism than do urban schools.

• Size of schools: There is insufficient data to identify which acts of vandalism increase as a function of school size.

• Grade level: Though there is reasonably good cross-sectional data on vandalism by grade level, we do not know how vandalism changes as individual students mature.

• Targets of vandalism: The various targets of vandalism offer our best hope of understanding its dynamics. Yet, we do not have adequate data on which targets are typically vandalized in

urban and suburban schools, and which are damaged during what months of the year. For example, are the increases in vandalism at the ends of each semester explained by increases in particular acts on particular targets, or is there an across-the-board increase?

• Seasons of vandalism: We do not really know what happens during the summer in relation to school vandalism. A number of isolated studies suggest that the summer months may see the greatest share of school property destruction.

• Community characteristics: We need to know which community crimes are correlated with school vandalism. For example, we need to know why some urban schools actually witness decreases in vandalism while community crime increases.

• Student characteristics: Indirect clues in the literature indicate that vandals are largely disenfranchised with school. This is intuitively appealing but we need to know for sure. In addition, what is it that makes some students vandalize and others not? Do those who do not vandalize vent their frustrations with the school or with individuals in the school in some other more acceptable way? Does the difference between vandals and non-vandals rest simply in their access to legitimate means of releasing frustrations?

• School characteristics: Much of the available research now indicates that factors within the schools may account for the greatest share of school property destruction. We have now only the roughest sketch of which factors are the most influential.

Not much is known about how school disciplinary policies or individual teacher or counselor behaviors affect property damage rates. In addition, not much is known about how daily interactions of students and school personnel influence damage. The general climate of the school appears to be one of the most promising areas in which to conduct future studies.

Conclusions

We should reemphasize that the data we have summarized here represent national trends. There is every indication that the rates of vandalism vary considerably with time of day, setting, grade level and other variables that are at present unknown. We cannot overly stress that each district needs to assess its own vandalism carefully. To help you do that, chapter 5 has been assembled with some tips we hope will be useful.

Should your school approximate the national trends, it would probably make most sense to target your immediate security program on weekend hours. For greatest efficiency, however, your program ought to focus on both school hours and weekends. It would also make a great deal of sense to take a careful look at the things in your school which are being most frequently damaged. The target and time of day of the damage can tell you a lot about the dynamics underlying your vandalism problem.

CHAPTER 3: SCHOOL VANDALISM: AN ANALYSIS OF MAJOR OPTIONS

The objective of our overall investigation was to find out what in fact school districts are doing to reduce vandalism, identify programs and approaches which are more promising, delineate gaps and limitations from the existing programs, and develop model approaches for school systems to respond to school vandalism.

In this section we will highlight those findings which appear to be of most use to school practitioners, describing the responses of other school districts experiencing vandalism problems. We also intend to point out and discuss the several gaps in information, evaluation and experience.

We were able to gather a great deal of information on existing programs in local education agencies. A broadly distributed questionnaire* provided us with basic background information about the districts which was compared to the program types offered, the program goals, the target populations, program participation, age of program, description of program, program evaluation, source of funding a program cost, calculation of vandalism costs, and vandalism reporting practices. In addition, selected programs were visited by staff, and are described in the Case Studies in Chapter 4.

*See Appendix A

From the literature review and questionnaires, staff and the Advisory Panel organized key findings into four major groups. They are:

- Program types

  this set of findings presents what school districts identified by other practitioners or in the literature as potentially promising were actually doing to reduce vandalism.

- Participation in the programs surveyed

  we asked school administrators to identify the different school and community groups they involved in the operation of the programs.

- School vandalism reporting practices

  we asked school administrators to indicate how they maintained their vandalism records

- Conceptual framewor

  rather than direct data generated from the questionnaires, we have attempted to reflect upon the conceptual framework evidenced from our investigation into the state of the art.

One should be reminded at this point that the results of the survey should be viewed with caution. Although the sample was chosen with some objectivity, it is not statistically random. In addition, the instrument suffers from all the maladies of a mailout questionnaire and reflects all the instabilities of any self-report measure. A detailed review is presented in Appendix B.

Program Types

Innumerable suggestions have been made on how to reduce the destruction of school property. To date, reports by the Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency (Bayh, 1977), the National School Public Relations Association (1975), Marvin (1976), Olson and Carpenter (1971), IDEA (1974), the American Institutes for Research (Klaus, 1977), and the National Institutes of Education (Safe Schools Study, 1977), have all presented extensive reviews of current vandalism prevention efforts. In addition, hundreds of articles and informal papers have been published suggesting ways to curb property destruction.

In our own questionnaire, we asked school superintendents to rank vandalism reduction programs they were currently offering in order of priority for their system.

Vandalism reduction programs were grouped under three broad headings which were:

- Environmental -- this refers to programs which attempt to alter or protect the physical structure of the school.
- Behavioral -- these are programs which directly attempt to support, modify, or impact in some way student behavior in the school.
- System -- these are programs which involve systematic changes in the content, operation, and/or participation in the school and community.

Within the three broad headings: environmental, behavioral, and system, three additional subset program types were identified for each of the categories. The three major categories, each having three subcategories, are summarized below:

A. ENVIRONMENTAL PROGRAMS

1. Building Security: programs using mechanical or electrical alarms, police or security personnel, student patrols, or some other kind of monitoring or detection procedure.

2. Target Hardening: projects which made it more difficult to destroy property, e.g., plexiglass windows.

3. Architectural Change: programs where the design of the building was changed or where the school was renovated or beautified.

B. BEHAVIORAL PROGRAMS

4. Offender Accountability/Responsibility: programs to detect troublesome students or outside offenders, removing them from the school premises or requiring them or their parents to replace or restore property or take part in special programs.

5. Behavioral Change in Students: programs using some form of incentive--usually money--to reduce vandalism.

6. Human Relations: programs which stressed better intergroup personal relations, e.g., group discussions, counseling, student projects.

C. SYSTEM PROGRAMS

7. Community Relations: programs relying on the participation or involvement of the community.

8. Institutional Change: programs where the disciplinary, legal, organizational, or social structure of the school was changed to reduce disruption.

9. Curriculum Innovation: programs using new teaching materials or courses.

A. ENVIRONMENTAL PROGRAMS

Building Security Programs

The program appearing most commonly in the literature involves some kind of building security. Fifty-nine percent of the districts responding to our survey rated their security programs as their most important anti-vandalism effort. Although the main idea behind a security program is to identify and apprehend intruders or vandals, many different forms of protection are currently being used. Some of the more prominent are described below.

- Silent Alarms: Range from simple to very expensive. When tripped an alarm sounds not at the school but at some other location, e.g., custodian's office or the local police station. The NIE Safe Schools Study estimates approximately 18% of all schools have systems of this kind. Alexandria, Virginia; Cleveland, Ohio; Fort Wayne, Indiana; Neptune, New Jersey; Norfolk, Virginia; Portland, Oregon; and Washington, D.C. currently use silent alarms.[11]

National School Public Relations Association (NSPRA) (1975) points out the silent alarm system provides fastest response time, but often results in a high rate of false alarms.

- Local Alarms: Involve special lights, buzzers, or other noises to scare vandals out of the building and to alert security

[11] Descriptions of the programs in each of these cities and others are available upon request.

personnel. These alarms are often very inexpensive to install and maintain. Nashville, Tennessee, and Oakland, California use local alarms. NSPRA points out that despite low cost the system relies on the quickness of security personnel and on the intruder being intimidated.

- Detection Alarm: A large number of schools are taking advantage of the latest technological advances, and installing highly sophisticated hardware. Detection alarms use advanced technology to identify and signal the presence of intruders. Estimates by the Safe Schools Study indicate about 22% of all schools use some electronic intrusion detection system. The bulk of these systems can be found in the big city schools. Nation's Schools (1974) lists five common kinds of detection systems.

  - Microwave detectors: Transmits a high frequency beam which, when activated, trips an alarm. Colorado Springs, Colorado uses this type of system. Reports some success in detecting burglars.

  - Ultrasonic detectors: Has a shorter range than a microwave system. Generally more cost-effective. Grand Rapids, Michigan, and Hashbrouck Heights, New Jersey currently use ultrasonic devices with some success. Despite its cost-effectiveness, the system can be periodically activated by air conditioners, movi curtains, and hanging plants.

  - Passive Infrared detectors: Suggested the least likely to experience false alarms. Senses heat and trips an alarm when a warm body passes within its field. Have been specifically developed for small rooms. About as expensive as the ultrasonics. Fairfield, Connecticut uses infrareds with some success.

  - Audio detectors: The cheapest of all detection devices. Involve a receiver hooked into the school's public address system. Placentia, California; East Islip, New York; and New Orleans, Louisiana currently use some form of audio.

- Mechanical detectors: Normally the least sophisticated. Often the least reliable. Include devices attached to windows or doors to alert a monitor to some illegal entry. Newark, New Jersey, and Baltimore, Maryland have experimented with them with mixed success.

- Closed circuit television: Unlike the other systems, closed circuit television is designed to monitor behavior both during and after school hours. It can be the most sophisticated of all systems. Depending on the particular unit, it can enable one person to monitor an entire building. The system requires installing television cameras around the school; and can be among the most expensive systems to purchase. NIE/NCES reports that only about 3% of all schools design such a system. Most closed circuit TV systems are located in the junior and senior high schools of large cities. Alexandria, Virginia and Texarkana, Texas, are using this kind of detector.

- Personal alarms: These systems work like sophisticated walkie-talkies. They are usually hand-held and allow the person to signal a central monitoring station from anywhere in the building in case of emergency. Although only about 4% of all schools use these devices, they are found in nearly 40% of the nation's big city high schools (Safe Schools Study, 1977). New York and Sacramento are using versions of this system.

For the most part detection alarms are used to protect school property after school hours. Some systems, like the personal alarms and the closed circuit TVs, can also be used to safeguard people during daylight hours. There is no agreement in the literature over which system works best, and little good evaluative data to go on. *Most school districts report that their vandalism costs have been reduced no matter which system they are using. Certainly, the number of intrusions, burglaries, and thefts during the night time hours can be severely curtailed with any of these systems.*

The experts seem to agree that if the night time vandalism problem has gotten out of hand, an automatic hardware system can help. *The trick is in choosing one. The National School Public Relations Association offers these guidelines for local districts: 1) assess your particular needs; 2) determine how much you can spend; 3) specify who will monitor the system; 4) determine which kinds of acts you are trying to reduce; 5) consult experts; 6) go out for bids; and 7) try not to expect too much. Coursen (1975) suggests that when considering an alarm system you examine its costs, reliability, effectiveness, false alarm rate, and it compatibility with the physical characteristics of your school.*

Security Personnel

The results of the 1973 School Product News Survey showed that approximately 5-7% of the sampled school districts used guards of one kind or another to protect school property. Furno and Wallace (1972) indicate that the figure is closer to 64%. Current figures are probably still higher. Data collected through the Safe Schools Study show that, despite the large number of districts using security personnel, on the average less than one person per school was used to guard property.

Security personnel are used in both day and night and week-end patrols. A survey by Katzenmeyer and Surratt (1975) showed that about 20% of their sampled schools use the local police to

protect school grounds after hours. In addition, it is estimated that about 15% of all schools use administrative personnel to protect the schools after hours, and about 11% use specially hired private security people (Safe Schools Study, 1977).

For the most part, security personnel of all kinds are charged with patrolling parking lots and school buildings after the school has closed. Examples of after hours programs are found in Akron, Ohio; Baton Route, Louisiana; Bridgeport, Connecticut; Broward County, Florida; Charlotte, North Carolina; and Dayton, Ohio. In many instances the security forces are equipped with automobiles or vans and can cover a number of schools in a district. Cities testing the use of security guards on an around-the-clock basis include Detroit, Chicago, Los Angeles, and Indianapolis.

There are also a number of programs using security personnel or police during school hours. Katzenmeyer and Surratt (1975) report that about 11% of their sampled schools use local police for day time security programs. Data collected by NIE indicates that schools rely more heavily on administrative personnel for security than on any other group. Security guards are used more frequently than police, but still in very small numbers. Many of the day time programs using police or security forces include a combination of security and human relations strategies. Atlanta, Georgia; Albuquerque, New Mexico; and Santa Ana, California have programs using these techniques. The goal of many of these efforts is to build good relations between students and police as well as to reduce vandalism.

Other school districts are using some interesting variations on the security force theme. Memphis and Nashville, Tennessee, and San Bernardino, California have tried or are now trying guard dogs to protect school property after hours. Antioch, Illinois is using male and female security personnel to protect its school district. Wethersfield, Connecticut; Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; Decatur, Georgia; and Bellevue, Washington are using their custodial and maintenance staffs to patrol and protect school property. <u>These custodial programs are getting particularly high marks in the literature for efficiency and cost-effectiveness</u>. The local police in Buffalo, New York have instituted a special pawn shop detail to recover stolen school property. Flint, Michigan is using lay personnel to patrol the schools; Lakewood, Colorado has hired an all-female security force; Lauderdale Lakes, Florida has actually moved the police station into its middle school, and Sanborn, New York has deputized some of the school staff. One city is even using its local volunteer Civil Defense force to watch over the schools.

There is not much guidance in the literature for school administrators wanting to use school security personnel. A large force of security guards can be as expensive to maintain as an elaborate hardware system. The National School Public Relations Association offers much the same advice in choosing security personnel as in shopping for hardware. Experience and

training appear to be the most important features in a successful school security force.

Community Security

Of growing popularity are programs that include the community in fighting vandalism. Community security programs usually take two forms: one, asking school neighbors to watch the school after hours; and two, moving families into homes on school grounds.

Bellingham, Washington; Brooklyn, New York; Needham, Massachusetts; Ossea, Minnesota; University City, Missouri; and Houston, Texas use persons living near the schools to watch over school property in the evening hours. Mesa, Arizona, has asked local C.B. operators to watch for and report acts of vandalism. All use the same approach: parents and neighbors watch the school for intruders and call the police if they observe anything suspicious.

Programs where families are moved onto school grounds are becoming more prevalent. NIE/NCES (1977) report that these programs are especially common in small towns and rural areas. Florida, in particular, has a large number of "vandal watch" projects. Palm Beach, Escambia, Jacksonville, and Broward County, Florida; Mesa, Arizona; and Elk Grove, California report success. The program works something like this: the districts move or build a mobile home on school grounds; a family moves into each home with

free utilities; the homes are hooked into a school alarm system; and the residents call the police in case of trouble.

The districts using these community security approaches report good results at low cost. Only a few thousand dollars are needed to run even the more elaborate vandal watch efforts. The live-in watch programs often compare favorably in terms of effectiveness with the more expensive hardware systems. *The advice from districts operating those programs is that the people living on the school grounds must be reliable. The literature reports that districts have used custodians, school staff, graduate students, police, and other law enforcement personnel to inhabit the trailers.*

Student Patrols

Another very popular security strategy involves students. NIE/NCES (1977) reported that the use of students to patrol the schools is second in popularity only to the use of administrative staff. Some of the best known student security programs are found in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; Prince George's County, Maryland; Fairborn, Ohio; and Oahu, Hawaii. Oahu has a volunteer "Juvenile Patrol" roving school grounds during the weekends. The weekend volunteers in Fairborn are equipped with walkie-talkies and in constant touch with the local police.

The programs in Pittsburgh and Prince George's County involve student relations as well as building security. In Prince George's

County, student council members and other volunteers form a "security advisory council." The council advises the school on student problems and hosts a number of school activities each year. Members of the council also patrol parking lots, monitor locker rooms, man rumor-control centers, and act as homeroom spokesmen. This program is receiving a great deal of national attention, along with a positive response from students.

The Pittsburgh program has many of the same features. The "Vandalism Patrol" is, however, in operation only during the summer months. In addition, patrol members are paid by the district for their security services. A unique feature is that its participants are, in many cases, students who have been caught vandalizing. Officials cite the leadership abilities of the members as the salient characteristic of the effort. The number of vandalism incidents has dropped significantly.

There are a number of attractive features in student security projects. They are often very inexpensive to set up and maintain; and they involve students in a major problem-solving activity. Program administrators point out that the success of the project will rest heavily on the kinds of students recruited for the patrols. Status among classmates is an often mentioned characteristic of effective patrol members.

Protective Devices

School districts across the country are using a myriad of security techniques other than those mentioned previously. Lighting school grounds during the evenings is a particularly common security measure. The School Product News Survey (Slaybaugh, 1973) reports that approximately 42% of school districts use special lighting techniques for security. *Syracuse, New York; Dallas, Texas; Baltimore, Maryland; Charlotte, North Carolina; and Yonkers, New York use special flood lights or other lighting devices to ward off vandals. San Antonio has used the opposite approach and is now turning off all lights at night. The district is reporting not only a significant decrease in vandalism losses, but also a savings in energy costs. There is little evidence, however, that lighting alone is an effective deterrent to vandals.*

Marking equipment or recording of serial numbers is gaining popularity in many areas of the country. Homeowners in particular are being urged to make note of the serial numbers on their televisions and other valuables. The same idea is now being tested in several school districts. Tulsa, Oklahoma; Minneapolis, Minnesota; and Mesa, Arizona are three districts where school property is being marked and recorded.

Other measures include the use of special procedures for handling school keys, outside locks, security safes, difficult-to-

scale fencing, special ID cards, hall passes, visitors policies, and signs. Data gathered by NIE/NCES indicate that nearly all schools have some method of controlling who is allowed access to keys. Approximately 40% of all schools are using tamper-proof locks and/or security vaults to protect property. Most schools now have policies concerning visitors in the buildings, and many (28%) require students to carry I.D. cards (Safe Schools Study, 1977).

> *Most of the districts using any kind of building security program are reporting success. The measures appear to be--at least from the anecdotal evidence--particularly effective in reducing after-hours vandalism and burglary. A great deal of work needs to be done still to determine whether the benefit of more sophisticated hardware systems outweighs their costs. For the school district on a tight budget, many of the community and student security measures make a great deal of sense. Often these programs cost only a few thousand dollars and can be an effective way to involve others in the life of the school.*

Target Hardening Programs

Target hardening projects involve making the school less physically vulnerable to damage. The installation of break-proof windows is the most common target hardening measure. The results

of the School Product News Survey (1975) indicate that about 55% of all districts have installed some vandal resistent windows. Data supplied by NIE/NCES show that about 40% of all schools use unbreakable glass in their windows. Over 60% of large city junior high schools are relying on these kinds of measures; however, only a small percent of rural schools use them Lexan, polycarbonate, and fiberglass are frequently used materials for windows. Although these materials are more expensive than glass, they can reduce the recurrence of broken windows. Baltimore, Maryland; Baton Rouge, Louisiana; Minneapolis, Minnesota; Yonkers, New York; and Alexandria, Virginia are a few of the districts trying break-proof windows. *One caution is offered by districts which are using Lexan and other similar materials in windows: vandals can melt them with propane lighters.*

> *Because glass breakage is the most common and among the most expensive form of vandalism, there seems to be some merit in using break-proof windows. The cost of installing them is slight compared to the cost of continuously replacing broken glass. Many suggest that break-proof materials be installed a bit at a time to hold down the costs to the school.*

Other hardening techniques include fastening desks to the floors, keeping school grounds free of gravel, installing break-proof student lockers, removing cash and valuable from the schools in the evenings, moving bathroom sinks into the hallways,

and replacing old locks with new dead-bolts. A recent manual by Zeisel (1976) offers school administrators additional suggestions on how to harden or redesign both the interior and exterior of buildings to reduce property loss. Information on how to obtain this and other practical resources can be found in the Resource Guide included in this package. Zeisel's manual includes relatively inexpensive measures to reduce damage to windows, play areas, doorways, parking lots, walls, buses, auditoriums, cafeterias, gymnasiums, and other fixed hardware around the school. Easy-to-follow checklists are also provided for each area of the school.

> *There is little data to indicate the success or cost-effectiveness of hardening techniques. Some authors have speculated that, as with alarm systems, target hardening may have more negative side-effects than benefits. The verdict is still out on the use of design measures, however. Many designing alterations make a great deal of sense, and will probably be judged at least partially effective in reducing some deliberate damage and much accidental damage.*

Architectural Programs

These programs involve altering the physical appearance or structure of the schools to lessen property damage. Only 3% of the districts responding to our survey indicated that

this was their preferred way to deal with vandalism. We have classified both school beautification efforts and true architectural restructuring under this heading. In some cases, the target hardening efforts discussed previously could also be included in this category.

The rationale behind school beautification is that students and others will care better for their school and will have more pride in it if it looks nicer. Warren, Michigan; Redlands, California; San Bruno Park, California; Mesa, Arizona; and Louisville, Kentucky are some of the communities using school beautification to fight vandalism. A number of things are being tried. Louisville is running a beautification project with identified vandals and "trouble-makers." In Mesa, students are encouraged to paint murals on the walls and decorate the hallways. San Bruno Park and Warren are giving awards to students and schools showing particular pride and neat appearance.

Beautification and school pride programs have reported mixed results. They apparently work well in the elementary schools and among students who tend to be involved in the life of the school anyway. Like some of the other student or community projects, they do allow for a number of groups to work together on common goals.

Several schools across the country are being redesigned structurally and architecturally to reduce both accidental and

deliberate property damage. Broward County, Florida; Portland, Oregon; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; and New Campus, Rhode Island are examples of districts trying an architectural approach. The efforts in Broward County and Portland are probably the most ambitious. Using grants from the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, these cities are modifying the structure of several of their schools to reduce the likelihood of crime, applying Oscar Newman's theory of "defensible space"[12] to reduce school property loss. The same approach is being used on experimental projects to reduce high crime rates in residential areas.

We have no conclusive evidence of the effectiveness of architectural redesign. These programs require massive doses of money and expertise; and may be beyond the capabilities of most school districts. For school administrators who are unable to restructure their school buildings, it would be better to stay with practical and inexpensive design measures such as those offered by Zeisel.

B. BEHAVIORAL PROGRAMS

Offender Accountability Programs

Offender accountability programs require some students to be tagged as troublesome or high-risk. These projects usually

---

[12] Oscar Newman, DEFENSIBLE SPACE. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1973.

take one of two approaches: one, high-risk or troublesome students are identified by their schools and are diverted from the usual school program; and, two, students identified as vandals are required to repay the school for damages they have done. The results of our survey indicate that only 8% of the responding school districts relied on these programs as their primary means of fighting vandalism.

The first approach, the diverting of students, is very popular in school districts all over the country. It often involves the use of specially trained teachers or counselors working with students on an individual basis. The curriculum and work materials are usually changed, and the pace of study is fitted to the individual needs of the student. There are so many programs in operation that it is difficult to make any generalizations about them. They are, for the most part, designed to address behavioral and academic problems as well as violence in the schools.

The Youth Related Property Crime Reduction Program in Albuquerque, New Mexico, is a good example of a vandalism-related educational-diversion project. The project involved police and school staff in providing remedial services to youth having a "high crime rate potential." Los Angeles is also testing several programs which use special educational or community services for "crime-prone" youth. Los Angeles' Project Heavy is one example of this approach.

The second form of offender program involves restitution for damages from identified vandals or their parents. Baltimore, Maryland; Los Angeles, California; Fresno, California; and Buffalo, New York are trying restitution projects. The general theme of the programs is that identified vandals are charged for some or all of the repair costs. There are some variations in this approach. In Fresno, for instance, vandals are taken to Small Claims Court for restitution; Oklahoma City has implemented a policy requiring identified vandals to work off their vandalism debts. Many of the programs include a vigorous effort on the part of the schools or the local PTA to inform parents that they will be held financially accountable for damages caused at school by their children.

Restitution programs have not always been successful. Restitution rates are usually low, but the costs of running the programs can be high. The districts must pay the costs of identifying the vandals, investigating the incident, preparing a case, and sometimes supervising student work. Zeisal (1976) points out that in Los Angeles only 30% of the vandals are identified and not all of those ever make restitutions. Most school districts report restitution rates of no more than 4% of the costs of damaged property (Baltimore City Public Schools, 1975). In fact, there is some evidence to indicate that states passing liability laws actually experienced an increase in vandalism (Nation's Schools; 1968 cited in Klaus, 1977).

School discipline is also used to hold students accountable for their actions. Although a number of "discipline centers" or "behavior clinics" providing counseling and other personal services have appeared across the country (Rubel, 1977(a) p. 21), schools for the most part rely on the same disciplinary tools they have always used. Data collected by NIE/NCES (1977) indicate that suspension is still the most common disciplinary technique in schools, followed by paddling and probation. The use of in-house suspension centers is rare (Safe Schools Study, 1977). *Only a miniscule number of schools use such methods as student courts, student rights and responsibilities, codes, and the like.*

Behavior Change Programs

These programs involve incentives to students for acceptable conduct. We have earlier mentioned programs that reward students or schools for school pride. The programs included in this category involve what have been termed "vandalism accounts." Here, the desired behavior is that students not damage the building, and the reward is often provided in terms of money. Eight percent of the districts we surveyed indicated that programs of this kind were their highest priority in reducing vandalism.

San Francisco, California; White Plains, New York; West Irondequoit, New York; and Shrewsbury, Massachusetts are a few of the school districts experimenting with student vandalism accounts. The central theme is that schools or student councils are allocated

a certain amount of money by their district. From this fund all vandalism repairs are made, with any money left over going to the students. There are some variations in who handles the money. In White Plains, the administration is responsible for keeping tabs on the fund; students are allowed to decide how the money is to be spent. In Shrewsbury, on the other hand, students take responsibility for controlling the money--including paying vandalism bills.

> *Districts trying this method report success; money is being returned to student councils in increasing amounts. The costs of running these programs are negligible. Despite their reported success, there are some inherent drawbacks to these programs. Rubel (1977a) points out that: one, vandalism is not always caused by students attending the damaged schools; two, if no money is returned, student expectations for a reward are falsely raised; and three, a small number of students not associated with the student council can easily subvert the program and run up enormous vandalism bills. More time is needed before these programs are stamped either successes or failures.*

A number of other programs using classic methods of modifying behavior are also in existence. Niles Township, Illinois, is one district using behavior contracts with disruptive students. There are a large number of these programs for problem students; however,

traditional behavior modification techniques fall outside the boundaries of this study. Nevertheless, the interested reader should check the Resource Guide.

Human Relations Programs

This is a broad heading containing a number of different programs. In general, these programs provide some vehicle for better interpersonal or intergroup relations, or for increased personal adjustment. Only 4% of the districts responding to our survey indicated that these programs were top priority for fighting vandalism. About 16% of the districts, however, had instituted some human relations as part of their overall vandalism program.

