ROLE CONFLICT AND THE SCHOOL

RESOURCE OFFICER POSITION

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the

University of North Texas in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

Brenda Marie Cox, B.A., M.A.

Denton, Texas

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main Prof: DR. FRANK KEMERER

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Cox, Brenda Marie, <u>Role Conflict and the School Resource Officer</u> <u>Position</u>. Doctor of Philosophy (Educational Administration), May, 1997, 188 pp., 1 table, 6 illustrations, references, 180 titles.

This was a quantitative study designed to determine the role orientation and role behavior of school resource officers in public secondary schools in a metropolitan area of central Texas. The perception of role orientation and role behavior was assessed by two relevant groups: secondary school principals and school resource officers. Each group's perception of role orientation and role behavior was compared to determine if role conflict was an inhibiting factor in the job performance of the recently created school resource officer position. This instrument relied heavily on the work of James Telb who conducted a 1982 study involving the role perceptions of public safety officers in public institutions of higher learning as viewed by senior patrol officers and campus judicial officers. A questionnaire was distributed to both groups to assess perceptions of role orientation of school resource officers as either service oriented or law enforcement oriented. A statistically significant difference in role orientation was identified between groups on two factors: maintenance of traditional police values and police discretionary powers and handling of behavioral scenarios.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

All the world's a stage,

And all the men and women merely players:

They have their exits and their entrances;

And one man in his time plays many parts....

(W. Shakespeare, As you Like It, Act II, Scene 7)

The word "role" has its roots in theatrical usage, and refers to a part one plays or is assigned in a drama (Biddle & Thomas, 1966). Role theory attempts to explain and predict how actors will perform in a given role and under what circumstances certain types of behavior can be expected. What happens when someone is unsure about his or her role? Even worse, what happens when people disagree about what their roles should be?

Violence on secondary school campuses has been increasing at an alarming rate, based on calls for a police presence on secondary public school campuses (Bushwell, 1993). At the same time, law enforcement agencies highlight the necessity of getting involved in public schools as one key to improving their image with the community (Platt, 1974). Symbiotic relationships have been established between secondary public schools and police departments (Blavelt, 1984; Blowers, 1977). This dissertation examines the role of school resource officers as

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it is perceived by two relevant groups: school resource officers and school principals in secondary schools. Should these two organizations disagree about what behaviors are appropriate, they must be aware of the other's thinking in order to plan, implement, and facilitate the job functions of the school police officer (Biddle, Rosencranz, Tomich, & Twyman, 1966). Studying the role orientation or stance toward crime that public secondary schools administrators want police to take on their campuses, as well as the role orientation that police departments desire from the school, the police officer becomes an important component in building effective police/school partnerships. It will be difficult for police officers to create a positive relationship with youths if these same officers are expected to discipline youths for delinquent behavior in a rigid manner.

Service activities such as counseling, providing access to social services, and showing the human side of the police officer can conflict with the ability of that officer to carry out law enforcement functions such as ticketing offenders for fighting, arresting suspected drug abusers, and maintaining order at school or at school functions. Even crime prevention programs can take on two perspectives: catching criminals or deterring crime through education, depending on the orientation of the officer in charge of program design.

It is often assumed by social theorists that stability depends on the accuracy with which roles are perceived. Thus, persons are presumed both to be aware of, and to share, standards of behavior that are appropriate to persons in various social positions of authority. Without this framework, role conflict can occur. Role

conflict occurs when people are placed in positions where they are exposed to conflicting sets of legitimized role expectations such that complete fulfillment of both is realistically impossible (Parsons, 1951). It is necessary to compromise parts of one or the other expectations or to forsake one's group expectations altogether. Either way, if the school police officer is experiencing differing expectations from the police department and the school administration, the school police officer is likely to feel pressure to lean toward one position or the other, thus being caught in the middle.

Ultimately, that role conflict leads to decrements in performance. Getzel and Guba (1954) found role conflict to be associated with reduced effectiveness of both the program and the actors. Bible and McComas (1969) reported similar findings. Studies suggest that role conflict causes psychological strain as well (Kahn & Quinn, 1970; McLean, 1974). Role conflict inhibits optimum performance by the participant (Owens, 1987).

The stress created by role conflict cannot be in the best interest of the schools, the police, or society.

Research Problem

The problem of this study is the role conflict and behavior of school resource officers as perceived by on-site secondary public school principals and school resource officers and the effect of these differences on the job performance of school resource officers.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions provided a general knowledge base for the study:

Law Enforcement Orientation — The strict law and order approach in carrying out the duties of a School Resource Officer (SRO). When the SRO invokes criminal statues, when violations or offenses have occurred, and the result is an arrest or detention of the offending party, a law enforcement orientation is prevailing. With this orientation, officers may be continuously looking for violations for the purpose of effecting an arrest (Telb, 1980).

Orientation — One's position or direction (Webster, 1991)

Police Discretion — The liberty to use one's judgment in deciding what course of action to follow (Teasley, 1973).

Role — The various offices or positions in an organization which carry with them certain expectations of behavior held by both onlookers and by the person occupying the role (Owens, 1989).

Role Behavior — The response to influence and information received (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Role Conflict — The simultaneous occurrence of two or more role expectations such that compliance with one would make compliance with the other more difficult (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Role Expectations — The verbal or nonverbal clues sent by a member of an organization as to the behavior expected from an actor in a role (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Role Set — The people who communicate role expectations to an actor in a role (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

School Resource Officers (SRO) — All full-time employees of the school or police department who are commissioned as peace officers by the state and assigned to a secondary public school campus. They have arrest powers and are assigned to carry out security responsibilities on campuses or school districts (Telb, 1980).

Service Orientation — The handling of a wide variety of situations in which the law may have been violated that employs some alternative to invoking the criminal process. Arbitrating quarrels, pacifying the unruly, and aiding people in trouble are examples of service. The agent oriented toward service will be looking for situations in which to be of some assistance (Telb, 1980).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is to explore the orientation of school resource officers as the role is perceived by two relevant groups: secondary school principals and school resource officers. A secondary purpose of the research is to examine the perceptions of these two groups to determine if role conflict inhibits the job performance of school resource officers.

Research Questions

Five major research questions are addressed in this study:

RQ1. What are the perceptions of school resource officers regarding their role?

RQ2. What are the perceptions of school principals regarding the role of school resource officers?

RQ3. Do significant differences exist in the perception of school resource officers and school principals regarding the role of school resource officers?

RQ4. Does role conflict occur because of the existence of different role expectations by these respondent groups?

RQ5. Is the job performance of school resource officers compromised because of role conflict?

Hypotheses

Specifically, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H1. School resource officers perceive themselves as service oriented.

H2. Secondary principals perceive the school resource officers as law enforcement oriented.

H3. Role conflict has no effect on job performance.

Background and Significance

Police presence in schools has increased in recent years. Trends in public secondary schools toward increased school violence, increased presence of expensive technology, and a recent surge in drug and alcohol abuse by teens are a few of the reasons why public schools, much like the colleges and universities of

the sixties, are in need of full-time police officers on campus. Law enforcement has long seen involvement in schools as one way to improve its image and overcome many of the criticisms of its culture and its methods of training and indoctrinating its officers. The impact of increased need on the part of schools and the needs and culture of traditional law enforcement and how they will combine to meet the needs of public school students are topics of interest. Much of the role conflict and turmoil experienced by institutions of higher learning in the area of developing police school partnerships may well be avoided on the public school campus with proper study and planning.

Because violence is on the increase in schools, it has become necessary for schools to employ armed security personnel (Bushweller, 1993). According to the Fort Worth Star Telegram (1995), nationwide violent crime arrests for juveniles, including girls age 10 to 17, doubled between 1983 and 1992. In Texas during that decade, arrests for violent crimes were up 282% for youth between 10 and 16. Tony Fabelo, executive director of the Texas Criminal Justice Policy Council, stated that juvenile arrests far outpaced growth in the juvenile population from 1990 to 1994 (Applebome, 1996). One thing is self evident: educational institutions must provide a safe learning environment for the campus.

By contrast, police presence in schools has been highlighted as a key to improving police-community relations (Platt, 1974). In one Vancouver study (Ellis, 1973) the purpose of the involvement of police in schools was to bring about more positive attitudes towards the police and to contribute to the

improvement of relationships between youth and the police. Another study begins, "Police organizations must continually strive to maintain good communications" (Stevens, 1990, p. 2). Zimmer (1988) states that involvement in schools gives students a realistic picture of police officers, including the human component. Yet, the police culture is rich in traditions that may inhibit their ability to build positive police/community relations. This factor deserves consideration when establishing police/school partnerships because traditional police training and indoctrination into the law enforcement profession may slant the role orientation of the pool of police officers readily available to serve the role of school resource officer. Formal socialization is often considered the role of the police academy, and one of its main purposes is to try to standardize behavior (Manning & Van Maanen, 1978). More specifically, the formal content of classroom instruction is disproportionately weighted toward the law and physical training (Harris, 1973; Lundman, 1980). Numerous scholars have noted the unusual high degree of occupational solidarity among police (Banton, 1964; Petersen, 1968; Rubenstein, 1973; Skolnick, 1966; Westley, 1970; Wilson, 1968). Many times, the campus police officer is removed from the culture when he/she is placed in isolation on a public school campus. Counselors and school administrators may have little or no knowledge of the philosophical beliefs of law enforcement agencies or the training an officer receives in the police academy and in the police subculture in general.

Yet, current SRO design has been to employ existing full time police officers in some type of joint arrangement between police departments and

schools, in most cases with very little additional training. Funding, evaluation, and authority over these joint employees is agreed upon by both the school district and the police department with police departments being the dominant influence. In a recent study reported in the TELEMASP Bulletin (1995), 48% of the officers in SRO positions were chosen by the police department while the remaining 52% were either chosen jointly by police departments and schools or by school administrators alone, and 47% reported that the SRO was not accountable to the school district in any way.

From a school standpoint, having full-time employees on public secondary school campuses who have no duty to report to principals may be contrary to much of the school effectiveness research. Accountability for school success has been put squarely on the shoulders of the school principal (Dwyer, 1987).

Police agencies are obligated to their funding source for survival and, hence, must operate realistically in the interest of the operating structure (Manning, 1977; Skolnick, 1966; Sherman, 1974; Wilson, 1968). Seventy-one percent of Texas departments responded that the school district funded a portion of the SRO program (TELEMASP, 1995). School administrators, in many cases, have been responsible for evaluating SROs as well. It would be unrealistic to say that SROs do not feel pressure to meet the demands of the campus administrator.

Universities and institutions of higher learning implemented the role of campus police officers during the 1960s. Many of the reasons that these institutions wanted police on campus mirror the rationale of the public school

setting. Crime was on the increase. During the same time period, there seemed to be a departure from the traditional in loco parentis (Kemerer, 1990, p. 128) (the concept that schools act in the parents' place while children are in school), and an increase in litigation as related to the universities' responsibilities and liabilities (Nichols, 1985). Many studies on the role and effectiveness of these campus police were conducted in the decades that followed. A study by Meadows (1982) supported the fact that more educated officers seemed to lean toward a service orientation among respondents. Research at the higher education level may provide guidance in the public school setting if we can establish a rationale for replication. Higher education wanted a more service-oriented campus officer, and police departments had a difficult time toning down their law enforcement orientation. College students had to be accommodated because they were consumers in a way that public school students are not. The desires of students for service at the expense of law enforcement may not be as strong in the public school setting. Even so, much of the research done at the college level could be very useful to public schools in development of campus police officers.

SROs, like most police, will be likely to fulfill a dual role. This duality of roles, along with the nature of law enforcement, makes the clear definition of role expectations by the organization hiring the officer, and the personal alignment of officers compatible with the organization through the hiring process, even more critical (Manning, 1977). Role conflict is that feeling of unease resulting from the existence or assumption of inconsistent prescriptions or standards (Biddle &

Thomas, 1966). Sewell (1984) identified role conflict as a key "stressor" common to campus law enforcement work. The manner in which an officer performs his/her role can have a profound effect on the community he/she serves (Waryold, 1991). Role conflict involves a delicate balancing of roles and maintaining that balance can be stressful, especially if the officer's dominant role preference is different from other key players within the program (Sewell, 1984). When SROs in Texas responded to a recent survey, they were asked to identify potential problems encountered in the SRO program. About one-half indicated that the officer's role is sometimes not clearly understood by the school faculty and administration (TELEMASP Bulletin, 1995).

Much has been written regarding the areas of city, county, and state law enforcement, but very little research has explored the position of the school resource officer, especially as the position may involve role conflict. A study of the role orientation of school resource officers is important because students and other academic personnel may expect officers to respond differently than their personal orientation suggests (Jones, 1979). The role of policing, whether public or private, must be consistent with client or community expectations (Johnson, 1981). Determining what the expectations are regarding the role of the SRO would be a positive step in assisting SRO's to fulfill their job responsibilities.

A study investigating the role perceptions and behaviors of school resource officers will aid school administrators in understanding the perceptions and behavior patterns of the school resource officers. The study may assist public

school administrators in the recruitment and training of future school resource officers. Because the literature review revealed that few researchers have dealt with the school resource officer role, this research may encourage further work on the subject. The study may be beneficial in assessing school resource officer programs and aid in developing policy that could improve overall performance, training and job satisfaction. Finally, this research may suggest the replication of other research on police positions in institutions of higher learning to the public school setting. A heightened awareness of differences in perceptions can benefit all involved by redefining roles, expectations and departmental functions.

Methodology

The methods used in this study are outlined in the subsections that follow.

Design

A review was conducted of current literature related to the history of the development of school resource officers. The review of literature provided direction for the study and served to help determine the appropriateness of the questionnaire. The study is quantitative, replicating the design of a 1980 study by Telb adapted through several other studies. It is intended to assess the perceptions of the role of SROs as held by two relevant groups: SROs and public secondary school principals. It was hypothesized that SROs and other school personnel would differ on the role of the SRO and that, because of that difference, role conflict could be present. Because of the desire to replicate the work done at

institutions of higher learning to the public school setting, only slight modification was made from the original design.

Subjects

Subjects for this study were building level public secondary principals and school resource officers in the 27 metroplex school districts in Dallas and Tarrant Counties in the Dallas/Fort Worth metropolitan area. All districts that employ full-time SROs were chosen in these two counties because of relatively small sample size. A complete listing of districts in Dallas and Tarrant counties that use school police officers was compiled by using existing data available through TELEMASP and through personal phone calls utilizing the information in the Texas Public School Directory (see appendix A). Currently, 27 school districts in Dallas and Tarrant counties have police officers in at least one of their secondary schools. Within these districts, 133 secondary campuses have at least one full-time commissioned officer on the campus. Only five districts in Dallas and Tarrant counties do not have commissioned officers in any of their secondary schools. Of the five having no commissioned officers at the secondary level, one had a full time commissioned elementary officer.

Instruments

A questionnaire was selected for use (appendix B). The questionnaire was developed, pilot tested, validated, and used in a previous study conducted by Telb (1980). Telb's study concerned the personal characteristics of public safety offi-

cers on campuses of higher education and their orientation toward law enforcement or service. The questionnaire was later adapted for use in a study by Meadows (1982) that replicated Telb's study and, still later, by Nichols (1985). The questionnaire is relevant and applicable to this study since it is concerned with the role perceptions of law enforcement officers. The questionnaire was modified slightly to reflect appropriate titles and was used with permission.

Telb initially validated the survey by asking two security directors at state institutions in Ohio to review the survey for face validity. Next, Telb piloted the study with four officers from an institution. Revisions were made as needed. Although Meadows made no additional attempts to validate the questionnaire, Nichols (1985) analyzed the instrument for internal consistency measurements using the coefficient alpha measure of internal consistency, resulting in a reliability coefficient of .882. Waryold (1991) made new efforts to validate the instrument. Content validity was established by (1) asking the central staff of the Division of Housing at the University of Florida to critique it, (2) asking members of the executive board of the Association of Student Judicial Affairs to critique it, and (3) pre-testing the instrument with three senior patrol officers from the University of Florida Police Department. This researcher further validated the questionnaire for the current study in several ways including (1) discussion and review by a sergeant over a SRO program in a large urban district; and (2) piloting the instrument with several building level principals and SRO's in a large, urban district. Because the instrument yielded the information desired for this study and because

of the researcher's desire to replicate a previous study, changes in terminology were the only changes made to the instrument. Senate Bill 1, adopted in Texas by the legislature in 1995, addressed the selection and legal authorities of school police officers. Several additional questions were added at the end to determine compliance with Texas' Senate Bill 1 (1995) and to address job performance.

The questionnaire is a Likert design with the following options: "strongly agree" (SA), "agree" (A), "neutral" (N), "disagree" (D), and "strongly disagree" (SD). The original questionnaire was composed of three parts. The first two parts measure role perception (questions 1-15) and role behavior (questions 16-26). Items SA-1 and A-2 indicate a law enforcement orientation, while D-4 and SD-5 indicate a service orientation. Item N-3 represents a neutral or unsure position. The role behavior portion consists of four scenarios with succeeding questions pertaining to the information in the scenarios. The third section contained four demographic questions. SROs and principals were each sent one final section designed to address the issue of compliance with Senate Bill 1's mandates and assess specific job performance concerns. In these final sections the principals were sent an additional 9 questions and SRO's were sent 16 additional questions.

Procedures

In August 1996, questionnaires and an accompanying cover letter were mailed to SROs and to public school principals in the involved districts (appendix C). Respondents were asked to return their completed questionnaire in the

stamped self-addressed envelope provided. A response time of no more than three weeks was requested. All responses were confidential. Follow-up letters and questionnaires were mailed after two weeks had elapsed to those institutions not responding. No new knowledge or pretreatment was given to anyone in the role set prior to the survey. A return rate of 65% for principals and 71% for SROs was received before data were analyzed. Personal follow-up calls and personal visits were made to ensure a high return.

Analysis and Reporting of Data

The resulting survey data were primarily descriptive with frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations computed and placed in tabular form. Data were then divided into two groups: (a) SROs, and (b) building level campus principals. Data were processed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975). The researcher then constructed tables. Responses to all questions were calculated in percentages and analyzed as to their relationship to the research question. Means for both groups were computed and included in the tables. Chi-square and p values were further applied to individual questions in order to determine the statistical significance of the research. Levels of confidence were set at $P<.05$ for all tests. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the significance of the difference in the two groups from their summative responses. Factor analysis

further validated the existence of three distinct variables. and T tests were applied

to these variables to determine if a difference existed on these three factors.

The following research questions and corresponding hypotheses were tested

at the .05 level of significance:

RQ1: What are the perceptions of SROs regarding the role of SROs to the

service versus law enforcement orientation?

All of the questions in the survey (1 through 26) were used to answer

research question number one. Inconsistencies in results were analyzed.

RQ2: What are the perceptions of secondary building level principals

regarding the role of SROs to the service versus law enforcement

orientation?

All of the questions in the survey (1 through 26) were used to answer

research question number 2. Inconsistencies in results were analyzed.

RQ3: Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of SROs and

secondary building level principals regarding the role of SROs?

All of the questions in the survey (1 through 26) were used to answer

research question number 3.

Groups were compared and tested for significant differences in perception

according to role and behavior criterion.

RQ4: Does the potential for role conflict exist because of the existence of

different role expectations by the role sets involved within the SRO

position?

All of the questions in the survey (1 through 26) were used to answer question number 4.

RQ5: Does role conflict compromise the job performance of school resource officers?

The followup questions exclusive to individual groups (1 through 16 on the SRO section and 1 through 9 on the principal section) were used to answer question 5.