The most common human relations program involves counseling. Much of the counseling is done in individual or group settings, focusing on a number of personal and interpersonal problems, and using a variety of counselors: who does the counseling is a distinguishing feature of counseling efforts. Guidance counselors often are not the ones called upon to deal with troublesome or problem students. Our survey indicated that counselors were rarely used in the designing or running of school vandalism-reduction programs.

Over the last several years, schools have relied increasingly on "crisis counselors" to deal with problem students. Crisis counselors often are young adults with special training in such areas as community relations, parenting, social work, drugs and

alcohol, and the law. They are, presumably, able to identify with students upon whom most everyone else had given up. San Jose, California; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; and Los Angeles, California are some of the communities using crisis counselors. Counseling in these programs involves both regularly scheduled meetings and impromptu drop-in sessions. *Although the evidence is scanty that counseling programs are effective on a wide-scale, crisis counseling programs receive high marks in the literature for turning around individual problem students. San Jose, for instance, is reporting particularly positive results.*

Several districts employ police or security guards to counsel students. Roseville, Michigan; Meridian, Idaho; Lincoln, Nebraska; Santa Ana, California; and Sanborn, New York are examples of communities using police counselors. From the literature, it appears that counseling is targeted on different issues depending on the counselor. The programs using a crisis counselor focused more on problems such as drug use, truancy, family troubles and other personal difficulties, while programs using police counselors were directed to student crime, individual rights, involvement with the law, and the courts.

School districts such as Sunnyvale, California, have students counsel each other. These programs may involve counseling to resolve personal or family problems, and are distinguished from traditional student counseling projects only in the emphasis

placed on the law, probation, and the courts. *Student-to-student programs report as much success as those using professional counselors. The research evidence has for some time, pointed to the fact that students are more likely to seek out each other for guidance than they are other school staff.* Resources for designing peer counseling and peer tutoring programs are included in the appendix.

Approaches other than counseling are being used in some schools. Examples of innovative human relations methods can be found in Wauwatosa, Wisconsin; Los Angeles, California; Omaha, Nebraska; New Rochelle, New York; and Oakland, New Jersey. In Oakland, for instance, students film the effects of vandalism on their school and show it to other students in assemblies. New Rochelle is using posters, slide shows, and buttons to build enthusiasm for its Project SAVE--Students Against Vandalism Everywhere. Students in Los Angeles' Vandalism Reduction Project stage plays (using a character called Vince Vandal), hold group discussions, and throw dances. Wauwatosa is showing a film called "Vandalism - Why?" to its students and holding group discussions. This and other films can be found listed in the Resource Guide.

There is little data on the impact of human relations programs, in general, and counseling programs, in particular. Klaus (1977) points out that these efforts alone should not be expected to

dramatically influence vandalism or violence rates. He goes on to argue, and we think correctly, that counseling programs can be endorsed as a tool for making the schools more responsive to the needs of the students. *Many who have described these programs in the literature point to positive side-effects such as improved student-police relations, higher attendance, better grades, fewer fights, and better adjusted students. Although counseling by itself will not provide a final answer concerning how to reduce vandalism, it points in the right direction.*

C. SYSTEMS PROGRAMS

Community Relations Programs

Only 4% of the districts we surveyed indicated that a community program was the major component of their anti-vandalism efforts. About one-fifth of the programs described in the literature as seeking community participation are basically security programs with neighborhood watchers. These efforts were discussed under the "Building Security" section of this report. The programs that we have included in community relations seek the involvement of parents, community groups, and neighbors in the life of the school as a means of reducing vandalism.

Although the general emphasis on community action in fighting vandalism is low, there are some interesting projects being conducted in several cities. New Orleans, Louisiana, and Lawndale, California, for example, hold community forums and meetings to

inform the public of the vandalism problem in the schools. Several districts are taking a more active approach. Louisville, Kentucky; Flint, Michigan; Los Angeles, California; Oakridge, Tennessee; and Torrance, California are striving to develop a community sense of ownership in the schools. Torrance, for instance, has instituted an open door policy for community members. In Flint and Oakridge, the schools are left open in the evenings for community use. Both of these districts are reporting good results in reducing property destruction, and in the attitudes toward the schools.

Plans to make the schools open to community use has received much publicity in the literature. The assumptions behind this approach are twofold: one, t community is to develop a higher sense of ownership in the school and will be more likely to protect it; and two, that vandalism--especially nighttime vandalism--will be curbed by the presence of people in the buildings after hours. *Despite the fact that Flint and Oakridge are reporting positive results, other school administrators are not finding the same degree of success with their programs. Olson and Carpenter (1971), in fact, found that vandalism increased with the number of hours the buildings were left open. It has been suggested that before programs of this kind are tried, a careful assessment should be done of the resource needs and the characteristics of the community.*

Other school districts are using the expertise found in their local block groups, Chambers of Commerce, courts, employment

bureaus, advisory groups, sports teams, churches, arts groups, conservation corps, media, old-age homes, and even prisons. Programs in Fresno, California, and Lawrence, Massachusetts, reflect the use of many of these resources. In these activities the school seeks to expand its traditional environment to include the entire city.

One of the most active community efforts that we found was the Cortez Street School Project in Los Angeles. The project in this school involved community luncheons, teacher walks through the community, parent participation in classes, an open door policy, and a neighborhood block program. Other districts like Warren, Michigan; Sunnyvale, California; and Redlands, California, are using the community as part of their school beautification projects.

The schools' use of the community and the community's use of the schools raise an important point concerning the use of resources. Programs addressing educational problems are traditionally started with only the most cursory look at available resources. Program developers in any field often rely on whatever restricted resources served them well in previous efforts. Schools and their surrounding communities are rich stones of unique and effective resources, if only they were tapped.

As with other programs, there is no clear evidence to indicate how successful community efforts are at reducing vandalism. Usually the projects require little money--only time and motivation--to implement. The enthusiasm with which they are described in the literature leads us to believe that, even if their impact on vandalism is indirect, they have enough positive side effects to make them worthwhile.

Institutional Change Programs

The programs using an institutional change approach are usually more comprehensive and policy-oriented than the human relations projects. These programs are hard to find. Only 4% of those in this review were classified as having made significant institutional changes; and only 3% of the districts responding to our survey put top priority on these methods to reduce vandalism.

The programs included in this category emphasize changes in the disciplinary, legal, organizational, and social structure of the school as an institution. The assumption behind them is that the inequalities and unresponsiveness of policies and practices in the schools foster violence and vandalism. Research by McPortland and McDill (1975 and 1977) and Polk and Shafer (1972) lends some credence to this notion. Remedies point not to increased counseling or training, but to restructuring of the way the schools conduct their business on a day-to-day basis.

Examples of institutional change programs can be found in Louisville, Kentucky; Chicago, Illinois; and Portland, Oregon. In Louisville, the Roosevelt School reorganized its policies to permit the participation of neighbors and parents in hiring, teaching, and curriculum. Chicago's Manierre School underwent a complete overhaul: new lines of authority, disciplinary policies, academic standards, and hiring practices were implemented. In Portland's John Adams High School, the entire school was divided into eight separate mini-schools, each using a different curriculum.

Other efforts have included the establishment of community operated alternative schools. *Although there are now several thousand alternative schools in operation across the country, most were not started to reduce vandalism. But they experience very little of it. Scribner (cited in Berger, 1974) claims that in the 10,000 auxiliary student system in New York there have been no reports of violence or serious vandalism.* The alternative schools set up for disruptive youth are usually not the Summerhill-type schools founded in the 1960's; but they employ dedicated staff, individualized academic and vocational programming, and flexible policies to achieve results. More information on alternative schools is found in the Resource Guide.

Programs of the institutional type are invariably started for reasons other than vandalism. Consequently, judging their effect on vandalism is difficult. The few

schools that undertake such dramatic changes report positive results in other areas such as school work, grades, and student relations. The programs can also be extremely difficult to implement; they often involve outside technical assistance and well-motivated and resourceful administrators.

Curriculum Innovation Programs

A small number of school districts are testing new curriculum packages and teaching materials to alleviate their vandalism. Although the development of better curricula continues each day, few programs have ever used vandalism as the focal point of new courses or materials.

Philadelphia is testing a curriculum package designed for grades K-12 which focuses on violent behavior. The aim of the course is to instill a sense of responsibility in students for controlling disruptive students. In Chesterfield, Missouri, a unique project has been tested. The purpose of the curriculum guide was to create in students a better understanding of the vandalism problem. The approach used was ecological: students studied the problem of vandalism from an environmental perspective. In St. Louis, one school has built part of its mathematics course around the study of vandalism. The idea is to get students to realize the financial costs associated with property destruction.

Some schools are seeking to reduce the vandalism and violence within their walls by using new curriculum materials oriented to students' rights and responsibilities. Most of the rights and responsibilities packages are not directed toward school vandalism, however. For this reason, we have excluded them from this review; however, there are excellent packages available for the interested reader. The Constitutional Rights Foundation, Los Angeles, California; The National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, Topeka, Kansas; The National School Public Relations Association, Arlington, Virginia; The Center for Law and Education, Cambridge, Massachusetts; Phi Delta Kappa, Bloomington, Indiana; and the Institute for Political and Legal Education, Pilman, New Jersey, have all published curriculum guides on students' rights and responsibilities.

As we mentioned in "Student Accountability", many school districts are designing new materials and courses for students who have tuned out of the regular coursework. By and large, the bulk of these efforts involve remedial classes in the basic academic skills, supplemented with vocational, career, and technical training. Work-study courses appear to be an increasingly popular method for reaching disruptive or alienated students. Some research now indicates that there is a connection between vocational development in students and school crim (Cavan and Ferdinand, 1975 cited in Klaus, 1977).

The success of these curriculum approaches in reducing vandalism is generally unknown. Some curriculum packages can be expensive to buy or produce, implement, and test. We can only believe, however, that the continued scrutiny of curricula for relevance to students is a good thing.

CONCLUSION

The categories presented in this chapter were not meant to be independent of each other. Nearly all of the programs we examined encompassed more than one strategy, and those strategies were often related. The results of our survey indicate that one is most apt to find building security programs alongside target hardening programs, target hardening with architectural design, offender accountability efforts with behavior change efforts, and human relations with community relations projects. *In addition, most of the programs were designed to protect school property after the schools have closed. Forty-s percent of the programs were designed sepcifically for after hours protection, only 32% for daytime protection, and about 57% were targeted for around-the-clock.*

Much of the research points to the fact t t it is young people who are most often engaged in acts of vandalism. *The results of our survey indicate that approximately 88% of all programs that we looked at were targeted at the students or at people who were presumed to be students. However, only 23% of the districts responding to the survey said that the directly involved*

students in planning or operating their vandalism programs. Moreover, only 15% of the districts indicated that they directly involved any community members in planning or operating decisions. It should be stressed here that the more successful programs use as wide a range of strategies as possible to build their anti-vandalism efforts. There is no substitute for the participation and backing of everyone who will be influenced by the program.

CHAPTER 4: CASE STUDIES OF SIX SELECTED SCHOOL VANDALISM PROGRAMS

From our review of promising vandalism prevention programs, which included a literature search and a national review of existing programs, a summary report was presented to the project Advisory Board identifying a series of programs in each of the nine vandalism program types that appeared to be most sophisticated and warrant further examination. The Advisory Board then assisted the project staff in generating criteria for final selection of programs for site visits, and an interview format for the visits. The final six districts selected for site visits were identified based on criteria which included:

- programs that could be replicated;
- systems which offered a wide range of program types;
- districts which when taken as a group represented geographic variety;
- districts which reflect a range of size;
- districts that were genuinely interested in having a visit; an
- districts which will provide new information for designing a model school vandalism prevention program.

The six school districts eventually selected for site visits were:

- Fresno County, California Public Schools
- Flint, Michigan Community Schools
- Madison, Wisconsin Metropolitan School System
- Dallas, Texas Public Schools

- Alexandria, Virginia Public Schools
- Escambria County, Florida School District

During our visits the project staff talked with school maintenance personnel, police or probation officers, school security staff, students, central school administration, principals and teachers, and at least one school board member.

Some of the questions during the site visits focused on the creation of the program--the strategy politics, and critical factors in the establishing of the program; the maintenance of the program--the evidence of its usefulness, its impact on the educational program, its current stage of development, its funding and use of resources, and cost-effectiveness of the program; the operation of the program--who has power to make final decisions, security staff organization, program legitimization systemwide, community and city input in the program, what the program does operationally, obstacles to the program (e.g., press, union, start-up time, size of schools), relationship of the programs to police, city hall, or other towns, flexibility of the program to change as problems shift; and new problems the approach has created. From the pool of prepared questions, project staff critically reviewed programs at the selected six sites. A case study will be presented for each of the six school systems visited.

Case Study A: Fresno County, California Public Schools[13]

Fresno County, California has developed a program targeted at reshaping areawide resources for the prevention of juvenile delinquency and school vandalism. The program is based on the assumption that vandalism is a symptom among students, schools, and youth-serving agencies. In order to reduce delinquency and thus vandalism, new cooperative preventive efforts must be made between existing agencies. The program's overall goal is to encourage and promote cooperation between law enforcement, justice, and school personnel at the local level.

The program articulates and addresses the conflict and competition which arises among youth-serving agencies at a local level. By reassembling and creating new organizational structures Fresno County has found it can plan and deliver better preventive services to juveniles. In September of 1974, the County of Fresno created a position of Education/Probation Liaison, paid 50% by the schools and 50% by the justice system, to serve as a coordinating agent between the two institutions.

The role of the Education/Probation Liaison (E.P.L.) has been that of advocate, educator, coordinator, and planner, engaged in negotiating solutions in situations in which any agency impinges on another. The E.P.L. has an inter-agency advisory committee

[13]Much assistance for this Case Study was provided through written materials prepared by Mr. Bill Bischoff, Education/Probation Liaison for Fresno County and Director of the program.

composed of multiple subcommittees and task forces with representatives from:

- The Chief of Police
- Chief Probation Officer
- Director of Welfare
- Health Department
- Juvenile Court Judge
- Fresno County Council on Juvenile Problems
- Juvenile Justice Commission
- California Office of Attorney General
- California Department of Education
- Fresno City Youth Commission
- Fresno County Board of Education
- Fresno County Administrative Office
- Sheriff
- Superintendent of Schools
- Superintendent of City Schools
- Superintendent of County Schools
- Delinquency Prevention Commission
- California Youth Activity
- District Attorney
- Fresno County High School Principal
- Fresno Unified High School Principal
- Fresno Unified Junior High School Principal
- Public Defender

The purposes of the advisory groups are to: improve communications, coordination, and cooperation between agencies and decision-makers; provide a forum for clarifying perceptions and expectations among agencies; to identify gaps and overlapping services; and to set new inter-agency goals.

There are two factors inherent in Fresno County which prompted the creation of the E.P.L.:

(1) The nature of the Fresno setting has helped contribute indirectly to the creation of the E.P.L. Fresno is a medium-sized city surrounded by a geographically large city, with several small suburban and rural towns. There are about 12 school districts within Fresno County, each with its own Superintendent. There are five separate school districts in the City of Fresno itself, again each with its own Superintendent. The association of the City of

Fresno School Districts is called "Fresno Unified" and they have another Superintendent. The larger association of the county districts also have a Superintendent of County Schools, which is an elected position. The stated function of the County Superintendent's Office is to provide services, as needed, to the school districts (e.g., audio-visual programs, education T.V.).

The E.P.L. is administratively housed at the county level and mandated to assist in providing services to the relevant county and city agencies. Its creation was facilitated by the geographic spread of the area and the visible need for coordination of resources.

(2) The second factor that indirectly prompted the creation and maintenance of the position is State Assembly Bill #3121 which takes status offenses by juveniles out of the Juvenile Court System and assigns them to local S.A.R.B.'s (School Attendance Review Boards). SARBs have school administration, teacher, parent/community, and social agency representation. The SARBs require and use outside assistance for programs. There are currently 11 SARBs in the Fresno County system and the E.P.L. immediately becomes a resource to them.

Other functions of the E.P.L. include linking the Probation Department to the schools to provide a course on "Youth and Law", which focuses on the complexity of the justice system and the consequences for youth who enter into it. The School Department

provided the equipment and materials for the Probation Department to develop a multi-media package which would go along with the program.

In addition, the E.P.L. has created workshops for administration and on-line staff in the justice system and in the County School Districts. With facilitators from other fields workshops were structured to build communication, exchange perceptions, and discuss constraints of formal roles. Specific issues arose around probation intake policies, how the courts would handle school attendance review, how confidentiality of records would be handled. Each issue was clarified in writing.

The E.P.L. keeps a daily log of requests and involvement. This is used for a monthly report to the Superintendent of County Schools and the Chief Probation Officer. The report is then used for longer-range planning, use of outside specialists, and future coordination.

Local representatives interviewed on the site visit spoke highly of the impact of the program. The program cost little to implement, but, because of its administrative authority and priority has had measurable input in reallocation of existing resources. They believe that because of an improved youth service program in Fresno County, crime and vandalism, particularly targeted at the school was reduced.

Case Study B: Flint, Michigan Community Schools

Flint, Michigan is a multi-ethnic urban industrial community located approximately 70 miles northwest of Detroit. The public schools serve an area covering more than 30 square miles with over 39,000 students enrolled in programs kindergarten through twelfth grade. The school system operates more than 60 permanent buildings--as well as 170 primary and mobile units--all valued in excess of $155 million.

Flint is unique in that it was the birthplace of community education some 40 years ago. With grants by the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, Flint has pioneered the development of the concept in which the schools become neighborhood resource and the city itself becomes an open arena for educational opportunities. Flint recognized in the early 70s that unless it took decisive action to change the direction of its schools it would soon be overwhelmed by a range of social and economic problems. With grants totaling almost $5 million a year from the Mott Foundation the city has made a concerted effort to test approaches to urban education which involve the whole community.

The level of community involvement in the schools has had a significant impact on school vandalism, which is simply not perceived as a major problem in Flint. Individuals we interviewed claimed this to be a function of the preventative model established citywide. That is, vandalism has been headed off through

a variety of community involvement measures, including programs which have impacted behaviors as well as attitudes, of school staff and community residents.

Vital to the community involvement philosophy, are the School-Community Advisory Councils which are composed of parents, other residents, students, teachers, representatives of many economic and social groups, including PTA, block clubs, civic groups, churches, and businesses. Each school has its own council and determines its own size. Generally, a council ranges between 15 and 30 members. Secondary school councils are elected; representatives may be appointed to the elementary school councils. The councils study local problems and needs, and plan strategies to solve them. The councils can examine any neighborhood or social problem they choose, and have been known to take action in areas of crime and vandalism, curricula, human relations, planning and renovating school facilities, use of buildings, student rights, housing, drug abuse, traffic safety, and unemployment. The School Department also provides some in-service staff assistance to these groups. All councils have input to the Board of Education as well as to their own citywide Advisory Committee. Each School-Community Advisory Council's chairperson is a member of the Citywide Advisory Committee, with an addition of six representatives appointed from the community-at-large. The Citywide Committee meets with the Board each term to present its concerns and requests. Minority and low income citizen participation was evident on the various Councils.

In addition, the Superintendent and staff have created a formal Superintendent's Committee composed of major agencies and institutions which serve Flint. They meet regularly with the central administration to discuss mutual problems and concerns.

With this type of communication network, school vandalism in Flint is perceived to be related to other commu ity issues, such as high youth unemployment or youth dissatisfaction. Responses reflect that assessment of the problem.

We found a wealth of written information and accrued experience in Flint around issues of community participation in reduction of crime and school vandalism. We strongly recommend districts interested in Community Education approaches to contact the Flint Public Schools, Division of Public Information and Communication.

Case Study C: Madison, Wisconsin Metropolitan School System

Madison, Wisconsin is a well-known university setting and seat of the state capitol. Its school system serves approximately 30,000 students operating four high schools, ten middle schools and 30 elementary facilities. The system is known for its "innovative" nature in curriculum development and decentralization. Our visit focused on how Madison uses its resources to reduce school vandalism.

The school district presented three unique features in dealing with its vandalism problems. These include:

- A decentralized, autonomous planning process throughout the district;
- A program to foster inter-agency cooperation and coordination; and
- A series of in-school curricular programs.

In the sections that follow each of the three features will be discussed.

1. A decentralized, autonomous planning process throughout the district.

Although Central Office does coordinate all activities with regard to vandalism prevention programs, there is nevertheless a good degree of autonomy given to the Area Directors in each of the four districts. Within each district, there are very different, localized approaches being taken to combat the problems of vandalism. Ideas are exchanged regularly across districts, but each of the four Area Directors (who are like Assistant Superintendents are free to pursue his/her own programmatic/curricular/"innovative" approaches.

To facilitate this, a centralized staff development and resource center called "Exchange" has been created to give staff an accredited experience as learner/teacher around systemwide and individual areas of interest. For example, a number of people may request an offering in "Dealing with Vandalism" and interested teachers may opt to teach or simply study this topic for credit. The center has been well used and provided a forum for practical

building level initiatives for staff who have become frustrated with daytime vandalism.

We encountered a similar problem in Madison as we did on most of our other site visits in relation to the lack of consistent data on vandalism and reporting criteria at a building level. Another problem faced by Madison surfacing due to its increasing financial strain is its ability to maintain the "Exchange" program as well as some of its other more innovative efforts.

2. A program to foster inter-agency cooperation and coordination.

Although a clearly stated goal by most of the people we spoke with, this remains a complex and controversial aspect of their program, especially in view of its ambitious scope.

For one thing, the schools and the School Board were instrumental in setting up two informal ad hoc committees that were to provide both advisory and initiating efforts around issues of school and community resource coordination. The two groups set up in the middle 70s are:

- the Social Agency Coordinating Committee
- the Business and Education Coordinating Council

Both these groups have districtwide representative membership and discuss a variety of issues, including vandalism. The recent history of these service groups is one of minimal cooperation and

strong issues of "turf" (which are complicated by the mistrusting relationship between the city and the University in general.)

At approximately the same time that the schools were perceiving a need to better coordinate youth services (which was based in part on a growing concern with the disruptive behaviors of youth and all its related problems--e.g., vandalism), the Mayor's Office was also more and more aware of the high degree of public and media concern with the problems of vandalism. In 1975 an Ad Hoc Vandalism Committee was set up to examine both the causes and the solutions to the problem. The Common Council of Madison was equally concerned, at this time, about vandalism in the schools and the community.

Most recently, the Mayor's Office has created, through official resolution, a "Youth Problems Committee", a city/county commission that will initially focus on vandalism and later will focus on other youth-related issues. Actual results, activities, and modus operandi of this group, as well as for the Ad Hoc Vandalism Committee, were not complete and are not available at this time.

Meanwhile, activity at other key agencies goes on, but again without the kind of coordination that is required to make efforts like those cited above successful. For example, the police were very frustrated with the Juvenile Justice System and the Juvenile Judge, and with the Mayor's Office for not formally involving them in all the various ad hoc groups. Yet, the police felt they were

making progress with the schools through a low-key "school liaison" program, in which an officer meets once or more a month with the Area Superintendent, the building (high school only, for right now) principal, counselors, and interested students to discuss issues of concern and to make recommendations and referrals. Unlike an earlier attempt that failed, the police do not deal with problems of discipline or control. They are beginning to move toward other special pilot programs in the high school, and at this time feel some success with the schools primarily because of a clearly defined understanding and relationship with the building administrators.

And finally, another community/school resource that has potential to contribute to a better understanding of vandalism but has been very limited so far is the University of Wisconsin. One professor has been examining and coding all available school data on vandalism from the past five years (i.e., looking at environmental factors, such as floor plans, size, location, and kinds of materials, and correlating it with the type of frequency of vandalsim that takes place), but the work has been slow, often lacking sufficient information, and restricted to laboratory analysis after the fact. Efforts are underway, however, to move toward a field testing where some interviewing and interaction will take place with high school students, including some who have vandalized.

3. A series of in-school curricular approaches.

Interestingly, we received some of the most positive, encouraging, and detailed information on the school's attempt to deal with vandalism from the head custodian at one of the high schools. He was very excited because he (along with a mixed group of adults and students from this one particular high school) had just returned from a week-long workshop offered by LEAA on peer counseling as an approach to dealing with vandalism. The group had just come back with the outline of an "action plan" that included such elements as a student service center, a media/PR component, and an in-school administrators' workshop.

It will be a while before the impact of such an array of programs can be evaluated. But, for now, the idea of developing approaches besides the current "target hardening" at the high school has a core group of adults and students interested and involved at this one school.

At other schools, there are a number of other small efforts being made by students (with the support of some adult staff) to impact other students. For example, one high school is piloting a cross-age, volunteer program in which a handful of high school students working with volunteer teachers from some of the feeder elementary schools have developed a modest, multi-media, role-play, open-conversation approach to explaining vandalism to the younger students. The program had some effect last year, although

numerous problems (no credit for students; limited teacher support; overcommitment by active students; no exploration of why vandalism occurs; etc.) must still be resolved.

In conclusion, it may be somewhat early to make any definitive judgment on the Madison efforts, since many of them are still in relatively early stages. Though there is a lot of history and politics to overcome, there are a variety of creative ideas and interest among many individuals to get these new approaches off the ground.

Case Study D: Dallas Independent School District

Almost ten years ago in Dallas, Texas, the General Superintendent of Schools, the County Juvenile Probation Judge, and the Chief of Police met to discuss ways in which they could work together to address the growing problems of truancy and school security. The result of these top-level initiatives was to endorse the establishment of a pilot Youth Action Center within a junior high school severely troubled by truancy and juvenile crime in the surrounding neighborhood. Since the success of that pilot effort, Centers have been established in all 21 Dallas high schools to serve that building and its feeder schools.

The YAC model evolved, primarily, as a response to the problems which the three youth-serving agencies faced in dealing with truants in a city as large as Dallas. Prior to the establishment of the Centers, juvenile officers who were legally responsible

for truants, had two options in dealing with a student found out of school. The student could be apprehended and taken to police headquarters, a trip which could keep the officer out of his district for most of the day; or the student could be returned directly to school, where busy staff might or might not have the time and skills to deal with the problem.

Each YAC, located on school grounds and staffed by a Teacher-in-Charge, a police patrolman, and a juvenile probation officer, provides a setting in which the three discrete agencies collaborate in managing truancy and its related problems. The YAC model serves to clarify the responsibility of each agency in the enforcement of the truancy laws in the State of Texas, while providing, at the same time and in the same place, the skills and resources necessary to resolve many of the student's problems which are contributing to truancy. The team approach of the youth-serving professionals involved provides a range of services which can be coordinated appropriately for each student. For example, supervision may range from informal attendance checks by the Teacher-in-Charge to formal meetings with a county probation officer. Referrals come not only from police, but also from principals, parents and a variety of other agencies and individuals. Parents are contacted in approximately one-half of the cases, often through a home visit by both the Teacher-in-Charge and the police officer.

Services provided by the YAC extend to a variety of areas. The YAC staff locate jobs for youth, arrange for medical care,

locate day care for pre-school siblings, make referrals to special education, coordinate the services of other community social agencies to a family or child, and even provide shoes and clothing. YAC staff do act as liaison between the student and the principal, though there is no systematic interaction between staff and individual teacher. One of the obvious measures of the success of the YAC model is the decline of neighborhood daytime vandalsim. With the establishment of a YAC, such vandalism has declined by as much as 37%.

The impact of the YACs has, however, been consistently broader than first envisioned. Though the presence of a uniformed officer within a school brought considerable resistance initially, school administrators are now convinced that the continuous presence of a security team has had a series of beneficial side effects. In fact, the presence of a police officer on the grounds has reduced other crimes from speeding to drug sales. Furthermore, the YAC team members are both known and knowledgable in the school and are perceived by all segments of the community as having a preventive effect on school vandalism. Frequently, staff from the YAC provide assistance to other security officers in identifying vandals.

The YAC staff, through contacts with parents, a local Advisory Committee, and a variety of other public relations efforts within each neighborhood, have also established useful credibility within their districts. Neighborhood residents will

often report suspicious individuals or events to the YAC, providing information which can prevent vandalism or assist in identifying vandals. This credibility is particularly vital in those areas of the city where there is intense suspicion and hostility to regular police officers.

About five years ago, Dallas also found it necessary to install security hardware as well as hiring some uniformed security personnel. Over time, both services have been increased. Given the size and sprawl of the city, most nighttime security is the responsibility of personnel in radio-equipped vehicles. These security people are in direct contact with their school department supervisor as well as the police. The largest facility in the system, the massive Skyline High School, is protected not only by a YAC and patrol cars, but an internal security force (on motor scooters), and a sophisticated alarm system. Though all security personnel have experience or training in security work both the Director of Security and the school system's own Investigator are educators by training.

About a year ago, the YAC model was endorsed by the Texas legislature through a bill which appropriated funds to establish such centers in ten other Texas communities. The key elements of the program's success includes:

- support for the program among the cooperating agencies <u>at all levels</u>
- school-based nature of the program

- building on demonstrated success
- credibility that flows from the use of "hard" money

The extent to which the program has functioned effectively with a structure in which there are a number of parallel authorities is impressive and appears to reflect the fact that each agency has felt ownership at every level from the start of the program. Support by top level officials has been very important in recruiting and retaining well-qualified staff, particularly among the police officers. The location of the YAC's services within school buildings, and the central role of the Teacher-in-Charge, has facilitated the acceptance of the program among school administrators. Furthermore, the program was introduced initially in buildings in which administrators were very receptive to the concept. Expansion of the program took place gradually, building on the positive experience of initial schools. Finally all those interviewed were convinced that the appropriation of local moneys to support the program has been critical to site acceptance across the city.

Case Study E: Alexandria, Virginia Public Schools

Alexandria, Virginia is a school system well known to security directors throughout the country. One of the first security monitoring systems in the country was installed there at T.C. Williams High School. Most of the Alexandria Public School buildings are protected by some sort of electronic protection device. With the assistance of LEAA located across the Potomac in Washington, D.C.,

Alexandria pioneered many innovative security systems for school communities. We found the school district to be prepared and organized to provide visitors with information and insight on practical and relatively inexpensive monitoring devices.

The system operated at T. C. Williams is basically a video monitoring system operated from a central switchboard in the school's main office. The switchboard has a security officer watching for any unusual incidents from 4 p.m. to 7 a.m. every school day and longer on weekends and holidays. The system is six years old, and is far from the more sophisitcated units available to school districts today. However, for the size of the high school (approximately 3,000 students) the system was described by school personnel to be totally effective and adequate. The staff interviewed on our site visit believed that a more elaborate system was not needed to reduce school theft and vandalism in their schools. The Directors in Alexandria have one strong recommendation to other schools shopping for security systems. That is..."test everything before you buy."

Alexandria has had enough years experience in security programs to review effectiveness, detail job descriptions and personnel issues, carve out the necessary police relationships, maintenance costs, and identify problems in such a system.

Several of the individuals we talked to felt that the security system gave them a greater sense of confidence and increased community involvement with the school. The system at the high school initially cost $55,000, and now approximately $8-10,000 is spent

each year on maintenance and $27,000 for staff. CETA funds are used for additional security support personnel.

Students did not seem to pay much attention to the cameras that observed them throughout the hallways; nor was the existence and presence of a security system much of an issue to the students with whom we talked. The Principal informed the site review team that the cameras provoked much resentment among students when they were initially installed (Big Brother is watching) even though they were not on during regular school hours.

The school as part of its vandalism policy imposed a restitution program, in which parents are liable for up to $200 for damage incurred at the school. Grafitti is quickly removed from bathrooms and vandalism damage is responded to quickly, never allowing the school to appear deteriorated. There is some concern in Alexandria that students are blamed for vandalism that may be caused by adults. In addition, school items are labeled, coded, painted, and bolted where possible.

If there is an emergency the security aid on watch calls the police. (Originally, Alexandria operated a roving patrol car, but, found this not to be cost effective). When the police enter the school, they have control. Alexandria uses police dogs. They give a verbal warning to the intruder then release the dogs.

The Police Department also discussed the importance of coordination between the police and schools. Initially, when the system

was installed there were numerous false alarms, which used unnecessary police time. But, within a year the number of false alarms was reduced to five per month. The police and security staff worked out a common reporting system, a personal emergency contact system, and a routine communication flow. Both tne school and police were concerned that they did not have the strong support of the court. They believe this to be an essential ingredient in a program.

In summary, the Alexandria system is practical and efficient, and has stood the test of time. Still within the high school is the criticism that the school has not responded with positive programs to address the multi-ethnic and optional curriculum needs of the school. The security program works fine when the school is closed, but, the daytime harassment and petty vandalism remains causing some frustration and irritation for staff.

Case Study F: Escambria County, Florida School District

Escambria County School District in Florida encompasses urban (Pensacola), suburban and rural schools in one consolidated system. The enrollment is approximately 47,000; there a 65 school sites. They have taken two interesting approaches to reduce school vandalism which they find very effective for their type of setting. They include:

- trailer residences and security improvements
- an inter-agency working agreement between court, school, and children's services

Like other school districts, Escambria faces revenues which are stagnant if not shrinking. They view vandalism as robbery, and their security effort is a serious attempt to stop this raid on their treasury. In the early 1970s, the district's vandalism problem was costing about $50,000 per year. All indications were that this cost would continue to increase. Additionally, the problems of student classroom misbehavior were on the increase. With this in mind, the district took several steps to try to effect a turnaround.

1. Trailer residences and security measures.

Escambria County has placed trailer residents on site at 31 schools. Residents are provided a place to park their trailer homes and their utilities in order to provide 24-hour coverage with minimum cost. The residents are very carefully screened and finding "acceptable" residents has been somewhat difficult. Residents must not have other work which takes them away from the school grounds at night and must have a sincere desire to work with students and be "solid, upstanding citizens." Finally, they must own their own trailer and be willing to move it onto campus.

Once on campus, these residents are encouraged to take an active part in school activities. In this way they get to know the students and a mutual respect is formed. Often, individuals interviewed claimed that residents become the most active "parents" in the entire school. It is believed that the development of this sense of belongingness is necessary to the program's success. It also bears out the need to carefully screen residents.

Trailer residents are required to check the school from the outside every evening. Residents do not have police powers, nor do they carry weapons or wear uniforms. If vandalism does occur, they notify the police. Where the capability exists, an intercom is wired to the trailer and turned on as a continuous monitor at night. Aside from these few responsibilities, the residents go about their usual routine.

Other security options in effect in Escambria include:

- Fences have been placed around some schools to limit vehicular access.
- Lighting has been installed to make monitoring by police, trailer residents, and citizens easier.
- Custodian work hours have been shifted to later in the day. This provides in addition eight hours of coverage after school closes in the afternoon.
- Bulletins have been printed and distributed to the neighborhoods encouraging citizens to be "nosy" about people who are on campus after hours or students who are "hanging around."
- Off-duty police are regularly asked to beef up security. This is in accord with a working agreement with the Pensacola Police Department. The Escambria County Sheriff's Auxiliary also provides these extra security forces.
- Under the CETA Manpower Program, 16 guards have been employed. The Sheriff's Department has deputized these guards so they have arrest powers. However, they do not carry weapons. Seven guards cover high schools exclusively. The remaining nine form a roving patrol unit and provide spot coverage 24 hours a day.

Additionally, the Manpower Office has supplied 14 senior citizens covering ten sites. These people act as security guards. They are deputized and have arrest powers.

The trailer residents program costs are minimal; outlays for utilities run around $100 or less per month, depending on the season. For this minimum outlay, a full-time guard and security service is purchased.

2. An inter-agency working agreement between court, school, and children's services

A written modus operandi has been prepared with the School Department, the court, and the Division of Children and Youth Services to provide a coordinated response to ungovernable, truant, or apprehended juvenile offenders. The school system provides a full-time liaison person or visiting teacher. The job is to assure that the school system is informed of the disposition of the referral and present relevant information to the court.

Vital to the agreement is that a disposition will be reached in 15 days in most cases. The first step is to decide if a judicial or non-judicial disposition is necessary, based on the nature of the offense and the background of the child. Judicial solutions are sought only when the child has demonstrated that action outside the court is unlikely to halt the behavior. Again, the court, school, and youth-serving agency are partners in this decision.

The agreement has particularly well defined steps in relation to truant youth and juveniles who are "ungovernable" at school (students who "consistently reject the authority in the school"). On the first adjudication of ungovernable, the student may be treated as a dependent child and placed under supervision of

protective services. On the second and all subsequent adjudications, the juvenile may be treated as delinquent and placed on probation or committed to Youth Services.

Judicial solutions generally involve restitution when vandalism is the offense. Part of the judgment may require the child to perform certain tasks or a specific job in order to make restitution.

In conclusion, the Escambria County School District has tried several means to cut vandalism and student disruptions. The present Superintendent and Board are 100% behind the programs now in use. They do seem to have very low costs and high effectiveness. However, Escambria has collected very little data bearing on security effectiveness.

This section was prepared with the assistance of the project Advisory Panel. A working group of four Advisory Panel members were assembled with project staff to examine untested models for vandalism reduction. A listing of Advisory Panel members is presented in the Appendix. Most of the model framework presented is infused by the work of the nationally recognized experts to design a vandalism approach as to what should or could exist.

CHAPTER 5: FRAMEWORK FOR A MODEL SCHOOL VANDALISM PREVENTION PROGRAM

In previous sections, we have described the impact of vandalism on schools and the larger society; outlined what is known, and not known, about the dimensions of the problem; described how schools across the nation have responded to the issues of vandalism in their system, and outlined a range of particularly promising approaches.

In the pages which follow, we will put forward a framework to help central administrators and principals, in particular, choose among the bewildering array of anti-vandalism alternatives which exist. Of course, a brief outline of procedures cannot possibly take into account the enormous complexity of issues which confront school administrators each day. Nor can the idiosyncrasies which characterize individual school systems be fully considered.

Used as a guide, however, the framework can lead school personnel toward cost-effective anti-vandalism programs which work--in their schools, for their communities.

Seven major questions need to be addressed in selecting the best available anti-vandalism program for any school or community. These are:

WHAT IS THE VANDALISM PROBLEM?

HOW SEVERE IS IT?

WHAT RESOURCES ARE AVAILABLE?

WHAT ALTERNATIVE PROGRAMS ARE POSSIBLE?

WHAT WILL THE PROGRAMS COST?

WHICH ONE(S) WILL WE CHOOSE?

HOW WILL ANYONE KNOW WHETHER THE PROGRAM WORKS?

A description follows of the major elements involved in addressing each of these questions. It is accompanied by a case study, designed to show how the framework might work to help resolve a vandalism crisis in a real school and community.

WHAT IS IT?

No problem exists in isolation. Vandalism crises in schools are nearly always preceded by a sense of urgency in the schools and the community. There are reports in the media, and letters and protests to the school administration and school board. Frequently a precipitating incident moves vandalism to the front burner: a major fire in a school facility, caused by arson; an "exposé" of the sad state of school buildings; a public protest by teachers or staff; a budget report which highlights the cost of vandalism to the public.

Something has to be done.

But what?

The risk, at this point, is to try to do too much too soon: buy the most readily available alarm system from the first salesman who comes along, or announce that vandalism will be under control by the end of the year. Instead of rushing into a solution,

administrators need to take the time--and, sometimes, the flak that accompanies it--and look carefully at WHAT THE PROBLEM IS AND HOW BAD IT IS.

Sometimes, the "crisis" turns out to be limited to one school or neighborhood, or to fade away completely.

Here, as everywhere else, administrators will need all the help they can get. And a wide range of individuals and groups have a real stake in cutting down on vandalism. These include teachers, staff, and students, and also parents, community groups, businesses, and the political leadership, and particularly, the police and other agencies responsible for youth.

From our review and investigation of promising approaches we have learned that it is important to involve them all to some degree in finding a solution, and in making it work. Looking at what the vandalism problem is makes a good place to begin. Each of the groups and individuals described above can provide valuable input, and should be contacted. A Task Force or series of working groups, including these and other elements--and chaired by the Superintendent and, if possible, a Board member--should be organized to ask:

WHAT IS IT?

WHERE?
WHAT CATEGORIES?
HOW MUCH?
HOW OFTEN?
WHEN?
WHO?

WHY?

Information will be harder to come up with than might be imagined (see Appendix C on the inadequacy of current vandalism statistics). But without a clearer idea of the problem and its specific context, the choice of remedies will be governed more by luck than by knowledge.

HOW HARMFUL IS IT?

Once the dimensions of the problem are understood, the Task Force should go on to look at its effects. Many acts of vandalism may be much less harmful than a few: 20 broken bathroom partitions are less destructive than one large fire. Similarly, incidents spread across the systems may have less damaging educational impact than fewer acts of vandalism concentrated in two or three schools.

Several different effects of vandalism need to be understood, and addressed by the Task Force. A model might look like this:

	SCHOOL A.....SCHOOL N		SYSTEM	
	Immediate Impact	Long-Term Impact	Immediate Impact	Long-Term Impact
Financial Cost				
Educational Effect				
Law Enforcement Effect				
Cumulative Impact				

Some explanation. Perfect accuracy is not the object here; instead, the goal is to estimate, rapidly and reliably, the severity of the problem. A scale of 1-5 might be utilized for each category other than financial cost, which should be expressed in dollars. The outcome (CUMULATIVE IMPACT) is an estimate of severity, based on the information currently available.

FINANCIAL COST refers to the estimated dollar cost of vandalism for individual schools and the system as a whole, expressed annually (IMMEDIATE IMPACT) and over a three-year period (LONG-TERM IMPACT). These are a number of complex problems involved in calculating dollar cost: see Appendix C for a summary of them. Once a method of computation has been chosen, it must be used consistenly for all schools in the system, and for the life of the anti-vandalism program.

EDUCATIONAL EFFECT concerns the impact of vandalism on the process of teaching and learning in each school, and the system as a whole. Here, the Task Force will need to talk to a variety of staff, students, parents, and community leaders to arrive at an estimate of severity:

5: VERY SERIOUS
4: SERIOUS
3: SOME EFFECT
2: LITTLE EFFECT
1: NO EFFECT

The POLITICAL EFFECT of vandalism is sometimes ignored in developing, or bypassing, a solution. Over an extended period, it can become extremely serious, causing administrators to lose

control of events in their system. POLITICAL EFFECT encompasses the perceptions of the political leadership in school and community, and of the general populace, concerning the severity of the vandalism problem. Further Task Force discussions and interviews will be required; the same five point rating system should be utilized.

The LAW ENFORCEMENT EFFECT of vandalism refers to the necessary interaction between individual schools and the system as a whole and the variety of law enforcement agencies which are called upon when vandalism occurs. These include the police, the courts, and other youth-serving agencies which may have or assume responsibility for identified or suspected vandals. As our review of promising programs indicates, clear definition of responsibilities and carefully coordinated plans for responding to vandalism between schools and law enforcement officials are essential to the success of any program. Particularly since law enforcement agencies will be called upon in the implementation of virtually every available solution, it is particularly important that these individuals and groups have a stake in that solution.

The distinction between IMMEDIATE and LONG-TERM IMPACT around each of these factors is extremely significant. A major building fire, for instance, may have great immediate effect on the entire system; with improved fire detection devices, however, its long-term impact may be minimal. Conversely, a rash of wastebasket fires in several schools during class time may have little short-

term impact; over a longer period, however, it may seriously harm the teaching staff's ability and willingness to teach.

CUMULATIVE IMPACT puts together all of these factors--and others--into an estimate of vandalism's damage to each impacted school, and the system, both immediately and over the long haul.

It is a judgment call: the more judges helping to make it, the better. And the more they have a stake in the solutions which follow. The school administration should seek the support of the Task Force and their constituents, as well as the School Board and political leadership.

Good judgment; based on the best information available. Once the dimensions and severity of the problem are understood, what can be done about it?

WHAT RESOURCES ARE AVAILABLE?

Too often, school systems have defined their resources only as budgeted dollars and staff. As successful programs such as the Flint, Michigan Community School demonstrate, expending resources to include a wider range of people and organizations in the school and community is likely to enhance the system's ability to cope with complex and vexing problems.

This is especially true of vandalism. Using students, in particular, as resources makes abundant sense: it significantly expands the system's capacity to take action against vandalism;

it recognizes that students who want to learn are hurt as much as anyone by the impact of vandalism; and it supports the desire of most students, in most schools, to cut down on its effects. Allowing student groups to benefit directly from reduced vandalism costs is the most direct form of student involvement; for most schools, student membership on anti-vandalism Task Forces, participation in the organization of anti-vandalism efforts, and shared responsibility for their implementation and success may be more appropriate.

However it's done, students should be a major positive resource for any anti-vandalism program.

Other non-traditional resources can also be developed. Local businesses, with a stake in the reputation of the school system, may be willing to help. Assistance from civic and fraternal organizations is often available. As cited in the program review, some communities have used neighbors to help keep a watch over empty school buildings. In general, the more the community is involved in addressing the problem, the greater their stake in an effective solution.

As the Council of the Great City Schools has long learned, the most important under utilized resource to combatting vandalism remains the teachers, administrators and staff of the affected schools. They may need to be convinced, by actions that the administration is serious about doing something about vandalism: vandalized schools are not good places to teach, and morale suffers. Often, custodial and cafeteria staff bear the

brunt of vandalism: repairing afterwards, or cleaning up. As a result, they can be a source of information about what is going on, and may have good ideas about how, for instance, to deal with the kids who tear the sinks off the walls.

The police, the courts, and related agencies are another obvious resource to schools in combating vandalism. Long-range planning efforts with these groups can identify strategies for reducing and combating vandalism which are highly effective in their use of dollars and personnel. As the Dallas and Fresno schools discovered, other agencies were willing to contribute resources to solving the problem.

Organization is, of course, a primary resource. In many larger systems, control of vandalism is placed under a School Security Director, with a professional staff; in smaller systems, it is an added responsibility for other central office personnel. However vandalism control appears on the staffing chart, some basic principles apply:

1. Systemwide responsibility should rest no more than a step away from the Superintendent;

2. If possible, security professionals should be sought to generate any security (intrusion-control) programs;

3. Principals should be responsible for all aspects of operations in their building, including supervision of vandalism control and security;

4. Educational requirements should always come before security; where they conflict, security should be set aside.

The Task Forces remain a major avenue to mobilize the many human resources required to make vandalism control work. Once these and other resources have been surveyed, they need to be appraised for their potential significance. Again, a five step scale is used:

5: VERY SIGNIFICANT
4: SIGNIFICANT
3: OF SOME POTENTIAL VALUE
2: OF LITTLE POTENTIAL VALUE
1: NONEXISTENT; USELESS

RESOURCES	IMMEDIATE SIGNIFICANCE			LONG-TERM SIGNIFICANCE		
CURRENT ANTI-VANDALISM BUILDING SECURITY RESOURCES	$	PEOPLE	MATERIALS	$	PEOPLE	MATERIALS
(LIST) ↓						
RESOURCES TO BE DIVERTED TO ANTI-VANDALISM PROGRAM						
(LIST) ↓						
RESOURCES TO BE CREATED FOR ANTI-VANDALISM PROGRAM						
(LIST) ↓						

WHAT ALTERNATIVE PROGRAMS ARE POSSIBLE?

By this point, the dimensions of the problem should be clear, and so should the system's capacity for seeking and implementing a potential solution. In any given situation, many--perhaps most--of the remedies described in this book will be inappropriate. A small school system with serious vandalism limited to one building will not want to install video cameras in all schools; schools in congested urban areas may lack the space for trailer surveillance.

Programs which may be suitable, both given the nature and severity of the problem and the extent and availability of the resources, should be identified and reviewed. The programs described in this manual include all of the major types and categories; systems seeking to improve their vandalism control effort should seek more complete information from the cited schools themselves. The Resource Guide, appended to this manual, should also be of help. No existing program is likely to satisfy perfectly the needs and resources of another district. But they should be able to help systems design their own.

WHAT WILL THE PROGRAMS COST?
WHICH ONE(S) WILL WE CHOOSE?

Three to five potential programs, geared to the needs and resources of the community, should be identified by the Task Force and school administration. At this point, if not before, public hearings on the matter may be indicated. The potential programs should be developed in enough detail to be understood, and appraised, by the school and community.

CONTINUED

1 OF 3

WHAT IS IT?
WHAT IS IT INTENDED TO DO?
WHO WILL BE IN CHARGE?
HOW WILL IT WORK?
HOW WILL ANYONE KNOW IF IT WORKS OR NOT?

Global promises--and, if possible, any promises at all--should be strenuously avoided.

The school and larger community are now aware of the vandalism control alternatives which are being considered, and have had some opportunity to insert their views in the selection process. The final design of the program should consider many of the factors which have been discussed previously. For instance:

PROGRAM A PROGRAM B ⟶ PROGRAM N

COST

FINANCIAL COST
EDUCATIONAL COST
POLITICAL COST
LAW ENFORCEMENT COST

CUMULATIVE COST

BENEFIT

FINANCIAL BENEFITS
EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS
POLITICAL BENEFITS
LAW ENFORCEMENT BENEFITS

CUMULATIVE BENEFITS

CUMULATIVE COSTS
CUMULATIVE BENEFITS

PROGRAM RANKING CUMULATIVE COST/BENEFIT

PROGRAM A
PROGRAM B
|
PROGRAM N

This process looks much more quantified and complicated than it really is. Remember that, except for the financial costs, all of the other elements result from the informed judgment of Task Force and Administration; many of them were developed earlier in the process. In practice, the process of arriving at an informed judgment will be much easier than it is to explain it, although the need to involve as many parties as possible in the decision making is likely to extend it in time.

HOW WILL ANYONE KNOW WHETHER THE PROGRAM WORKS?

The system's basic expectations for the selected program grow out of the selection process, and the cost benefit descriptions which were utilized. Program staff working closely with impacted Principals, should begin immediately to translate the anticipated benefits into specified objectives. For those districts with professionally trained evaluators, involvement in the assessment process of vandalism prevention options should be essential.

For those districts without the resources of highly skilled evaluators, a simple EVALUATION AUDIT should be implemented by project staff with school Principals to examine whether the program has achieved its intended results. In our survey of 107 vandalism prevention programs nationwide we found almost all reporting success of one kind or another, but few providing more than anecdotal evidence or direct vandalism cost reduction figures. The impact of the program at a school level must take into account the same

dimensions used in shaping the program which are the financial benefits, educational benefits, and political benefits.

Thus, we propose the development of an initial AUDIT MATRIX which is prepared at the beginning of the intervention and reported on a monthly basis. The monthly reports are then summarized in an annual report which is circulated throughout the system. For each benefit an objective is developed and for each objective a measure and date. The measures are to include incidence and cost data as well as interviews with administrators, school staff, students, and community representatives.

AUDIT MATRIX

PROGRAM_____

BENEFITS	OBJECTIVE	MEASURE	DATE
• Financial	• Financial		
-	-		
-	-		
-	-		
• Educational	• Educational		
-	-		
-	-		
-	-		
• Political	• Political		
-	-		
-	-		
-	-		

In examining cost effectiveness of the program we recommend examining the actual amount of money the district spends on vandalism repair and prevention before and during the program, in-kind dollars need not be accounted for. Thus, repair costs and cost of prevention program < previous vandalism costs. (The International Association of Chiefs of Police and the National Association of School Security Directors have developed a "security audit" for public schools.) If you find after you have implemented your program, that you are increasing the district's overall expenditure, then the program is subject to question. This fact alone is not enough to make a program successful or unsuccessful. Incidence levels may have altered significantly, educational gains may have been made, or political behavior may have changed as a consequence of the program which may justify its continued existence with modifications. The purpose of the evaluation audit is to determine the ongoing degree of success of the program economically as well as from students' perspective, staff, administration, and community and from this information identify specific areas in need of alteration.

Our experience in schools has led us to conclude that what works as a successful program today, may be inappropriate for the educational climate three years from now. The goal of the evaluation audit is to develop an internal monitor as to changes and shifts in schools which can be reflected in the evidenced physical destruction.

CONCLUSION

This package has attempted to provide the beleaguered school administrator with direct and frank information on:

- the nature of the vandalism problem
- what we know
- what we don't know
- existing prevention options that have been tested
- case studies of promising programs
- a resource guide on school vandalism
- a framework on approaching your own vandalism problems.

We have repeatedly stressed that school vandalism is a very complex phenomenon for which single "quick-fix" solutions do not exist. Attempts have been made indirectly in the text to caution decision-makers from purchasing services or goods from individuals presenting easy solutions to the problem. No matter how great the immediate pressure may be for "consumers" we strongly counsel administrators to thoroughly examine the situation, the context, and involve multiple groups in the decision-making process.

We also encourage administrators interested in implementing some of the program components described in the package to call and visit these school districts. Most of the school systems we contacted were extremely helpful in offering support and ideas on how to respond to school vandalism in the reality of the politics of schools.

One final note. Although each school is unique and will require a response, you are not alone in facing the problem.

We sincerely hope this guide has been of assistance to you.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alschuler, A. & Shea, J. The discipline game: Playing without losers, 1975.

American Institutes for Research. You don't have to love each other but. Cambridge, Mass.: July, 1975.