Presentation of Findings

Data were displayed in frequency tables for comparison and narrative conclusions were written in the form of summaries. Frequency distributions, means and standard deviations were computed and placed in tabular form.

Limitations

There are several constraints to a study of this type:

1. The socio-economic variables of the schools in question were not considered.

2. The role-perceptions of other key players were not studied.

3. The relationship between school resource officers and funding was not considered.

4. All SROs in one metropolitan area were studied thereby limiting generalizability.

5. Environmental conditions and crime rates at each school were not considered.

6. The selection process of SROs was not studied.

Basic Assumptions

There are basic assumptions regarding this research:

1. It is assumed that each respondent answered truthfully and in the manner prescribed.

2. A questionnaire can be used to ascertain accurate perceptions from school resource officers and school principals.

3. School resource officers have some functions that are law enforcement related.

4. Municipal law enforcement officers are generally perceived to represent the traditional law enforcement role or image.

Summary

It may be that law enforcement personnel want to create positive public relations within the community through the creation of SRO positions. Secondary school administrators may hail SRO programs because they provide easy access to law enforcement personnel to help campus administrators deal with increased violence and the incidence of illegal activity on campus. Through this study, it can be determined if schools and police want SROs for vastly different reasons. This information can be used to strengthen and clarify the position of SROs

through understanding and possibly through compromise. Through application of role theory, if it is determined that role conflict is occurring, some proactive steps may need to be taken to lessen the conflict. Role conflict that is left untreated may cause damage to long sought police-school relationships and cause stress for the SRO trying to do his job. The SRO may be experiencing role conflict or be exposed to competing role expectations. Evidence suggests that role conflict can create a decrease in job performance. Decreased performance can not be in the best interest of schools or police departments.

The literature review revealed substantial research on the role of campus police in institutions of higher education. The role of campus police in public secondary campuses has not been studied in depth. This study may add to the literature review in that it attempts to replicate a higher education study regarding police school partnerships to the secondary school setting. The use of police officers in public schools suggests a need for further research on this newly created public school role and exploration of how the studies in higher education might aid in the formation and development of this role.

The following chapters take a more indepth look at the literature regarding the issues affecting police/school partnerships along with a more thorough discussion of the methodology of this study. Results of data analysis and discussion and conclusions occur in the final two chapters.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The literature pertaining to this study is diverse in nature: descriptive information regarding current trends in the public schools, an overview of the tradition in law enforcement, the evolution of police school partnerships in education both at institutions of higher learning and the public schools, discussion regarding role conflict, and summary information regarding the significance of this type of study.

Trends in Public Schools

Public secondary schools recently have become quite interested in police/school relationships. The research is sketchy, quite possibly because schools do not want to publicly admit that violence is becoming a serious problems (Sabo, 1993), but the research that does exist suggests that deterring crime may be one of several reasons school administrators want police in schools.

Campus disruptions are beginning to escalate on public secondary campuses. In Baltimore, a middle school student shot an unarmed school police-man; and in Portland, Oregon, a teenager walked into a city high school and shot the first teacher he saw in the forehead with a pellet gun (Bushwell, 1993). An

alarming number of violent incidents in schools have made teachers and parents uneasy. According to Bushweller, the debate about arming security guards has even reached rural areas like Columbus, Mississippi, which has 5,900 students in its 15 schools. Larry Johnson, director of security for the Columbus schools, researched what other school systems were doing with their security personnel and found an increasing number of them were arming officers. He added that schools without armed guards usually use numerous other security measures. In September and October of 1993, the Dallas Independent School District in Dallas, Texas seized 246 weapons from students (Fort Worth Star Telegram, 1994). According to the same article, administrators claim to devote a disproportionate amount of time disciplining students, teachers worry about dealing with a disruptive student who could have an assault charge over his or her head, parents consider removing their children from public schools to keep them safe, and students worry about drive-by shootings or being stabbed by a classmate.

Nationwide, the news media report incidents of child abduction and molestation, gang warfare and shoot-outs on school property (Sabo, 1993). George Butterfield, deputy director of the National School Safety Center in Westlake Village, California, was quoted by Sabo as saying,

> In the past eight years, we've seen the spread of gangs across the
> country, and in the last three years, the proliferation of knives and
> guns. More powerful weaponry exists, and young people who are

progressively more willing to use those weapons. (Sabo, 1993, p.

37)

In the same article, Gary L. Bauer, deputy under secretary of education and former

chairman of President Reagan's Working Group on Discipline, stated, ". . . over

three million secondary school children are victims of crime each month, and

school vandalism exceeds the cost of school textbooks each year" (p. 37).

According to a study by the National Association of School Boards, about 3

million crimes occur on or near school property each year (Violence in the

schools, 1987).

The Uniform Crime Reports Summary of Arrest data for Texas from

January 1988 to June 1988 reveals that juvenile males 16 years of age or under

committed 50 murders, 374 robberies, 1,360 assaults, 794 weapons violations,

1,411 drug possession violations, 253 sex offenses, 1,038 disorderly conduct

violations, 9,367 thefts, 1,069 liquor violations, and 4,964 various other violations.

These figures have risen annually. According to the Fort Worth Star Telegram

(1995), nationwide, violent-crime arrests for juveniles, including girls age 10 to

17, doubled between 1983 and 1992. An analysis of FBI crime statistics states

that slaying of youths 17 and under by those 10 to 17 doubled between 1984 and

1993. In the past decade, arrests from violent crimes are up 282% for youth ages

10 to 16 in Texas.

Although violence among teenagers is a serious concern, there are other

historical trends in the public schools which increases the need for law

enforcement. First, the technological changes occurring in public schools today have created an increased need for school security. The mere presence of computers and other expensive equipment make schools targets for theft, vandalism, and breeches of computerized records.

Second, the concept of the open campus, along with the fact that the concept of in loco parentis (the concept that schools act in place of the parents while students are in school) is being challenged, has become a major concern among public school administrators. Public school campuses have become more open as the political climate of the twentieth century requires schools to include parenting programs, drop out prevention programs, and community involvement in general. Because of the increased accountability and legal implications resulting from the departure of in loco parentis attitudes, the assistant principal position has been created to help the school principal and deal with the increasingly complex legal issues regarding student discipline.

Third, arguably, juvenile use of drugs and alcohol appear to be on the increase. Drug abuse by teenagers creates challenges in public schools. According to the National Household Survey of Drug Abuse, approximately 1 in 13 youths ages 12 to 17 smoked marijuana last year, almost double the number in 1992 (Fort Worth Star Telegram, 1995). The Public Policy Institute at Texas A&M University administered the Texas Commission on Alcohol and Drug Abuse Survey in the Spring of 1994 to a random sample of students in grades 4-12 in a large, urban district in central Texas. Forty-three percent of the respondents

reported using alcohol in the month preceding the survey. Binge drinking, defined as the consumption of five or more beers, wine coolers, servings of wine or drinks of liquor at one time, was reported by 46% of the students responding. Eleven percent reported attending at least one class during the past year while "drunk." Another problem facing public schools is parking. More students bring vehicles to campus each year which adds a host of concerns in relation to campus security and safety.

Because of these trends, during the past few decades public schools have been receptive to using commissioned peace officers on public secondary school campuses.

<div align="center">Traditional Law Enforcement</div>

The school resource officer position has been designed primarily by police departments using existing officers; therefore, a review of the training, orientation, and culture of police organizations is warranted in this study.

Traditionally, recruits in police fields have been a demographically homo-geneous group (McNamara, 1967; Niederhoffer, 1967; Skolnick, 1966). Police fields usually attract personnel to whom income, security, and prestige are greater goals than the individual might otherwise achieve (Meadows, 1972). Officers usually come from blue collar origins (Skolnich, 1966). Typically, police recruits have been found to be young, white males with little college training (Bayley & Mendelsohn, 1969; McNamara, 1967). Many officers pick law enforcement as a career for reasons of job security (Niederhoffer, 1967).

In addition to their homogeneous characteristics, police organizations, like most organizations, make efforts to socialize new officers into the police culture. Police officers spend time learning the values, attitudes, and actions characteristic of their work group (Bordener, 1984). Formal socialization is the domain of the police academy, and one of its main purposes is to try to standardize behavior (Manning & Van Maanen, 1978). Harris (1973) lends validity to this apportion by pointing out that academies focus on creating norms of defensiveness, profession-alism, and depersonalization in new recruits. More specifically, the formal content of classroom instruction is disproportionately weighted toward the law and physical training (Harris, 1973; Lundman, 1980). Some argue that, for these reasons, police academy training may distort the image of police work and imply that the law is not discretionary in nature and that the officer's time is disproportionately devoted to law enforcement activities. Scholars have noted a striking disparity between class lectures (the ideal) and conditions of patrol (the real) concluding that academy training on the whole is a failure and contributes to disenchantment within the occupation (McNamara, 1967; Van Maanen, 1973, 1975).

After academy life, police organizations tend to build on the solidarity of police officers. Numerous scholars have noted the unusual high degree of occupa-tional solidarity among policemen (Petersen, 1968; Wilson, 1968). On a broad level, two factors appear to influence police solidarity: the need for support in situations of danger and the isolation of police from the rest of society (Banton,

1964; Skolnick, 1966). Clark (1965) notes that police officers are isolated community members because of (1) a desire for privacy by people and a resentment of intrusion into their private affairs; (2) a history of incompetence and occasional brutality of police; (3) the occasional dirty nature of police work and the general social avoidance of seamy elements in society; and (4) the occupational, professional, and official policies of policing groups themselves. Police officers feel isolated because they perceive the public to be hostile to them (Skolnick, 1966; Westley, 1970). They feel that some of this hostility is created by the mass media (Bayley & Mendelsohn, 1969; Johnson & Gregory, 1971). When an officer puts on a uniform he enters a distinct subculture governed by norms and values designed by his or her outsider role in the community (Bordener, 1984).

Groups are an important part of a person's social identity. Participation in a group shapes the attitudes and self conceptions of its members. The effects of occupational role may be strengthened in the case of the police due to the adversary nature of his/her relationship to the rest of society and, hence, the relative social isolation and forced reliance on their occupational role as a source of identification (Banton, 1964; Skolnick, 1966). While there is in fact some controversy over whether there is a police personality (Balch, 1972), sociologists tend to argue that the world in which police officers work tends to produce certain common characteristics among them (Bordener, 1984). Skolnick (1966) argues that police tend to develop ways of looking at the world distinctive to themselves

as a result of combined features of their social situation. Niederhoffer (1967) agrees that authoritarian elements of the police personality develop after appointment as a result of socialization and experience in police work. Whether policing attracts a certain type of personality or creates one is debatable (McNamary, 1967; Skolnick, 1966). Skolnick (1966) argues that danger, authority, and a drive for efficiency combine to generate distinctive, cognitive, and behavioral responses in police. Cynicism among police results from exposure to the seamy side of life and public apathy (Banton, 1964; Westley, 1970), biased reporting and editorial attacks in newspapers (Bayley & Mendelsohn, 1969; Niederhoffer, 1967), and the low prestige of police work in general (McNamary, 1967; Skolnick, 1966). According to Niederhoff's theory, police cynicism goes through a succession of typical stages and is directly related to length of time on the force. Generally, an officer becomes accepted within the police group to the extent he acquires a reputation for silence (Bordener, 1984).

The orientation of police and the community are important considerations in deciding the role of public policing. In the first place, like other organizations, police agencies are essentially "open systems." Police systems are institutions in which interaction with the rest of the social structure is essential. Not only do the police have a direct influence on elements of the external environment but the external condition has consequences for the character of police organizations and operations (Clark & Sykes, 1974; Niederhoffer, 1967; Reiss and Bordua, 1967). Wilson (1968) highlighted the importance of the environment in shaping police

organizations and operations. Wilson suggests that the primary influence results from the communities and citizens served by the department. Niederhoffer (1967) notes, for example, that the power structure and ideology of the community direct and set boundaries to the sphere of police action as evidenced by selective enforcement practices. Clark and Sykes (1974) argue that the external influences which determine the major tasks, organization, and operation of police include population, ecology and demography, culture, law, politics, economy, and technology. Wilson (1968) goes even further to say that the more homogeneous a community is in terms of life style and values, the easier policing becomes; and, the more affluent the community, the more service oriented it becomes. In communities where residents do not share much in common with each other, policing depends on the orientation of top-level police administrators.

The discretionary component of law enforcement makes the clear definition of role expectations and personal philosophical alignment even more critical. According to Manning (1977), police supervisors have no reliable way to determine what an officer in the field may be doing during his time on the job. As to the disposition of offenders, supervisors are not in a position to determine whether rules and regulations are being followed. Police command is precarious and to a great extent the work of patrol is unsupervised and unsupervisable. The officer who is overly aggressive, who harasses individuals, or who exercises poor judgment not only harms that relationship, but the entire department's relationship. Manning (1977, p. 87) goes on to argue that police actions are "situationally

justified actions." In police organizations, research has documented that routine police work is highly discretionary (Goldstein, 1963; LaFave, 1965). Generally, studies of police discretion show that: (1) there is a normal tendency among patrol officers to under-enforce the law (Banton, 1964; LaFave, 1965; Wilson, 1968), (2) citizen attitudes and demeanor are key elements in shaping police reaction (Black, 1970; Buckner, 1967; Piliavin & Briar, 1964), and (3) a number of factors other than demeanor also influence police decisions and discretionary behavior. Among these other factors are the following: police bureaucracy and policy (Black & Reiss, 1967; Petersen, 1968); local setting (Lundman, 1974; Rubinstein, 1973); policeman's desire to appear efficient and competent (Skolnick, 1966); officer's knowledge of the law (Buckner, 1967; Petersen, 1968); work group norms (Petersen, 1971); visibility of offender behavior (Black & Reiss, 1970; Lundman, 1974); demographic nature of the offender (Petersen, 1968); legal seriousness of offense (Black & Reiss, 1967; 1970; Buckner, 1967); situational demands such as the desires to avoid time consuming arrests when a shift is almost over (Buckner, 1967; Petersen, 1972); predisposition such as the mood of the officer or the manner in which he approaches the situation (Petersen, 1972; Piliavin & Briar, 1964); types of mobilization (Black 1978; Black & Reiss, 1967; Wilson, 1968); and presence or absence of a complainant (Black, 1970; Black & Reiss, 1970; Lundman, 1974).

The role of public policing in general, however, does have service implications. The role of the patrol officer is defined more by responsibility for

maintaining order than responsibility for enforcing the law (Wilson, 1968). Sennewald points out that the singularly conspicuous role of the security department in any organization is that of protecting the company's property, product, assets, equipment, reputation and employees. Such protection constitutes a service to the organization (Sennewald, 1978).

Police have long been encouraged to improve their image. Since 1967, one avenue that police have been encouraged to pursue to accomplish an improved image is involvement in public schools. In 1967, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice reported, ". . . although the Commission's survey clearly indicate that most police departments are keenly aware of serious community relations problems, they have been slow to institute programs to confront them . . ." (Platt, 1974, p. 77). Criminal justice research during the past decade has highlighted the necessity of demilitarization of police officers and has advocated locating full-time police officers in urban schools (Project Star, 1974). The primary purpose for establishment of such programs was to improve the image of police, thus decreasing antagonistic views of police. Some of the police/school programs established recite similar reasons why police/ school partnerships should be established. Zimmer (1988) states that one benefit of police/school partnerships is the realistic picture of police officers, including the human component, that students receive. Pendleton (1989) reviews a program in Hartford, Connecticut which was designed to help students better understand the role of police in modern society. This Connecticut study developed curriculum to

help students better understand the law. A Vancouver study involving police in schools was designed to improve police/community relationships (Hunter, 1981). In the case of Vancouver schools, an officer's involvement in the schools created a more positive attitude toward the police, as measured by an attitudinal survey rather than a control group.

In summary, the orientation of SROs, like other officers, is affected by the components of training, indoctrination, and societal needs and pressures. Therefore, taking existing officers from police departments and changing the subculture they work within can impact the way the officer goes about his/her job.

<center>Evolvement of SROs in Education</center>

Although the police have their own historical rationale for developing police/school partnerships, public schools desire police in schools for reasons of their own. Many of these reasons have already been outlined previously and show historial similarities between higher education and the shift toward police/higher education partnerships. In fact, much of the historical rationale that created a need for campus police at institutions of higher learning appears to be reaching our public secondary schools. Therefore, it becomes important to look at studies regarding campus police at institutions of higher learning to see if these studies can be replicated at the public secondary school level and help to clarify the role of public school police officers.

Higher Education

The research regarding security at institutions of higher learning may warrant investigation by the public school system when dealing with the development of public school and police partnerships. The trends on college campuses requiring police on campus are similar to the trends that are occurring on the public secondary school campus.

Prior to 1900, there was little need for campus security departments on college and university campuses because institutions were small and had few extracurricular activities (Telb, 1980). Walker (1976) reports that during this time, administrators handled disciplinary problems internally, or they sought out local police agencies for assistant. Deans of men and women were appointed to replace faculty as disciplinarians and the 1937 Student Personnel Point of View was adopted to declare the values of a growing student personnel movement (Baldridge, 1978). Powell (1971) concluded that most matters of student misbehavior were handled "internally" through the dean of students office. In other cases, the faculty maintained exclusive control over student conduct (Neil, 1980) and the president was a generalist who performed all administrative tasks and maintenance functions. Many of the nondisciplinary functions of campus police were carried on by a night watchman of sorts. In an institution of higher learning the technology of the 1950s brought change to the higher education campus environment and one specific problem was theft on campus (Powell, 1981) At one major urban university, statistics revealed that theft was by far the

number one crime (Bordener & Peterson, 1983). Dukiet reports a major change in the emphasis of security departments in institutions of higher learning was initiated by the adoption of the concept of the open campus and the fact that the concept of in loco parentis was being challenged by ex-soldiers (Rudolph, 1962). The open campus system brought in many non-students who created security problems (Dukiet, 1973). Other problems facing campus safety on college campuses were the circulation, possession, and use of drugs (Abramson, 1974); the use and abuse of alcohol by students (Mayer, 1981); and parking (Powell, 1981).

The factors mentioned previously, along with the escalation of violence and campus disruptions, created a need for more law enforcement. As campus disruptions began to emerge in the late 1960s and early 1970s, increased attention was focused on campus policing (Telb, 1980). Developing campus police departments was considered because of the universities' traditional views of public policing at the municipal, county, and state levels. Municipal, county, and state police agencies had traditionally avoided involving themselves in law enforcement activities on university campuses (Friedman, 1969). Also, there was a strong tradition in most American universities that municipal or state police did not belong on the academic campus (Cox, 1968). Friedman (1969) contended that there was a widespread belief among the faculty that a university was a sanctuary, and that calling on civil authorities must be the last resort. Statutes were enacted to allow higher educational institutions to hire their own police officers. In 1971, Gerber's study examined statutes from which campus safety officers received

authority. He criticized campus programs because of poor training and recruit-ment and advocated increased budgets and more involvement on the part of campus police. At institutions of higher education, it was only after the aftermath of the Kent State and Jackson State shooting and other campus disturbances that researchers were prompted to examine campus safety operations more closely. A college campus is no more a sanctuary from crime than any public format (Waryold, 1991). The murder of a student at an institution of higher learning prompted the passage of new legislation at the state and federal level that require institutions of higher learning to publish crime statistics to every prospective student and employee upon request (Herschorn, 1987; Tuttle, 1991). Because of increased violence and the accompanying accountability, campus law enforcement departments were placed under increased pressure. During the same time period, there seemed to be an increase in litigation as related to the universities' responsibilities and liabilities (Nichols, 1985).

Research on police at institutions of higher learning increased in volume. Research on campus police at the university and college level began in the late 50s. Etheridge's 1958 study was the first dissertation investigating campus policing. The primary determination was that no administrative relationship between university police and academic personnel existed at the time. Etheridge's study recommended a closer working relationship among students, administrators, and campus safety officers. The study further urged improved hiring and training standards for safety officers. Willard (1978) reported that, between 1958 and

1971, only one dissertation on campus safety and protection was produced. Milliron's doctoral dissertation in 1970 looked at the attitudes of chiefs of police, deans of students, and directors of campus security toward violations of law by college students. Milliron's 40-item questionnaire revealed that attitudes between chiefs of police and deans of students differed. In this case, Milliron reported that deans had a preference for a service orientation while chiefs of police favored a law enforcement orientation. Steven's 1972 dissertation reported the need for more educated officers at the campus level. Willard (1979) concluded that greater emphasis should be given to the elements of experience and training of officers rather than education. Telb (1980) supported Steven's view that higher education has a positive influence on the way campus security carried out their role. A study by Meadows (1982) replicated Telb's (1980) study and revealed that the majority of campus safety officers in California were college educated and that a higher level of education supported a service role among respondent. Meadows' (1982) study reported that higher education had a positive influence on the way security officers carried out their role. Research on police work in general showed a tendency for college educated officers to leave police work. Because traditional law enforcement supplied the pool of officers available for law enforcement positions at educational institutions, this fact created a special challenge for higher education administrators. In his discussion of turnover, Myren (1960) comments:

> When the college-trained policeman does take his place on the
>
> force, he finds that he may be doing any one of a number of tasks

only remotely connected with true policing . . . many of these tasks

are menial in nature . . . chances are his specialized education is

utilized only rarely . . . He finds no challenge, low compensation

and poor chances for advancement. (p. 600)

Safer's study in 1973 explored the impact of a two-week training program on

campus law enforcement officers. Although she reported that the training had no

impact, the study itself was limited in scope. Linetty (1983) pointed out several

reasons that staff development is important: among them, he included "improve-

ment in the department's image, enhancement of function, and skill improvement

of officers" (p. 38).

Research was begun at the college level on exactly how to go about

structuring and evaluating the position of campus police officer. For example,

Kissah's 1973 dissertation developed an experimental rating scale for evaluating

job performance of campus police officers. Walker's 1976 study analyzed the

organizational structure, resources, and administrative functions of campus officers

through a questionnaire. In 1968, Iannarelli published The Campus Police, an

operational manual, which further discussed the functional aspects of the position

of campus police officer. This manual was enhanced in 1981 when Eastman and

Maline conducted an unpublished profile of campus protective services for the

International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators. Another

publication, Campus Policing: The Nature of University Police Work, written by

Bordner and Petersen (1983), offered data and statistics on the subject of campus

safety. Their book outlined many aspects of campus policing: nature of police work, crime on campus, authority of the campus police, and campus safety personnel.

An institution of higher education is a service organization responsive to the demands of the community and society in general. There has been some research regarding the specific type of police officer who is needed to meet these service needs (Ben-David, 1972; Lietner & Sedlaced, 1976; Powell, 1970). The disposition of offenders may differ in a campus setting as opposed to a state, county, or municipal setting because of the unique purpose of the campus environment, the unique nature of the population served, and the interests and expectations of the institution (Meadows, 1982). Eastman's (1982) study suggests that campus police officers should be defined by some of the following requirements:

1. Direct access to the president of the institution.

2. Organizational placement that dictates reporting to a single administrator, who in turn, reports directly to the President.

3. Recognition of public safety as primarily a "people" function.

4. Recognition of the need, in some emergencies to temporarily abandon the normal hierarchical organizational structure, within an institution, and use a cooperative, project organization to resolve the problem.

5. A description of the unique relationship that must exist between the law enforcement administration and all other campus administrations.

Gugas (1977) sums up the preference for a service role among police officers in educational settings by stating that an apprehensive approach to law enforcement, when less stringent methods may be used, does not meet the needs of that organization. The research suggests that officers who are more service oriented may be more effective and acceptable to the campus climate.

The role of campus police may be complicated even further because of the differences between public law enforcement and institutional policing. For a long time, campus security officers were cast in roles of menial activities with minimal responsibilities and never attained recognition and legitimacy as part of and within the total university community. Therefore, the officer continues to exercise an uncertain authority amidst a questioning constituency (Gerber, 1972). This fact alone differentiates campus police from local municipal police departments. First, public police are responsible for enforcing all criminal laws, whereas officers employed in an institution may selectively enforce those laws according to the interests of that institution. Beyond that, institutional safety officers often enforce non-criminal laws, particularly those pertaining to health and safety (Spain & Elkin, 1979). Second, law enforcement directs its activities toward violation of state statutes and ordinances, while private or institutional safety officers generally direct their activities toward a much broader area, such as fire prevention and employee conduct (Private Security Advisory Council, 1977). Reiss and Bordua (1970) suggest that police work is largely accomplished through response to citizen complaints as calls for service; that is, police work is essentially reacting to

citizen requests. Proactive crime prevention work is characteristic of institutional policing or private security (Reiss & Bordua, 1970). Ness (1980, p. 7) defined campus law enforcement as ". . . a unique kind of law enforcement that adapts the principles of both private security and public policing in academic communities." Nichols, (1985) suggests that there are several elements of a campus law enforcement agency that maintain a distinct difference from their municipal counterpart. These include the "academic" institutional environment, physical security responsibilities, societal norms, traditional philosophies, and the administrative constraints that inhibit police autonomy. Telb (1980) points out that as crimes of violence occur more frequently on campuses, distinctions between campus police and public law enforcement officers may become less clear. Nonetheless, the ill-prepared old night watchman will no longer suffice in providing the kind of protection and diverse services demanded by modern college and university communities (Powell, 1981). Currently, campus safety officers at institutions of higher learning are often college educated, well trained, and demonstrate a more professional posture than did their predecessors (Nichols, 1985). Campus police are members of sophisticated public safety/law enforcement organizations capable of modern police procedure and techniques (Nichols, 1982).

The orientation of campus police at institutions of higher learning became an issue for research because of competing expectations and changing needs. Universities began to realize that the nonconfrontational approach implied by the campus "security department" was not effective in combating many of the

changing negative elements on university campuses. Campus police began to take on a "law enforcement" orientation. A "security force" cannot appropriately deal with these concerns and it is difficult to understand why so many academic institutions hold on to the "security concept" with its implications of restrictiveness (Kassinger, 1971).

The role orientations of campus officers continued to meet with conflicting expectations. By 1970, most college administrators recognized the need to maintain private campus police forces to avoid calling upon local agencies for assistance (Pehler, 1982). Yet the role of campus police remained unclear. According to Bordner and Petersen (1983), lack of clarity was attributable to the historic origins of campus police, the changing attitudes and actions of students over time, the lack of awareness by campus administrators for campus police operations, and the rapid growth of the campus police field. All of these factors caused the role of campus police to change rapidly.

The 1980 study by Telb regarding role perceptions and behaviors of campus safety officers was the first of its kind. Telb developed a questionnaire to measure role perceptions. Nielson reported that the historical developments on college campuses required many campus security departments to pattern themselves after the police model (Nielson, 1971). Powell suggested that campus police could be more responsive to the campus community needs and recommended training toward that end. He even suggested that campus police get away from traditional uniforms and begin wearing blazers or more conservative

uniforms (Powell, 1970). Powell recommended college experience for campus officers and Walker suggested the need for a new breed of campus officers (Walker, 1976). Gunson (1986, p. 5) acknowledges that campus and police/ public safety work requires ". . . high levels of interpersonal skills, maturity, and self confidence to serve a community that is as complex and sensitive as a university." At the University of Georgia, the entire security department was comprised of college educated officers (Private Security Task Force Report, 1977).

The desire for service orientation, as evidenced through research, pushed the formation of several successful crime reduction programs. Increased inter-action between officers and administrators necessitated the need for mutual train-ing programs to facilitate better understanding of each other's role on campus and to better deal with student crisis and discipline (Jones, 1979). It may well be that public school programs can benefit from this research created.

Although the needs of the two types of police are different, it is interesting to note that most officers in education programs are hired from local police departments. Toole reports that in 1982 the campus safety directors of Brandeis, Cornell, Harvard, and Southern Illinois Universities were former agents of the Federal Bureau of Investigations (Toole, 1978). Since SROs have arrest powers and police authority, they must complete the same state mandated training require-ments as public peace officers (Task Force Report, 1976). These state mandates may also limit the discretionary powers of state commissioned officers. Once selected by universities or colleges, officers are sent to police academies to receive

specialized training which is usually identical to other sworn officers in the state (Nichols, 1987). Jefferies (1977) points out that criminal activity is not limited to areas beyond the company gate and suggests that institutional police must be prepared to deal with a variety of problems, as do public police officers. As a consequence, campus law enforcement departments may perceive crime fighting as the primary function of their role. Dissonance may occur because limits are imposed on the newly acquired skills (Sewell, 1984; Nichols, 1987). Still, campus/public safety officers, like officers of the law in any state, county, or municipal agency, exercise a certain amount of discretion in deciding what course of action is to be followed in enforcing the law (Benton, 1964; Reiss, 1971; Teasley, 1973). Laws, rules, and policies cannot be written with sufficient breadth and precision to cover every situation in which the campus security officer is required to act. The vagueness of the law, the ambiguity of the situations in which the officer intervenes, the isolation of the individual officer on the beat or post, the difficulty of supervising people who usually work alone are sources of discretionary power (Meadows, 1982).

The actions of individual officers, which are often invisible to their supervisors, and therefore unreviewable, do much to determine the nature of the relationship between the university community and its security force (Meadows, 1982).

The general trend of research on the higher education campus suggests a need for service oriented officers and the recruitment of higher educated personnel (Telb, 1980).

Public Schools

The similarities between the needs of institutions of higher education and of public secondary schools indicate that public schools may benefit from some of the research done at colleges and universities. However, there are other factors to consider on the public school campus that may make the development of public school programs unique.

Police want police/school partnerships to improve police/community relations. The trends in schools mentioned earlier suggest that schools may want police/school partnerships to curtail illegal activity in public schools. Although it appears two very diverse primary objectives may drive police/school relationships, there are many shared benefits. The mere presence of police in schools may be a deterrent to crime. Because of the mutual benefit to both organizations, the climate between police and schools has changed from an adversarial one at the higher education level in the 60s and 70s to one in which both sides recognize the many advantages to be gained through cooperation (Blauvelt, 1984). Issues of funding, expectations and conflict could strain the relationship between police agencies and public schools. Short range benefits to both parties must be emphasized in this time of budget shortages. Schools and law enforcement agencies

must each feel that they are getting their money's worth. Blauvelt (1984) suggests that school districts call a meeting of key players, come to an agreement about the roles and responsibilities for each agency, and establish procedures for intervention of police in school discipline. These agreements should be in writing and should outline a carefully designed partnership between schools and police.

One mutual benefit of police/school partnerships stems from the fact that schools are a natural beginning for exposure to the criminal justice system. Adolescence is a time when experimentation begins with drugs, tobacco, and sex. Police-school relationships designed to win the support of adolescents may prevent problems in the future (Platt, 1974). There is a definite connection between school involvement and crime. When characteristics of boys in state schools for delinquents were tabulated, the second greatest characteristic was the percentage with a history of school truancy, and the third was the proportion with a record of misbehavior in school (Glaser, 1975). In other studies (Robins & Hall, 1966), conflict with school authorities appeared to be one of the best predictors of a juvenile's subsequent conflict with police and courts for more serious offenses. Hirschi (1969) found that among items most correlated with police and self reported delinquency were poor performance on aptitude tests, poor grades, dislike of school, a low number of hours devoted to homework, indifference to teachers' opinions of them, belief that teachers pick on them, and belief that students smoking is "none of the school's business." Many other studies report similar findings (Empey & Lubeck, 1971; Frease, 1973; Gold, 1963; Polk & Schafer,

1972; Rhodes & Reiss, 1969). Some multivariate analyses have shown that a poor school record is more closely related to delinquency than belonging to a lower socioeconomic class or a minority group (Jensen, 1976; Polk & Halferty, 1966). Elliott and Voss (1974) infer from their data that delinquency causes academic failure more often than failure causes delinquency. Stinchcombe (1964) classified rebellious children as those who had skipped school and had a high correlation with kids who had received a failure notice or had been sent out of a classroom by a teacher. These rebels considered at least half of their classes as boring, thought their work unrewarded, considered grades unimportant, teachers unfair, and claimed the right to smoke. Noncollege "tracked" kids were more likely to be delinquents (Hargreaves, 1967; Kelly, 1974; Schafer & Olexas, 1971). Caplan (1974) found that not expecting to finish high school was the best predictor of delinquency of 120 factors investigated.

Whether delinquency drives school failure or school failure drives delinquency is a matter of some debate. Either belief suggests that adolescence is the time when students could best be reached to avert lifelong delinquent behavior. Lack of a youth's understanding of the criminal justice system contributes to juvenile delinquency and a misunderstanding of the youth's individual responsibilities in the community (Hunter, 1981). Since schools reflect the goals of society, the responsibility of the schools will be aided if SRO programs address either of the goals of understanding the criminal justice system or the youths' responsibility in the community.

Both schools and law enforcement agencies want input as to what the role

of the SRO will be. Funding and evaluative considerations may complicate the

expectations and role orientation of the SRO programs as well. Of those programs

surveyed in Texas, 53% of SROs responded that the officer is accountable to the

school district, but 47% of SROs responded that they were not accountable to the

school district in any way. Primarily, the study determined that accountability is

typically with the police department and secondary accountability is with the

school (TELEMASP Bulletin, 1995). Yet, according to this bulletin, 48% of the

agencies involved in SRO programs in Texas responded that police department

officials select the resource officers, whereas 43% stated that resource officers are

selected jointly by both police departments and school officials (TELEMASP

Bulletin, 1995). Funding for the SRO position is often a joint endeavor of both

city police departments and local school districts. This can create competing

priorities. The school resource officer is evaluated on different criteria in differing

programs across the country. Some agencies require weekly, monthly, or yearly

reports from the officers as well as surveys of both teachers and students

conducted by the school. Recommendations from the principal are also considered

(TELEMASP Bulletin, 1995). There may be something to be said for the fact that

SRO will feel pressure to consider the expectations of the people that contribute to

their salary and evaluate their performance regardless of the goals and objectives

of the program. Competing expectations can cause their understanding of their

role on campus to seem ambiguous.

Since the school district funds a portion of the programs budget, it does have some control over the programs provided and resources allocated (TELEMASP Bulletin, 1995). On the one hand police organizations are independent and autonomous agencies operating unbiasedly in the interest of the people; and, on the other hand, police organizations are obligated to their funding source for survival, and, hence, must operate realistically in the interest of the operating structure (Manning, 1977; Sherman, 1974; Wilson, 1968). According to TELEMASP, 71% of the departments responded that the school district funded a portion of the program. In 19% of the programs in Texas, the school district funded over 60% of all funding. Thirty-three percent of the programs reported receiving no funding from the school district. Besides contributing to the funding of police/school partnerships, school principals have support for their involvement in structuring school resource officer programs.

The result of much of the "effectiveness" research, according to Dwyer (1987), forces the school principal to shoulder the major responsibility for school reform and movements toward effectiveness and quality. The research further charges the school principal with being responsible for understanding and developing all campus programs toward that end. Programs beyond the control of building level principals may prove contrary to current research regarding school effectiveness.

Commissioned police officers have been employed full time to work on college and university campuses for some time now. During the past few decades

commissioned peace officers have appeared on public secondary school campuses. These officers are often called school resource officers. School resource officer (SRO) programs provide the police an opportunity to instill lasting and positive impressions on students, and to clarify any misconceptions they may have about law enforcement (TELEMASP Bulletin, 1995). Clark suggests that a school resource officer program is an intervention as well as a preventive program. A form of community policing the program can ". . . attack problems by dividing resources as 'upstream' prevention work and 'downstream' intervention work . . ." (Clark, 1994, p. 3).

The TELEMASP Bulletin reports that a SRO program typically falls under the administrative services division, community services/relations division, youth division, or special operations of police departments. Additionally, the bulletin reports that the earliest SRO program in the survey group that included all the U.S. was initiated in 1965 by the San Antonio Police Department, followed by the Dallas Police Department in 1969. Seven police departments in Texas have had a SRO program for 10 years or more. The most recent programs have been developed only last year.

In general, Texas agencies indicated that the SROs duties may consist of serving as a positive role model for students, teaching law enforcement classes, acting as a counselor, or handling criminal investigations on the school campus. Primarily, they are considered educators and role models who provide safety, counseling, and crime prevention and awareness programs to students. In general,

agencies indicated that the SRO program was initially designed to place a police officer in the school environment to promote public relations through both formal and informal interaction. The objectives are to provide programs for youth directed toward the prevention of antisocial behavior through education and communication and to provide a better understanding of law enforcement officers and the criminal justice system (TELEMASP, 1995). The role of the SRO is an effective means of promoting positive relations with children and youth and coping proactively with the advancing spectra of juvenile crime (Grant, 1993).

Qualifications for SROs in Texas focus on an officer's education, years of police experience. and personal characteristics. Survey respondents stated that the required educational levels vary from some college preferred to a high school diploma or GED (TELEMASP Bulletin, 1995).

Research on the effects of public school/police partnerships shows mixed results. Hunter found no evidence that the programs he studied had made a significant impact on the incidence of crime on school grounds. Blower (1977) could not substantiate a reduction in crime rate either, but many studies improved student attitudes toward police (Ellis, 1973). A similar study indicated that direction taken by the SROs on each campus seemed to receive broad support from students (Steven, 1990). However, Mei (1987), who pretested and posttested her students, could not report substantial improvement in student attitude. In studies focusing on juvenile police encounters. Piliavin and Briar (1964), as early as 1964. found that two-thirds of juvenile suspects were cooperative with police in

their interactions. Black and Reiss (1970) found over 80% of juvenile suspects were civil or very deferential with police. The Los Angeles Police and Sheriffs Departments have established officer instructor programs in which officers are assigned to a school where they have full faculty status and limited law enforcement duties (Broderick, 1976). Similar programs exist in other parts of the country in which officers serve primarily as teachers of law and problems of democracy and as unofficial counselor (Boung & Williams, 1972). Partnerships between police agencies, schools, and the juvenile courts provided some evidence that the relationship decreased the probability for future custody for Hispanics and somewhat for White, but increased the probability for Black detainees (Karcz, 1985). The issue of determining the success or failure of police work in general is controversial. Lundman (1980) theorizes that police organizations rely heavily on statistical records to assess police efficiency. These records often become ends in themselves and are altered to give the appearance of efficiency. Skolnick (1966), for example, found that detectives will unfound a case, or suggest that a crime did not occur, to make the department look better. More generally, Manning (1977) argues that police legitimize themselves through crime control, but in reality they cannot control crime, so they use various presentation strategies (e.g., professionalism, bureaucratic ideology, secrecy, crime statistics, and so forth) to maintain credibility with the public and create the appearance of control. Lundman (1980) concludes that, largely because of its bureaucratic structure policing, is rich in "little lies" intended to give outsiders the appearance of effective policing.

Because of this difficulty in assessing police work in general, the issue of whether SRO programs impact juvenile crime or attitudes will probably be difficult to substantiate.