American School Board Journal. Live-in 'school sitters' are saving this district thousands of dollars each year--and cutting vandalism as well. American School Board Journal, 1974, 161(7), 38-39. (b)

American School Board Journal. Violence in the schools: Everybody has solutions, and on the next ten pages, everybody offers them. American School Board Journal, 1975, 162(1), 27-37.

American School and University. Lowering the toll of vandalism. American School and University, 1966, 38(12), 26-27.

American School and University. 10 basic electronic security devices. American School and University, 1970, 42(11), 25-26.

American School and University. School designed to shrug off vandalism. American School and University, 1974, 47(30, 28-30.

American Teacher. AFT project to investigate school discipline, violence. American Teacher, January 1977, p. 4.

Anatomy of a vandal and how one school district catches him. American School Board Journal, January 1972, 159(7), 31.

Annual Report. U.S. Senate, Committee of the Judiciary, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1975.

Annual Report, 1973-1974. New York: New York City Board of Education, Office of School Security, 1974.

Another view: Let's get at the causes of youthful vandalism. American School Board Journal, 1974, 161(4), 68-69.

Armstrong, R. Student Involvement. Oregon: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, No. 14, 1972.

Aronson, E. et al. Busing and racial tension: The jigsaw route to learning and liking. Psychology Today, February 1975, 43-50.

Bailey, S. K. Disruption in urban public secondary schools. Washington, D.C.: Nat'l Association of Secondary School Principals, 1971.

Baltimore City Public Schools. Vandalism study of selected great cities for 1966-1967. Baltimore: Author, Division of Research and Development, Bureau of Records and Statistics, June 1968.

Baltimore City Public Schools. Annual report of vandalism in selected great cities and Maryland counties, 1968-74. Baltimore: Author, 1974.

Baltimore City Public Schools. Annual report of vandalism in selected great cities and Maryland counties, 1972-73. Baltimore: Author, Office of Research, Reports, and Records, 1975.

Barker, R.G. et al. Big school small school studies of the effects of high school size upon the behavior and experiences of students. Lawrence, Kans.: University of Kansas, Midwest Psychological Field Station, 1962.

Barnes B., Daniels, L. A., & Rosenfeld, M. Violence proliferates in area schools. Washington Post, May 18, 1975.

Barnes, B. County school vandalism rising, Senate panel told. Washington Post, June 18, 1975, C-1.

Basic electronic security devices. American School and University, July 1970, 25-26.

Basil, D. Telephone conversation. July 25, 1977.

Bates, W. & McJunkins, T. Vandalism and status differences. Pacific Sociological Revie Fall 1962, 5. (a).

Bates, W. Caste, class, and vandalism. Social Problems, Fall 1962, 9, 349-353. (b)

Baughman, P. et al. Vandalism and its prevention. Los Angeles: California Association of School Business Officials, 1971.

Bayh, B. Our Nation's Schools--A Report Card: "A" in school violence and vandalism, Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, April 1975.

Bayh, B. Challenge for the third century: Education in a safe environment. Final Report on the Nature and Prevention of School Violence and Vandalism. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1977.

Beckman, R. The human factor in design...More than just a pretty chair. American School and University, April 1971.

Bell, R. Alternatives for the disruptive and delinquent: New systems for new teachers? National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, May 1973, 59, 53-58.

Berger, M. L. Violence in the schools: Causes and remedies. Bloomington, Ind.: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1974, 46.

Betchkal, J. (Ed.). Violence in the schools: Now some solutions. American School Board Journal, January 1975, 27-37.

Blauvelt, P. D. Nation's tenth largest school district reports! Security World, December 1974, 37-39.

Blauvelt, P. D. Understanding vandalism. Paper presented at the National Association of School Security Directors, Bicentennial Conference, Washington, D.C., July 11-16, 1976.

Bloch, A. The battered teacher: A new form of combat neurosis. Paper submitted to the American Journal of Psychiatry, March 27, 1976.

Blodgett, M. W. Student violence, status maximization, and anonymity as factors subject to staff control in potentially explosive desegregating public schools Ann Arbor, Mich.: Xerox University Microfilms, Ph.D. Dissertation from University of Minnesota, 1975.

Board of Education & Police Department, City of New York. The police-school liaison program in the New York City public schools. New York: Authors, June 1973.

Bouma, D. H. et al. The evaluation of a police-school liaison program. Oct. 21, 1970. (NTIS PB-195-974).

Bouma, D. H. & Williams, D. G. Police in the schools: A program evaluation. The Police Chief, September 1972, 50-52.

Bowman, D. H. Alternative to violence? Education Leader, October 1972, 30, 26-28.

Bradley, C. E. Vandalism and protective devices: Studies, conclusions, recommendations. Association of School Business Officials, United States and Canada, 1967, 53, 236-45.

Brady, E. D. Ten trends in school security. Nation's Schools, June 1972, 89(6), 49.

Brenton, M. School vandalism. Today's Education, March-April 1975, 64, 82, 84-85.

Brickman, W. W. Vandalism and violence in school and society. Intellect, 1976, 104(2374), 503.

Bried, R. Design your plant to avoid maintenance sore spots. Nation's Schools, April 1969, 83(4).

Briscoe, C. Project VITAL - Juvenile offenders returning to school. Clearinghouse, March 1974, 48, 411-415.

Brodsky, S. L. & Knudten, D. R. Strategies for delinquency prevention in the schools. Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama, 1973.

Bromley, P. Student involvement through a communication system. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, January 1975, 41-45.

Buder, L. Crime "brokers" reported in some city high schools. New York Times, February 26, 1975.

Burton, L. W. Model school security system cuts crime. Security World, June 1975, 12-14.

Buss, W. G. Legal aspects of crime investigation in the public schools. Topeka, Kans.: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1971.

Butler, H. E. Jr. et al. Legal aspects of student records. Topeka, Kans.: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1972.

Byerly, C. L. A school curriculum for prevention and remediation of deviancy. In W. W. Wattenberg (Ed.), Social deviancy among youth. National Society for the Study of Education, Yearbook No. 65, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966. Pp. 221-257.

California Association of School Business Officials. Effects of civil disorder and civil disobedience on school district insurance.

California State Department of Education. Conflict and violence in California's high schools. Sacramento: Author, 1973.

Camp, J. Dade school crime - $705,000 misery. Miami Herald, August 8, 1975.

Cardinell, C. F. Relationship of interaction of selected personality characteristics of school principals and custodians with sociological variables to school vandalism. Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1969.

Cardinell, C. F. Let's get at the causes of youthful vandalism. American School Board Journal, January 1974, 161(1), 68-69.

Carlton, S. A. Security notebook: Surveying school security and costs. Security World, 1974, 11(2), 26-27, 46.

Casler, L. Are our public schools turning out warriors, not lovers. American School Board Journal, 1974, 161(11), 56-57.

Caudill, W. What works and what fails in school design. Nation's Schools, March 1967, 79(3), 85-116.

Cavan, R. & Ferdinand, T. Juvenile Delinquency. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1975.

Census Bureau. See U. S. Department of Commerce.

Centre Research Associates & Environmental Design Group. Prospectus: Vandalism and the public schools: An institutional perspective. Submitted to the National Institutes of Mental Health, Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency, January 1976.

Challenge for the Third Century. See U. S. Congress, Senate Committee on the Judiciary, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, 1977.

Challenge of crime in a free society. A report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Chasnoff, R. E. Structure of delinquency. National Elementary Principal, November 1967, 47, 54.

Childers, B. Alternative schools similar and different: Programs offer students chance to be responsible. Albuquerque Journal, May 25, 1975.

Children out of school in America. A report by the Children's Defense Fund of the Washington Research Project, Inc. Cambridge, Mass.: Children's Defense Fund, 1974.

Chilton, R. Middle class delinquency and specific offense analysis in Vaz, E. (Ed.) Middle class juvenile delinquency. New York: Harper and Row, 1967.

Christensen, R. H. Differences in administering discipline among minority schools, heterogeneous schools and predominantly all white secondary schools. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Xerox University Microfilms, EdD. Dissertation from Brigham Young University, 1975.

Clark D. Student violence reported rising. San Diego Union, February 18, 1974.

Clement, S. L. School vandalism: Causes and cures. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, January 1975, 59, 17-21.

Clements, C. B. The School Relations Bureau: A program of police intervention. In E. A. Wenk (Ed.), Delinquency prevention and the schools: Emerging perspectives. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1976. Pp. 65-78.

Clinard, M. B. & Wade, A. L. Toward the delineation of vandalism as a sub-type in juvenile delinquency. Journal of Criminal Law. January-February 1958.

Cloward, R. A. & Ohlin, L. E. Delinquency and opportunity. New York: Free Press, 1960.

Cohen, S. Politics of vandalism. The Nation, November 11, 1968.

Cohen, S. Direction for research on adolescent school violence and vandalism. British Journal of Criminology, 1971, 9(4), 319-340.

Colver, A. C., & Richter, J. P. "Yes" to a self-directive day. Phi Delta Kappa, 1971, 53(2), 111-112.

Congressional Record. Results of survey on student unrest in the nation's high schools; Extensions of remarks. Congressional Record, February 23, 1970, E1178-E1180.

Coppock, N. School security. Educational Management Review Series. October 1973, 23, 1-5.

Coppola, J. B. An orientation and training program for security officers in an urban high school. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Nova University, Florida, May 1975.

Cops in, robbers out. Nation's Schools and Colleges, June 1975.

Coursen, D. Vandalism prevention. National Association of Elementary School Principals School Leadership Digest, 1975.

Cranston, A. The Congressional campaign against crime in the schools. Intellect, 1973, 102(235), 27-28.

Crawford, P., & Rapoport, M. Results of a survey of pupils and teachers regarding television. Willowdale, Ontario: North York Board of Education, April 1976.

Creekmore, E. L. How big cities train for school security: A nationwide survey. Security World, 1974, 11(2), 28-29, 46.

Crime and Delinquency. School and delinquency issue. Crime and Delinquency, July 1961, Vol. 7.

Crime in the United States: Uniform crime reports, 1975. Washington, D.C.: United States Justice Department, Federal Bureau of Investigation, 1975.

Criminal activity in schools: What's being done about it? National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 1974, 58(382), 73-78.

Cross, [illegible]. Why so much violence in the schools? American Vocational Journal, March 1976, Vol. 51, pp. 28-30.

Crowe, T. D., Hanes, L. F., Pesce, E. J., & Riemer, A. Crime prevention through environmental design: School demonstration plan. Arlington, Va.: Westinghouse Electric Corp., March 1976.

Curbing vandalism costs. Nation's Schools, June 1972, 89, 46-49.

Darrow, F. M. Stop crime soon as possible. Trona, Calif.: Author, 1975.

Dauw, B. The high cost of vandalism. Safety Education, March 1965, 44, 3-7.

Davis, B., & Thomson, S. Disruptive behavior: Prevention and control. The Practitioner, April 1976, No. 2.

DeCecco, J. P., & Richards, A. K. Civil war in the high schools. Psychology Today, 1975, 9(6), 51-56, 120.

DeCecco, J. P., & Richards, A. K. Growing pains: Uses of school conflict. New York: Aberdeen Press, 1974.

Delacoma, W. Vandalism - Out of control? Journal of Insurance Information, March-April 1970, 31(20.

Demarest, M. School Vandal: Scourge and symptom. Learning, April 1973, 1, 35-37.

Denenberg, H. S. Insurance study, crime against small business. A Report of the Small Business Administration transmitted to the Select Committee on Small Business, United States Senate, April 3, 1969.

Deterring vandalism. California Association of School Business Officials, Maintenance and Operations Research Committee, Southern Section, Fortieth Annual Conference, April 1967.

Division of Alternative Programs. Alternative Programs in the Philadelphia public schools. Philadelphia: School District of Philadelphia, 1975.

Dropouts: Prevention and rehabilitation. Schools rescue potential failures. Education USA Special Report. Washington, D.C.: National School Public Relations Association, 1971.

Drug crisis: Schools fight back with innovative programs. Education USA Special Report. Arlington, Va.: National School Public Relations Association, 1971.

Ducey, M. Vandalism in high schools: An exploratory discussion. Chicago: Institute for Juvenile Research, 1976.

Dukiet, K. Spotlight on school security. School Management, 1973, 17(9), 16-18.

Dwyer, D. Police-school liaison programs is a positive prevention move. National Police Journal, Spring 1971, 13, 21-23.

Education Digest. School crime. Education Digest, 1975, 41(2), 36-37. (Reprinted from LEAA Newsletter, May 1975, p. 26).

Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc. Schoolhouse--designing schools to minimize damage from vandalism and normal rough play. New York: Author, 1974.

Educators split on school violence. Criminal Justice Newsletter, September 1975, 6(9), 6.

Edwards, L. F. How to reduce the cost of vandalism losses. Paper presented at National School Board Association Annual Convention, Philadelphia, Pa., April 1971.

Electronic surveillance proves effective. American School and University, August 1974.

Elliott, D. S., & Voss, H. L. Delinquency and dropout. Lexington, MA.: Lexington Books, 1974.

Ellison, W. S. School vandalism: 100 million dollar challenge. Community Education Journal, 1973, 3(1), 27-33.

Emory, V. Vandalism and protective devices. Proceedings of the Association of School Business Officials, United States and Canada, 1966, 52, 237-7.

Ertukel, D. School security: A student point of view. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 1974, 5(384), 44-49.

Etgioni, A. Violence. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1971.

Faber, H. Vandalism of school by two boys stuns upstate town. New York Times, November 28, 1975.

Farquhar, D. An inside job: Cops and robbers hit the classroom. Montgomery County Sentinel, January 20, 1977 (a).

Farquhar, D. Get-tough policy works at Northwood. Montgomery County Sentinel, February 24, 1977 (b).

Fielder, M. A diversified team approach to conflict intervention. Education Leadership, October 1969, 15-18.

Foreman, E. G. Vandalism! Maintaining and protecting the school plant. Catholic Schools, September 1967, 70-72.

Foster, H. L. To reduce violence: The interventionist teacher and aide. Phi Delta Kappa, 1971, 53(1), 59-62.

Franklin, A. The all-day neighborhood schools: Their role in delinquency prevention. Crime and Delinquency, 1961, 7(3), 255-262.

Fresno City Unified School District. Survey of burglary and vandalism occurrence and preventative measures in twenty-five large California school districts. Summary Report. Fresno, Calif.: Author, Office of Planning and Research Services, 1973.

Furno, O. F., & Wallace, L. Can you reduce your district's vandalism costs? Baltimore City Public Schools, Division of Research and Development, April 26, 1972.

Furno, O. F., & Wallace, L. Vandalism: Recovery and prevention. American School and University, July 1972, 44, 19-22.

Gallup, G. H. Sixth annual Gallup poll of public attitudes toward education. Phi Delta Kappa, December 1975, 227-241.

Gang violence makes an ugly comeback on the school scene. American School Board Journal. March 1973, 69, 60-61.

Gardner, J. C. Spotlighting school vandalism. American School and University, 1972, 44(5), 12.

Garett, J., Bass, S., & Casserly, M. School crime in an institutional perspective. Prepared for the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 1977.

Gatti, D. J. Violence in the schools: When is it assault and when it is battery? American Vocational Journal, March 1976, Vol. 51, pp. 31-32.

Gazzolo, D. Portland named to test environmental crime study. Journal of Housing, October 1975, 9, 434.

Gingery, S. L. Vandalism in schools. School Business Affairs, September 1946.

Glaser, D. Routinizing evaluation: Getting feedback on effectiveness of crime and delinquency programs. Rockville, Md.: National Institute of Mental Health, 1973.

Goldman, N. A socio-psychological study of school vandalism. Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Research Institute, 1959, condensed in Crime and Delinquency, 1961, 7(3).

Goldmeier, H. Vandalism: The effects of unmanageable confrontations. Adolescence, 1974, 9(33), 49-56.

Goss v. Lopez (1975) 95 Ct. 729.

Governor's Task Force on Disrupted Youth. Phase I Report. Tallahassee: Florida State Department of Education, September 14, 1975.

Grealy, J. I. Criminal activity in schools: What's being done about it? National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, May 1974, 58, 73-78.

Grealy, J. I. School violence: What can be done about it? American School and University, June 1975, 47, 25-29 (a).

Grealy, J. I. Nature and extent of school violence and vandalism. School Security Journal, 1975, 2(5), 51-54. (b)

Grealy, J. I. Safety and security in the school environment. Security World, 1974, 11(2), 1, 42. (b)

Grealy, J. I. Making schools more secure. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Association of School Administrators, Dallas, Texas, February 1975.

Grealy, J. I. School security and systems planning. Paper presented at the 1976 International Security Conference, New York City, October 1976.

Greenberg, B. School vandalism: A national dilemma. Final Report. Menlo Park, Calif.: Stanford Research Institute, 1969.

Greenberg, B. School vandalism: Its effects and paradoxical solutions. Crime Prevention Review, January 1974, 1(2), 11-18.

Greenberg B., Friedlund, G. K., Smyser, J. G., & Fitzsimmons, S.C. Program for the prevention and control of school vandalism and related burglaries: Final report. Menlo Park, Calif.: Stanford Research Institute, June 1975.

Greenstein, R. Can we lessen vandalism? Instructor, January 1970, 79, 90-91.

Grimditch, R. E. How to cut down school vandalism: Some practical suggestions. Education Digest, January 1972, 38, 27-31.

Haggard, S. Program cost analysis in educational planning. Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, 1971.

Hammond School delinquency program. Criminal Justice Newsletter, January 1976, 7(1).

Haney, S. School district reduces vandalism 65%. American School and University, December 1973, 56, 29.

Harris, K. B. Reducing school violence and drug abuse Security World, February 1974, 18-19, 44-45.

Hart, R. L., & Saylor, J. G. (Eds.). Student unrest: Threat or promise? Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1970.

Hathaway, J. S., & Edward, L. R. Jr. How to (just about) vandal-proof every school in your district. American School Board Journal, January 1972, 159, 27-31.

Hearing before the General Subcommittee on Education, on t Safe Schools Act, H.R. 2650, U. S. Congress, House, Comm tee on Education and Labor, 93rd Congress, First session. Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, 1973.

Herbers, J. High school unrest rises, alarming U. S. educators. The New York Times, May 9, 1969, Vol. 30, pp. 1, 30.

Herrick, M. Discipline in the schools. Crime and Delinquency, 1961, 7(3), 213-220.

Holman, B. National trends and student unrest. Security World, 1975, 12(8), 43-44.

House Subcommittee on Equal Opportunities. See U. S. Congress, House Committee on Education and Labor, Subcommittee on Equal Opportunities, 1976.

How schools combat vandalism. Nation's Schools, April 1968, 81, 58-67.

How to cut down school vandalism. Education Digest, 1973, 38(6), 31-33.

Howard, N. K. (compiler). Discipline and behavior: An abstracted bibliography. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1974.

Hudgins, A. C. Jr. School administrators and the courts: A review of recent decisions. Arlington, Va.: Educational Research Service, 1975.

Inner city's problems move to the suburbs. Atlanta Journal, July 20, 1975.

Institute for Development of Educational Activities. (IDEA) Dissent and disruption in the schools: A handbook for school administrators. Dayton, Ohio: Author, 1971.

Institute for Development of Educational Activities. (IDEA) The problem of school security: An occasional paper. Dayton, Ohio: Author, 1974.

Jacob, S. Let's do something about vandalism. American County Government, October 1967.

James, H. How secure is your classroom? Teacher, February 1974, 91, 42-43.

Jones, J. W. Discipline crisis in schools: The problem, causes, and search for solutions. Arlington, Va.: Education USA Special Report, National School Public Relations Association, 1973.

Juillerat, E. E. "Burn the school--that'll show 'em!" Fire Journal, 1966, 60(2), 16-20.

Juillerat, E. E. Fire and vandals: How to make them unwelcome in your school. American School Board Journal, January 1972, 159, 22-26.

Juillerat, E. E. For worried school districts: Here's lots of sensible advice for lasting ways to cut down school vandalism. American School Board Journal, January 1974, 64-69.

Juvenile Justice Digest. School violence hearings indicate chaos in American public education. Juvenile Justice Digest, 1975, 3(12), 8-10.

Juvenile vandalism. Training Key (Professional Standards Division of the International Association of Chiefs of Police), 1969, 117.

Kaser, T. Burglary, vandalism rate soars in island schools. Honolulu Advertiser, May 21, 1975.

Katzenmayer, W., & Surratt, J. Police at the schoolhouse. Phi Delta Kappa, 1975, 57(3), 206-207.

Kelly, R. L. Vandalism, safety and security. School Business Affairs, 1973, 39(7), 164-166.

Kemble, E. Violence in the schools and public school policies. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Council for Educational Research and Development, Washington, D.C., December 1975.

Keve, P. W., & Young, K. R. School and court working together. Crime and Delinquency, 1961, 7(3), 242-248.

Kiernan, O. B. School violence and vandalism. Reston, Va.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1975.

Kihss, P. Youths clash with police and teachers are beaten. The New York Times, December 3, 1968, pp. 1, 41.

Klaus, D., & Gunn, A. Serious school crime: A review of the literature. Washington, D.C.: American Institutes for Research, 1977.

Knowles, C. D. Alternative programs: A grapevine survey. Davis, Calif.: National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 1973.

Knudten, R. D. Delinquency programs in schools: A survey. In E. A. Wenk (Ed.), Delinquency prevention and the schools: Emerging perspectives. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1976, pp. 53-64.

Kobetz, R. W. Juvenile vandalism: The billion dollar prank. Police Chief, June 1973, 40, 32.

Koch, E. L. School vandalism and strategies of social control. Urban Education, April 1975, 10, 54-72.

Kolstad, C. K. Microwaves stop school vandals. Security World, 1974, 11(2), 20-21, 54.

Kravontka, S. J. CCTV system design for school security. Security World, 1974, 11(2), 22-23, 48-49.

Kvaraceus, W. C. Juvenile delinquency and the schools. 1954.

Lakewood City (Ohio) Board of Education. Dealing with aggressive behavior: A curriculum for middle school and junior high. 2 vols.: Teacher's manual, student book. Cleveland, Ohio: Educational Research Council of America, 1971.

Lalli, M., & Savitz, L. The fear of crime in the school enterprise and its consequences. Education and Urban Society, 1976, 8(4), 401-416.

Laub, E. B. The story of "You and the Law." Crime and Delinquency, 1961, 7(3), 237-241.

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. Cost of school crime exceeds half billion dollars each year. LEAA Newsletter, 1975, 4(10) 26.

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. Super security program in city schools cuts after-hours crime. LEAA Newsletter, 1975, 4(10), 27.

Lerner, S. E., & Linder, R. L. Drugs in the elementary school. Journal of Drug Education, 1974, 4(3), 317-322.

Levine, A., Cary, E., & Divoky, D. The rights of students: The basic ACLU guide to a student's rights. Discus Books, 1973.

Levine, S. Speaking out. National Elementary Principal, September 1972.

Live-in school sitters are saving this district thousands of dollars each year, and cutting vandalism as well. American School Board Journal, July 1974, 161, 36-39.

L'Hote, J. D. Detroit fights theft and arson. American School and University, July 1970, 42(11), p. 19-20.

The London Times. Violence whitewashed. The London Times Educational Supplement, October 8, 1971, No. 2942.

Lowering the toll of vandalism. American School and University, August 1966, 38, 26-27.

Lucas, W. L. Experiences in a large city school system. In J. M. McPartland & E. L. McDill (Eds.), Violence in schools. Lexington, MA.: Lexington Books, 1977, pp. 71-76.

Madison, A. Vandalism: The not-so-senseless crime. New York: Seabury Press, 1970.

Manella, F. L. A program to cope with youth violence in schools. Law and Order, 1970, 18(9), 24-27.

Marburger, C. L. School-community relations and maladjusted youth. In W. W. Wattenberg (Ed.), Social deviancy among youth. National Society for the Study of Education, Yearbook No. 65, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966, pp. 258-279.

Marcase, M. P. Discipline in the Philadelphia Public Schools: A working document. Philadelphia: Board of Education of Philadelphia, 1976.

Martin, J. M. Juvenile vandalism: A study of its nature and prevention. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1961.

Marvin, M., et al. Planning assistance programs to reduce school violence and disruption. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, 1976.

McCord, [illegible]r. Vandalism: A special report. Nation's Schools, December 1973, 31-37.

McGovern, E., & Piers, M. W. Child care for non-violence. Childhood Education, October 1972, 49, 9-13.

McGowan, W. Crime control in public schools: Space age solutions. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 1973, 57(372), 43-48.

McGuire, W. What can we do about violence? Today's Education, November-December 1975, pp. 20-23.

McGuire, W. Violence in the schools. NEA Reporter, February 1976.

McKenna, J. Crime in the schools. New York Affairs, 1974, 1(3), 3-13.

McPartland, J. P., & McDill, E. L. Research on crime in the schools. Baltimore: Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 1975.

McPartland, J. P., & McDill, E. L. Violence in the schools. Lexington, MA.: Lexington Books, 1977.

Metzner, S. School violence in historical perspective. Unpublished paper, City University of New York, Office of Research and Evaluation, 1969.

Michelson, B. E. Vandalism in our schools. Education Digest, September 1956, pp. 13-15.

Middleton, L. Crime rising in schools, Report says. The Washington Star, February 25, 1977.

Middleton, L. Alarms fail as burglars hit schools. The Washington Star. March 27, 1977 (b)

Miller, L. E., & Beer, D. Security system pays off. American School and University, 1974, 46(8), 39-40.

Miller, W. B. Gang activities and the public schools. In W. B. Miller, Violence by youth gangs and youth groups in major American cities: Final report. Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1976, pp. 112-137.

Miller, W. B. Violence by youth gangs and youth groups in major American cities. Cambridge, MA.: Harvard Law School, Center for Criminal Justice, 1976.

Moffitt, F. J. Vandals rocks can't reach flying schoolhouse. Nation's Schools, July 1974, 74, 22.

Moldenhauer, E. H. Click. Click. Instant reporting with computer set-up. Nation's Schools, December 1973, 36.

Modenhauer, E. H. Fulton County schools deter vandalism. Security World, November 1974, 47.

Moulden, W. E. Schools and delinquency: Four teacher corps approaches. Juvenile Justice, August 1974, 47-55.

Mullins, J. Yerba Buena crisis counseling project: The interagency team approach. San Jose, Calif.: 1974.

Munnelly, R. J. Is it time to break the silence on violence? Elementary School Journal, 1971, 71(5), 237-243.

Murphy, H. H. Vandals, arsonists, bombs, dogs. Paper presented at American Association of School Administrators Annual Convention, San Francisco, March 1973.