Because of the desire for more control on the part of public schools, several school districts across the state of Texas have used their powers as a government entity to establish their own police departments. However, smaller school districts may not see development of independent police departments as a viable option. Either way, using city jail and court facilities and using existing police to fill school/police positions will require schools and police to work together to create effective school/police partnerships.

Role Conflict

Role theory is one of the most often used concepts in the social sciences (Teasley, 1973). Role theory has been defined by many. Biddle and Thomas (1966) define it as a behavioral repertoire characteristic of a person or position "or" set of standards, descriptions, norms, or concepts held (by anyone) for the behaviors of a person or position. Ehrlich (1959, p. 57) describes a role as a ". . . set or pattern of expectations." Role conflict suggests a ". . . feeling of unease resulting from the existence or assumption of inconsistent prescriptions or standards" (Biddle & Thomas, 1966, p. 83). In most definitions a conflict situation occurs because role expectations are "inconsistent", "incompatible" or "contra-

dictory" (Mackey, 1977; Preiss & Ehrlich, 1966). Role theory and particularly the concept of role conflict can be applied to the development of SRO programs.

There is some evidence to suggest that police departments and schools may be initiating police relationships in schools for different reasons. There are indications that the potential for role conflict may be present. Policies have been established at most institutions for handling student conduct issues as an alternate to formal criminal charges. Differential law enforcement allows for different treatment of students who commit crimes on campus as opposed to when they commit crimes in other places. Although this practice is very common in institutions of higher learning and public schools across the nation, many would argue that assuming a posture of differential law enforcement on a campus places a limit on the officer's authority and creates role ambiguity and a reluctant feeling of frustration (Bordner & Perterson, 1983; Powell, 1981; Rousch, 1981). Discomfort may be experienced by individuals in campus law enforcement agencies who are forced to assume a posture of differential law enforcement (Waryold, 1991).

SROs, like most police, will be likely to fulfill a dual role. Research analyzing police calls and time spent on assignment suggest a duality of roles: law enforcement and order maintenance (Banton, 1964). For example, Cumming Cumming, and Edell (1965), in an analysis of incoming calls to an urban police complaint desk over an 82 hour period, found that more than half the calls coming routinely to the department involved calls for help and some form of support for personal or interpersonal problems. They concluded that the police officer on the

beat spends more than half of his/her time as an amateur social worker playing a supportive role rather than a law enforcement role. Bercal (1970), in an analysis of calls received by police in several large urban departments, found that the largest proportion of requests from citizens for police assistance involves services rather than violation of law. In a classic time motion study of police, Webster (1970, 1973) found that patrolmen spend about two thirds of their time in administrative or social service tasks rather than law enforcement. In general, a growing literature indicates patrolmen spend, at best, only 10% to 15% of their time in law enforcement activities (Bittner, 1967b; Epstein, 1962). In other words, police work is more peace keeping than law enforcement and the role of the typical patrol officer is much less that of an agent capturing law violators than that of an agent who mediates personal and community problems (Banton, 1964; Bayley & Mendesohn, 1969; Reiss, 1971).

The municipal officer has a role expectation and role perception that is oriented toward law enforcement (Watson, 1969). The campus security officer has a role expectation that is service oriented. An officer whose personal role expectation is different from the institution he/she is employed by may be in conflict with what is expected (Meadows, 1982). Research has suggested that police work can be best described as precarious, discretionary, ambiguous, difficult, unpleasant, and dangerous (Banton, 1964; Bess & Horton, 1988). Police work is typically depicted in the literature as unpleasant, dirty, difficult, dangerous, requiring long and undesirable hours, and highly discretionary (Niederhoffer,

1967; Rubenstein, 1973; Westley, 1970; Whitlemore, 1969). In addition, police are usually portrayed as operating in a fishbowl and, even more importantly, functioning in a highly varied social world (Bordener, 1984). Sewell (1984) identified role conflict as a key "stressor" common to campus law enforcement work. The manner in which the officer performs his role can have a profound effect on the community he serves (Waryold, 1991). Role conflict involves a delicate balancing of roles and maintaining that balance can be stressful especially if the officer's dominant role preference is different from other key players within the program (Sewell, 1984). Certainly his attitude, beliefs, and value orientations influence his behavior in his role as a security officer. He is charged with apply- ing and enforcing a multitude of laws and ordinances in a manner that maintains a delicate balance between the liberty of the individual and social protection (Meadows, 1972). Brother (1988) noted that,

> [the] . . . reconciliation of proprietary and law enforcement func-
> tions in a university police operation is inevitably a difficult one.
> Perhaps the greatest contradiction in the normative environment
> surrounding police organizations is the inherent contradiction
> between the two socially defined functions of police -- law and
> order. (Bordener, 1984, p. 55)

It is generally noted in the literature that the legal regulation of public conduct is inconsistent with the protection of civil liberties (Weston, 1970; Wilson, 1968). While some feel police seem to accept the conception of their role that includes

extra legal activities as a routine part of their job (Petersen, 1974), Cumming (1971), in an observational study, found police to relegate service calls to low status and go beyond what policemen should do—namely, enforce the law. Ironically, police are evaluated by functions such as crime fighting and arrests, which, in actuality, they rarely perform (Manning & Van Maanen, 1978; Misner, 1967). As is the case with municipal police agencies, the vast majority of campus security department activities are not related to criminal conduct, but to service-oriented activities (Post, 1971).

The social and cultural milieu of the campus security department permits and demands behavior different from that required by large, urban-type, public-supported police agencies (Meadows, 1982). The campus security officer's task requires sensitivity and wise discretion in deciding whether or not to invoke the criminal process. The public police spend 80% to 90% of their time in service duties (Farmer & Kowalewski, 1976). In this respect, campus police may not be that much different from most municipal departments (Bordner & Petersen, 1983). That notwithstanding, there still remains a marked difference in terms of approach and actions of law enforcement within a public school setting. Some university campuses solve this problem by providing two branches within the campus safety departments—security and police. Abramson (1974, p. 11) supported the exist-ence of ". . . two well-managed organizations that have common ends but necessarily different means." The University of Alabama takes a similar approach (Nichols, 1979). Stevens (1972) revealed that many organizations avoid the use of

police altogether. The word "police" is commonly associated with law enforcement whereas "security" is a more service oriented term (Nichols, 1985). In Milliron's (1970) study, some university officials preferred campus police to take a different approach than their municipal counterparts when dealing with student violence.

Police in general often feel confused about the expectations held for them. SROs are no different from campus police at institutions of higher learning in this regard. A recent survey of SROs in Texas asked them to identify potential problems encountered in the SRO program. About one-half indicated that the officer's role is sometimes not clearly understood by the school faculty and administration. Criticisms ranged from not enough training to lack of clearly stated objectives (TELEMASP Bulletin, 1995). The specific example cited in the bulletin was that the school's expectations of the officer and the police department's instructions to the officer may become confusing. A second problem was the lack of cooperation by school administrators when working with SROs. Police operate in a complex and contradictory normative environment. These contradictions put police in a dilemma, generate tension, and may lead to improper police action (Bordener, 1984) Police officers throughout history have shared a sense of defensiveness, that is, a suspicion of outsiders and a feeling that they cannot be trusted (Lundman, 1980). This defensiveness can only be intensified when role expectations are not clearly defined. Some campus administrators have

sensed a defensiveness on the part of SROs, perhaps because administrators are perceived as outsiders to the police culture.

Without laying the proper groundwork, role conflict can serve as a factor in intensifying internal conflict and, therefore, call for greater pressure to resort to defensive and adjustive mechanisms (Parsons, 1951). Role conflict is commonly thought to be a source of less-than-satisfactory performance in organizations. Furthermore, conflict may create personal confusion, anxiety, and ambivalence for the individual (Biddle & Thomas, 1966). Role conflicts are among the classic ingredients of tragedy (Biddle, 1979). Role conflicts produce tensions and uncertainties that are commonly associated with inconsistent organizational behavior. In turn this inconsistent behavior, being unpredictable and unanticipated, often evokes further tensions and interpersonal conflict between holders of roles (Owens, 1987). On the one hand, as stated earlier, law enforcement is service oriented. Conversely, in the last two decades, campus safety officers in most public universities have been empowered with the same sworn authority as any other peace officer (i.e., municipal, county, state). Consequently, these safety officers may perceive themselves as law-enforcement oriented and thus function accordingly (Jones, 1979). According to Nichols (1985), such a conflict, if it exists, in perceptions of the role of the campus police safety department could have significance in several ways:

1. It could result in the campus safety department failing to meet the objectives of the institution's mission and goals.

2. It could result in a lack of harmony between the safety officer and his/her direct supervisor.

3. It could result in lack of support for the public safety officer's efforts by the administration.

4. It could determine what kinds of programs, personal training and procedures the public safety department requires.

5. With no clear university-wide philosophy and policy concerning the role of campus public personnel embraced by the director, the safety officer could experience frustration.

6. The kind of service that the academic community receives from the campus public safety department could be affected by this conflict in perception.

Owens continues that frequently those who must perform their roles under conditions of conflict develop dysfunctional ways of coping with the situation.

When role expectations lack congruency, pressure is exerted on the performance of this focal person to make his performance congruent with those expectations (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snock & Rosenthal, 1964). The person who is confronted with a situation involving role conflict must respond in some fashion that partially depends on the expectations of all involved. Exposure to role conflict is an obvious source of strain and frustration in that it creates a situation incompatible with the harmonious integration of personality with the system (Parsons, 1959). Role theory assumes that organizational or societal expectations

control the performance of individuals in a given position in much the same way a script controls the performance of actors in a given role. The complete cycle of role sending, response by the person occupying the role, and the effects of that response on the role sender has been described as a role episode (Kahn et al., 1964). In the model created by these authors, certain variables were formulated within the organization that cause stress and psychological conflict. These pressures induce in the focal person both perceptual and cognitive response which can lead to adjustive or maladjusted response behaviors. If the pressures exerted are supportive of present performance, the response is generally satisfactory. When the pressure exerted is unsupportive and directed towards change, however, the response is fraught with conflict and ambiguity and will result in feelings of tension, anger, and indecision. A role episode occurs when a SRO receives information from various role senders: the law enforcement influence, on the one hand, created by the officer's personal disposition, training, and ties to local police departments; and, on the other hand, by school administrators. A lack of congruence between these various senders can place the officer in a no-win position because either one or the other is always dissatisfied with his response.

According to Hardy and Conway (1978) there are two perspectives in role theory: functionalist and interactionist approaches. The fuctionalist approach assumes that roles, more or less, are in fixed positions within society to which are attached certain expectations and demands. Further, these roles are enforced by sanctions, either negative or positive. The interactionist perspective derives its

name from the interpretation of human behavior as a response to the symbolic acts of others, notably gestures and speech. The response role is an interpretation of those acts. Symbolic interaction acknowledges society and its institutions as a framework within which actors create their roles contingent on the feedback of others during interaction. The functionalist perspective conceives of social action as learned responses that are communicated during the process of socialization and reinforced in the individual by the approval or disapproval of significant others such as parents, teachers, or employers. In reality, when the general interests come in contact with power elite interests, usually the latter prevail over the former, resulting in biased policing in terms of differential enforcement, selective enforcement, and manipulation of crime statistics to arrive at an "acceptable" crime rate, and so forth (Manning, 1977; Sherman, 1974; Skolnick, 1966; Wilson, 1968). Whichever view holds true, the implication of role definition and role expectations takes on special significance when applied to the role of school resource officer.

The dissonance caused by the stress associated with role conflict is closely related to problems associated with overtrained officers, a negative public image, the desire to employ aggressive law enforcement practices, and administrative demands (Waryold, 1991). The general concept of role stress or role problems can be grouped into six general areas: role ambiguity, role conflict, role incongruity, role overload, role incompetence and role overqualification. Role ambiguity is a role whose norms are vague, ill-defined, or unclear. Role conflict is a condition in which norms are contradictory or competing. An example of role conflict is a

school principal who is in a supportive role for all students, yet must make a harsh recommendation about a student who will not meet behavioral expectations. A school resource officer may be in a similar situation if he/she is asked to build positive relations with students and correct them for violations of the law or school rules at the same time. Role incongruity is a source of difficulty when the expectations for the role run counter to self-perception, disposition, attitudes, or values. Role overload occurs when the norms for the role are excessive within the time constraints. Role incompetence develops when the norms for a role exceed the resources of the participant. Role overqualification occurs when the participant resources far exceed the expectations for the position. There is some evidence to suggest that police officers may experience some or all of these types of role conflict.

There are strategies that can be used if role conflict is prevalent in a position. Should people disagree about what behaviors are appropriate, they must at least be made aware of others' thinking in order to plan intelligent activity (Biddle, Howard, Rosencranz, Tomich, & Twyman, 1966). Communication not only reduces role conflict but may contribute to the overall effectiveness of operations. One conclusion of Willard's (1979) study was that some highly regarded efforts to reduce campus crime, such as that evidenced by the attempts to improve communications between the security staff and other members of the academic community may not be effectively used by the campus security and protection organization. At the very least, all members of the role set should know what the

discrepancies are and the rationale for each side's viewpoint. Three strategies have been suggested for resolving role conflict altogether: conformity to one or another of the polarized expectations, compromise between them, and avoidance of the issue (Gross, 1958). A common avoidance technique is to use vagueness. pomposity, complex structure, clichés and overly obscure vocabulary in communication (Owens, 1987). Sometimes, specification of roles can clarify role expectations. They may range from elaborate written job descriptions to more subtle and usually more powerful group norms established by custom and tradition (Getzel & Guba, 1957). When new roles are created, and customs and traditions have not yet been firmly established, written job descriptions and more formal communication of the role may be necessary. The role set experiencing role conflict may see the expectations in conflict as legitimate or illegitimate. Conflicting expectation that is seen to be legitimate is seen as an obligation whereas a conflicting expectation that is seen as illegitimate is a pressure (Gross, McEachern & Mason, 1957). Therefore, understanding the rational of the conflicting expectation may relieve role conflict.

Significance of Study

The literature review established several key points:

1. Violence in schools is of increasing concern and has prompted schools to take various measures to insure student safety including the placement of commissioned peace officers within public schools.

2. Universities experienced many of the same negative trends that the public schools are currently experiencing, and the research in establishing police in universities is of use to the public schools.

3. Police see schools as one avenue to improving their image through positive interactions with adolescents.

4. The police profession has a distinctive subculture with strong traditional training and indoctrination techniques which may make police officers less susceptible to a service or communication-oriented approach.

5. There is research to suggest that difficulty in schools and a tendency toward crime in and out of school are related and in need of being addressed.

6. Role conflict can be an inhibiting factor in job performance.

My dissertation will add to the body of research which exists in several key ways:

1. It expands the body of research regarding police officers in public schools.

2. It aids schools and police departments in the development of the SRO position.

3. It increases awareness of potential sources of conflict in the SRO position.

4. It provides descriptive data about existing SROs and school administrators in Dallas and Tarrant counties.

5. It explores the possibility of replicating research done in institutions of higher learning regarding the development of police in schools.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine whether SROs perceive their

role to be more law enforcement orientated or more service oriented and compare

the perceptions of SROs to building level secondary school principals. The data in

this study enable the researcher to draw conclusions about the role orientation of

SROs and about possible differences in role perception between the two groups.

This chapter includes a description of the population that was studied, assumptions

that prefaced the study, data collection and analysis, and a discussion regarding

methodological limitations of the study.

Subjects

Subjects for this study were campus principals and full-time police officers

in 27 school districts in a large, metropolitan area in north central Texas. All

SROs and building level secondary principals in Dallas and Tarrant counties were

selected rather than using random samples because of the relatively small sample

size. Districts that have SRO programs were identified by personal phone calls to

each of the school districts within these two counties. Each of the district and

campus phone numbers and addresses was determined through the Texas Public

Schools Directory. Of the 32 school districts in Dallas and Tarrant counties, only five did not use commissioned peace officers on their secondary school campuses. Of the 27 districts that did use full-time officers, 133 individual campuses were identified as having at least one full-time school police officer. One of the five districts not using commissioned officers at the secondary level one did have an elementary police officer who was not included in this study. A complete listing of districts which were mailed surveys is available in appendix A. Not all districts receiving surveys responded.

Assumptions

There are several assumptions implied in this study:

1. All participants who participated in the study answered the question-naire honestly and correctly.

2. A questionnaire can be used to ascertain accurate perceptions from SROs and principals.

3. SROs have some law enforcement related responsibilities.

Research Design

Instrument

The questionnaire (appendix B) was used, validated, and developed in a prior study (Telb, 1980). This same questionnaire also was used in a study done by Meadows (1982), which replicated Telb's study, and later by William David Nichols (1985).

Telb initially validated the survey by asking two security directors at state institutions in Ohio to review the survey for face validity. Next, Telb piloted the study with four officers from an institution of higher educatoin. Revisions were made as needed. Although Meadows (1982) made no additional attempts to validate the questionnaire, Nichols (1985) analyzed the instrument for internal consistency measurements using the coefficient alpha measure of internal consistency resulting in a reliability coefficient of .882. Reliability was established using the Cronback Alpha formula (McMillan & Schumacher, 1984). Cronback alpha was chosen because it is a measure of internal consistency and because it can be used with a single administration of the questionnaire (Borg & Gall, 1983); it has the added advantage of not being affected by response variability or differences when a single administration is used and items are not dichotomously scored. Cronback's Alpha calculates inter-item correlation adjustments for standard deviation differences and yields a coefficient of internal consistency (Borg & Gall, 1983). In Waryold's (1991) study utilizing the instrument, the instrument was modified to eliminate items not relevant to her study. Waryold made new efforts to validate the instrument. Content validity was established by (1) asking the central staff of the Division of Housing at the University of Florida to critique it, (2) asking members of the executive board of the Association of Student Judicial Affairs to critique it, and (3) pre-testing the instrument with three senior patrol officers from The University of Florida Police Department. Changes were made as needed. The questionnaire was further validated for selection in this

current study: through this researcher's three years of personal experience as a campus police officer; by interviewing several building level administrators and several SROs, including the sergeant over the SRO program in a large urban district; and through a pilot study in a large, urban district.

The questionnaire is a Likert-design with the following options: strongly agree (SA), agree (A), neutral (N), disagree (D), and strongly disagree (SD). Tellis' original questionnaire was composed of three parts. The first two parts measure role perception (questions 1-15) and role behavior (questions 16-26). Items SA-5 and A-4 indicate a law enforcement orientation, while D-2 and SD-1 indicate a service orientation. Item N-3 represents a neutral or unsure position. The role behavior portion consists of four scenarios with succeeding questions pertaining to the information in the scenarios. The point values of specific responses will be: SA=5, A=4, N=3, D=2, and SD=1 Point values for questions 2. 3, 6, 9, 10. 14. 18, 20, 22, and 26 all were reversed since answering SA on these questions would represent a service orientation. Items in need of reverse points were agreed upon through Waryold's (1991) study. It was determined that the questionnaire would provide the information desired by this study. Some wording was changed to reflect the use of SRO and the public secondary school campus. Instructions for responding to the various items were provided at the beginning of the questionnaire. Permission from the original researcher was obtained (appendix D).