National Association of School Security Directors. Uniform report of school losses and offenses. Miami: Author, 1975.

National Center for Education Statistics. Survey of offenses and property losses--disclaimers and data limitations. Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Office of Education, December 1976.

National Clearirghouse for Alcohol Information. A national study of adolescent drinking behavior attitudes and correlations conducted by the Center for the Study of Social Behavior of the Research Triangle Institute. Rockville, Md.: Author, 1975.

National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning and Architecture. Policy development seminar on architecture, design and criminal justice. Proceedings of an LEAA Conference on Architectural Design and the Problems of Security, Rochester, Michigan, June 1975. Champaign, Ill.: Author, 1975.

National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education. The reform of secondary education: A report to the public and the profession. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973.

National Committee for Citizens in Education. Violence in our schools: What to know about it and what to do about it. Comumbia, Md.: Author, 1975.

National Education Association. Teacher opinion on pupil behavior, 1955-1956. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, April 1956, Vol. 34, pp. 51-107.

National Education Association. Danger--school ahead: Violence in the public schools. Washington: Author, 1975.

National Education Association. Violence in the schools: Violence permeates our schools; Who's to blame for school violence?; One teacher's struggle against school violence; What associations are doing about school violence. NEA Reporter, 1976, 15(2), 3-9.

National Education Association. Reference on vandalism and security systems in public schools. Washington, D.C.: Author, 1971.

National Education Association. Educational neglect: Research papers for conference on educational neglect. Washington, D.C.: Author, 1975.

National Education Association Research. Teacher opinion poll. Today's Education, 1973, 62(1), 7.

National Education Association Research. Teacher opinion poll. Today's Education, 1974, 63(3), 105.

National Fire Protection Association. A study of school fires. Boston: Author, 1973.

National Fire Protection Association. Fires and fire losses classified, 1965. Fire Journal, 1966, 60(5), 33-38.

National School Public Relations Association. Discipline crisis in schools: The problem, causes and search for solutions. Arlington, Va.: Author, 1975.

National School Public Relations Association. Violence and vandalism: Current trends in school policies and programs. Arlington, Va.: Author, Education U.S.A. Special Report, 197

National Urban League, Inc. The problem of discipline/control and security in our schools. Position Paper, No. 1. New York: Author, May 1971.

Nation's Schools. How schools combat vandalism. Nation's Schools, 1968, 81(4), 58-67

Nation's Schools. Vandalism: A special report. Nation's Schools, 1973, 92(2), 31-37.
(Also within the above article: What schools are doing: A roundup of new and unusual school practices. Nation's Schools, 1973, 92(2), 34-36.)

Nation's Youth. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Children's Bureau Publication #460, 1968.

Nedurian, V. Guidelines--Cooperation between school officials and police departments. Nolpe School Law Journal, 1972, 2(2), 57-65.

Need for immediate action. New York: Academy for Educational Development, June 30, 1972.

Neill, S. B. Violence and vandalism. Arlington, Va.: National School Public Relations Association, 1975.

Neill, S. B. Causes of school violence and vandalism. Education Digest, 1976, 41(8), 6-9.

Neilsen, M. Vandalism in schools: A $200 million problem. Bulletin, Bureau of Educational Research and Service, December 1971, 15(4).

Nelken, I., & Kline, S. Destruction or loss of school property: Analysis and suggestions for improvement of school security. Chico: California State University, Educational System Planning, June 1971.

Nemy, E. Violence in schools now seen as norm across the nation. New York Times, June 14, 1975.

Neville, H. C. School arson: Is your protection adequate? American School and University, 1974, 47(3), 31-32.

New Jersey School Boards Association, Ad Hoc Committee to Study Vandalism. School vandalism survey. Trenton, N.J.: Author, 1975.

New York Times. Three Jersey boys vandalize 37 buses. The New York Times, February 23, 1970, p. 54.

Nielsen, M. Vandalism in schools: A 200 million dollar problem. Oregon School Study Council Bulletin, 1971, 15(4).

Nolte, C. Why you need a student grievance plan and how you can have a reasonable one. American School Board Journal, August 1975, 38-40.

Nowakowski, R. Vandals and vandalism in the schools: An analysis of vandalism in large school systems and a description of ninety-three vandals in Dade County schools. Doctoral dissertation, University of Miami, 1966.

O'Grince, S., & Hodgin, H. S. Public school vandalism. American School and University, July 1968, 40, 30-32.

Olson, C. Developing school pride reducing vandalism: A guide for student leaders. San Diego, Calif.: San Diego City Schools, 1970.

Olson, H. C., & Carpenter, J. B. A survey of techniques used to reduce vandalism and delinquency in schools. McLean, Va.: Research Analysis Corp., 1971.

Ornstein, A. C., & Freeman, J. On high school violence. Journal of Secondary Education, 1971, 46(1), 9-15.

Our nation's schools--a report card: "A" in school violence and vandalism. Preliminary Report, U.S. Senate, Committee of the Judiciary, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, April 1975.

Pablant, P., & Baxter, J. Environmental correlates of school vandalism. Journal of the American Institute of Planners, 1975, 41(4), 270-279.

Panel on School Safety. A safer environment for learning. New York: Author, 1972.

Parent patrols are scaring would-be vandals away from schools in this burgeoning district. American School Board Journal, July 1974, 161, 38-39.

Piersma, P. The legal rights of secondary school children charged with an act of delinquency or violation of school laws: Handbook for school personnel 1972. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, ERIC/Counseling and Personnel Services Center, 1972.

P.L. 93-380. The Education Amendments of 1974, 93rd Congress, H. R. 69, August 21, 1974. Includes Sec. 825, Safe School Study Act.

Platzker, J. How much do we know about windowless schools? Better Light Better Sight News, July-August 1966.

Polk, K. Schools and the delinquency experience. In E. A. Wenk (Ed.), Delinquency prevention and the schools: Emerging perspectives. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1976, pp. 21-44.

Polk, K., & Schafer, W. Schools and delinquency. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972.

Port Washington vandal tells why he did it. Milwaukee Journal, December 28, 1975. Sec. 2.

Powell, J. W. School security: An emerging professionalism. American School and University, July 1972, 44, 12-15.

Powell, W. C. Education intervention as a preventive measure. In E. A. Wenk (Ed.), Delinquency prevention and the schools. Emerging perspectives. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1976, pp. 105-115.

Prescriptive package proposal: Vandalism in our schools. Washington, D.C.: Council of the Great City Schools, 1976.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency. Task Force Report: Juvenile delinquency and youth crime. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

Prewer, R. R. Some observations on window-smashing, British Journal of Delinquency, 1958-1960, 9(10), 104-113.

Pringle, M. K. The roots of violence and vandalism. Community Health, 1974, 6(2), 84-91.

Pritchard, R., & Wedra, V. A resource manual for reducing conflict and violence in California schools. Sacramento: California School Boards Association, 1975.

Problems of school security. Dayton, Ohio: Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1974.

Proctor, N. A. Newark living studies center: A school for disruptive students. Educational Leadership, November 1974.

Program for the prevention and control of school vandalism and related burglaries. Final report. Menlo Park, Calif.: Stanford Research Institute, 1975.

Project for the Fair Administration of Student Discipline. Student rights and school discipline: Bibliography. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, December 1975.

Property damage in schools, Vol. IV, Annotated Bibliography: Vandalism and design. Cambridge, MA.: Harvard University, 1975.

Protecting schools against vandalism. Educational Research Service Reporter, August 1968.

Protection and Safety. American School Board Journal, December 1964.

Reagen, M. V. Suspension and expulsion and problems of school security. Paper presented at the National Institute of the National Conference of Christians and Jews, Miami Beach, October-November 1973.

Rector, J. M. School violence and vandalism: A congressional perspective. Security World, 1975, 12(8), 41-43.

Redmond, J. F. Personnel security officer's manual. Chicago: Board of Education, September 1968.

Reeves, D. E. Protecting against fire and vandalism. American School and University, May 1972, 44(9), 66.

Reform of secondary education: A report of the National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education. New York: McGraw Hill, 1973.

Reiss, M. H. Selecting intrusion devices for your school. Security World, 1974, 11(2), 24-25, 57.

Report Card. See U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on the Judiciary, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, 1975.

Report on conflict and violence in California's high schools. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1973.

Research for Better Schools. Planning assistance programs to reduce school violence and disruption. Philadelphia: Author, 1976.

Reutter, E. E. Jr. The courts and student conduct. Topeka, Kans.: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1975.

Review board gives students their day in court. Nation's Schools, May 1974, 46.

Rich, C. Violence erupts in the classroom: Area schools face trend to violence. Evening Bulletin (Philadelphia), September 29, 1975, 1-5.

Richards, P. Patterns of middle class vandalism: A case study of suburban adolescence. Doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, 1976.

Rigdon, V. D. School's security man tries to be a friend, too. Montgomery County Sentinel, December 16, 1976.

Ritterband, P. Ethnicity and school disorder. Education and Urban Society, 1976, 8(4), 383-400.

Ritterband, P., & Silberstein, R. Group disorders in the public schools. American Sociological Review, 1973, 38(4), 461-467.

Ross, D. M. 1973 state education legislation and activity: Schools, students, and services, a survey of the state. Research Brief, Education Commission of the States, June 1974.

Rowe, W. et al. A behavior program for problem students. Personnel and Guidance Journal, May 1974, 609-612.

Roye, W. J. Law and order in classroom and corridor. National Center for Research and Information on Equal Education Opportunity Tipsheet #6, November 1971.

Rubel, R. Assumptions underlying programs used to prevent or reduce student violence in secondary schools. Washington, D.C.: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1977. (a)

Rubel, R. Data on student crimes in schools: What to to collect, where to find them, and problems to avoid. Washington, D.C.: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1977. (b)

Rubel, R. Trends in disorders, disruption, and crimes in secondary public schools. Lexington, MA.: Lexington Books, 1977. (c)

Rubin, D. The rights of teachers: The basic ACLU guide to a teacher's constitutional rights. Discus Books, 1968.

Safe Schools Study. NCES/NIE Preliminary Report on Violence and Vandalism, 1977.

Safe Schools Act Hearing. See U.S. Congress, House Committee on Education and Labor, Subcommittee on Education, 1973.

Savitz, L.D., Lalli, M., & Rosen, L. City life and delinquency: Victimization, fear of crime, and gang membership. Unpublished manuscript, Temple University, 1975.

Schafer, W. E., & Polk, K. Delinquency in the schools. In Task Force Report: Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, 222-227. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Schnabolk, C. Safeguarding the school against vandalism; special report: Planning and learning environment. Nation's Schools, 1974, 94(2), 29-36.

Schofield, D. Student rights and student discipline. School Leadership Digest No. 13. Arlington, Va.: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1975.

School delinquency intervention program. Evansville, Ind.: Vanderburgh School Corporation, Student Services, 1976.

School fire and vandalism prevention program. Concord, Calif.: Mt. Diablo Unified School District, 1969.

Schoolhouse: Open plan school for the inner city. Educational Facilities Laboratories Newsletter, May 1971, 2.

School Management. Keep it looking like new. School Management, 1973, 17(9), 22-23.

School Product News. School security survey. School Product News, June 1976.

School suspensions: Are they helping children? A Report by the Children's Defense Fund of the Washington Research Project, Inc., Cambridge, MA.: Children's Defense Fund, 1975.

School vandalism costs D. C. $1.3 million in year. Washington Post, December 8, 1975, Sec. B 1-2.

School vandalism legal implications. Doctoral dissertation, University of Denver, 1971.

School violence and vandalims: The nature, extent and cost of violence and vandalism in our nation's schools. U.S. Senate, Committee on the Judiciary, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, hearings of April 16 and June 17, 1975.

School violence and vandalism. Models and strategies for change. U.S. Senate, Committee on the Judiciary Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, hearings of September 17, 1975.

School violence hearings indicate chaos in American public education. Juvenile Justice Digest, June 20, 1975, 32-34.

Schuchter, A. Schools and delinquency prevention strategies. In E. A. Wenk (Ed.), Delinquency prevention and the schools: Emerging perspectives. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1976, pp. 45-51.

Schwartz, S. A new way to fight school vandalism. American School and University, January 1973.

Seattle School District #1. Security today for the State of Washington's school districts: An innovative concept. Seattle: Author, April 1973.

Security. Building Research Station Digest, October 1970, 122.

Security Systems Digest. Violence, vandalism threatens destruction of American schools. Security Systems Digest, 1975, 6(10), 1-4.

Security systems for maximum protection. American School and University, August 1966, 38(12).

Security World. School security issue. Security World, February 1974, Vol. 11, No. 2.

Seits, L. D. Fear, tension, violence: The ugly part of school. Evansville, Ind.: Evansville Press, 1976.

Servino, M. Who pays, or who should pay when young vandals smash things up in your schools? American School Board Journal, June 1972, 159, 33-34.

Sharp, J. S. Proper design limits vandalism. American School Board Journal, December 1964, 149, 22-23.

Shaw, W. Vandalism is not senseless. Law and Order, February 1973, 12, 15-19.

Slater, J. Death of a high school. Phi Delta Kappa, 1974 56(4), 251-254.

Slaybaugh, D. J. School security survey. School Product News, June 1973.

Slaybaugh, D. J. School security survey. School Product News, June 1974.

Slaybaugh, D. J. School security survey. School Product News, June 1975.

Slaybaugh, D. J., & Koneval, V. L. The high cost of vandalism. Cleveland, Ohio: School Product News, 1970.

Slaybaugh, D. J., & Koneval, V. L. Schools in crisis: The cost of security. Cleveland, Ohio: School Product News, 1971.

Smith, D. C. Vandalism in selected Southern California school districts: Nature, extent, and preventative measures. Doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, 1966.

Smith, D. H. (Ed.) Disruptive students. Albany: New York State Education Department, Bureau of School Social Services, 1973.

Smith, P. M. The schools and juvenile delinquency. Sociology and Social Research, 1952, 37(2), 85-91.

Smith, V., Barr, R., & Burke, D. Optional alternative public schools. Bloomington, Ind.: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1974.

Smith, V. H. Alternative schools: The development of options in public education. Professional Education Publications, 1974.

Sommer, R. People's art. AIA Journal, December 1972.

Special report on violence in schools. U.S. News and World Report, April 14, 1975, 37.

St. Germaine, R., et al. Roseville faces disaffection with alternative high schools. Phi Delta Kappa, May 1975, 637-638.

Steinmetz, R. C. Current arson problems. Part 1. Fire Journal, 1966, 60(5), 23-25, 31.

Steinmetz, R. C. Current arson problems. Part 2. Fire Journal, 1966, 60(6), 33-37.

Storm, M. School fires: Part of our overall crime problem. Security World, March 1974, 20-23.

Strumpf, M. Maximum security at minimum cost. School Management, February 1972, 28-29.

Student pushout: Victim of a continued resistance to desegregation. Washington, D.C.: Southern Regional Council and Robert F. Kennedy Memorial, 1974.

Stulken, E. H. The schools and the delinquency problem. Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 1953, 43, 563-577.

Summary of security force based on eighteen reporting urban school districts. San Diego: San Diego Schools, Department of Administrative Research, November 22, 1968.

Suspensions and due process: An analysis of recent Supreme Court decisions on student rights. Robert F. Kennedy Memorial, February 1975.

SVVH. See U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on the Judiciary, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, 1976a and 1976b.

Tallmadge, K., & Horst, D. A practical guide to measuring project impact on student achievement. Los Altos, Calif.: RMC Risardi Corp., 1975.

Task Force Report. Juvenile delinquency and youth crime. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Thistle, F. Maybe it's time we discussed the violence in America's schools. PTA Magazine, October 1974, 69, 14-17.

Tien, J. M., & Reppetti, T. A. Crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED): Annotated bibliography. Arlington, Va: Westinghouse Electric Corp., 1974

Tien, J. M., & Reppetti, T. A. Crime/environment targets. Arlington, Va.: Westinghouse Electric Corp., 1975. (a)

Tien, J. M., Reppetti, T. A., & Hanes, L. F. Elements of CPTED. Arlington, VA.: Westinghouse Electric Corp., 1975. (b)

Time. The crime wave. Time, 1975, 105(27), 10-24.

To catch a thief, try microwaves. American School and University, July 1971.

Today's Education. Assaults on teachers. Today's Education 1972, 61(2), 30-32, 69-71.

Totin, J. Jr. School vandalism: An overview Proceedings of the Association of School Business Officials, United States and Canada, 1969, 52.

Underwood, E. N. et al. Opinions differ: Ways of fighting vandalism. Today's Education, December 1968, 28-32.

United Federation of Teachers. Security in the schools. New York: Author, 1973.

United Federal of Teachers. Security in the schools: Tips for guarding the safety of teachers and students. N.Y.: Author, 1974.

Urban school crisis: The problem and solutions proposed by the HFW Task Force on urban education. Washington, D.C.: National School Public Relations Association, 1970.

U.S. Children's Bureau. The prevention of juvenile delinquency: A selected annotated bibliography. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.

U.S. Congress, House Committee on Education and Labor, Subcommittee on Education. Safe schools act hearing, on H.R. 2650, February 26, 1973. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

U.S. Congress, House Committee on Education and Labor, Subcommittee on Equal Opportunities. Oversight hearing on the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act, June 29, 1976. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976.

U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on the Judiciary, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. Our nation's schools--a report card: "A" in school violence and vandalism. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, April 1975.

U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on the Judiciary, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. School violence and vandalism: The nature, extent, and cost of violence and vandalism in our nation s schools. Hearings held April 16 and June 17, 1975. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976. (a)

U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on the Judiciary, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. School violence and vandalism: Models and strategies for change. Hearings held September 17, 1975. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976. (b)

U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on the Judiciary, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. Challenge for the third century: Education in a safe environment--final report on the nature and prevention of school violence and vandalism. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977.

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Population characteristics: School enrollment in the United States: 1972. Current Population Reports, February 1973, Series P-20, No. 247.

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Population characteristics: School enrollment--social and economic characteristics of students, October 1975. Current Population Reports, December 1976, Series P-20, No. 303. (a)

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Statistical abstract of the United States, 1976. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976. (b)

U.S. News & World Report. Violence hits schools, colleges. U.S. News & World Report, May 20, 1968, pp. 36-38.

U.S. News & World Report. U.S. teachers--targets of violence. U.S. News & World Report, Nov. 17, 1969.

U.S. News & World Report. More muscle in the fight to stop violence in schools. U.S. News & World Report, April 16, 1973, pp. 113-116.

U.S. News & World Report. Violence in schools: Now, a crackdown. U.S. News & World Report, April 14, 1975, pp. 37-40.

U.S. News & World Report. Terror in schools. U.S. News & World Report, January 26, 1976, pp. 52-55.

University of Oregon, ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management. Vandalism prevention: The best of ERIC, Number 20. Eugene: Author, September 1976.

Van Avery, D. Contrasting solutions for school violence: II. The humanitarian approach. Phi Delta Kappa, 1975, 57(3), 177-178.

Vandalism survey and report #3217. Chicago: Suburban Cook County School Districts.

Vandals don't like the spotlight. American School and University, January 1971, 26-28.

Van Patten, J. J. Violence and vandalism in our schools. Journal of Thought, 1976, 7(3), 180-190.

Vestermark, S. D. Jr. Responses to collective violence in threat or act. Report prepared by Human Sciences Research, Inc., for the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Springfield, Va.: National Technical Information Service, 1971.

Vicino, F. L., & Peterson, D. Mesa, Arizona, Public Schools: Vandalism and theft analysis, 1973-74. Mesa, Ariz.: Mesa Public Schools, 1974.

Violence and vandalism: Current trends in school policies and programs. Washington, D.C.: National School Public Relations Association, December 1975.

Violence in the schools: Everybody has solutions. American School Board Journal, January 1975, 162.

Violence in the schools: Some new solutions. American School Board Journal, January 1975, 162, 27-37.

Virginia Division of Justice and Crime Prevention. School security shows success in Alexandria. DJCP Progress, 1974, 2(2), 2-3.

Ward, C. (Ed.) Vandalism. London: The Architectural Press, 1973.

Watson, B. Schooling, violence and vandalism: Promising politics and policy alternatives. Report for the House Committee on Education and Labor Subcommittee on Equal Opportunity, in oversight hearings on the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act, June 29, 1976.

Wattenberg, W. W. (Ed.) Social deviancy among youth. National Society for the Study of Education, Yearbook No. 65, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966.

Weeks, S. Security against vandalism: It takes facts, feelings, and facilities. American School and University, 1976, 48(7), 37-46.

Weinman, J., & Davidow, A. The causes of high school disturbances: A statistical analysis. New York: Authors, 1972.

Weinmayr, V. M. Vandalism by design: A critique. Landscape Architecture, July 1969, 286.

Weintraub, R., & Morley, S. Youth and the administration of justice: A model educational program on law and citizenship for schools. Pasadena, Calif.: Constitutional Rights Foundation, 1974.

Wells, E. Vandalism and violence: Innovative strategies reduce in schools. Education USA Special Report, Washington, D.C.: National School Public Relations Association, 1971.

Wenk, E. A. Schools and delinquency prevention. In Crime and Delinquency Literature, 236-23[illegible]. Hackensack, N.J.: National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 1974.

Wenk, E. A. Juvenile justice and the public schools: Mutual benefit through education reform. Juvenile Justice, August 1975, 7-14.

Wenk, E. A. (Ed.) Delinquency prevention and the schools: Emerging perspectives. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1976.

Wenk, E. A. Schools and the community: A model for participatory problem-solving. In E. A. Wenk (Ed.) Delinquency prevention and the schools: Emerging perspectives. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1976, pp. 9-20.

Whitaker, J. D. $100,000 damage laid to 6 children. The Washington Post, December 21, 1976, pp. C-1, C-12.

Wilson, G. T. An analysis of effective practices employed to reduce vandalism in park, recreation and combined departments in American cities of over 50 thousand population. Doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, 1961.

Wilson, J. Q. Thinking about crime. N.Y.: Basic Books, 1975.

Wilson, J. Q. Crime in society and schools. Educational Researcher, 1976, 5(5), 3-6.

Winston. Student involvement cuts vandalism: South San Francisco Unified School District. School Management, November 1974, 18, 25.

Wint, J. Contrasting solutions for school violence: I. The crackdown. Phi Delta Kappa, 1975, 57(3), 175-176.

Wolfganag, M. E. Freedom and violence. In J. M. McPartland & E. L. McDill (Eds.), Violence in schools. Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, 1977, pp. 35-42.

Yankelovitch, D. How students control their drug crisis. Psychology Today, October 1975, 41.

Yerba Buena High School. The Yerba Buena Plan: Solutions to conflict and violence in the schools: A school-based interagency team approach. San Jose, Calif.: Author, 1975.

"Yes" to a self-directive day. Phi Delta Kappa, October 1971.

Young, G. P., & Soldates, S. School vandalism can be stopped. American School and University, July 1970, 42, 22-23.

Young, W. R. Crime in the classroom. Reader's Digest, May 19

Your schools: Alternatives to suspension. South Carolina Community Relations Program and American Friends Service Committee, May 1975.

Youth reporter. Second chance education: Louisville's alternative school program. Washington D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Human Development, February 1974.

Zazzaro, Joanne. What schools are doing: A roundup of new and unusual school practices. Nation's Schools, August 1973, 34-36.

Zeisel, J. Planning facilities to discourage vandalism. Paper presented at American Association of School Administrators Annual Convention, Atlantic City, N.J., 1974, (6).

Zeisel, J. Stopping school property damage. Design and administrative guidelines to reduce school vandalism. Arlington, Va.: American Association of School Administrators, and the Educational Facilities Laboratories, 1976.

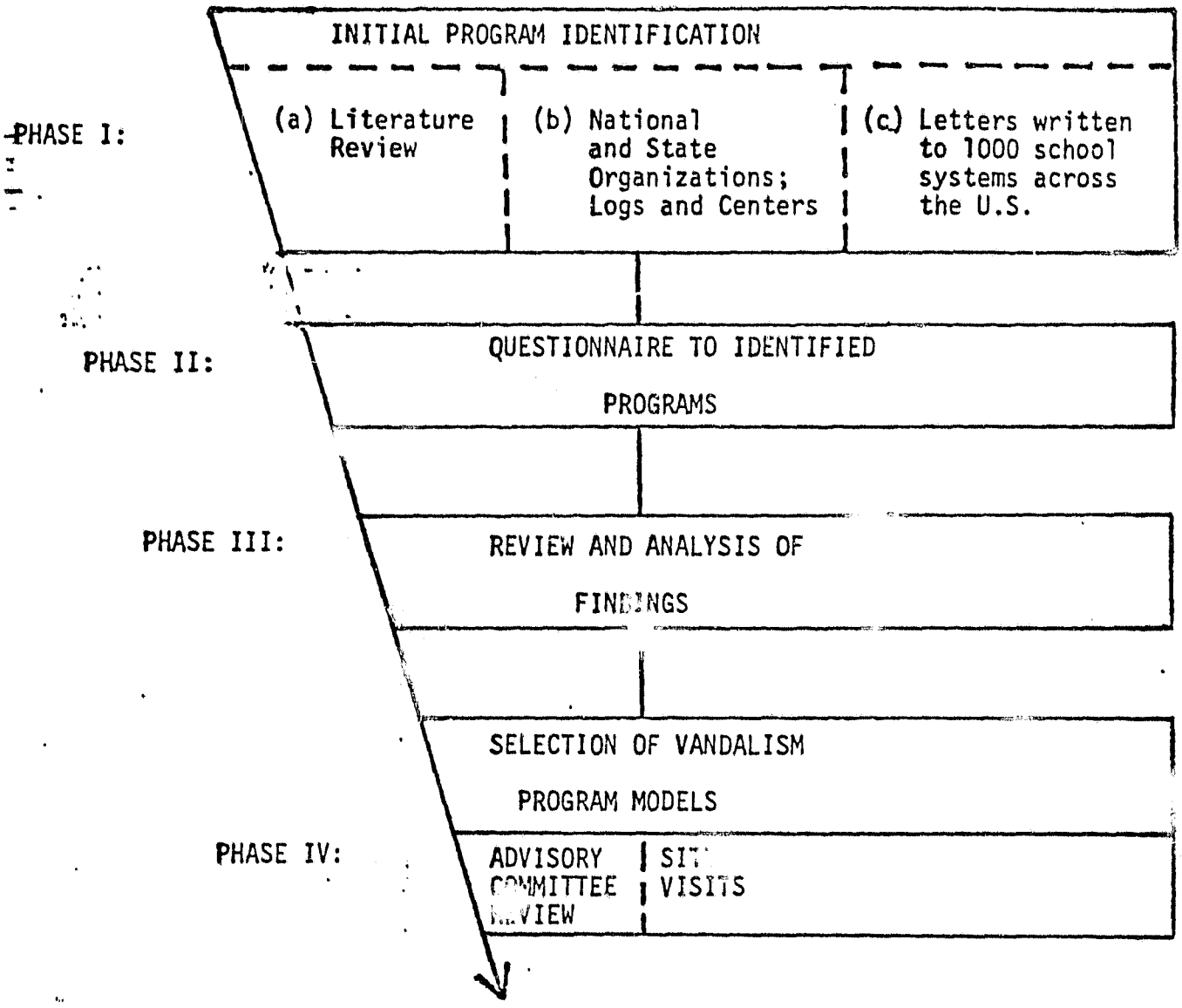
Zimbardo, P. G. A full experiment in auto shaping. Time, February 28, 1969.

Zweig, A., &Ducey, M. A pre-paradigmatic field: A review of research in school vandalism. Chicago: Institute for Juvenile Research, 1976.

APPENDIX A

RESEARCH DESIGN

5 PHASES OF PROGRAM MODEL DEVELOPMENT



PHASE V: DEVELOPMENT OF PROGRAM MODEL

- Basic Vandalism Program Data
- Gaps in Existing Data
- Local Needs Identified
- Advisory Committee Review

APPENDIX A: RESEARCH DESIGN

The actual development of the LEAA Program Model by the Council of the Great City Schools followed five basic Phases which occurred in sequential order over a ten month period. The five Phases were:

Phase I: INITIAL PROGRAM IDENTIFICATION

This first phase, which was to survey what promising programs existed nationally, had three major components. They were: (a) A complete search of the literature for programs related to vandalism reduction; over 130 programs were identified by this procedure. (b) Letters requesting information on vandalism related programs were sent to 450 social scientists, educators, research labs and centers, architects, national educational or security related organizations, lawyers, security directors, and juvenile justice specialists. Also, a letter requesting information was sent to each State and Regional LEAA Office; (only a handful of programs were identified by this component). and (c) A stratified random sample of 1,000 school systems were selected from each of the ten H.E.W. Regions. The within region sample of 100 school districts was further subdivided into 40 urban school districts, 30

suburban school districts, and 30 rural school districts,[14] thus providing a total pool of 400 urban school districts, 300 suburban school districts, and 300 rural school districts, whose Superintendent was asked to complete a self-addressed, postage-paid post card identifying any promising vandalism prevention programs they were familiar with. From the school sample, we identified approximately another 117 previously unidentified school districts offering potentially promising programs.

Obtaining descriptions of a wide variety of vandalism reduction strategies was of particular interest in our review of programs as well as in our national survey of urban, rural, and suburban school districts, and site visits to promising programs

During our review of the literature we relied on many of the traditional references and journals to identify and describe vandalism-reduction efforts. We used or consulted the following resources:

- NIMH Computer Information Service
- University of Maryland library card file
- National Criminal Justice Reference Service
- Educational Research Information Clearinghouse (ERIC)

[14] Criteria for identification as urban, suburban, or rural school districts was determined by the 1970 U.S. Census data and geograpgic maps.

- Department of Justice PROFILE System
- Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD)
- Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI)
- Research for Better Schools, Inc.
- National Institutes of Education (NIE)
- National Education Association (NEA)
- National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP)
- Office of Education (DHEW)
- National Council on Crime and Delinquency Information Center
- National Association of School Security Directors
- U.S. Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency
- Neighborhood Youth Corps

The search of the literature uncovered information on over 130 programs. In reviewing the literature, however, an obvious problem arose. No clear guidelines exist for determining what constitutes a vandalism reduction program. Many of the efforts to reduce property destruction consisted of simple administrative measures and were not programs in themselves. Asking the assistant principals to walk the hallways during classtime is an example. In addition, the goals of many school programs related to vandalism primarily address other educational programs, e.g., drug use or truancy. The rule of thumb followed in searching the literature has been to include any program having a direct bearing on reducing vandalism--no matter how large or small the effort. Projects to

build career awareness or to reduce drinking or to provide knowledge of the law which were not discussed in the literature in the context of vandalism were omitted from this review. Often the decision to include or exclude a project became arbitrary.

Phase II: QUESTIONNAIRE TO IDENTIFIED PROGRAMS

A detailed questionnaire was prepared for the 247 potentially promising programs identified from the literature review and post card procedure. A questionnaire was sent with a personal letter to each Superintendent of the identified districts. The questionnaire focused on questions of program operation and implementation, such as: type and description of programs, goals of the programs, target population, evaluation criteria, and cost of the programs. Prior to mailing, the questionnaire was subjected to approval by a distinguished Advisory Committee of 12 members. (See Appendix for membership.)

PHASE III: REVIEW AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Over 107 school districts across the country responded to the questionnaire: a return rate of 43%[15]; 67% of those identified themselves as urban, 28% as suburban, and 5% as rural. The

[15]A sample of 10% of non-respondents was telephoned for questionnaire responses.

questionnaire was coded and subjected to computer analysis and cross-tabulation. Many districts sent additional materials to help explain or clarify their programs. The questionnaire asked each Superintendent for the following types of information:

1. Type of project; including the general theme or focus of the project. Districts having a number of programs were asked to rank their importance.

2. Definition of vandalism; listing the specific behaviors, acts, or costs used by the project in defining vandalism.

3. Funding source; specifying where the bulk of the program's money came from.

4. Goals; describing the specific objectives of the program.

5. Results; including a description of how successful a project was.

6. Target; describing whether the project was directed at changing students, protecting the school building, or some other target.

In addition, districts were asked to note whether children, parents, or community members were involved in the program.

7. Time; specifying the time of day that the project operated.

8. Level; describing whether the project was being implemented throughout an entire district, only selected schools, or in a single school.

9. Measures of cost effectiveness; describing the costs of the program versus the money it was saving.

10. Evaluation criteria; specifying the measures that were used in a project to describe its success.

Appendix B will give a summary of key questionnaire findings.

Phase IV: SELECTION OF VANDALISM PROGRAM MODELS

A summary report was then presented to the Advisory Committee for their review. The Advisory Committee then assisted in generating criteria for final selection of programs for site visits, and an

interview format for the visits. The final six sites were selected for site visits based on the criteria that included:

- programs which were replicable;
- systems which offered a wide range of program types;
- districts which then taken as a group represented geographic variety;
- districts which reflected a range of size;
- districts that were genuinely interested in having a visit; and
- districts which will provide new information for the Prescriptive Package.

The six school districts eventually selected for site visits were:

- Fresno County, California Public Schools
- Flint, Michigan Community Schools
- Madison, Wisconsin Metropolitan School System
- Dallas, Texas Public Schools
- Alexandria, Virginia Public Schools
- Escambria County, Florida School District

Phase V: DEVELOPMENT OF PROGRAM MODEL

All the above tasks allowed the project staff to see obvious gaps in the existing pool of information, gain a basic knowledge of the strengths and weaknesses of vandalism programs across the

country, abstract local needs from the questionnaire, and develop a constellation of approaches to attack school vandalism.

SCHOOL VANDALISM QUESTIONNAIRE

For Data Analysis: Please Do Not Write in This Space

BACKGROUND

1. Name of School System _____ ☐☐☐
2. State _____ ☐☐
3. Your Name and Position

   Name _____

   Title _____

   Phone Number Area Code ( ) _____

4. Location of School District (check one): ☐

   ☐ 1 Urban

   ☐ 2 Suburban
   Identify Nearest Urban Center _____

   ☐ 3 Rural
   Identify Nearest Urban Center _____

PROGRAM TYPES

In our preliminary review of vandalism programs of different schools we have found several techniques controlling vandalism.

5. From the following list, please rank the programs you are now offering in order according to the priority of your system. Place a 1 in front of the program you believe the most important. Correspondingly, rank 2, 3, etc. to the programs you operate which are of lesser importance. Only fill spaces in categories where you are currently offering programs.

Please Do Not Write in This Space

ENVIRONMENTAL

☐ *Building Security* - These are programs which build a strong monitoring and crisis response mechanism, through the use of alarms, human or animal building-based presence, and the like. Monitoring of building or protection of persons by police, community members or students are included in this program type. ☐

☐ *Target Hardening* - Programs which increase the difficulty of destruction; for example, the replacement of broken or existing window panes with lexon/plexiglass. ☐

☐ *Architectural Design* - Identification, beautification, or alteration of school construction and design to decrease the likelihood of crime. ☐

BEHAVIORAL

☐ *Offender Accountability/Responsibility* - Programs aimed at detecting troublesome students or outside offenders and removing them from the school premises. Asking vandals or their parents to replace or restore property, or take part in special programs. Restitution programs are considered part of this approach. ☐

☐ *Behavior Change in Students* - Programs designed to impact student behavior, often involving incentives for socially acceptable behavior. These include student vandalism accounts programs. ☐

☐ *Human Relations* - Programs which focus on counseling, on better interpersonal or intergroup relations and understanding. ☐

SYSTEM

☐ *Community Relations* - Programs which center on the involvement and participation of the community in school operations and decision-making. ☐

☐ *Institutional Change* - Programs that redesign or alter disciplinary, legal or organizational policies or practices that exist in schools. ☐

☐ *Curriculum Innovation* - Introduction or alteration of curricular components to encourage students to initiate more socially acceptable behavior. ☐

Please Do Not Write in This Space

On Questions 6 - 14 please respond for the one program you have assigned the highest priority.

PROGRAM GOALS

6. Please describe below the goals your most important program is expected to accomplish, and include any measurable criteria which would reflect the accomplishments of this effort.

TARGET POPULATION

7. Who do you hope to impact by your program (rank the following groups according to their importance as a program target; 1 = most important; use NA for groups which do not apply to your program):

___ Identified vandals

___ Unidentified vandals

___ Parents

___ Community residents

___ All students

___ School personnel

___ Other (please specify) _____

Please Do Not Write in This Space

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

8. How many people are involved in the operation of your program (please fill in the approximate number in the appropriate blanks):

	directly involved (day-to-day operations)	indirectly involved
A. School Personnel		
Administrators	_____	_____
Teachers	_____	_____
School Security	_____	_____
Police	_____	_____
Building Maintenance	_____	_____
Other	_____	_____
B. Students	_____	_____
C. Community Members	_____	_____

9. How many schools are involved in the program (please fill in the approximate number in the appropriate blanks):

	Number of Schools	Number of Students Per School
A. Elementary Schools	_____	_____
B. Junior/High/ Middle Schools	_____	_____
C. High Schools	_____	_____

10. How long has your vandalism control program been in existence in its present form?

_____ Year(s)

Please Do N
Write in Th
Space

11. Please summarize below the major aspects of your most important program. In addition, please enclose with the returned questionnaire any reports, descriptions or publications that will help us more clearly understand what you are trying to do.

PROGRAM EVALUATION

12. Is your program designed to impact vandalism occurring (check one):

☐ 1 Outside of schools hours

☐ 2 During school hours

☐ Both

13. Do you evaluate your vandalism program?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, what criteria and methods are you using to evaluate the program? (e.g. vandalism costs, number of apprehensions, attitude surveys):

Who conducts your evaluations?

Please Do Not Write in This Space

To whom are they reported?

We would appreciate receiving a copy of any evaluation reports that are available.

14. Give a short summary evaluation of the success of your program.

PROGRAM COST

15. Over the last year, what has been the approximate cost to operate your programs?

$_____ which is _____% of the total school budget.

Please Do Not Write in This Space

16. What percentage of financial support for your program is derived from the following funding sources?

		Percentage	
A.	State LEAA	_____	☐☐☐
B.	Federal LEAA	_____	☐☐☐
C.	Local Town/City Funds	_____	☐☐☐
D.	Other Government Funds	_____	☐☐☐
E.	Private Foundations	_____	☐☐☐
F.	Other (please specify)		☐☐☐
	_____	_____	
	_____	_____	

Total = %

17. Referring to the program types you previously prioritized in Question 5, please rank them according to the dollar amount expended on each (i.e., 1 = largest expenditure, 2 = next largest expenditure, etc.):

Environmental

☐ Building Securi ☐

☐ Target Hardening ☐

☐ Architectural Design ☐

Behavioral

☐ Offender Accountability/Responsibility ☐

☐ Behavior Change in Students ☐

☐ Human Relations ☐

Please Do Not Write in This Space

System

- ☐ Community Relations ☐
- ☐ Institutional Change ☐
- ☐ Curriculum Innovation ☐

18. When calculating your vandalism estimates, do you include losses due to (check one): ☐

- ☐ 1 Willful or malicious acts
- ☐ 2 Accidental damages
- ☐ 3 Both

19. When you calculate the dollar loss due to vandalism, do you include (check one): ☐

- ☐ 1 Costs which may be reclaimed from an insurance agency
- ☐ 2 Costs which cannot be or are not being reclaimed from an insurance agency
- ☐ 3 Both

20. When you report the vandalism in your district, do you describe vandalism in terms of (check each of those which apply):

- ☐ Financial cost of physical property damage ☐
- ☐ Effects on educational programs or groups of individuals in the school ☐
- ☐ Number of discrete events or incidents ☐

Please Do Not Write in This Space

21. Which of the following do you include when calculating your district's vandalism rates (check each of those which apply):

- ☐ Property destruction
- ☐ Defacing property
- ☐ Graffiti
- ☐ Arson
- ☐ Fires of mechanical or non-deliberate nature
- ☐ Glass breakage
- ☐ Burglary
- ☐ Theft or larceny
- ☐ Unlawful breaking and entering
- ☐ Loitering
- ☐ Bombing and bomb threats
- ☐ Deliberate damage to automobile property
- ☐ Littering
- ☐ Miscellaneous disappearance of property and equipment
- ☐ Normal wear and tear
- ☐ Other _____

22. When you calculate the costs of vandalism in your district, which of the following do you include (check each of those which apply):

- ☐ Cost of insurance premiums
- ☐ Cost of implementing and running vandalism program(s)
- ☐ Costs of purchasing or maintaining hardware or security systems
- ☐ Costs of replacing or repairing damaged, defaced or stolen property
- ☐ Costs of routine maintenance or repairs

Thank you.

We may get back in touch with you for further information on the success of your program(s). Please include any descriptive information you may have, and do not feel limited by the questionnaire format.

Further comments are welcome.

APPENDIX B

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

APPENDIX B

Analysis and Interpretation of Data

Program Types

In examining responses to the questionnaire administered to school districts, we were struck by the apparent lack of variety of programs being offered in schools. Of the 107 respondents, 59% rated their (A.1) building security programs as their highest priority anti-vandalism effort. Although the main idea behind a security program is to watch the school for intruders or for acts of vandalism, the watching has taken a number of forms. The security measures included hardware systems, security personnel, community security, student security teams, and other kinds of protective techniques. Taken as a whole, all the environmentally related programs which included installation of lexan/plexiglass windows, fences, and alteration of the school grounds itself to become more resistant to destruction accounted for 67% of the programs surveyed. This left a scant 20% of school systems selecting Behavioral Programs as their highest priority and only 13% opting for System Programs as their highest priority.

Of the Behavioral Programs, (B.1) Offender Accountability/ Responsibility Programs were identified as the most important most frequently, amassing 8% of the total first choice responses. These programs are aimed at apprehending, identifying, and asking vandals or their parents to replace or restore property.

The least identified program (3%) were programs targeted at (C.2) Institutional Change. These are programs that attempt to fundamentally alter the disciplinary, legal, or organizational policies or practices that exist in the public school. A summary of the results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. First-Priority Vandalism Measures

Type of Program	Percent
ENVIRONMENTAL	67%
1. Building Security	59%
2. Target Hardening	5%
3. Architectural Change	3%
BEHAVIORAL	20%
4. Offender Accountability	8%
5. Behavior Change	8%
6. Human Relation	4
SYSTEM	13%
7. Community Relations	4%
8. Institutional Change	3%
9. Curriculum Innovation	6%

Participation in the Programs Surveyed

In our questionnaire we asked Superintendents to indicate who was directly involved in the implementation of their school vandalism reduction efforts. As would be anticipated, 58.1% of the programs directly involved school administrators, 55.9% directly involved school security directors, and 46.6% directly involved building maintenance personnel. However, we find that only 23.1% of the programs directly involved students in the vandalism reduction effort.

Comment: This finding is surprising in light of the success experienced in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania and Prince George's County, Maryland which directly involved youths as a student security staff.

A 1975 study from the Center for Social Organizations of Schools at Johns Hopkins by James McPortland and Edward McDill reports that student access to the policy and decision making processes often increase student commitment to the school and can reduce student crime.[16]

Students can be a valuable resource in approaching and responding to problems in a school. The Massachusetts State Department of Education has developed an Office of Student Services which is partially operated by high school students. They have developed

---

[16] "Research on Crime in the Schools", James M. McPortland and Edward L. McDill, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 1975, p. 22.

materials on student decision-making and are advocates for the increased involvement of students in responding to school problems.

Equally dramatic is the fact that only 15.2% of the programs surveyed directly involve community members in participating in their vandalism prevention efforts. Comment: Communtiy involvement, which has been shown to be most promising in Flint, Michigan and Memphis, Tennessee, seems to be almost non-existent among the programs surveyed.

In an Interim Report from the Office of Community Education Research at the University of Michigan, it was concluded in part:

> "While final results are not yet available, a study of vandalism in 13 school districts which included Atlanta, Georgia, Flint, Michigan, and several smaller communities in Colorado, Illinois, Michigan, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, and Utah, indicates that both the number of incidents and cost of vandalism decrease with the implementation of Community Education.
>
> Drops in vandalism of over 50% were not uncommon in the 13 communities studied: this in spite of the fact that in some of the communities studied, the community school programs were housed in buildings with the greatest vandalism problems."[17]

School Vandalism Reporting Practices

Another purpose of the questionnaire was to clarify how local school districts define and report vandalism. We were particularly interested in knowing what behaviors and costs local districts

[17] From Senate Subcommittee, p. 64

were including. In addition, we were concerned about the possibilities of setting some limits to the term of vandalism.

In most of the research literature and the literature on vandalism programs, certain behaviors appear repeatedly under the vandalism rubric. Our search of the literature discovered that 15 acts or offenses are consistently mentioned. Each of the school districts receiving a questionnaire was asked to indicate which of these 15 offenses it included when calculating vandalism rates. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Offenses Included Under Vandalism

Offense	Percent	Offense	Percent
Property destruction	99%	Theft or larceny	84%
Defacing property	89%	Breaking and entering	84%
Graffiti	61%	Loitering	9%
Arson	78%	Bombing and bomb threats	3%
Glass breakage	99%	Littering	19%
Burglary	88%	Normal wear and tear	1%
Fires of mechanical or non-deliberate nature			24%
Deliberate damage to automobile property			44%
Miscellaneous disappearance of property and equipment			88%

The numbers represent the percentage of the responding districts that included each offense in its vandalism tally. The figures in Table 3 warrant close attention to the actual range of

offenses which districts use in calculating their vandalism rates. For example, almost all districts surveyed include property destruction, and glass breakage in calculating their vandalism rates, yet for an offense such as deliberate damage to automobile property, bombing and bomb threats, or graffiti, tremendous variation in reporting practices exist. Interestingly, 24% of the districts indicated that they include fires of mechanical or non-deliberate nature in calculating their vandalism rates.

In addition, school districts were asked to indicate whether or not the intent of property destruction was taken into account. Sixty-two percent of the responding districts reported that their estimates of property loss included only willful or malicious acts; no one stated that their estimates included only accidental damage; and 38% of the districts indicated that they included both accidental and malicious property destruction when estimating their vandalism losses. We were surprised to find school districts including damage which was of an accidental nature as part of their vandalism costs.

We were also interested in knowing how financial costs of vandalism were computed for local school districts. *When asked how they calculated their dollar losses, 6% of the responding districts indicated they included only those dollars which could be reclaimed from an insurance company. Thirty-one percent of the districts reported their losses were calculated only on the basis*

of dollars which could not or were not currently being reclaimed from an insurance company. Sixty-three percent of the responding districts stated that their dollar costs were figured on the basis of both reclaimable and nonreclaimable losses. An interesting footnote to these figures is that a far greater proportion of suburban school districts than urban ones used both reclaimable and nonreclaimable costs to estimate vandalism losses. In addition, the distribution of school districts which did not or could not reclaim losses through an insurance company was skewed toward the urban areas. The importance of these figures becomes evident when trying to discern who suffers the greater amount of property loss, the urban districts or the suburban.

The sampled school dis icts were also asked to specify whether their vandalism rates were figured on the basis of financial losses, educational or social costs, or discrete incidents. Thirty-three percent of the responding districts reported that they used only dollars to describe their vandalism; 2% used only some measure of educational cost; and 6% used only discrete events. Most school districts used some combination of measures. Five percent of the districts included both financial and educational losses; 40% used financial losses and discrete events; while another 14% included all three measures. The use of direct financial cost to describe or calculate vandalism rates is clearly the most common measure.

Finally, schoo' districts which used dollars to calculate their vandalism losses were asked to indicate exactly what financial costs they included. Ten percent of the responding districts

built on the shakiest of statistical foundations. Unless a single definition or set of definitions is agreed upon, the chances are bleak for any accurate data on incidents.

From our experience the likelihood that administrators from the victimized schools would agree on a single definition is small. The crux of the problem, however, involves not an agreement on a definition, but a common bookkeeping method for tallying incidents and costs. Local school districts should probably continue defining vandalism in whatever way suits their own needs. However, consistent categories of vandalism acts and costs need to be built into each reporting system.[18] This would allow districts flexibility in the kinds of categories to keep data on, and would give researchers data that is uniform from district to district. Perhaps the most realistic way to make this happen would be to focus on developing coherent reporting procedures within the existing administrative and security mechanisms. This would, at least, provide some consistency in the vandalism data. As it stands, much of the data on vandalism incidents and costs is simply uninterpretable.

A few guidelines would be helpful in creating a standardized system for reporting vandalism:

1. Vandalism should be used as a generic term covering a host of not-necessarily-related offenses. Vandalism has taken

[18] Such a task is far more complicated than may be presumed and is beyond the scope of this volume.

included the costs of their annual insurance premiums; 45% included the costs associated with implementing or running a vandalim program; 55% included the costs of purchasing or maintaining a security or hardware system; 94% included the costs of replacing or repairing damaged, defaced, or stolen property; and 12% included the costs of routine maintenance or repairs. Again, suburban school districts were more apt to include a wider variety of costs than were the urban districts.

Comment: The statistical biases notwithstanding, the survey has some interesting results, more specifically involving the discrepancy in reporting practices across schools and specifically between urban and suburban school districts. In addition, contrary to the belief of some that districts actually underreport their losses, our findings suggest that many districts use a great deal of latitude in their reporting practices. Finally, despite some general patterns in the data, the survey results confirmed our original impression that there exists a lack of uniformity in reporting practices.

Toward More Accurate Vandalism Reporting

Simply stated, there is little uniformity or consistency in the way school districts define and report vandalism. The statistical impact of these inconsistencies is rather disconcerting. For the last several years, theories of causation, arguments over the extent of vandalism, and vandalism reduction programs have been

on the ambiguity and inconsistencies of the term delinquency. Neither term encompasses a homogeneous set of behaviors or offenses.

2. When calculating incidents, consideration should be given to figuring and reporting separate data on each category of property damage, e.g., graffiti, bombings, arson, burglary, theft, defacing property, and property destruction. Each offense has its own set of reporting problems; it does not help to compound the error by adding numbers that are unrelated.

3. Although there is a strong argument for using a broad definition of vandalism when computing financial losses, the costs associated with normal wear and tear or mechanical failure are not legitimate additions.

4. The issue concerning the intent of property destruction is unresolvable at this point; we need, initially, to improve the accuracy and consistency of data gathered at each district.

APPENDIX C

LITERATURE REVIEW

APPENDIX C:

Vandalism in Schools: A Review of the Research *

Over the last several years, increasing attention has been given to the problem of crime in the schools. It is hardly news, by now, that American public schools are experiencing a rash of violent and disruptive events. A recent congressional investigation led Senator Birch Bayh to conclude that, "It is an unfortunate but very real fact of life for a growing number of students and teachers across the country that the primary task in their schools is no longer education, but preservation" (McPartland and McDill, 1977). It comes as little surprise, then, that the Eighth Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Towards the Public Schools lists "lack of discipline" as the respondents' main concern (Gallup, 1976).

A great deal of professional literature reflects the concern felt by those in the schools each day. That literature falls into three broad categories: one, literature on the types, nature and extent of school crime; two, literature on the characteristics of those who commit crimes in schools; and three, literature on the characteristics of schools experiencing high rates of crime. The purpose of this paper is to review the current research in these three areas on one aspect of school crime: vandalism. In addition, the paper will discuss methodological problems in the research and will summarize areas in which work is still needed.

* Prepared by Michael D. Casserly

Nature and Extent of School Vandalism:

Although the term, vandalism, has had currency since the Dark Ages, modern-day researchers have been unable to agree on how to define, classify and tally it. In order to understand and critique the research findings, it is essential to have a firm grasp of the various ways that vandalism has been defined and categorized. The inability to approach the problem in a uniform manner has made it most difficult to estimate with even modest consistency the true extent and nature of the property destruction. These definitions will be discussed before we examine the research evidence.

a. Definitions of Vandalism in Schools:

The closest thing to an official definition of vandalism is offered by the FBI in its Uniform Crime Reports: "The willful or malicious destruction, injury, disfigurement, or defacement of property without the consent of the owner or person having custody or control." This definition is similar to that found in Webster's: "The willful or malicious destruction or defacement of public or private property." Marvin et al (1976) have pointed out that these definitions are too broad, covering everything from arson and window breaking to graffiti. Instead, Marvin defines school vandalism as the "wanton destruction of facilities, equipment, and student projects." In these two approaches rest the two seeds of the definitional fuss: The scope of the phenomenon, and the intent of the destructive act.

Much of the narrative literature on school vandalism reflects

the popularity of the broader approach to a definition. Greenberg (1969), for instance, suggests a most inclusive definition: "acts that result in significant damage to schools." Goldmeier (1974) simply uses "destruction of property" to define vandalism. Baughman's (1971) definition includes "all forms of property destruction, deliberate or not." Ducey (1976) states that vandalism - as a symbolic act - could be anything from littering to arson.