Design

The design replicates a campus safety study completed in 1980 by James Telb. The intent is to see if the research done regarding police officers at institutions of higher learning can be replicated in public secondary schools. Replication has been called ". . . the cornerstone of scientific inquiry" (Telb, 1980. p. 103). Replication helps establish confidence and aids in assessing significance of previous studies. Surveys are commonly used in descriptive studies and are considered a practical and inexpensive way to collect data (Isaac & Michaels, 1981). Cohen and Manion (1980) assert that the use of a survey describes the nature of existing conditions. Van Dalen (1979, p. 87) adds that survey studies describe an "existing phenomena" and ". . . identify problems and current conditions and practices." Monly (1978) suggests that surveys are useful in identifying present conditions and pointing out present needs on which to base future decisions. Survey research is an effective means of learning about ". . . people's attitudes, beliefs, values, demographic facts, behaviors, opinions, desires and ideas" (McMillan & Schumacher, 1984). Wiersma (1975) indicates that survey research can make significant contributions to educational knowledge and improvement even if cause and effect relationship cannot be established. Since nominal data were collected, statistical analysis, using a regression formula and a simple T test, was used to test the hypothesis. In addition, chi square analysis and T tests were used to determine the significance of individual questions. Principal component analysis was applied to the 26 common items in order to determine if

the 26 items represented separate variables. Principal component analysis allows the researcher to determine if there is a small number of underlying constructs which account for the main sources of variation in a complex set of correlations (Stevens, 1992). Three factors were identified. These three factors account for more than 70% of the total variance in the questionnaire. Factor analysis of the criterion has been shown to be quite accurate when the number of variables is <30 and the commonalities are >.70 (Stevens, 1992). T-tests were performed between groups on the three factors.

Procedures

At the beginning of this study, the supervising sergeant of a SRO program in a large, metropolitan school district was consulted for information regarding the SRO program. Manuals and published materials concerning the program were also reviewed. Very few written documents clarified the role and responsibilities of SROs at the time of the review. Several building level administrators were asked about the program as well. Street officers in the city as well as SROs were questioned. Street officers referred to the SROs as "kid cops" in a disrespectful fashion. A top level official in the city police department implied that the SRO program could be used as a dumping grounds for incompetent officers. Several disgruntled officers in the SRO program cited conflicting priorities between SROs and building level administrators as a reason for discontent and, in one case, was the primary reason an officer decided to leave the position. Some school principals felt confused at their lack of involvement in the planning and their lack of

input into the responsibilities of SROs on their campus. The sergeant over the SRO program appeared inflexible in adjustments to the role of the SRO. Two SROs had recently been dismissed because of their role orientation. After discussions with all groups, many conflicting values appeared. Several teachers were questioned and their knowledge regarding key objectives of the program appeared to be vague.

A pilot survey was taken, with the results suggesting that further study was warranted. A search for a valid, reliable instrument to measure the perceptions of the role set was begun. James Telb's 1979 study regarding role perceptions of police was reviewed along with several subsequent studies which used the instrument in studies of a replicative nature. The questionnaire was selected. Several similar programs to those investigated were identified through research, and a group of schools was contacted. Each of the 32 school districts in Dallas and Tarrant counties was contacted by telephone to determine which campuses had full-time commissioned peace officers. Each campus identified was recorded on an index card and assigned a number. Addresses of each of the 133 campuses were determined through the Texas Public School Directory, the phone book, or, in the case of new campuses, by telephone. Two envelopes were addressed to each campus—one to the school police officer and one to the principal. The SRO questionnaire contained a specific section designed for SROs, and the principal questionnaire contained a specific section for principals. This separate section was used to determine compliance with state mandates and looked at the issue of job

performance more closely. These two questionnaires could easily be separated according to which of the two respondents had returned them. Each survey was coded with the number assigned the school campus in the upper right hand corner. The questionnaires were mailed to each respondent. Each questionnaire had a cover letter explaining the purpose for the research (see appendix E), and each questionnaire had instructions for completing the various parts. Both groups were asked to return the survey instrument to the researcher in individually provided stamped, self-addressed envelopes. After three weeks, follow up calls and letters were sent to non-responding individuals (see appendix F). Pre-addressed, stamped envelopes, once again, were provided.

Analysis of Data

The generated data were primarily descriptive with frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations computed and placed in tabular form. The hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance.

Data were first divided into two groups: (A) SROs, (B) campus principals. The instruments were coded with each question receiving a unique data position and each response coded as follows: SA-5, A-4, N-3, D-2, SD-1. Point totals for questions 2, 3, 6, 9, 10, 14, 18, 20, 22, and 26 were reversed for reasons mentioned earlier. Data were inputted into a computer by specialists trained in data input. Data entry operators were continually tested for accuracy and thoroughly briefed on the specifics of the job. The operators then entered ten

documents under close supervision to insure that all instructions were understood and were being followed. After data were entered, 10% of each operator's work was reviewed. In addition, all documents were 100% verified by a second data entry operator, meaning all documents were keyed twice ensuring an accuracy rate of 99.8%. Important edits and checks allowed operators to enter only valid responses, and keying speeds and accuracy rates were recorded on each operator.

Two data sets were created: one with the 30 common questions to both groups and one with the differentiated sections. The two files with common questions were merged with each respondent being assigned a unique case number as an identifier. The identified assigned used each respondents school number prefaced with a 2 for SROs and a 1 for principals. The questions were coded q1-q30. The question mean was then determined for each of the questions 1-26 for each group. Missing cases on question responses were not used in the statistical analysis. Each demographic indicator was then dummy coded and analyzed separately to see if gender, age, or educational level of respondents could have influenced the overall orientation of school resource officers or principals.

Data were processed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, et al., 1975). Responses were then placed in tabular form. Responses to all questions were calculated in percentages and analyzed as to their relationship to the research questions. Means for both groups on the common 26 items were computed and included in the tables. Multiple regression analysis was done as well as T tests on the summative responses of the two groups on the 26

questions. P values were further applied in order to determine the statistical significance of the research. Principal component analysis was applied to the 26 common survey questions to determine if the survey instrument was indeed additive. Three factors were identified and T-tests were done between the two groups on these three factors. Additionally, chi square and T-test analysis were applied to individual questions. Levels of confidence were set at $P<.05$ for all tests. Regarding the issue of role perceptions, the following research questions and corresponding hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance:

RQ1: What are the perceptions of SROs regarding the role of SROs to the service versus law enforcement orientation? All of the questions in the survey (1 through 26) were utilized to answer research question number one.

RQ2: What are the perceptions of secondary building level principals regarding the role of SROs to the service versus law enforcement orientation? All of the questions in the survey (1 through 26) were utilized to answer research question number two.

RQ3: Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of SROs and second building level principals regarding the role of SROs? All of the questions in the survey (1 through 26) were utilized to answer research question number three. Groups were compared and tested for significant differences in perception according to role and behavior criteria.

RQ4: Does the potential for role conflict exist because of the existence of different role expectations by the role sets involved within the SRO position? All of the questions in the survey (1 through 26) were utilized to answer question number four.

H1: School resource officers perceive the role of the school resource officer to be service oriented.

H2: Secondary school principals perceive the role of the school resource officer to be more law enforcement oriented.

H3: There is a statistically significant difference in the perceptions of SROs and secondary principals regarding the role of SROs as to a service orientation or a law enforcement orientation.

The data from completed questionnaires were compiled into two groups: school resource officers and public secondary school principals. Responses were tallied separately in order to make comparisons. Data were displayed on frequency tables for examination. Other statistical techniques provided percentages and means. The significance of the relationship was determined by Regression analysis and simple T tests. Narrative conclusions were written in the form of summaries.

All questionnaire items were tested under the null hypothesis and were combined to arrive at an overall composite result with which to either reject or accept the null hypothesis.

Limitations of the Methodology

There are limitations to this study by the very nature of the research. Survey research does not attempt to determine a cause-and-effect relationship. Survey research, however, can make significant contributions to educational know- ledge and improvement. Survey research is also useful in obtaining personal and social facts, beliefs, and attitudes (Telb, 1980). There was no attempt to determine the scope of crime and violence on individual campuses, and there were no follow up procedures used to see if officers are in fact answering according to their orientation. Follow-up activity of this type is limited because of the confidential nature of the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Chapter four analyzes the data gathered in the study. The first section is an analysis of the frequency of demographic variables: gender, age, race, and educational level. The impact, if any, of demographic variables on responses will also be discussed. The second section is descriptive and concerns the frequency of responses and cumulative means, by group, for the 26 common research questions and the results of chi-square analysis and T-test analysis on those 26 individual items as well as the factor analysis techniques used. Section three discusses in descriptive terms the portion of the questionnaires unique to each of the two groups. Finally, open ended responses are presented.

Return rates are of importance in determining the accuracy of the collected data. Of the 133 secondary campuses in Dallas and Tarrant Counties having full time SROs, 87 principals (65.41%) and 95 SROs (71.42%) responded. Sixty-eight percent of all surveys were returned. After the first mailing, 57 principals and 45 SROs responded. After the second mailing, 30 (39.47%) of non-responding principals and 45 (56.81%) of non-responding SROs returned surveys.

Data Analysis - Section One

Demographic Variables

Four demographic factors were considered: age, gender, race, and

educational level.

Demographic Information

Demographic characteristics of SROs are as follows. Forty-one percent of

all school resource officers fell within the 25-34 year age range. An additional

37% of all SROs fell within the range of 35-44. Nineteen percent of respondent

SROs were between 45-54 years of age. In addition, 91% of the 95 SROs

responding were males and 67% of all respondent SROs were white. African-

Americans made up 22% of all SROs in the study and 10% were Latinos. Forty-

one percent of SROs had two to four years of college. The next highest groups

were SROs with bachelor's degrees (28%) and SROs with less than two years of

college (15%). Five percent of the respondent SROs had a graduate degree and

8% had graduated from high school but never attended college. The typical SRO

in Dallas/Tarrant County, according to the statistical information, would generally

be a white male between the ages of 25 and 44 with between two to four years of

college course work.

Principals appeared to be a fairly homogeneous group as well. All princi-

pals had graduate work. In addition, 75% of respondent principals were males and

81% were white. African-Americans made up 5% of all principals, and Latino

officers made up an additional 6%. All principal respondents were over the age of

35 with 57% being between the ages of 45-54, 28% between the ages of 35-44

and 13% being over 54 years of age (see figure 1)
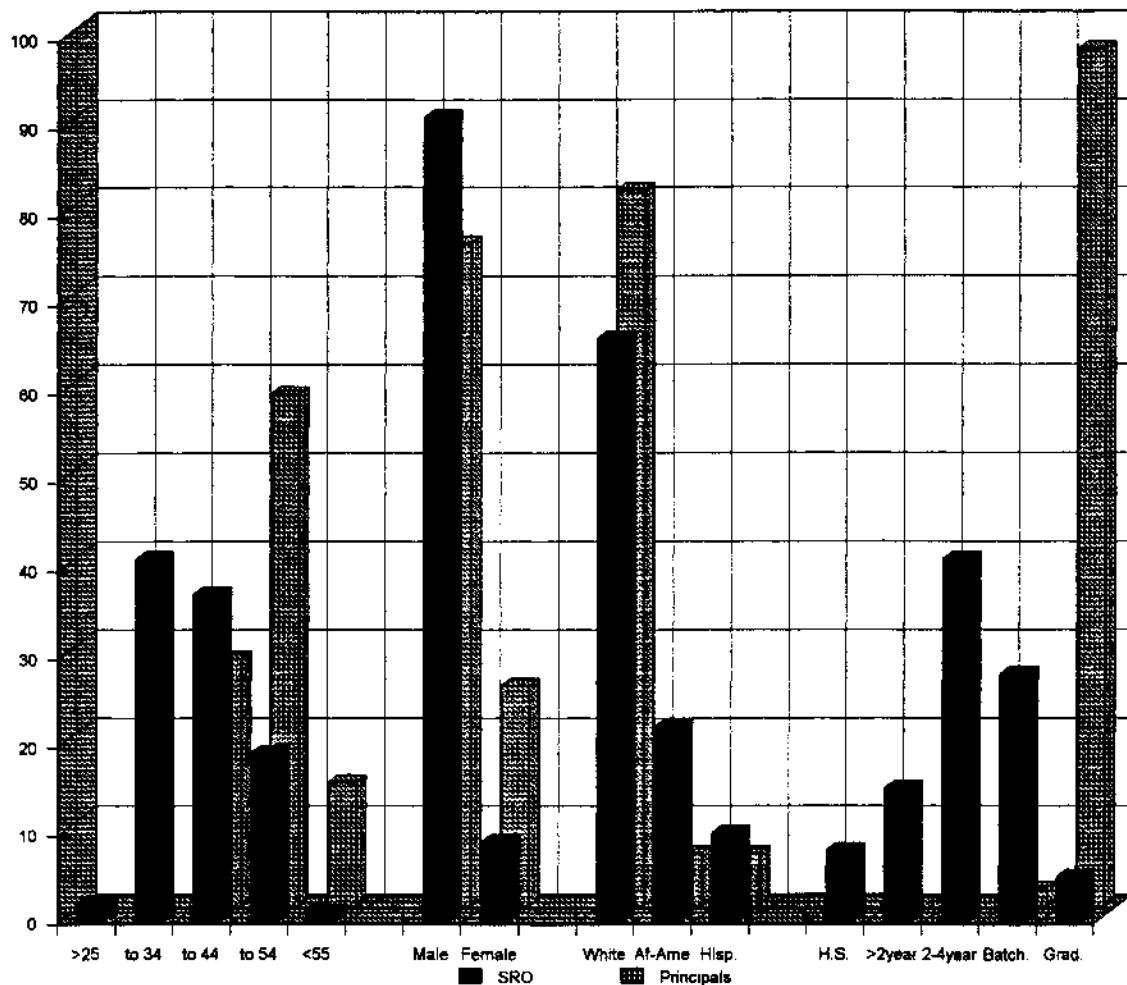
Figure 1. Demographic Information

The major differences between the two groups were in the areas of age and

education. Principals were generally older and more educated than SROs.

Another area of difference was race: 81% of principals were Anglo, while only

67% of SROs were Anglo. The largest ethnic group among respondents were African-Americans, who made up 22% of all SROs and 6% of all principals. Although SROs were a more diverse group racially, principals had 15% more female respondents.

These demographic variable were analyzed according to the data. None of the demographic variables had a significant impact on responses between the two groups. Each variable was analyzed by multiple regression analysis. Values for demographic variables were as follows: age, .2809; education, .3574; gender, .3934; race, 4830.

Data Analysis - Section Two

Response Means and Statistical Analysis

The statistical data were used to answer the research questions and hypothesis in this study. In addition, descriptive data regarding respondent SROs and principals are presented and answers to the open ended question will be discussed. (Refer to figure 2 for questions and group means by question.)
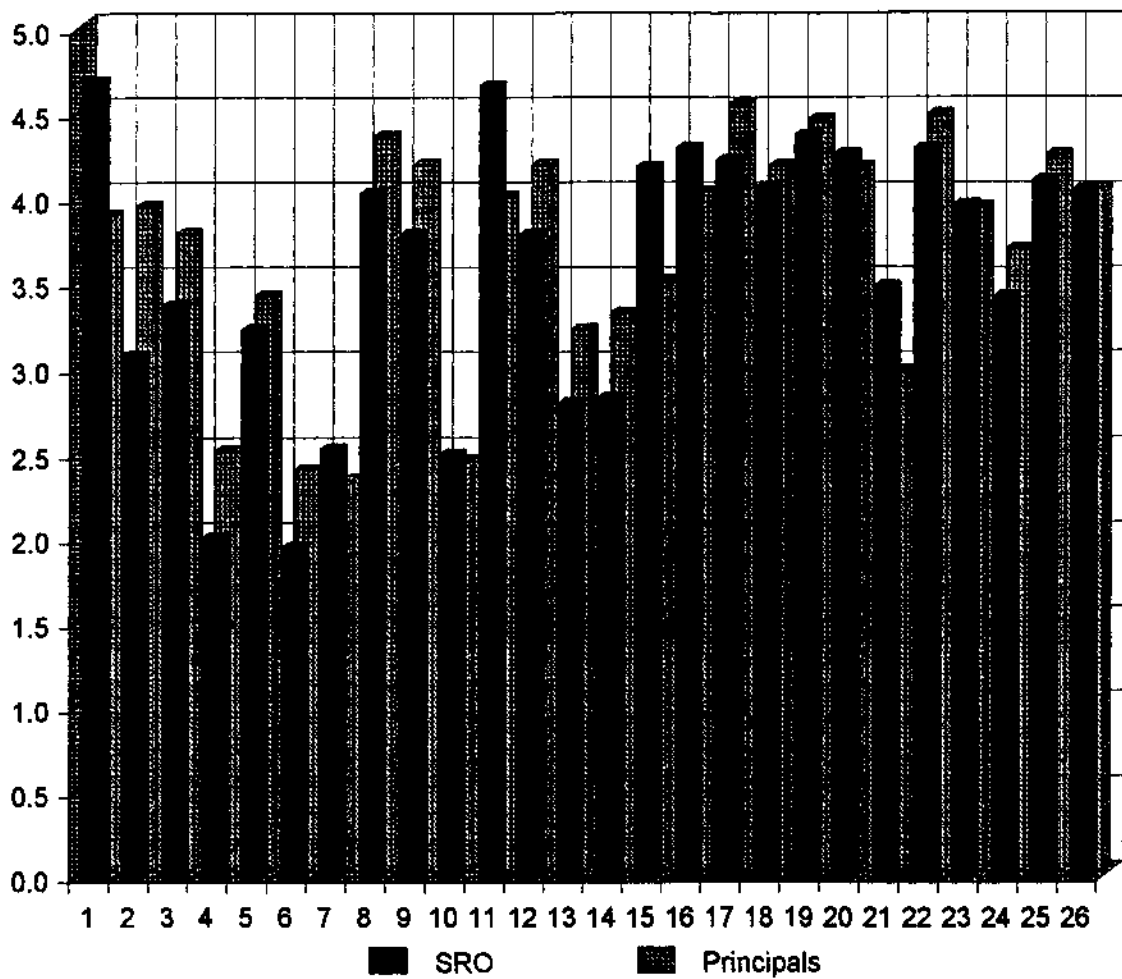
Figure 2. Means by Question* and Group

*Questions:

1. Officers engaged in law enforcement/security activities on public school

    campuses prefer to be called campus police officers rather than campus

    security officers.

2. Over one-half of the functions of the campus law enforcement/security

    officer are service related.

3. The role of the campus law enforcement/security officer is one that allows for more service and less law enforcement.

4. The role of the campus law enforcement/security officer does not differ significantly from the role of municipal police officers.

5. Campus law enforcement/security officers should enforce the law "by the book" or at least in the same manner as other law enforcement officers.

6. School district policies for carrying out the duty of campus law enforcement/security officers should limit the officers' flexibility and discretion in how they choose to handle serious incidents.

7. Generally, incidents of student misconduct that violate the law should be referred to the civil authorities instead of the building principal or school district personnel.

8. Generally, incidents of student misconduct that violate the law should be referred to both the civil authorities and the school principal or school district personnel.

9. One of the functions of campus law enforcement/security officers should be to assist teachers and/or students in starting their car when their batteries fail.

10. A function of campus law enforcement/security officers should be to assist motorists if they have locked their keys in their car on campus.

11. Because of the nature of the job, campus law enforcement/security officers should be required to bear arms at all times while on duty.

12. The school administration and faculty should encourage strict law enforcement on campus by the campus law enforcement/security department.

13. Campus law enforcement/security officers should have the responsibility for controlling traffic on campus.

14. Campus law enforcement/security officers should be expected to make certain all campus facilities are secure.

15. Campus law enforcement/security officers should be permitted to use their discretion in making an arrest versus a referral to the school principal or other school district personnel if the situation involves a student who commits a misdemeanor.

16. Campus law enforcement/security officers should be permitted to use their discretion in making an arrest if the situation involves a nonstudent who commits a misdemeanor.

Questions 17 to 26 have accompanying behavioral scenarios (see Appendix B).

17. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest anyone, whether a student or nonstudent, in possession of alcohol while under legal age to do so.

18. Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer any student found in possession of alcohol while under the legal age to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.

19. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest anyone who is in possession of a marijuana "joint."

20. Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer any student found in possession of a marijuana "joint" to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.

21. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest these individuals for petty theft.

22. Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer these students to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.

23. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest all individuals involved and charge them with a simple assault or similar charge.

24. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest the nonstudent and charge him/her with simple assault or a similar charge.

25. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest all individuals involved and charge them with a simple assault or similar charge. In addition to this action. the students should be referred to the school princi-pal or other appropriate school district personnel.

26. Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer the students to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: What are the perceptions of SROs regarding the role of SROs to the service vs. law enforcement orientation? The cumulative Q mean of all SRO respondents on the 26 common questions was 3.6382 which would

reflect that SROs are law enforcement oriented (see appendix F for question means

on all individual questions). The percentages of SROs who answered similarly on

several questions (see figures 3, 4, 5) illustrates the law enforcement views of

most SROs. For example, 93% of all officers prefer to be called "police officers"

rather than campus security officers (question 1 group mean = 4.7053). Ninety-

four percent of all SROs also agreed with question 11 which addressed the issue

of SROs carrying guns (group mean - 4.6774). Ninety-one percent of SROs

believed that SROs should be allowed to use the officer's own discretion in

determining whether to arrest or refer to school district personnel (question 15

group mean = 4.2). The number of SROs agreeing that SRO discretion should

prevail climbed to 94% when the situation involved a non-student on campus

(question 16 group mean = 4.3118).

Through application of factor analysis. it was determined that questions on

the instrument could be grouped in such a way as to identify three specific factors

(see table 1). Factor 1 was named "behavioral scenarios" and was made up of

questions 17-20 and 21-16. These questions all dealt with officers' responses to

actual behavioral scenarios. The group mean on this factor was the highest of the

three factors at 4.097. The high mean supported the idea that law enforcement

action should be taken against violators of the law. The second identified factor

was named "traditional police values and police discretionary powers." This factor

included questions 1, 11, 15. 16, 4, 5, and 7. These questions addressed the issues

of being called "police officers," carrying a weapon, and other traditional police

values, along with several questions that explored the issue of police discretionary powers. The mean of this factor was 3.670. SROs wanted police discretion on the part of SROs left "intact" and, for the most part, wanted to maintain traditional police values. Factor 3 was called service activity. This factor grouped questions 10, 13, 14, 6, and 9. These questions provided opportunities for SROs to address whether they thought they should unlock doors for motorists, control traffic, keep buildings secure, as well as other service-related questions. The group mean on this factor was 2.784. Officers generally saw these service-related duties as out-side their role.

Research Question 2: What are the perceptions of secondary building level principals regarding the role of SROs to the service versus law enforcement orientation? The cumulative Q mean of principals on the 26 individual questions was 3.5840, which would indicate that principals were only slightly less law enforcement orientated than SROs (see table 2 and appendix F for Q means of principals on each individual questions). Principals desired an even more law enforcement oriented response from police when violations of the law occurred on campus. Principals were more in agreement with law enforcement activity in every scenario (questions 17-26) involving illegal activity presented except for petty theft. When individual items were analyzed as to the frequency of individual responses between groups (see figures 3, 4, and 5) and means (see table 2), several items on the survey seemed to merit closer inspection.
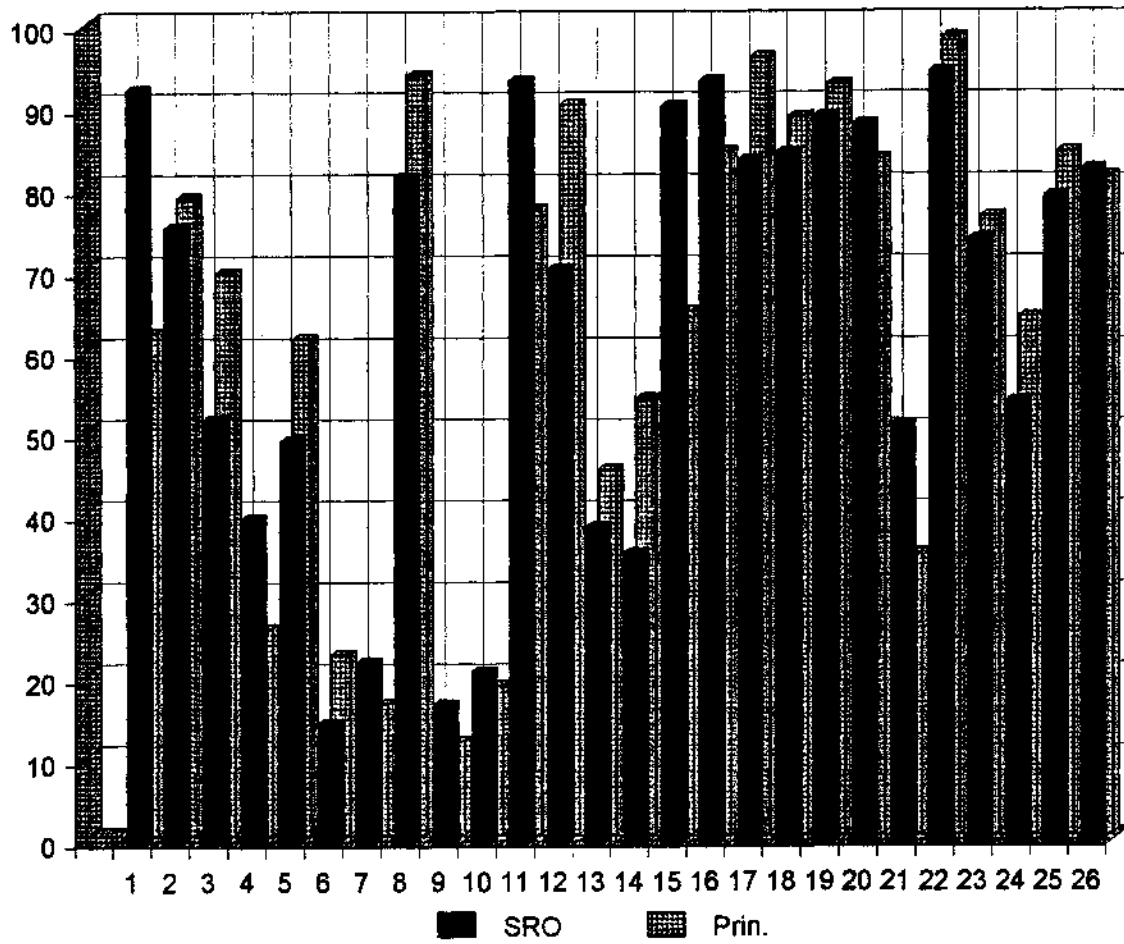
Figure 3. Percent who Agree or Strongly Agree
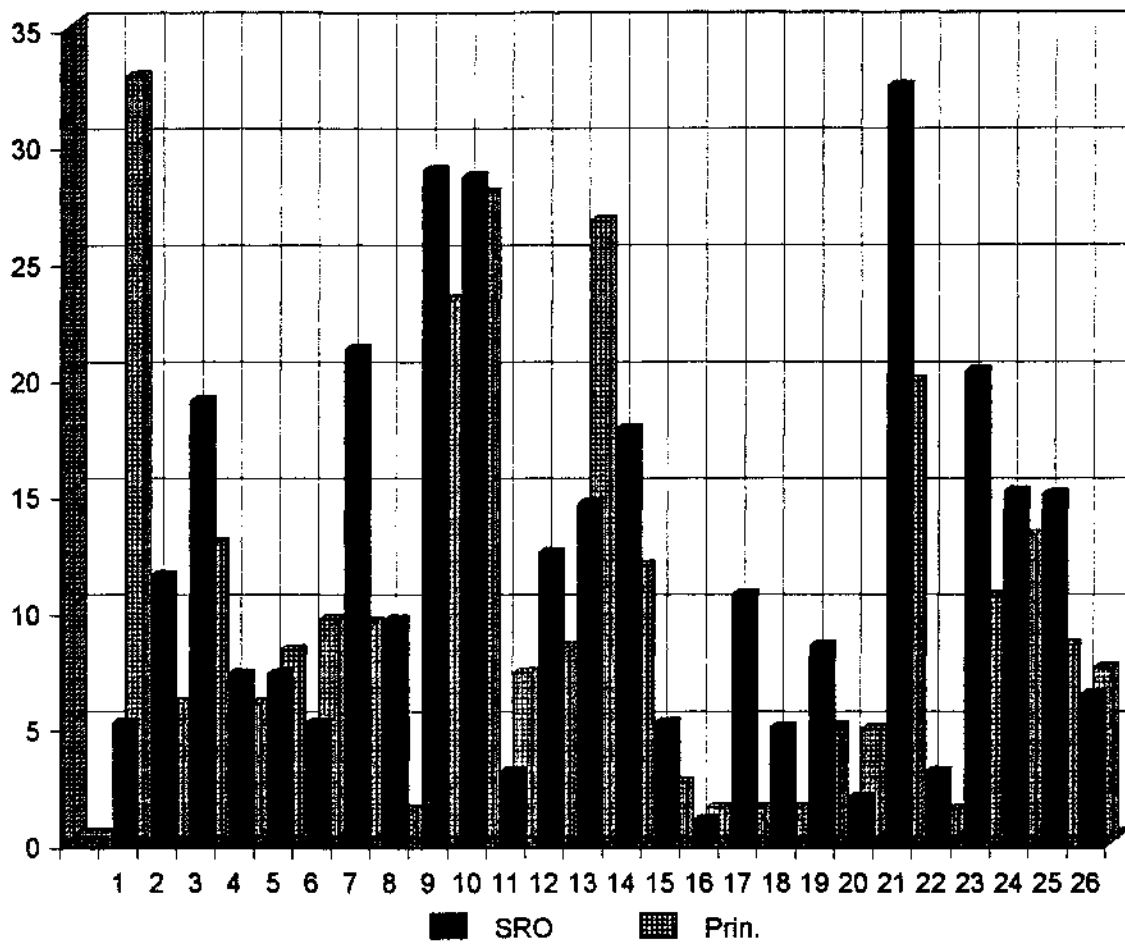
Figure 4. Percent with Neutral Responses
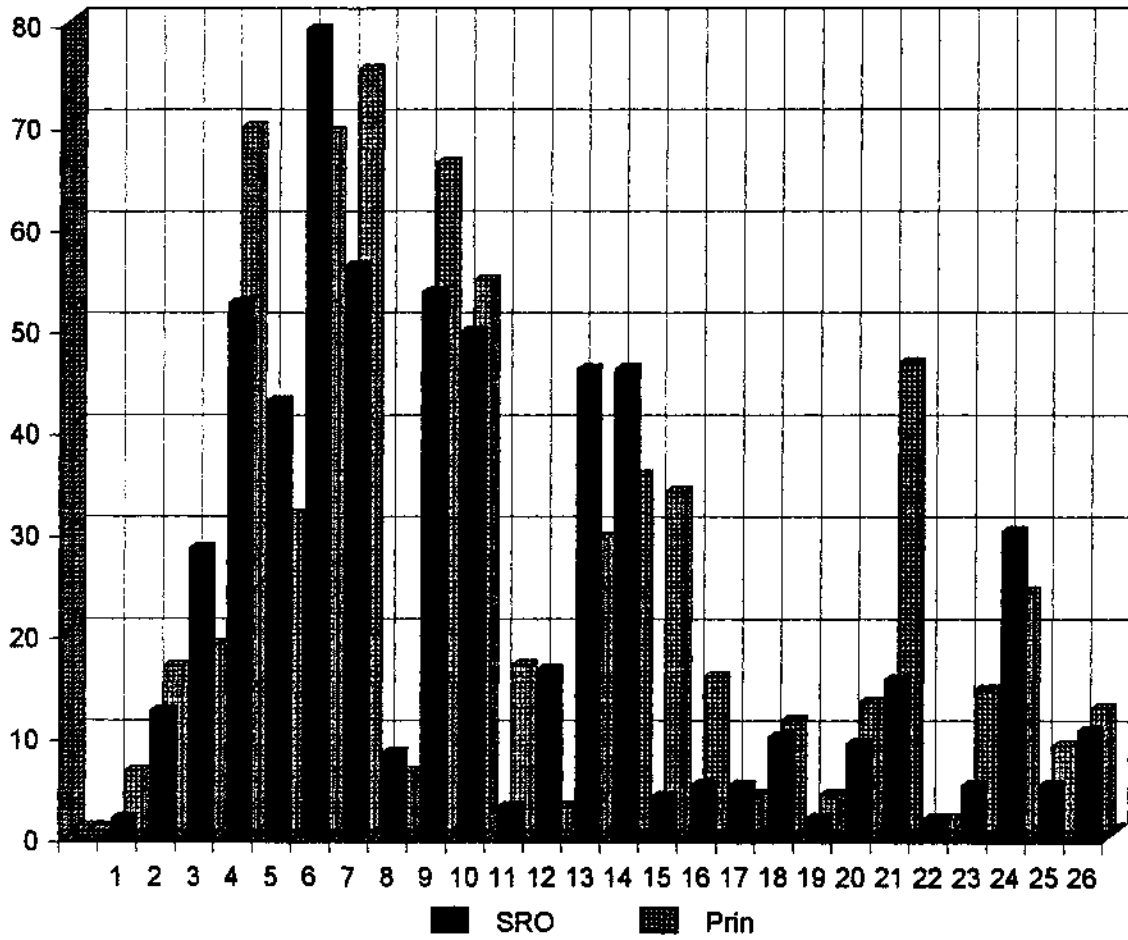
Figure 5. Percent who Disagree/Strongly Disagree

Table 1

Factor Analysis Results

Factor 1 Behavioral Scenarios p=.014*	Factor 2 Traditional Police Values and Police Discretion Powers p=.000	Factor 3 Service Activity p=.114
17	1	10
18	11	13
19	15	14
20	16	6
22	4	9
23	5	
24	7	
25		
26		
9	7	5

Items that do not fall within the three factors identified**
12
2
21
3
8

*P values represent differences in means between two groups.

**These factors do not fit within any of the three factors identified above.

Eighty-nine percent of principals agreed with question 12 that school administrators should encourage strict law enforcement on campus (group mean = 4.1512). Seventy-seven percent of principals agreed that because of the nature of the job, police officers should be required to wear guns at all times (question 11 group mean = 3.9651). Sixty-four percent of all principals agreed that police discretionary power regarding students who commit misdemeanors should be kept intact (question 15 group mean = 3.4713). The percentage of principals wanting police to maintain discretion in misdemeanor arrests climbed to 84% when non-students are the subject of police action (question 16 group mean = 3.9884).

In regard to the three identified factors (see table 1), Factor 1 (behavior scenarios) not only revealed that principals consistently favored law enforcement activity from police but also had a higher level of agreement than police that school officials be kept informed when illegal activity happened on school property (4.1612). Ninety-five percent of principals agreed that possession of alcohol at school activities warrants arrest. and 89% agreed that arrest was appropriate when a marijuana joint is detected by police. On Factor 2: Traditional police values and police discretionary powers. principals were less inclined than officers to agree that police discretion remain absolute and that officers maintain traditional police values (3.347). Many of the individual questions that make up this factor have been discussed in the previous paragraph. Principals tended to remain neutral in response to officers being asked to perform many of the service

functions outlined in the questions making up factor 3 (3.077). Only 45% of all principals agreed that SROs should help motorists unlock cars (question 10).

Research Question 3: Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of SROs and secondary building level principals regarding the role of SROs? Although the cumulative Q mean of the 26 items was not significantly different, multiple regression techniques revealed q means were marginal with an F value between groups of .0684. T-tests and chi-square analysis were applied between the individual 26 questions. According to T-test analysis, 13 of the 23 questions revealed a significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the responses between groups. Chi-square analysis confirmed a significant difference when held to the $p < .05$ level between groups on 10 questions. Five questions remained significant when held to the $p < .01$ level (see figure 6).
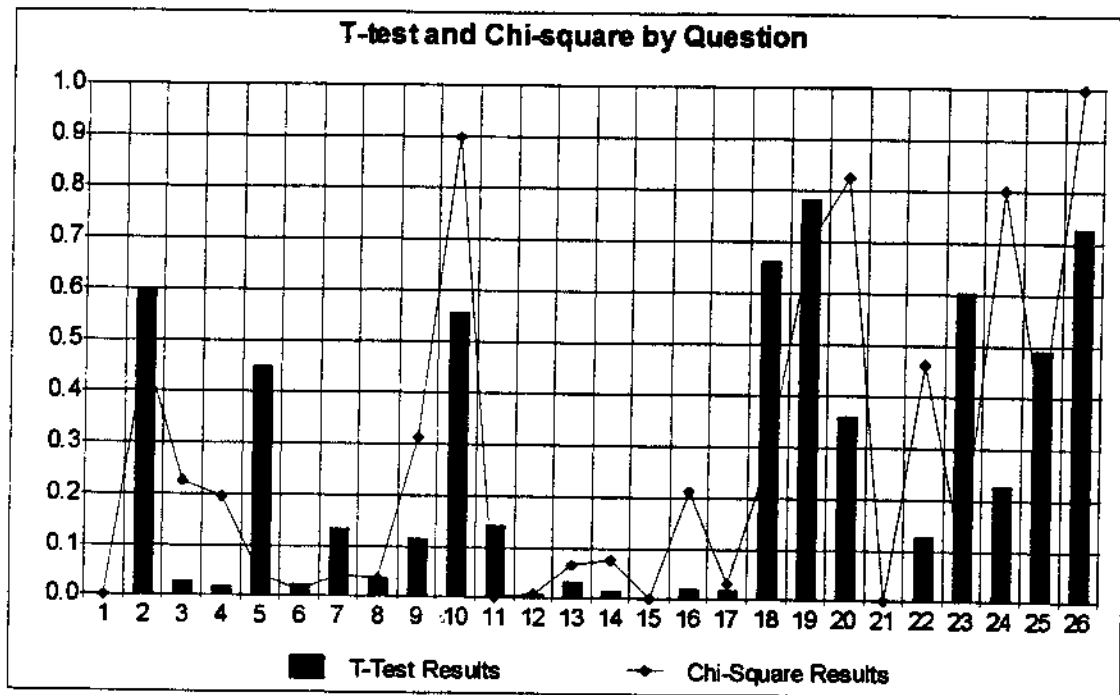
Figure 6. T-Test and Chi-Square by Question

Those questions where the significance level dropped below $p<.01$ level are as follows:

Question 1: Do officers engaged in law enforcement/security activities on public school campuses prefer to be called police officers rather than campus security officers? (The Q mean of SROs was significantly higher.)

Question 11: Because of the nature of the job, campus law enforcement/ security officers should be required to bear arms at all times while on duty. (The Q mean for SROs was significantly higher.)

Question 12: Should school administration and faculty encourage strict law enforcement on campus by the campus law enforcement/security department? (The Q mean for principals was significantly higher.)

Question 15: Should campus law enforcement/security officers be permitted to use their discretion in making an arrest versus a referral to the school principal or other school district personnel if the situation involves a student who commits a misdemeanor? (The Q mean for SROs was significantly higher.)