The literature on school vandalism which includes some empirical attempt to estimate the extent of the problem has been more precise in its definitions. This precision has arisen by viewing vandalism as a set of specific behaviors. In its national estimates of the extent of vandalism, for instance, the Association of School Security Directors includes vandalism, theft and arson (Bayh, 1975 p.6). Slaybaugh (1975) includes glass breakage, equipment theft, property destruction and fire damage in his annual surveys of school vandalism. The term property destruction is used to cover graffiti, smashed furniture, destroyed washroom fixtures and other miscellaneous ruination, including accidental damage. Fire damage includes any fire despite the origin. A report of vandalism in selected large cities conducted bi-annually by the Baltimore City Public Schools (1975) includes window breakage, larceny and arson. The Congressionally mandated Safe Schools Study (Boesel, 1977) steers away from the term vandalism, preferring "offenses against the school" which cover trespassing, breaking and entering, theft of school property, property destruction, fires and false alarms, and bomb offenses.

Vandalism is defined and described in the literature also by its intent. In viewing vandalism as an intentional act, Cohen (cited in Shaw, 1973) categorizes the phenomenon on the basis of the significance it holds for the vandal. His definitional categories include:

- Acquisitive vandalism: damage done to acquire money or goods, e.g. breaking into vending machines or pay phones.
- Tactical vandalism: damage done to attract attention or to advance some cause, e.g. damaging the cafeteria to protest bad food.
- Ideological vandalism: damage done to further some ideological cause, e.g. bombing the U.S. Army recruiting booth in the hallway.
- Vindictive vandalism: damage done for revenge, e.g. setting fire to the math teacher's room for flunking a student.
- Play vandalism: damage done as part of a game, e.g. stopping up the urinals in the most ingenious fashion.
- Malicious vandalism: damage done as part of some rage or frustration with the school.

Work done by Zeisel (1976) reflects this concern with the intent of property destruction, but also includes the factor of cost. Zeisel distinguishes between consciously and "non-purposely" motivated vandalism, and between vandalism requiring immediate or eventual school attention. Consciously motivated vandalism requiring immediate attention is termed "misnamed vandalism" - not vandalism at all. An example of this type would be a broken window as a result of a basketball goal being too near it. Consciously motivated damage requiring eventual attention is classed as "non-

malicious, e.g. graffiti; while non-purposeful vandalism needing eventual attention is termed "hidden maintenance damage." The recent Safe Schools Study, (1977) categorized offenses against the school according to whether they were directed against school property, e.g. burglary, property destruction, theft or whether they were directed towards disrupting the school routine, e.g. fires bomb threats and false alarms.

One of the most common means for defining vandalism is according to its costs alone. For the most part, costs are described in terms of "dollars lost." Unfortunately, the concept of dollars lost is not as simple as it might first appear. Besides the costs associated with repairing or replacing damaged or stolen property, there are additional costs due to insurance premiums, prevention programs, security systems and routine maintenance. Many of these costs can vary wildly from school district to school district, depending c geographic location and reporting practices.

In addition to the dollar costs of vandalism, Blauvelt (1976) has categorized school property destruction in terms of social costs. He includes high and low social cost vandalism, and high and low financial cost vandalism. High social - high financial cost vandalism includes such major destruction as burning the school library, destroying school records or other activities which could close a school. Low social - high financial cost vandalism might include a large number of broken windows or damaged vending machines. Low financial - high social cost vandalism would encompass racial graf-

fiti, destruction of minority group student projects and killing laboratory or classroom animals. The last category, low financial - low social cost vandalism, would include such incidents as tire tracks on the school lawn, toilet paper in the trees and painting slogans on gym bleachers. Blauvelt further divides the social costs of vandalism into educational, psychological and intergroup costs.

A recent survey by Bass (1977) was conducted to investigate how school districts recorded their damage. The results are reported in additional detail here because they provide a good summation of previously discussed definitions. Table 1 presents the results of the findings. The numbers represent the percentage of the responding districts that included each offense in its vandalism tally. Property destruction and glass breakage are included most often, normal wear and tear least. It is interesting to note that arson, theft and burglary are less often included in many school districts' vandalism count. The writer suspects that these acts are usually broken out into separate reporting categories. In addition, school districts were asked to indicate whether or not the intent of the property destruction was taken into account. Sixty-two percent of the responding districts reported that their estimates of property loss included only willful or malicious acts; no one stated that their estimates included only accidental damage; and 38% of the districts indicated that they included both accidental and malicious property destruction when estimating their vandalism losses.

Table Offenses Included Under Vandalism

Offense	Percent	Offense	Percent
Property destruction	99%	Arson	78%
Glass breakage	99%	Graffiti	61%
Defacing property	89%	Deliberate damage to automobiles	44%
Burglary	88%	Bombing & bomb threats	33%
Disappearance of property	88%	Fires of mechancial or non deliberate nature	24%
Theft or larceny	84%	Littering	19%
Breaking and entering	84%	Loitering	9%
		Normal wear & tear	1%

The districts were also asked to specify the nature of the financial costs of vandalism in local school districts. When asked how they calculated their dollar losses, 6% of the responding districts indicated they included only those dollars which could be reclaimed from an insurance company. Thirty-one percent of the districts reported their losses were calculated only on the basis of dollars which could not or were not currently being reclaimed from an insurance company. Sixty-three percent of the responding districts stated that their dollar costs were figured on the basis of both reclaimable and non-reclaimable losses. An interesting footnote to these figures is that a far greater proportion of suburban school districts than urban ones used both reclaimable and non-reclaimable costs to estimate vandalism losses. In addition, the distribution of school districts which did not or could not reclaim losses through an

insurance company was skewed toward the urban areas.

The sampled school districts were also asked to indicate whether their vandalism rates were figured on the basis of financial losses, social losses or discrete incidents. Thirty-three percent of the responding districts reported that they used only dollars to describe their vandalism; 2% used only some measure of social cost and 5% used only discrete events. Most school districts used some combination of measures. 5% of the districts included both financial and social losses; 40% used financial losses and discrete events; while another 14% included all three measures. The use of dollars to calculate vandalism rates is clearly the most common measure.

Finally, school districts which used dollars to calculate their vandalism losses were asked to indicate exactly what financial costs they included. 10% of the responding districts include the costs of their annual insurance premiums; 45% included the costs associated with implementing or running a vandalism program; 55% included the costs of purchasing or maintaining a security or hardware system; 94% included the costs of replacing or repairing damaged, defaced or stolen property; and 12% included the costs of routine maintenance or repairs. Again, suburban school districts were more apt to include a wider variety of costs than were the urban districts.

The results of the Bass (1977) survey need to be viewed cautiously, however. Although school districts were chosen randomly, Bass used a mailout questionnaire of unknown reliability. Only 43% of the districts responded to the questionnaire and did so unevenly on the

basis of their urban, rural or suburban location.

Much of the literature discussed so far has been devoted to categorizing the phenomenon of vandalism. Few of the studies, except for the Bass (1977), Boesel (1977), Slaybaugh (1975) and Baltimore City (1975) studies have even tried to find incident rates for their respective categories. This negligence is unfortunate because we are left with little means for objectively and empirically comparing each of the classification schemes. Each of the approaches, however, needs to be kept in mind as we discuss the research since the findings are based on definitions which are highly variant.

b. Extent of School Vandalism:

Several attempts have been made to develop a nationwide picture of vandalism in the schools. Although those efforts collectively suffer from several serious limitations, which will be discussed later, they do provide a rough estimate of the magnitude of the overall problem. The earliest study estimating the national cost of vandalism was conducted by the Office of Education (Rubel, 1977 p.253). This study, which included both theft and arson in its vandalism count, estimated that vandalism accounted for about $100 million in property losses annually. A year later, the National Education Association (Rubel, 1977) calculated the losses of the schools at $200 million annually. This $200 million figure was published in several sources and acted as the official estimate for a number of years.

Between 1972 and 1975 several studies appeared that attempted to

bring the national school vandalism picture into focus. Furno and Wallace (1972) estimated the national loss due to school vandalism at $150 million. The Educational Research Service (1974) placed the national costs at $86 million. An extrapolation of data in Slaybaugh's survey (1975) indicates that the national loss to be about $100 million (Rubel, 1977 p.257). On the basis of an informal phone survey of 25 school districts for Market Data Retrieval, Inc., Dukiet (1973) estimated the costs attributable to vandalism at $260 million, and those associated with school security at an additional $240 million. The combined estimates were later published in a nationally circulated news weekly (Newsweek) and formed the basis of a great deal of testimony before the 1975 Senate Subcommittee Hearings to Investigate School Violence and Vandalism (Bayh, 1975). In 1975, the National Association of School Security Directors released survey findings that, when extrapolated, resulted in a national estimate of school crime at $594 million (Grealy, 1975). Later, others in the popular press rounded the figure to an even $600 million and applied it to losses due solely to vandalism.

The discrepancies in these estimates resulted, understandably, in a great deal of confusion. Three studies were then commissioned: The AIR Study (Klaus, 1977) by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, LEAA, Department of Justice; the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) survey and the NIE Safe Schools Study (Boesel, 1977) both by the Congress. The AIR study, which served as one piece of a large effort to pool the resources of

LEAA and the Office of Education in fighting school crime, estimated the annual cost of vandalism at $180 million. This estimate was derived from data gathered through the NCES survey. The NCES portion of the Congressionally mandated Safe School Study consisted of a survey of 8,000 schools in 4,000 school districts. Figures were collected on the numbers of offenses committed on school premises between September 1, 1974 and January 31, 1975 which had been reported to the police. The $90 million vandalism loss experienced in the five month study period was extrapolated to give an estimate of approximately $216 million per year.

The NIE portion of the Safe Schools Study, (Boesel, 1977) provides, however, the best picture of the extent and nature of school vandalism. This study was conducted in three phases, two of which are of interest here. Phase I involved a mail survey of 5,578 public schools. Each school was asked to report the number of incidents occurring in selected 1 month periods between February, 1976, and January, 1977, excluding summer months. A total of 4,014 (72%) schools returned completed forms. Phase II involved an in-depth and on-site survey of 642 randomly selected public junior and senior high schools. Respondents included principals, teachers and students. The purposes of this phase were to collect victimization data and to collect information on the characteristics of the schools and communities in which crime most often occurred. In each phase, the sample was stratified to represent schools in the following four categories: 1.) large cities, 2.) small cities, 3.) suburban areas and 4.) small towns

and rural areas. The results of this study indicate that the total costs of damage in schools in a typical month was about $7.8 million or $94 million per annum. Approximately 24,000 of the nation's 84,000 schools report some vandalism each month. The discrepancy between the $94 million and the $216 million estimates may, in part, be explained by the fact that the NIE survey, unlike the NCES study, uncovered no acts of arson, typically the most expensive form of vandalism. Given this, it would appear that the most accurate estimate of school vandalism stands at about $200 million a year (Boesel, 1977). A summary of the estimates is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Summary of Estimates of Extent of Vandalism

Study	Year of Estimate	Estimated Loss Per Year
1. Office of Education	1969	$100 million
2. NEA Study	1970	$200 million
3. Tarno and Walla	1972	$150 million
4. Educational Research Service	1974	$ 86 million
5. Slaybaugh	1975	$100 million
6. Market Data Retrieval	1973	$260 million
7. National Association of school Security Directors	1975	$594 million
8. American Institutes for Research	1977	$180 million
9. National Center for Educational Statistics	1975	$216 million
10. NIE Safe School Study	1976	$ 94 million
NIE Best Estimate	1976	$200 million

The second component of the general question of the extent of school vandalism involves the trends in property destruction over time. Much of what is known of this aspect of vandalism, however, must be gleaned from the literature on a city by city basis. Bellevue, Washington, for instance, reported losses of $1.35, $1.44, $2.11 and $3.03 per pupil for the 1970 through 1973 school years (Bayh, 1975 cited in Klaus, 1977). Wichita, Kansas (Bayh, 1975 p.25). reports that over the ten year period between 1963 and 1973, the overall cost of vandalism jumped from $18,777 per year to $112,117. From a survey of 120 California school districts, Greenberg (1969) found that the total losses due to vandalism amounted to $1.7 million in 1965-66 and to $3.0 million in 1967-68. Studies by Slaybaugh (1973, 1974, 1975) also show that, except for 1975 when there was a decline, there has been an increase in the average dollar amount spent by school districts to fix damaged property. Data collected by Rubel (1977) show, in addition, that between 1964 and 1976 the vandalism arrest rate for 15-17 year olds rose sharply.

There is other evidence, however, which suggests that vandalism may be declining in severity or, at least, may be getting no worse. An examination of the surveys done between 1970 and 1974 by the Baltimore City Schools of 31 major urban school systems shows that 18 systems experienced an increase in dollars lost to vandals while 13 declined or showed no change. The overall ten percent rise in costs due to vandalism in those 31 cities is more than offset by the thirty percent increase in the Consumer Price Index

for Urban Workers during the same period. Watson (1976) has shown from data collected in Baltimore, Berkeley, Dade County, Detroit, Gary and Los Angeles during the 1972-73, 1973-74, 1974-75 school years that the overall trend in vandalism and other offenses is down. From its annual polls of teacher opinion about pupil behavior, the National Education Association (1974, 1976) indicated in 1974 that 11.4% of the responding teachers reported having their personal property deliberately damaged by students. 8.9% of the responding teachers reported the same experience in 1976. Gold (1972) conducted a number of surveys of adolescent self-reporting of property destruction and other offenses between 1967 and 1972. His findings indicate that student participation in acts of vandalism declined over that period. In addition to these studies, the NIE Safe School Study (Boesel, 1977) found, from their survey of school principals, that the percent of respondents claiming that vandalism was a serious problem remained about 8% or 9% from 1971 to 1975. These perceptions of seriousness correlated significantly ($r = .9$, $p < .005$) with the actual number of offenses in the schools. A summary of the research is presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Summary of Research on Vandalism Trends

Study	Time Period	Variable Analyzed	% Change in vandalism	% CPI Change
1. Greenberg	1965-1968	Dollars lost	+ 76	
2. Wichita	1963-1973	Dollars lost	+497.1	
3. Bellevue	1970-1973	Dollars lost	+124.4	
4. Rubel	1964-1976	Arrest rates	+100	
5. McGowan (1973)	1964-1968	Burglary, larceny	+ 85.5	
6. Bayh (1975)	1970-1973	Burglaries	+ 11.8	
7. Baltimore City	1970-1974	Dollars lost	+ 10.0	+ 30.0
8. Watson	1972-1974	Incidents		
9. Nea	1974-1976	Reported losses	- 28.1	
10. Gold	1967-1972	Student Participation		
11. Safe Schools	1971-1975	Perceived seriousness	- 0.0	

The research on the seriousness of the vandalism phenomenon is by no means conclusive. Readings of identical data have elicited widely varying interpretations of the magnitude of the problem. Dukiet (1975), for instance, claims that the losses due to property damage would equal the nation's annual textbook-bill. Rubel (1977) figures that the total loss in dollars amounts to only one-half of one percent of the total gross value of all school property in the country. The author of the Safe Schools Study (Boesel, 1977) offers this tentative answer to the question, "How bad is it?": it is worse than fifteen years ago but about the same as five years ago.

c. Nature of School Vandalism:

A number of studies done over the past ten years have focused on the kinds of property offenses being committed in schools. One of the first of these studies gave special attention to the targets of property destruction. A survey of 232 school districts conducted by Bradley (1967) showed that 36% of the schools' losses were due to damages to lavatories, doors and walls, furniture and the grounds; 21% were due to damaged textbooks; 19% from maintenance costs due to theft, breaking and entering, equipment damage and glass breakage; 7% were due to damaged library facilities; and another 3% were miscellaneous damages. Results of Slaybaugh's (1975) survey of schools indicate that the building itself was the most common target of vandalism - followed by the classroom, washroom, school bus and cafeteria. Slaybaugh's data should be viewed cautiously; they are based on a questionable sampling method and a meager 15% response

rate. Data from the NCES portion of the Safe Schools Study (1977) indicate that, of the total cost ($216 million) to repair or replace property damaged due to crime, 66% goes to damages to school equipment; and about 9% goes for damages to school supplies, including textbooks. Statistics kept by the National Fire Protection Association (1973) suggest that about 25% of all school fires originate in the classroom.

Of primary interest in most studies in this field has been the offense itself. Much of this work has been done only in the last five years. The first national study that attempted to draw some boundaries around the kinds of offenses being conducted was done by Slaybaugh (1975). The results of this survey indicate that 39 cents of the dollar was lost to glass breakage, followed by 19.6 cents to property destruction and 15.4 cents to equipment theft. Glass breakage was the single most common act of vandalism while arson was the least, although the most expensive per incident. Close to 95% of all school districts responding to Slaybaugh's survey reported some glass breakage; only 36% of the districts reported any fire loss.

The NIE/NCES Safe School Study (Boesel, 1977) was able to make estimates of the kinds of offenses being committed with much more confidence than the Slaybaugh (1975) study. Of the total 86,593 property related offenses committed in a typical month, NIE (Boesel, 1977) estimates that 16% are due to trespassing, 12.7% to breaking and entering, 15.4% to theft of school property, 48.9% to property

destruction, 5.7% to fires and false alarms and 1.3% to bomb offenses. Surprisingly, many of those offenses are never reported to the police. Only 63% of the bomb offenses and 70% of the breaking and entering incidents are ever reported. The study also examined the number of schools reporting various kinds of vandalism. Of the nations 84,834 schools, 10.9% report at least one incident of trespassing in a typical month, 10% report breaking and entering, 12.3% report theft of school property, 28.5% report property destruction, 4.5% report fires or false alarms and 1.1% report bomb incidents. Of these offenses, the schools lose most per incident with burglary ($183) and the least with bomb offenses ($16), which are typically threats only.

Like crime in other segments of the society, the rate of vandalism fluctuates tremendously depending on the time-of-day, day-of-week and month-of-year. A report by the National Fire Protection Association (1973) estimates that about 78% of all school fires occur after class hours; at least 45% of all fires occur after 10 p.m. Similar statistics on property destruction in general were compiled by the Suburban Cook County School Districts (1975). In addition, Bradley (1967) found that the bulk of all school vandalism occurs in the spring semester.

The Safe School Study (Boesel, 1977) provides an extremely detailed account of what offenses occur when and where. The findings indicate that offenses directed against school property occur most often on weekends, before and after school and during vacation

periods. About 98% of the break-ins and 72% of all other property offenses occurred when others were least likely to be around. On the other hand, offenses that were aimed at disrupting school routine were mostly likely to occur during the school day. From 62% to 73% of all false alarms, fires and bomb threats occurred during regular school hours. Additional analyses of the data show the relative risks to the school of experiencing a particular kind of offense during school, before and after school, and on the weekends. Schools are most likely to experience burglary on the weekend; theft, trespassing, property destruction, bomb incidents and fire incidents during the school day. Those offenses which do occur after hours occur on the weekends, not before and after school. The exceptions are bomb and false alarm incidents which are most like to occur before and after school - when they occur during non-school hours. In addition to these trends, the data also show seasonal fluctuations: break-ins and other property offenses tend to occur most frequently toward the end of each semester, especially in November and December. It should be noted here that the Safe Schools Study gathered no data over the summer months, a period that practitioners indicate is their highest damage months. One further pattern was noted in the data. Offenses against school property and offenses against persons occur complementarily; when one rises, the other falls.

The next section will examine how school vandalism fluctuates by various school, community, regional, sociological and demographic variables.

The Vandalized Schools:

As vandalism became more prevalent in the late 1960's, a number of researchers began to examine the characteristics of schools and their surrounding communities that might account for the high rates of property destruction. It was expected that vandalism, like many other social phenomena, would vary according to the demographic and educational qualities of the schools. The findings in this area have been relatively consistent.

The demographic characteristics of highly vandalized schools were the first variables researched. Work done several years ago by Slaybaugh (1975) indicates that the costs of vandalism were positively related to the size of the school districts. In addition, he found that the average costs per pupil of vandalism ran highest in the urban school districts, followed by suburban and rural. Results of a survey conducted by the National Association of School Security Directors (1975) also showed that the number of burglaries was higher in the large school districts. Work by McPartland and McDill (1975 and 1977) indicates that the size of the school may have more to do with serious disruptions than the size of the district or the size of the community. The writer's own reanalysis of the Baltimore Public Schools (1975) data confirms this notion. Ducey (1976) points out that the only schools that appear to be immune from extensive vandalism are small, private, affluent, highly academic schools and schools with considerable community involvement.

Although the findings by Slaybaugh (1975) indicated that the

urban school systems suffer the lion's share of vandalism, other researchers have uncovered evidence suggesting the problem is as prevalent in the more affluent suburbs. Greenberg's (1975) study of school systems in California showed that "vandalism losses do not correlate significantly with socio-economic criteria." Gingery (1946) had discovered similar results two decades before. Goldman (1961) felt that the level of school vandalism had more to do with the transcience of the local area.

The findings were largely inconclusive until the Safe Schools Study (Boesel, 1977) was conducted. A clearer picture now emerges of the demographic variables correlating with high school property destruction. One of the first of these variables involves regional location. Analyses of the data showed that, in general, schools in the Northeast and in the West run a greater risk of property related offenses than those in the North Central or Southern regions. This pattern was consistent across all property offenses, except breaking and entering which occurred in the South at an equal rate as that in the West. The findings were not quite as neat when one considered the urban, suburban or rural location of the schools. Again, the study has divided offenses into those most likely to occur when others are absent and those that occur when others are present. For the former, results indicate that it is the large city schools which run the highest risks of trespassing, breaking and entering and theft of school property. Property destruction, however, is as high if not higher in the small cities and suburban

areas. The differences in rates of disruptive acts, however, are not generally significant from region to another. The NCES data confirm the notion that school vandalism is not unique to the urban schools. If anything, there is some tendency for suburban schools to experience greater dollar losses in vandalism than schools in other areas. 57% of the total national losses occur in suburban schools, despite the fact that suburban schools represent only 38% of all schools in the country. This particular result should be considered cautiously in light of the Bass (1977) findings that suburban schools tend to include a wider variety of losses in their total vandalism tally.

As one might expect, losses also vary according to the grade level of the school. In general, secondary schools experience greater damage and disruption than do elementary schools. There is some variance, however, within secondary schools. Senior high schools report more trespassing, theft of school property and fires per month than do junior high schools. On the other hand, junior high schools report more breaking and entering and more general property destruction. One interesting finding of the Safe School's study was that a far greater number of incidents are required before secondary school principals rate their schools as having a serious problem than are required for elementary principals. This is not terribly surprising given that some destruction, if not normative, is at least expected among secondary students.

Other findings of the Safe School Study draw the boundaries

tighter around the correlates of vandalism. In addition to those just cited, the study found that vandalism rates were higher in large schools, in schools located in high crime areas, in schools - especially senior high school - where the students lived in close proximity to the campus, and in schools with a large number of non-students present during the day. It is also interesting to note that vandalism was not found to be correlated with teacher/student ratios (which actually vary little from one school to another because of union and Federal regulations), with the proportion of minority students in the school, or with the percentage of students whose parents are on welfare or are unemployed. When the background variables of community crime level, geographic concentration of students, school size, non-student presence and general family discipline were entered as predictors in a multiple regression equation (least squares solution), approximately 19.5% of the total vandalism variance was accounted for in urban junior high schools, 13.3% in urban senior highs, 17.8% in suburban junior highs, 9.3% in suburban senior highs, 39.8% in rural junior highs and 22.1% in rural senior highs.

In addition to the schools' demographic or background characteristics, some research attention has been given to variables within the schools themselves. This is an area, however, which appears to be ripe for further investigation. Surprisingly little effort has gone into examining what actually happens in schools on a day-by-day basis (Goodlad, 1977). Despite this paucity, some evidence suggests that these in-school factors account for the

greatest amount of the total variance.

Prior to the Safe Schools study a number of studies were done on the in-school characteristics of highly victimized campuses. Cohen (cited in Greenberg, 1969), for instance, found that "the highest rates of school vandalism tend to occur in schools with obsolete facilities and equipment, low staff morale and high dissatisfaction and boredom among the students." Goldman (1961) found in low-damaged schools that teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interactions were less formal; teachers had a higher degree of identification with the school; drop-out rates were lower; and students were more interested in their work. Research by Pablant and Baxter (1975) showed that low-damage schools often featured better upkeep, landscaping, and physical appearance.

Again, data from the Safe Schools study (Boesel, 1977) shed additional light on an otherwise tenebrous situation. In general, it was found that vandalism rates tended to be lower in: schools where parents supported strong disciplinary policies; schools whose students value their teachers' opinions of them; schools in which teachers did not express hostile or authoritarian attitudes toward students; schools whose students do not consider grades important and do not plan to go to college; schools where teachers do not use grades as a disciplinary tool; schools where teachers have informal, cooperative and fair dealings with the principal; schools where students do not consider leadership an important personal goal and

schools where rules are strictly enforced. When the variables of school governance, faculty/administration coordination, student academic aspiration, authoritarianism in school, and grade as a disciplinary device are entered into the regression equation, along with the other five background variables; 45.9% of the total variance is explained for urban junior high schools, 27.7% for urban senior high schools, 22.4% for suburban junior high schools, 15.9% for suburban senior high schools, 64.7% for rural junior high schools, and 41.6% for rural senior high schools. Obvously, a great deal of additional variance is accounted for when variables within the school are considered. School vandalism is not simply a reflection of the mayhem in the community.

The Vandals:

The research on the characteristics of school vandals has, in general, followed the same lines as the classic epidemiological studies of juvenile delinquency appearing in the 1920's, '30, and '40's. Despite its strong historical roots, research on the vandal has been largely unproductive; few consistent patterns have emerged. Early research depicted the juvenile vandal as a lower-class minority male with personality problems (Clinard and Wade, 1958 and Bate. 1976 cited in Zweig and Ducey, 1976). Chilton (1967), however, has shown that a large number of vandals come from middle-class backgrounds. Additional evidence for this finding can be seen in the high rates of property destruction in suburban schools. Goldmeier (1974) has found that vandals were, for the most part, white; and

CONTINUED

2 OF 3

Richards (1976) has shown that, in some instances - with graffiti in particular, girls were as likely as boys to vandalize, and that the majority of vandals were in 12-14 year age group. Richards (1976) also found that students who reported having vandalized had no greater incidence of psychological disorders than those who did not vandalize.

Based on the delinquency literature, it has been hypothesized that student vandals were probably not performing well in school. Nowakowski (1966) has found that a high percentage of vandalism in secondary schools was caused by students who had been left back a grade. Greenberg (1975) has found that over 70% of the identified vandals he studied had a history of truancy and that 33% habitually cut classes. Yankelovich (1975) uncovered a positive relationship between students who had been suspended and the intentional destruction of property. Richards (1976) demonstrated that students' daily interaction with authority figures correlated significantly with school vandalism. She concludes that student experiences with the school and its personnel have the most dramatic impact on the decision to vandalism.