Question 21: Should campus law enforcement/security officers arrest individuals for petty theft? (The Q mean of SROs was significantly higher.)

Percentages of differences in responses to individual questions also suggested that differences may exist between the two groups (see figures 3, 4, 5). Questions that appear to differ drastically in regard to frequencies of responses between the two groups are 1, 4, 7, 11, 13, and 21.

Question 1: Officers engaged in law enforcement/security activities on public school campuses prefer to be called police officers rather than campus security officers (93% of SROs agree as opposed to 62% of principals. In addition, 33% of principals neither agreed nor disagreed, while only 5% of SROs chose this response).

Question 4: The role of the campus law enforcement/security officer does not differ significantly from the role of municipal police officers. (Forty percent of SROs agreed with this statement as opposed to 25% of principals.)

Question 7: Generally, incidents of student misconduct that violate the law should be referred to civil authorities instead of the building principal or school district personnel. (Fifty-six percent of SROs disagreed with that statement while 85% of principals disagreed with that statement.)

Question 11: Because of the nature of the job, campus law enforcement/security officers should be required to bear arms at all times while on duty. (Ninety-four percent of SROs agreed with this statement, as opposed to 77% of principals.)

Question 13: Campus law enforcement/security officers should have the responsibility for controlling traffic on campus. (Forty-six percent of SROs disagreed with this statement while only 29% of principals disagreed.)

Question 21: Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest these individuals for petty theft. (Fifty-two of SROs agreed with this statement, while only 35% of principals agreed.)

When factor analysis was completed (see table 1), two out of the three factors identified were significantly different between groups. Factor 1 (behavioral scenarios), different at the P=.014 level, indicated that principals wanted a more aggressive stance than SROs on handling illegal activity when it occurs on campus. In addition, principals were more strongly in agreement than SROs that school officials be notified when illegal activity occurs on campus. One exception to this trend was that SROs agreed with more aggressive law enforcement action when the offense was petty theft. Factor 2 also revealed a significant difference between respondents. This factor discussed the issue of traditional police values and police discretionary powers. Traditional police values and police discretionary powers revealed the most significant difference of all between groups (P=.000). SROs felt much more strongly that the traditional values of police officers remain in tact and that the discretionary power of the police remain absolute. The one factor that did not reveal a significant difference between groups was Factor 3: Service activities (P=.114). Neither police nor school administrators were inclined to asked police to perform service-related functions such as controlling traffic, jump starting cars, or unlocking vehicles for staff or students, although principals seemed slightly more inclined to agree with SRO involvement in the service activities mentioned.

Research Question 4: Does the potential for role conflict exist because of the existence of different role expectations by the role sets involved within the SRO position? In regard to this question, many of the differences noted in ques-

tion 3 suggest that role conflict could be a significant factor in the SRO position. Many of the responses on the questionnaire, items unique to SROs, do not suggest that this is the case. Eighty-three percent of all SROs are employed by municipal departments and 13% are employed by county police departments. Only 8% of the officers surveyed worked for police departments established by school districts. therefore a board of trustees has not outlined the scope of on-duty and off-duty law enforcement activities in writing. Yet, 75% of SROs felt that there was a firm understanding that outlined reasonable coordination and communication between SROs and law enforcement agencies with overlapping jurisdiction, and almost 80% agree that the role of the SRO is clearly understood by the principal. Eighty-one percent of SROs agreed that the program that they are involved in has clearly stated objectives.

Only slightly more than half (53.48%) of the principals had received additional training regarding the SRO program on their campus, in contrast with 93% of SROs who believe they have received specialized training. In addition. 52% of principals believe that having an SRO on campus who is not under the direction of the building principal negatively impacts school effectiveness. Almost 53% of SROs agree that the SRO does not take orders from the building principal and 58% of SROs believe that school personnel had no say in hiring them for the SRO position. However, 79% of principals agree that they are involved in the SROs performance evaluation and almost 70% of principals believe that they could recommend disciplinary action against the SRO.

Research Question 5: Does role conflict compromise job performance of school resource officers. Once again, 80% of all SROs believe that the role of the SRO is clearly understood by the principal and 96% of all SROs agree that they work well with the school administration. Although 52% of campus principals believe that having a SRO on campus who is not under the direction of the building principal negatively impacts school effectiveness, over 97% of building principals believe that the SRO is effective on their campus in fulfilling his/her job objectives.

Hypothesis 1: School resource officers perceive themselves as service oriented. According to the data analysis, particularly as it relates to research question 1, this hypothesis should be rejected.

Hypothesis 2: Secondary school principals perceive the SRO as law enforcement oriented. According to the data analysis, particularly as it relates to research question 2, this hypothesis should be accepted.

Hypothesis 3: Role conflict has no effect on job performance. In this case, although significant data were presented to support the claim that conflict could be occurring in the SRO position, principals and SROs in the involved schools did not appear to believe that role conflict was an inhibiting factor in the job performance of SROs. This hypothesis should be accepted.

Data Analysis - Section Three

Questions Unique to Each Group

Each of the two groups responded to a set of unique questions designed to

determine compliance with state mandates and indicate satisfaction with job per-

formance. Many of these responses have been discussed in the data analysis

section pertaining to research questions four and five. The remaining data are of a

descriptive nature (see appendix H).

School resource officers responded to six objective questions unique to

their group which have not been discussed. These questions provided the

following descriptive data:

Question 1a: Prior to your present employment, were you previously

employed in law enforcement?:

yes . . . . (67.44%)

no . . . . (32.55%)

Question 1b: If yes to number 1, in what type of agency were you

employed?:

city departments . . . . (83.33%)

county departments . . . . (12.96%)

state departments . . . . (1.85%)

other types . . . . (1.85%)

Question 2: How many years have you been in law enforcement (total):

over ten years .... (56.66%)

seven to ten years .... (17.77%)

four to six years .... (18.88%)

two to three years .... (6.66%)

Question 3: How many years have you been working in the public schools as a law enforcement officer:

two to three years .... (36.66%)

four to six years .... (35.55%)

one year .... (18.88%)

over ten years .... (5.55%)

seven to ten years .... (3.33%)

Question 4: Did you attend a police academy for training?

yes .... (100 %)

Question 5: Was the academy attended by other sworn officers in the state (city, county, and state police officers)?

yes .... (85.05%)

no .... (14.94%)

Question 8: What type of police department provides your commission?

municipal agency .... (88.50%)

local school district .... (8.04%)

county agencies .... (2.29%)

other . . . . (1.14%)

Question 9: Do you enforce all laws, including municipal ordinances,

county ordinances, and state laws?

yes . . . . (94.31%)

no . . . . (5.68%)

There were 2 questions asked of principals that have not been covered.

Their responses are as follows:

Question 1: Years as a school administrator:

over ten years . . . . (60.00%)

seven to ten years . . . . (20.00%)

four to six years . . . . (15.29%)

two to three years . . . . (4.70%)

Question 2: How many years has your school utilized police officers?

four to six years . . . . (41.86%)

two to three years . . . . (20.93%)

seven to ten years . . . . (19.76%)

over ten years . . . . (17.44%)

Data Analysis — Section Four

Open Ended Responses

An additional question was asked and all respondents were given an

opportunity to respond: Please describe any conflicts that you see in following

both law enforcement and school objectives (see appendix G for all open-ended responses).

Fifty-two SROs responded to the open-ended question. Of those responses, comments could generally be put into five categories: politics, power struggles, police discretion, separatism, and suggestions for making the SRO program work.

The area receiving the most commentary by SROs was the area of police discretion. Eighteen officers expressed concerns over the school system failing to understand the difference between school policies and laws requiring police intervention. Officers approached this issue from two directions. Officers expressed concerns over schools asking them to enforce "in house" rules from the one direction and expressed concerns over administrative interference in handling issues requiring legal intervention from the other. An SRO had this comment. "There is confusion over what a 'police officer' can and cannot do. School administrators are not clear on the difference between a penal code violation and a 'house rule' violation." A second officer illustrated the second position. "Conflicts occur when a principal disallows police action without good cause." Some officers feel that sometimes they are put in an awkward position because school administrators demand legal action when the elements of an offense do not exist.

There seemed to be a feeling of separatism among some police officers. Twelve comments were made regarding the separation of the SRO from the school system. "My actions as an SRO/police officer are dictated by the police department," commented one officer. Three other officers' responses included the

following phrases respectively: "do your job and we do ours; don't get into my business and I don't get into theirs; I have no duty to report to anyone at school. and they have none to report to me." At least three comments supported the contention among some SROs that once a violation of the law occurs the school administration has "no say" or that once the police are involved, the problem becomes a "police matter."

Eleven responses from SROs expressed concern over the issue of politics. Political problems, according to SROs, generally fell into two categories. The first political issue was favoritism in schools. Six officers responded that schools determine whom they want to pursue based on who their parents were, whether they were involved in sports, or what sub-culture they belonged to. One officer said, "Schools need to treat all students the same. It should not matter if one student's mother is in the PTA and the other's mother is in jail." The second political issue that concerned officers was the desire on the part of schools to cover up. Officers felt that school officials felt that violation of the law on campus where a direct reflection on them personally. One officer remarked, "School officials cover-up laws that are broken for the sake of their image." Another stated. "Some administrators feel that criminal activity is a direct reflection on their ability to do their job."

Seven responses discussed the issue of power struggles on campus. SROs cited jealousy, egos and pride, and friction at being "ordered" around as problems in schools. One SRO responded, "Some principals see an officer on their campus

as a threat to their authority." Another SRO contributed the following: "At specific schools the principals attempt to order the SRO around which can cause friction."

Finally, it should be reported that six officers specifically emphasized that their was no conflict at their schools in regard to their roles. In addition, four responses by SROs reflected a collaborative attitude in dealing with school personnel. Some of these responses specifically elaborated the rationale for program success. Common threads in these responses include the phrases, "Common goals, working together and cooperation."

School administrators responded to the same open-ended questions as SROs. Twenty-one principals responded to open ended question (see appendix H for a complete listing). It was more difficult to find common themes among the comments from principals. However two concerns seemed to be surface.

The first area of concern among principals was police discretion. It was interesting to note that four responses were concerned with principals trying to dictate legal matter to officers and trying to get officers too involved in school discipline while the other four responding to the issue were primarily concerned with the principal having control of the campus. One principal stated, "The school principal should set the role of the SRO and the school principal should be in the final decision making role." A second principal said. "No conflict occurs as long as the principal has the final decision making role."

The second area receiving five or more comments from school principals addresses the public relations concerns. One principal said, "SROs should not be of the night stick/hard-head school." A second principal expressed the need for more distinction between an officer operating on the street as opposed to in the context of a school." The other responses dealt with the response of parents when seeing students cuffed and awaiting transport, not receiving contact from SROs when legal activity is taken, and a disapproval of intimidation techniques used by some SROs.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter contains five sections. The first section explains the study with a brief summary of the research questions and hypotheses, the methodology and a description of the respondents. Section two summarizes the finding of the study. Section three is included so as to link the findings from this study back to the literature review. The final two sections outline the need for further research and offer final comments.

The Study

The study was a quantitative study using a Likert-design survey instrument validated in several previous studies. Two respondent groups were selected for study: school resource officers and secondary school principals in public schools in two counties in a metropolitan area of central Texas. All existing SROs and principals in schools who use commissioned peace officers were selected.

The intent of the study was to answer five research questions and three hypotheses: RQ(1): What are the perceptions of SROs regarding the role of SROs to the service vs. law enforcement orientation? RQ(2): What are the perceptions of secondary building level principals regarding the role of SROs to the service

versus law enforcement orientation? RQ(3): Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of SROs and secondary building level principals regarding the role of SROs? RQ(4): Does the potential for role conflict exist because of the existence of different role expectations by the role sets involved within the SRO position? RQ(5): Does role conflict compromise job performance of school resource officers? H(1): School resource officers perceive themselves as service oriented. H(2): Secondary principals perceive the school resource officers as law enforcement oriented. H(3): Role conflict has no effect on job performance.

The methodology of this study was to use a survey to collect data regarding the research questions and hypothesis. The survey instrument was a Likert design scale that had been used and validated in previous studies. Respondents were sent cover letters and surveys along with stamped, addressed return envelopes. Follow-up letters were sent to non-respondents until a 70% return rate was received.

Findings

Data analysis consisted of four major parts. The analysis of the common set of 26 questions, the descriptive demographic data, the descriptive program data, and finally open-ended responses.

The 26 common items were the center of the research. These data were analyzed by looking at cumulative means of the 26 common items asked of both groups. T-tests and multiple regression analysis revealed no significant difference in cumulative question means; however, chi-square and t-tests on individual

questions revealed that 13 of the 26 items had significantly different responses between groups. A type of factor analysis called "principal component analysis" was performed in order to identify which factors within the instrument accounted for the variance. Three factors were identified: traditional police values and discretionary powers, behavioral scenarios, and service activities. Two factors—traditional police values and discretionary powers, and behavioral scenarios—reflected a significant difference in response between groups.

An additional section of questions unique to each of the two groups of respondents was asked. These questions were mainly asked in order to determine compliance with state mandates in Texas and to answer research questions four and five, as well as hypothesis 3. Many of these questions provide descriptive information about the programs included in the study.

In answer to the research questions. several conclusions were reached. The data supported the idea that SROs and principals both feel the SRO program is law enforcement oriented. There were significant differences between respondent groups even though each group perceived the role of SROs as law enforcement oriented. Although there was evidence to support the contention that role conflict could be an inhibiting factor in the role of SROs. answers to questions regarding satisfaction with job performance indicate that both SROs and principals feel the program is very successful.

A question at the end of each survey allowed for an open-ended response. Fifty-two SROs responded to the open-ended question. Generally, five areas of

concern emerged: politics to include favoritism and denial of problems, power struggles, police discretionary powers, a feeling of being separate and apart from the school, and positive comments and suggestions for making the SRO program work. Principals contributed 21 responses to the open-ended question. It was much more difficult to find common themes in principal responses. Two topics which received more than five responses were the issues of discretionary power of the police and occasional public relations problems. Discretionary concerns were evenly divided among the eight respondents: those concerned that principals would try to dictate legal action to police or asked police to do school discipline and those who felt that officers should leave the final decision-making role to the school principal.

The research questions and hypothesis were answered according to the data.

RQ(1): What are the perceptions of SROs regarding the role of SROs to the service vs. law enforcement orientation?

Answer: SROs perceive their role to be law enforcement oriented.

RQ(2): What are the perceptions of secondary building level principals regarding the role of SROs to the service versus law enforcement orientation?

Answer: Principals perceive the role of SROs to be law enforcement oriented.

RQ(3): Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of SROs and secondary building level principals regarding the role of SROs?

Answer: Although both groups lean toward a law enforcement orientation, significant differences do exist on two factors: behavioral scenarios and traditional law enforcement values and police discretionary powers.

RQ(4): Does the potential for role conflict exist because of the existence of different role expectations by the role sets involved within the SRO position? For example, group responses differed significantly according to T-tests on 13 of the 26 individual questions. In addition, when three factors were identified: traditional police values and police discretionary powers, behavioral scenarios, and service activities, the first two factors were significantly different between the two groups.

Answer: Yes, the potential for role conflict exists. In addition, open-ended responses identified several other areas of potential conflict: politics, power struggles, feelings of separatism, police discretionary powers, and public relations issues.

RQ(5): Does role conflict compromise job performance of school resource officers? The potential for role conflict exists because of the differences identified in answer to research question 3.

Answer: This was not substantiated by the research. There was no evidence from the answers to the survey items to support the conclusion that role conflict compromises the job performance of SROs. Eighty percent of all SROs believed that the role of the SRO was clearly understood by the principal and 96% of all SROs agreed that they work well with the school administration. Over 97%

of principals believe that the SRO is effective in fulfilling his/her job objectives on their campuses.

H(1): School resource officers perceive themselves as service oriented.
This hypothesis is rejected.

H(2): Secondary principals perceive the school resource officer as law enforcement oriented.
This hypothesis is accepted.

H(3): Role conflict has no effect on job performance.
This hypothesis is accepted.

Discussion

The study revealed that several key pieces of information in this study can support research presented in Chapter II. The major confirmation comes in the area of police training and indoctrination and relevance of higher education research to the public school.

The literature review revealed that SRO programs were initiated and pursued by police departments primarily for community relations efforts. Program design suggested that service rather than law enforcement should be the primary role of SROs. However, the literature also revealed that a strong police culture, solidified by traditional training and indoctrination methods, could make it difficult for officers to accept the service mentality. This strong belief in maintaining traditional police values was evidenced in the data analysis. Another common

theme in the literature review that emerged in the open-ended responses was the wish or feeling among SROs that they are outsiders, separate and apart from the school system. Although the literature documented the prevalence of a service role among all police, it was not reflected in the responses of officers. Most officers did not see that a service role dominated most of their time.

Research done in higher education regarding the establishment of police-school partnerships held some validity. Law enforcement officers held similar views on campuses of higher learning to those held by SROs on public school campuses. Areas of difference appeared not with the police but in comparing university officials to public school principals. Principals, unlike their higher education counterparts, seemed to hold a more law enforcement orientation. This may be because public school students usually have fewer rights, are younger, and have less choice about where they attend school.

A large majority of officers in the public schools are still employed by municipal departments. Only 8% of the SROs in the study worked for the school district. As more school districts start their own police departments, attitudes will continue to shift and adjust.

Implications for Further Research

There are several implications that researchers and planners should consider in developing SRO programs. The policy implications deal with the definition of

the role of SROs and goal setting. In addition there is a need for further research in the area of this study.

The study pointed out that program designers wanted SRO programs to be service oriented. Since the traditional training and indoctrination of SROs does not differ from other law enforcement officers, it will be difficult for officers absent additional training, to take on a more service oriented role. Officers who perceive their role to be more law enforcement oriented may experience role conflict with their police supervisors who design SRO programs. On the other hand, officers who are service oriented may experience conflict with the expectation of principals who see their SROs role as law enforcement.

SROs receive basically the same state-mandated training and indoctrination into the police culture as other police officers. The study revealed that at least some SROs received no additional training. Training emphasis needs to be placed on topics such as crisis intervention, counseling, interpersonal skills, and crime prevention. Likewise, specialized training in the areas of juvenile law, community relations skills, and special education seem to be important regardless of the orientation of the SRO position. Only about one-half of principals reported receiving any training in regard to understanding the role of the SRO. Both SROs and principals alike must have a clear idea of how SRO programs will be evaluated.

Johnson and Gregory (1971) point out that police management encourages solidarity through its rigid semi-military hierarchial authority structure. The

solidarity of the police professions is a force that materially affects role acquisition and role performance. The SRO must work collaboratively with school administrators on the one hand and law enforcement authorities under the hierarchial structure on the other. In addition, principals who are accustomed to making the managerial decisions on their campuses may have difficulty when SROs do not follow their personal philosophical beliefs in dealing with the school community: parents, students, teachers, and tax payers. SROs or principals who are inflexible within their domain of responsibility may prove dysfunctional to the educational institution.

Recommendations for Further Research

These suggestions are intended to benefit future researchers attempting to replicate or expand on studies concerning SRO programs.

It was interesting to note in the study that some law enforcement officers were apprehensive about participating in the study. Twelve school police officers called to find out the purpose of the study. One city refused to participate in the study at all saying that they did not feel it was in the best interest of their program. Further investigation as to what aspects of the study made them feel threatened needs to be conducted before duplication occurs.