The issue of intruder as vandal has received a great deal of attention in the literature. Testimony given before the Senate Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency (Bayh, 1975) indicated that up to one quarter of all property related offenses were caused by intruders. Other literature has suggested that school staff and even security personnel might be involved. The Safe Schools Study

(Boesel, 1977) has found, however, that most (80-90%) property related offenses were caused by students enrolled in the victimized school at the time of the incident. The study did show two exceptions: a large percentage of trespassing and breaking and entering incidents were the responsibility of non-students.

One additional variable that has been examined relates to the family. As part of the Safe Schools Study (Boesel, 1977), students were asked to rate the level of discipline in their homes. The results showed a low but definite negative correlation between family discipline and the amount of school property loss. In general, the correlations were higher for junior high schools than senior high schools.

Methodological Critique:

Despite the quantity of research conducted, the quality is suspect. A number of factors influencing the quality of the research reappear from study to study. The following presents a brief discussion of some of these factors and possible remedies.

a. Definitional problems:

Vandalism, like delinquency, is not a homogeneous term. The definitional issue was discussed in an earlier section, but it bears rementioning: how the term or behavior is defined will have serious implications for the results of a study. At least two studies were found in the literature which added incidents of graffiti, arson, littering and other marginally related offenses in order to compute a single estimate of vandalism. The results, to say the least, are

highly misleading. The research would be better served if separate tallies were kept on each kind of incident. If nothing else, the literature makes clear that each category of property destruction has its own unique properties.

b. Enrollment fluctuations:

Changes in the number of students in a school district, the number of schools, the type of students in the schools and the number of students per school can have a profound effect on the level and nature of vandalism in a school (Rubel, 1977) As far as can be determined, no study reviewed for this paper took any of those factors in consideration when estimating trends in vandalism rates. It is impossible to interpret trends accurately when the base population has changed and is not reported.

c. Scaling problems:

A number of difficulties arise when assigning numbers to acts of property damage. Some offenses; e.g. arson and bombings are so rare in any given school district that chance alone can account for wide fluctuations in their occurence. A number of studies have puzzled over the unsystematic swings in bombings from one time to another. These figures are particularly inappropriate to use when evaluating the effectiveness of various preventive strategies.

In addition, it is almost impossible to compare the incidents of vandalism over time or from one district to another because a common metric does not exist for measuring vandalism. Numbers of incidents alone are insufficient. Because of shifts in student population and

the differences in the enrollment levels of schools, it is important to compute vandalism as a rate, i.e. incidents per student or school (Rubel, 1977). A number of comparative studies have failed to do this, making the interpretation of this data most difficult. The data in the Safe Schools study was treated in a different way, one which has some advantages in terms of stability. Instead of offenses per 1,000 students, Boesel (1977) used the percentage of respondents reporting any offense of any given type. The responses were then weighted to reflect each respondent's chances of being included in the sample.

d. Seasonal fluctuations:

Enough research exists indicating that vandalism rates are influenced by the time-of-day, day-of-week and month that the season should now be considered an important variable in any research study. Several studies in the literature have compared the property damage occurring in December in one district with that occurring in March in another. The assumption is, of course, made that each month is equivalent in terms of the risk of vandalism to a school. Since this is not true, the comparison is invalid. The Safe Schools study (Boesel, 1977) has made this assumption when extrapolating the $90 million loss during the months of September, October, November, December and January to arrive at an annual figure of $216 million ($90 million ÷ 5 months x 12 months = $216 million). Additional research needs to be conducted so that it is possible to weight each month according to its share of the total annual property loss.

e. Problems of intent:

To date, researchers have made little attempt to identify the intent behind property damage in the schools. The amounge of accidental damage, particularly in large schools, can dramatically inflate the vandalism rate. This is a problem especially prevalent in studies using dollar losses as their measure of vandalism. Asking students to report their participation - anonymously - may be one way around this problem, although it raises others.

f. Dollar fluctuations:

In general, dollars are a desirable base on which to figure vandalism losses. Dollars are considerably easier tc define and tabulate than behavior. However, the metric changes from year to year due to inflation. When comparing the vandalism costs from one year to the next, inflation will dramatize current costs while de emphasizing earlier ones. Naturally, this phenomenon increases with time and with the inflation rate. Few studies have taken this into account. One solution would be to use the Consumer Price Index to correct for inflation. There is, unfortunately, an upward bias to the index due to its inadequate allowances for new goods on the market and changes in the quality of goods. In addition, the index is built on goods purchased in urban areas only. Use of the index, therefore, is likely to overcorrect slightly.

g. Reporting problems:

Over the past ten years, the vandalism reporting practices of many school districts have changed (Rubel, 1977). There has been

an increasing sensitivity to the need to report which has influenced policies requiring that records be kept. In addition, schools have changed their record keeping practices for mainly administrative reasons. The kinds of offenses reported under the rubric "propery destruction," for instance, may vary from one year to the next in any given district. Moreover, some districts deliberately underreport their vandalism rates for fear of reflecting badly on themselves (Rubel, 1977). Attitudes on what to report and how much of it to report change from year to yrar, and so, consequently, will the totals. Studies relying on school records have, so far, been totally insensitive to this source of error.

h. Inappropriate statistical analyses:

One particularly common devise for analyzing the change in vandalism rates over time has involved the use of gain scores. These scores are typically used to adjust for initial differences between treatment and control groups. The use of raw gain scores, however, overcorrect for pretest differences by inflating the posttest measure of the initially inferior group, when the differences between groups are random (Horst, Tallmadge and Wood, 1975). In addition, it can be shown that the reliability of gain scores is intolerably low.

i. Design problems:

Most of the studies reported in the literature have been of two types: surveys and ex post facto designs. From a research standpoint, this is unfortunate; measuring a variable like vandalism after the fact is a poor second choice to following its occurence longitudinally

or manipulating it experimentally. The statistical constrainsts around which the ex post facto designs must be worked tend to decrease ones confidence in causal interpretations of the data.

APPENDIX D

ADVISORY PANEL MEMBERS

APPENDIX D: ADVISORY PANEL MEMBERS

Security Focus

Dr. John Minor	Associate Superintendent of Operations Atlanta Public Schools
Mr. Charles O'Toole	Supervisor of Security Seattle Public Schools
Mr. Stan Rideout	Chief of Security Pittsburgh Public School
Dr. Curt Lamb	Architect

Other Programs Focus

Mr. Don Johnson	Superintendent Sausalito Public Schools
Mr. Michael Marvin	Former Director of Research for Better Schools Investigation on School Violence and Disruption
Dr. William Gaymon	Director Peace Corps/Africa
Mrs. Cecil Middleton	Principal Taft Junior High School, Washington, D.C.
Mr. Peter Blauvelt	Chief of Security Prince George's County Public Schools

Untested Program Focus

Mr. Don McElroy	Deputy Superintendent Portland Public Schools
Dr. Jane Mercer	Chairperson Dept. of Sociology, University of California at Riverside
Dr. Mania Seferi	Environmental Psychologist
Ms. Suzanne Piscitello	Assistant Superintendent Lawrence, MA Public Schools

APPENDIX F

RESOURCE GUI

RESOURCE GUIDE

This section is, of necessity, an incomplete listing of resources available to those wanting to reduce vandalism. A comprehensive guide would have been unpardonably long. Our sole intent is to provide you with a starting point.

A helpful hint in the search for resources might be simply stated: "Look at everyone and everything that comes your way as a RESOURCE."

Students are an important resource, as are their parents. A brief check on the employment of parents, for instance, may afford you the opportunity for a guest speaker, or a program manager, or a field trip for your students. Students and parents have taught mini-courses and run projects. In addition, parents belong to groups, agencies and clubs, and can be very helpful if you need expertise or simply a little understanding.

The list that follows presents some of the resources available to you while developing your program. The classificiation of the resources is somewhat haphazard; we suggest you look through all the categories.

ALTERNATIVE EDUCATION

- Directory of Alternative Public Schools Available through: Center for Options in Public Education, School of Education, Room 339, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47401

  This directory contains exactly what its title states. The Centre for Options in Public Education also has a number of other resources that are useful to those thinking of developing alternative education programs.

- Alternative Programs: A Grapevine Survey Available from: U.S. Department of Commerce, National Technical Information Service, 5285 Port Royal Road. Springfield, Virginia (PB-229-728)

  This National Council on Crime and Delinquency report presents a survey and discussion of alternative education programs.

- Alternatives to Suspension. Available from: South Carolina Community Relations Program, American Friends Service Committee, 401 Columbia Building, Columbia, South Carolina, 29201. PRICE: $1.0[illegible]

  This 3[illegible] page handbook presents a number of options for schools in disciplining students. It includes information on such things as behavior contracts, alternative schools, suspension centers, cool-off rooms, pe[illegible] counseling, and parent involve[illegible]

BEHAVIOR CHANGE AND DISCIPLINE

- Rutherford and Swist Behavior Modifications with Juvenile Delinquents: Bibliography 1973 (ED 094 296): Available at most local university libraries or through the ERIC Clearinghouse
  PRICE: $1.50

  This ERIC document contains a lengthy bibliography on resear and programs using behavior modification techniques with disruptive students.

- Student Rights and School Discipline: Bibliography. Available through: Project for the Fair Administration of Student Discipline, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

  This document contains a annotated bibliography of available materials, laws, a papers on school discipline, student rights, and other related topics.

- Benton, A. Dissent and Disruption in the Schools: A Handbook for School Administrators 1971. Available from: Institute for Development of Educational Activities, Inc., Dayton, Ohio.

  This handbook was written for school administrators to help them defuse tense situations that could lead to violence in t schools. It suggests tactical interventions and their moral and legal implications.

- Discipline and Control Update December, 1976. Available from: CROFT-NEI Publications, 24 Rope Ferry Road, Waterford, Connecticut 06386

The Discipline and Control Update is published 12 times annually by CROFT-NEI. The December, 1976 edition contains tips on the use of custodians in vandalism projects. It also described a work program for identified vandals.

- Discipline Crisis in the Schools: The Problem, Causes and Search for Solutions. Available from: National School Public Relations Association, 1801 North Moore, Arlington, Virginia 22209

This Education U.S.A. Report presents an overview of discipline problems in the nation's schools, and some suggestions for local school administrators.

BUILDING SECURITY, DESIGN, AND TARGET HARDENING

- Zeisal, J. Stopping School Property Damage. American Association of School Administrators. 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209
  PRICE $4.95

  This is probably the most comprehensive set of guideline for reducing property damage yet published. It contains a detailed list--with illustrations--of inexpensive design options for reducing non-malicious vandalism.

- Carlton, S.A. Security Notebook: Surveying School Security and Costs. Availab in Security World, Volume 1, Number 2, 1974, pages 26-27, and 46.

  This article appearing in a 1974 edition of Security Worl provides guidance for develop a local school security syste

- Coppola, J.B. An Orientation and Training Program for Security Officers in an Urb High School. Available through: Nova University, Miami, Florida.

  This doctoral dissertation presents information and materials used in an 8-month orientation and training progr designed for school security officials.

- Schoolhouse: Designing Schools to Minimize Damage from Vandalism and Normal Rough Play. Available from: Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc. New York, New York.

  This easy-to-read guide was written for school officials wanting to cut down on damage resulting from accidents and normal youthful exuberance. It contains a list of suggestions on how to inexpensivel reduce accidental property destruction.

- Neill, G. Vandalism and Violence: Innovative Strategies Reduce Cost to Schools. Available from: National School Public Relations Association.

  This report summarizes some research and experimental programs designed to reduce vandalism and violence in schools. It contains a number of suggestions for reducing property damage.

- Security in the Schools: Tips for Guarding the Safety of Teachers and Students. Available from: the United Federation of Teachers, New York, New York.

  This illustrated booklet was written especially for New York teachers, but should be useful to all. The booklet contains very specific suggestions on individual precautions and tips on general security matters.

- Violence in Our Schools: What to Know About It, What To Do About It. Available through: National Committee for Citizens in Education, Columbia, Maryland.

  This brochure was published specifically for parents want: to help reduce violence in the schools. It contains information on how to get involved, on training, discipline, the and family educational rights

- Redmond, J. Personnel Security Officer's Manual 1968. Available from: Chicago Board of Education, Chicago, Illinois.

  This manual provides training information for off-duty policemen working as school security officers.

- Redmond, J. School Security Manual 1969. Available from: Chicago Board of Education, Chicago, Illinois.

  This manual contains a guide for school administrators of legal prescriptions for schoo security and information on what to do if security rules are broken.

- Edgar, J. and King, R. Crime and School Security: NCJRS Bibliography. Available from: National Criminal Justice Reference Service, LEAA, Washington, D.C.
  FREE

  This document is a lengthy annotated bibliography, cont: references on school security measures.

- Baughman, P. Vandalism and Its Prevention. Available through: California Association of School Business Officials, Los Angeles, or ERIC (ED 091 829) PRICE: $2.06

  This report gives an overview of the vandalism problem, and offers some suggestions on how to control losses from arson and other fires.

- Coursen, D. Vandalism Prevention. Available from: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1801 North Moore, Rosslyn, Virginia 22209; or ERIC (Ed 111 051) PRICE: $1.50

  This 26 page report pulls together much of the available information on vandalism prevention. It contains, among other things, an inventory of types of equipment that are available to reduce vandalism.

- References on Vandalism and Security Systems in Public Schools. Available from: Publications Department, National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

  This is simply a list of references on security and hardware systems for schools.

- Violence and Vandalism: Current Trend in School Policies and Programs.

  This readable and attractive Education USA Report summarizes and describes dozens of violenc

Available from: National School Public Relations Association, 1801 North Moore, Arlington, Virginia 22209

and vandalism programs in schools across the country. It contains numerous suggestion for reducing vandalism.

- Student Security Aide Manual. Available from: Pittsburgh Board of Public Education Pittsburgh, Pa.

This eight page manual offers suggestions and guidance for students who are working as security aides.

- Reslock, C. Manual on Property Protection. Available from: Security Section, Administrative Services Branch, Los Angeles Unified School District, Los Angeles.

This handbook provides school administrators with legal information concerning security measures. It offers suggestion on protecting the buildings and on dealing with security violations.

CURRICULA AND FILMS

- Reutter, E. The Courts and Student Conduct. Available through: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 825 Western Avenue, Topeka, Kansas 66606; or through ERIC EA 006 406

  This work is not a curriculum package as such, but is a detailed explanation of the law and how it applies to the schools. The piece covers recent Supreme Court rulings and how they relate to student discipline, due process, publications, dress and appearance, secret societies, marriage and parenthood, and student conduct. It is a thorough document and meant for school administrators and board members.

- It's Your Right: The Law Says ... . Available through: National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

  This color filmstrip was designed for classroom use, and discusses individual rights under the law. The filmclip comes with a record narration and a discussion leaders guide.

- Your Child and the Law. Available through: National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

  This is a packet of 30 booklet and pamphlets written for pare whose children have trouble wi the law. The package includes information on how to find a lawyer and how to give emotion support. There is also a stat by-state summary of penalties for drug possession.

- Juvenile Justice: A High School Curriculum Guide. Available through: Institute for Political and Legal Education, P.O. Box 426, Pitman, New Jersey 08071 PRICE: $5.00

  This experimental curriculum package was developed for and tested in several New Jersey secondary schools. The packag is complete with materials and instructions for use in class- rooms. Areas covered include the courts, school law, school rights and responsibilities, arrests, and delinquency. Classroom exercises are inclu

- Vandalism: The Price is High. Available from: Law-Related Education Program, 2644 Riva Road, Annapolis, Maryland.

  This curriculum guide and 45 minute slide-sh presentation was designed for teachers teaching a special course on school vandalism. The guide

- Violence and Vandalism
  Available from: American Educational Films, Inc., 132 Lasky Drive, Beverly Hills, California 90212

  This 16 minute film comes in 16 mm, 8 mm, and videocassette. The film, featuring Hugh O'Brie as the narrator, discusses causes and possible solutions to inner-city and suburban violence and vandalism.

- Vandals Available from: Walt Disney Film Depository, 11 Quine Street, Cranford, New Jersey 07016

  This 17 minute, Angie Dickinson narrated, film traces what happens to two teenagers who ar caught vandalizing their school The film breaks at specific poi to allow classroom discussion.

- The Vandals Available from: Xerox Films, ABC News, New York.

  This 25 minute film shows how vandalism and property destruction effects the quality of lif

- Youth and the Administration of Justice. Available from: Constitutional Rights Foundation, Dade County, Florida.

  This booklet summarizes the results of a Dade County educat program. It also contains a great deal of information to he start your own program. This i one of the most complete booklets published.

includes workbooks for students. This is one of the most complete and innovative course curricula that we saw.

- Vandalism - Why? Available from: Perennial Education, Inc., 1825 Willow Rd., P.O. Box 236, Northfield, Illinois 60093
  PRICE: $14 (Rental)
  $140 (Sale)

  This is an 11 minute 16 mm film discussing vandalism and the influences of peer groups and social pressure. Several suggestions for constructive projects are offered.

- Facing Up to Vandalism
  Available from: Perennial Education, Inc., 1825 Willow Road, P.O. Box 236, Northfield, Illinois 60093
  PRICE: $21 (Rental)
  $210 (Sale)

  This is a 16 minute 16 mm film designed to stimulate classroom discussions. The film shows inner-city, suburban, and rural junior high school students talking about their involvement in vandalism.

- Dealing with Aggressive Behavior: A Curriculum for Middle School and Junior High: Teachers Manual. Available from: Educational Research Council of America, Cleveland, Ohio.

  This curriculum guide for teachers was developed for The Lakewood City, Ohio, Board of Education to help deal with disruptive students.

• Garrett, J. et al You Don't Have To Love Each Other But ... . Available through: American Institutes for Research, Cambridge, Massachusetts, or (Author) Centre Research Associates, 46 Morton Road, Newton Centre, Massachusetts. PRICE: $2.50	This work is a guide for teachers students, and parents who are involved in the desegregation process. It is ideal for use in the classroom or for informal group discussion sessions. Besides being informative, it is also a great deal of fun to read
• Pritchard, R. and Wedra, V. Resource Manual for Reducing Conflict and Violence in California Schools. Available from: California School Boards Association, 800 North Street, Sacramento, California 95814	This manual contains, among othe things, annotations of some California counseling programs designed to reduce the level of crime and violence in the school The manual also includes a description of an interagency community approach to reducing conflict.
• Olsen, C. Developing School Pride Reducing Vandalism: A Guide for Student Leaders. Available from: San Diego City Department of Schools, San Diego, California.	The manual provides guidelines for student leaders for beginnin student anti-vandalism programs in schools.

- Delinquency Today: A Guide for Community Action 1971 Available from: U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

  This handbook presents advice on how to involve the community in reducing juvenile delinquency

- Quad '74. Available from: Office of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention Unit, ATTN: Quad '74, 3580 Wilshire Blvd., 9th Floor, Los Angeles, California 90010

  This is a directory of youth service agencies and programs to prevent delinquency and vandalism. It was written for Southern California schools.

- Solutions to Conflict and Violence in the Schools. Available from: Yerba Buena High School, East Side Union High School District, San Jose, California

  This booklet offers guidelines for setting up a coordinated community effort to reduce school vandalism.

- School Vandalism: A Prescriptive Package. Available from: National Criminal Justice Reference Service or Centre Research Associates, 46 Morton Rd., Newton Centre, Mass.

  This is the only package available which presents conceptual tools for dealing with school vandalism. It's a must, if we do say so.

INSURANCE

- The Department of Housing and Urban Development runs an effort called the Federal Crime Insurance Program to insure schools, small commercial businesses, and residences against burglary and riots. Although burglary is covered under the policy, general property destruction is not. In addition, ask if your state participates in the FAIR PLAN. For information concerning eligibility, contact: Federal Insurance Administration, Department of Housing and Urban Development, Washington, D.C. 20410, (202) 755-6555.

JOURNALS

A number of periodicals are published that routinely report on successful vandalism and violence prevention programs, and on new techniques in the field. Most of these journals can be found either in hard or microfiche copies at your local college or university library. Much of the information gathered for this report came from one of these journals. It is a good idea to scan them periodically fo. ideas.

- American School Board Journa.
- American School and University
- Today's Education
- Security World
- Nation's Schools
- NASSP Bulletin
- School Product News
- Phi Delta Kappa

A look through the bibliograph of this report can give you specific articles in each journal. Many contain very specific practical suggestions for reducing vandalism.

PEER COUNSELING AND TUTORING

- Cross-Age Helping Program: Orientation, Training, and Related Materials. Available through: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

  This package is a collection of materials to aid in the development of a cross-age tutorial program for the fourth through the eighth grades. Evaluation materials are included.

- Klaus, D. Patterns of Peer Tutoring. Available through: American Institutes for Research, 1055 Thomas Jefferson Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007

  This work is both a literature review and a guide for teachers and administrators wanting to start a peer tutoring program. It includes a discussion on how to avoid some common pitfalls.

- Gartner, A.; Kohler, M.; and Riessman, F. Children Teach Children: Learning by Teaching. Available through: Harper and Row, Inc., 49 E. 33rd Street, New York, New York 10016

  This book discusses some of the general procedures and instructions for setting up a peer tutoring program.

- Peer Counseling. Available from: Professional Information Services, Library, American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009
  FREE

  This is a lengthy bibliograph of references prepared by the major school counselors' professional association. The librarian here is extremely helpful.

- Mainiero, J. et al A Cross-Age Teaching Resource Manual. Available through: La Verne College, La Verne, California
  PRICE: $3.00

  This report is a detailed description of one cross-age tutoring program in Calfornia. Special attention is given to how to train student tutors.

- Harrison, G. How to Organize an Intergrade Tutoring Program in an Elementary School. Available through: Brigham Young University Printing Service, Salt Lake City, Utah.
  PRICE: $2.65

  The author of this work explai how to set up a structured tutoring program using simple school-make materials.

- Ebersole, E. A Teachers Guide to Programmed Tutoring in Reading. Available through: Eberson Enterprises, 120 W. Union Street, Pasadena, California.
  PRICE: $3.95

  This report describes a peer tutoring program at the Soto Street School in Los Angeles. This work includes training materials and tutor materials.

- Klausmeier, H. Tutoring Can Be Fun. Available through: Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, University of Wisconsin.
  PRICE: $1.75

  This is a booklet for upper elementary and junior high school tutors. It is fun to read whether or not you have a peer tutoring program.

PROGRAM EVALUATION

• Hawkridge, D; Campeau, P.; and Trickett, P. Preparing Evaluation Reports: A Guide for Authors. Available through: U.S. Office of Education, Information Materials Center, 400 Maryland Ave., S.W., Washington, D.C. 20202 PRICE: $1.25	This is an easy-to-read guide for school people on how to conduct and write a program evaluation. It also contains a list of references for those who have little background in program evaluation.
• Mager, R. Preparing Instructional Objectives. Available through: Fearon Publishers, 6 Davis Drive, Belmont, California 94002 PRICE: $2.00	This small book is useful to those wanting to set objective and measureable goals for their school programs.
• McAshan, H. Writing Behavioral Objectives. Available through: Harper and Row, Inc., 49 E. 33rd Street, N.Y., N.Y. 10016	This is another easy-to-read on how to set goals for your program and how to write them so you know when they've been obtained.

RIGHTS AND RESPONSABILITIES.

• Emerging Rights of Students: The Minnesota Model for a Student Bill of Rights. Available through: National School Public Relations Association, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209	This handbook contains Minnesota's concept of a schoo rights and responsibilities co It contains guidance on alcoho drugs, appearance, pregnancy, smoking, student records, and many other topics.
• Model Code of Student Rights and Responsibilities. Available through: Center for Law and Education, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138	This is another model code for student rights. It presents information on due process, freedom of expression, right to education, religious expres sion and other topics.
• Model High School Disciplinary Procedure Code. Available through: National Juvenile Law Center, 3642 Lindell Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri 63108 PRICE:	NJLC's version of a model ri h code.

- A Model Student Code. Available through: Phi Delta Kappa, 8th and Union, Bloomington, Indiana 47401

  This is PDK's version of an ideal student rights code. It includes information on suspensions, equal educational opportunity, student searches, involuntary classification, a other areas.

- Ackerly, R. The Reasonable Exercise of Authority. Available through: The National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

  This short 28 page booklet interprets for school princip the implications of recent Supreme Court rulings on various student rights.

- Suspensions and Due Process: An Analysis of Recent Supreme Court Decisions on Studen Rights. Available through: Robert F. Kennedy Memorial, 1035 30th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007

  This booklet was prepared for students, parents, and commun members to help them understa the implications of recent Supreme Court rulings.

- What Every Teacher Should Know About Student Rights. Available through: National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

  This booklet explains for teachers their rights and also the rights of students. It includes information on punishment, discrimination, grades, and other areas.

- The Rights of Students. Available from: Avon Books, 250 W. 55th Street, New York, New York 10019
  PRICE: $.95

  This booklet published by the ACLU is probably the best over resource on student rights. T ACLU also publishes a similar work for teachers.

- Students' Rights: A Guide to the Rights of Children, Youth, and Future Teachers. Available through: Association of Teacher Educators, 1701 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

  This manual was designed for in-service student teachers.

- The Rights and Responsibilities of Public School Students in Michigan. Available through: Saginaw Student Rights Center, 1407 James Street, Saginaw, Michigan 49601

  Michigan's official student rights and responsibilities are laid out in this booklet.

- Code of Student Rights and Responsibilities. Available through: National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

Another one of NEA's numerou works on student and teacher rights and responsibilities in schools.

- From the American Bar Association, Chicago, comes the following:
  - * Catalogue of law-related audio-visual materials.
  - * Bibliography of law-related curriculum materials.
  - * Directory of law-related educational activities.
  - * The $$ Game: A Guidebook on the Funding of Law-Related Educational Programs.

All of these resources provid an excellent starting point f developing and implementing a law education program in your schools.

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

- The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, in conjunction with the U.S. Office of Education, is sponsoring training sessions for teams of students, school administrators, and other school staff. Interested school districts should contact their regional USOE Alcohol and Drug Training Centers.

- In addition to the training programs, LEAA is developing a School Crime Resource Center to offer technical assistance, information, and evaluation aid to districts experiencing crime. The center should begin operation in the late fall of 1978. For further information, contact the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, LEAA, Washington, D.C. 20531.

Aspen Systems Corporation

330 Madison Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10017

20010 Century Boulevard
Germantown, MD 20767
(301) 428-0700

One California Street
San Francisco, CA 94111