This study failed to analyze or compare the nature or scope of crime and violence among the secondary campuses studied. Campuses in high crime areas

may be more oriented toward law enforcement while campuses in low crime areas may be more oriented and dedicate more time to service activities.

The instrument itself in this study is in need of refinement. In retrospect, some of the statements on the research instrument may have been confusing. Question 18, for example, referred to enforcing laws "by the book." The readers may have been confused as to what the researcher meant. The Likert five item forced chain scale does not spread the responses toward the extremes. Likert scales tend to have medians that fall toward the middle (3.0). Finally, some officers said that they did not understand if some of the role behavior questions were mutually exclusive. For example, one common choice was that students should be referred to the school administration. Several felt that this was confusing as to whether this was the only action that would be taken or merely one option. Law enforcement action could be taken even after school administrators were notified. Several of the questions asked of SROs alone were confusing to officers who work for the city police departments. City police department programs housed on public education campuses do not follow state mandates regarding local school district established police departments. Only 7 of the 95 officers surveyed actually worked for the school district in a school district created police department.

There has been little research on public education policing. The following are in need of further study.

1. Role behavior and role orientation of SROs in other regions of the country or state/nationwide random sampling should be considered.

2. Research is needed on how faculty, students, and parents perceive the role of SROs. Specific comparisons among these groups would be valuable.

3. Effectiveness studies could be done in regard to crime statistics and SRO programs.

4. Further research needs to be done on the nature and scope of crime on secondary campuses.

5. Research is needed on how SRO program leaders and designers are oriented in regard to the SROs role.

6. SRO program goals and objectives need further study.

7. Funding of programs and role orientation should be studied.

8. Further research should be conducted to ascertain how the variable of time affects an officer's perception of his/her role performance.

9. Further research needs to be done on school district policies regarding SRO programs.

10. Studies needs to be done to determine whether the SRO's role is better defined when the district has its own non-commissioned security staff.

11. Studies need to be done to determine if attitudes of SROs and principals change after mutual training efforts.

If SRO are to be responsive to the needs of the public school community, further research on SRO programs is strongly recommended.

Conclusion

The role of certified peace officer in the public school is evolving and, like most roles, will require adjustment and refinement. As societal needs change, the public must take an active role in deciding what is in the best interest of our nation's children. The resources of this country are exhaustible, and society deserves to have the money it spends used as productively and as efficiently as possible. In an effort to meet those ends, I make the following conclusions.

Foundationally, I believe that the School Resource Officer Program is a proactive step in the right direction. The program has received much favorable commentary. Both the school district and the community have benefitted tremendously from the School Resource Officer position. Almost all interviewed expressed a need for the program. The utility of a program of this type not only enhances our current system of childhood education, but it may, in fact, become essential.

Improving the image of the police would benefit society. By listening to current media coverage and talking to today's adolescents, one can easily conclude that we must improve the image of the modern police officer if he/she is to be effective. The desire of police personnel to provide programs and education in high crime areas may produce some long range improvement in lowering the rate of delinquent behavior.

The needs of the public schools are legitimate as well. Schools have been besieged by violence and delinquency, and the specialized training that police

officers receive can help achieve the police officers' desire to present educational opportunities. The classroom teacher spends a large amount of the class period dealing with delinquent behavior. Some students claim they feel unsafe in the public schools, and, for this reason, many wealthy families have disengaged their children from public schools. If schools could get relief from delinquency problems and allow students to feel safe in classrooms, fewer parents might seek alternatives. However, as contrasted with the average police officer, schools have counselors who have received extensive training in counseling students; and schools have teachers who can teach law, drug awareness, gang violence, and the like. Because of their knowledge of instructional strategies, educators may be better trained to do these jobs.

Therein lies the dilemma of current programs. We need police officers in schools for many reasons, but where do we concentrate these efforts? It is unrealistic to think that one human resource officer, no matter how talented, can accomplish all the goals that schools and police departments want from him/her. The answer probably lies in compromise. What do children need most?

Many school resource officer programs will reach a critical stage in the next few years. As funding for the program shifts back and forth from state grants or police department money to school district money, it seems unlikely that the goals of the program will remain unchanged. Some people involved in the program currently appear to be holding a hard line for the interests of their affiliate. Research should be used to help define and solidify the success of this

program so that limited resources can be most effectively targeted to the areas of

greatest need.

APPENDIX A

GEOGRAPHICAL LISTING OF

PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS

IDENTIFIED SECONDARY SCHOOLS WITH COMMISSIONED PEACE OFFICERS ON CAMPUS

Dallas County

Carrollton-Farmers Branch ISD
Newman Smith High School
Turner High School

Cedar Hill ISD
W.S. Permenter Middle School
Cedar Hill High School

Coppell ISD
Coppell High School

Dallas ISD
Adams High School
Adamson High School
Carter High School
Hillcrest High School
Jefferson High School
Kimball High School
Lincoln High School
Madison High School
North Dallas High School
Pinkston High School
Roosevelt High School
Samuel High School
Seagoville High School
Skyline High School
Smith High School
South Oak Cliff High School
Spruce High School
Sunset High School
Washington High School
White High School
Wilson High School

DeSoto ISD
East Junior High School
West Junior High School
DeSoto High School

Duncanville ISD
Duncanville 9th Grade School
Duncanville High School

Garland ISD
Austin Academy for Excellence
Brandenburg Middle School
Bussey Middle School
Coyle Middle School
Houston Middle School
Hudson Middle School
Jackson Middle School
Lyles Middle School
Memorial Preparatory School
O'Banion Middle School
Sellers Middle School
Webb Middle School
Lakeview Centennial High School
Garland High School
North Garland High School
South Garland High School

Grand Prairie ISD
Adams Middle School
Jackson Middle School
Kennedy Middle School
Lee Middle School
Truman Middle School
Grand Prairie High School
South Grand Prairie High School

Highland Park ISD
McCulloch Middle School
Highland Park High School

Irving ISD
Bowie Junior High School
Crockett Junior High School
Lamar Junior High School
Sam Houston Junior High School
Stephen F. Austin Junior High School
Travis Junior High School
Irving High School
MacArthur High School
Nimitz High School

Lancaster ISD
Lancaster Junior High
Lancaster High School

Mesquite ISD
Mesquite High School
North Mesquite High School
Poteet High School
West Mesquite High School

Richardson ISD
Forest Meadow Junior High
Lake Highlands Junior High
Liberty Junior High School
West Junior High School
Berkner High School
Lake Highlands High School
Pearce High School
Richardson High School

Wilmer Hutchins ISD
Kennedy-Curry Junior High School
Wilmer Hutchins High School

Tarrant County

Arlington ISD
Bailey Junior High School
Barnett Junior High School
Boles Junior High School
Carter Junior High School
Gunn Junior High School
Hutcheson Junior High School
Nichols Junior High School
Shackelford Junior High School
Workman Junior High School
Young Junior High School
Arlington High School
Bowie High School
Houston High School
Lamar High School
Martin High School

Azle ISD
Azle High School

Birdville ISD
Haltom High School
Richmond High School

Carroll ISD
Carroll High School

Castleberry ISD
Castleberry High School

Eagle Mountain-Saginaw ISD
Boswell High School

Everman ISD
Everman High School

Fort Worth ISD
Arlington Heights Senior High School
Amon Carter Riverside High School
Diamond Hill-Jarvis High School
Dunbar High School
Eastern Hills High School
North Side High School
Paschal High School
Polytechnic High School
Southwest High School
Trimble Tech High School
Western Hills High School
Wyatt High School

Hurst-Euless-Bedford ISD
Bedford Junior High School
Central Junior High School
Euless Junior High School
Harwood Junior High School
Hurst Junior High School
Keys Learning Center
Bell High School
Trinity High School

Keller ISD
Fossil Ridge High School
Keller High School

<u>Mansfield ISD</u>
Howard Middle School
Rogene Worley Middle School
Ninth Grade Center
Mansfield High School

<u>White Settlement ISD</u>
Brewer Middle School
Brewer High School

<u>Districts Without SROs</u>
Crowly ISD
Kennedale ISD
Lake Worth ISD
Masonic Home ISD
Sunnyvale ISD

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

.

Please indicate your reaction to the following statements pertaining to the roles of the school resource officer. Mark the appropriate answer by placing an X in <u>ONE</u> of the boxes.

1.   Officers engaged in law enforcement/security activities on public school campuses prefer to be called campus police officers rather than campus security officers.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

2.   Over one-half of the functions of the campus law enforcement/security officer are service related.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

3.   The role of the campus law enforcement/security officer is one that allows for more service and less law enforcement.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

4.   The role of the campus law enforcement/security officer does not differ significantly from the role of municipal police officers.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

5.   Campus law enforcement/security officers should enforce the law "by the book" or at least in the same manner as other law enforcement officers.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

6. School district policies for carrying out the duty of campus law enforcement/security officers should limit the officers' flexibility and discretion in how they choose to handle serious incidents.
    ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
    ( ) AGREE
    ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
    ( ) DISAGREE
    ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

7. Generally, incidents of student misconduct that violate the law should be referred to the civil authorities instead of the building principal or school district personnel.
    ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
    ( ) AGREE
    ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
    ( ) DISAGREE
    ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

8. Generally, incidents of student misconduct that violate the law should be referred to both the civil authorities and the school principal or school district personnel.
    ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
    ( ) AGREE
    ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
    ( ) DISAGREE
    ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

9. One of the functions of campus law enforcement/security officers should be to assist teachers and/or students in starting their car when their batteries fail.
    ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
    ( ) AGREE
    ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
    ( ) DISAGREE
    ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

10. A function of campus law enforcement/security officers should be to assist motorists if they have locked their keys in their car on campus.
    ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
    ( ) AGREE
    ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
    ( ) DISAGREE
    ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

11. Because of the nature of the job, campus law enforcement/security officers should be required to bear arms at all times while on duty.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

12. The school administration and faculty should encourage strict law enforcement on campus by the campus law enforcement/security department.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

13. Campus law enforcement/security officers should have the responsibility for controlling traffic on campus.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

14. Campus law enforcement/security officers should be expected to make certain all campus facilities are secure.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

15. Campus law enforcement/security officers should be permitted to use their discretion in making an arrest versus a referral to the school principal or other school district personnel if the situation involves a student who commits a misdemeanor.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

16. Campus law enforcement/security officers should be permitted to use their discretion in making an arrest if the situation involves a nonstudent who commits a misdemeanor.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

The following scenarios portray situations that are fairly common in the daily routine of a patrol officer. Please mark an X in the ONE box that most appropriately describes your reaction to the scenarios.

A. The school sponsored a hard "rock" concert in an outdoor stadium. The concert attracted a large crowd of students and nonstudents. You suspect that alcohol consumption and marijuana use is prevalent. Uniformed officers are assigned to the event.

17. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest anyone, whether a student or nonstudent, in possession of alcohol while under legal age to do so.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

18. Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer any student found in possession of alcohol while under the legal age to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

19. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest anyone who is in possession of a marijuana "joint."
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

20. Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer any student found in possession of a marijuana "joint" to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

B. Students were observed stealing candy from vending machines in the halls and cafeteria. There was no damage to the machines.

21. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest these individuals for petty theft.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

22. Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer these students to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

C. Two students and a nonstudent get into a shoving match and exchange several punches in the stands during a football game.

23. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest all individuals involved and charge them with a simple assault or similar charge.
( ) STRONGLY AGREE
( ) AGREE
( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
( ) DISAGREE
( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

24. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest the nonstudent and charge him/her with simple assault or a similar charge.
   ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
   ( ) AGREE
   ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
   ( ) DISAGREE
   ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

25. Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest all individuals involved and charge them with a simple assault or similar charge. In addition to this action. the students should be referred to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.
   ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
   ( ) AGREE
   ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
   ( ) DISAGREE
   ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

26. Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer the students to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.
   ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
   ( ) AGREE
   ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
   ( ) DISAGREE
   ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

Finally. I would like to ask you some questions about yourself to help interpret the results. Your answers will remain completely confidential.

Background Information

The following information is needed to classify respondents in this study. Please mark an X in the ONE category most applicable to you.

1. Age:
   ( ) UNDER 25
   ( ) 25 TO 34
   ( ) 35 TO 44
   ( ) 45 TO 54
   ( ) OVER 54

2. Education (Highest Level):
   ( ) HIGH SCHOOL
   ( ) LESS THAN 2 YEARS COLLEGE
   ( ) 2 TO 4 YEARS COLLEGE
   ( ) BACHELOR'S DEGREE
   ( ) GRADUATE OR PROFESSIONAL DEGREE

3. Gender: ( ) MALE   ( ) FEMALE

4. Race: ( ) AFRICAN AMERICAN   ( )ANGLO   ( )LATINO   ( )OTHER

This Section For SRO's Only:

1. Prior to your present employment, were you previously employed in law
    enforcement?   ( ) YES   ( ) NO
    Type of agency   ( ) CITY   ( ) COUNTY   ( ) STATE   ( ) OTHER

2. How many years have you been in law enforcement (total):
    ( ) 1 YEAR
    ( ) 2 TO 3 YEARS
    ( ) 4 TO 6 YEARS
    ( ) 7 TO 10 YEARS
    ( ) OVER 10 YEARS

3. How many years have you been working in the public schools as a law
    enforcement officer:
    ( ) 1 YEAR
    ( ) 2 TO 3 YEARS
    ( ) 4 TO 6 YEARS
    ( ) 7 TO 10 YEARS
    ( ) OVER 10 YEARS

4. Did you attend a police academy for training?   ( ) YES   ( ) NO

5. Was the academy attended by other sworn officers in the state (city, county,
    and state police officers)?   ( ) YES   ( ) NO

6. Have you attended any other specialized training programs that aid you in
    your job on a public school campus?   ( ) YES   ( ) NO

7. Who hired you?
    ( ) POLICE PERSONNEL OUTSIDE THE SCHOOLS
    ( ) SCHOOL PERSONNEL
    ( ) BOTH

8.   What type of police department provides your commission?
     ( ) MUNICIPAL AGENCY
     ( ) COUNTY AGENCY
     ( ) LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICT
     ( ) OTHER

9.   Do you enforce all laws, including municipal ordinances, county ordinances, and state laws?   ( ) YES   ( ) NO

10. A board of trustees of the district has determined the scope of your on-duty and off-duty law enforcement activities in writing.
     (   ) STRONGLY AGREE
     (   ) AGREE
     (   ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
     (   ) DISAGREE
     (   ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

11. There is a firm understanding that outlines reasonable coordination and communication between you and law enforcement agencies with overlapping jurisdiction.
     (   ) STRONGLY AGREE
     (   ) AGREE
     (   ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
     (   ) DISAGREE
     (   ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

12. The role of the SRO is clearly understood by the principal
     (   ) STRONGLY AGREE
     (   ) AGREE
     (   ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
     (   ) DISAGREE
     (   ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

13. The SRO program with which you are involved has clearly stated objectives
     (   ) STRONGLY AGREE
     (   ) AGREE
     (   ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
     (   ) DISAGREE
     (   ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

14. The SRO takes orders from the principal
    ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
    ( ) AGREE
    ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
    ( ) DISAGREE
    ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

15. As an SRO, I work well with the school administrator
    ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
    ( ) AGREE
    ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
    ( ) DISAGREE
    ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

16. Please describe any conflict that you see in following both law enforcement and school objectives.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Finally, I would like to ask you some questions about yourself to help interpret the results. Your answers will remain completely confidential.

Background Information

The following information is needed to classify respondents in this study. Please mark an X in the ONE category most applicable to you.

1. Age:
    ( ) UNDER 25
    ( ) 25 TO 34
    ( ) 35 TO 44
    ( ) 45 TO 54
    ( ) OVER 54

2. Education (Highest Level):
   () HIGH SCHOOL
   () LESS THAN 2 YEARS COLLEGE
   () 2 TO 4 YEARS COLLEGE
   () BACHELOR'S DEGREE
   () GRADUATE OR PROFESSIONAL DEGREE

3. Gender: () MALE   () FEMALE

4. Race: () AFRICAN AMERICAN   ()ANGLO   ()LATINO   ()OTHER

This Section For Principals Only:

1. Years as School Administrator
   ( ) 1 YEAR
   ( ) 2 TO 3 YEARS
   ( ) 4 TO 6 YEARS
   ( ) 7 TO 10 YEARS
   ( ) OVER 10 YEARS

2. How many years has your school utilized police officers
   ( ) 1 YEAR
   ( ) 2 TO 3 YEARS
   ( ) 4 TO 6 YEARS
   ( ) 7 TO 10 YEARS
   ( ) OVER 10 YEARS

3. Have you attended any specialized training regarding SRO programs?
   ( ) YES   ( ) NO

4. The principal is involved in the SRO's performance evaluation
   ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
   ( ) AGREE
   ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
   ( ) DISAGREE
   ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

5. The principal can recommend disciplinary action against the SRO
   ( ) STRONGLY AGREE
   ( ) AGREE
   ( ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
   ( ) DISAGREE
   ( ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

6.   Having a SRO on campus who in not under the direction of the building principal negatively impacts school effectiveness
(   ) STRONGLY AGREE
(   ) AGREE
(   ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
(   ) DISAGREE
(   ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

7. The SRO is effective on this campus in fulfilling his/her job objectives
(   ) STRONGLY AGREE
(   ) AGREE
(   ) NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE
(   ) DISAGREE
(   ) STRONGLY DISAGREE

9.   Describe any conflicts you see when SRO's follow both law enforcement and school objectives.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTERS

September 9, 1996

Dear Fellow Public School Administrator:

Public school security has undergone significant changes in the past several years. We are seeing the advantage of placing armed police officers on our public school campuses. We know that it is our responsibility to keep our learning environment safe so that all of our children can learn.

Since the implementation of campus police officers is relatively new, there are still areas that are developing and issues which need clarification. It has been suggested that perceptions of the role of school resource officers is often different among those who are responsible for this vital area of school safety. I am engaged in a study to determine if such differences in perceptions exist. I believe that the results of this study can offer insight and contribute to our profession in terms of role clarification, programs, and goals.

Attached is a questionnaire that you are asked to complete and return in the pre-addressed postage paid envelope. It is vital to the study that your questionnaire be returned. Your support and assistance is appreciated. Neither your name nor the name of your institution will be identified in the study. Please return your completed questionnaire to me by September 23, 1996.

Your participation and assistance in this endeavor is greatly appreciated. Hopefully, the results will prove meaningful and useful information for all of us.

Sincerely,

Brenda M. Cox
Assistant Principal, Grand Prairie, ISD
Doctoral Candidate, University of North Texas

September 9, 1996

Dear School Resource Officer:

I am conducting a study that, hopefully, will yield a significant contribution to public school policing. Your participation in the data collection process will be of immense value in my efforts to make the study meaningful.

It has been suggested that perceptions of the role of school resource officers often differ significantly among those who are responsible for providing this valuable service. My study proposes to determine if such differences in perception exist. I hope the results will provide a basis for better communication and clarification regarding the role of School Resource Officers. Please complete the attached questionnaire and return it in the pre-addressed, postage paid envelope. The principal on your campus has been asked to fill out a questionnaire as well. It is vital to the study that both responses be returned. Neither your name nor the name of your institution will be identified in this study. Please return your completed questionnaire to me by September 23, 1996.

Your assistance in this endeavor is greatly appreciated. Hopefully, the results will provide meaningful and useful information for all of us.

Sincerely,

Brenda M. Cox
Assistant Principal, Grand Prairie, ISD
Doctoral Candidate, University of North Texas

APPENDIX D

LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM

ORIGINAL AUTHOR

September 9, 1996

Sheriff James A. Telb
Lucas County
1622 Spielbusch Avenue
Toledo, OH 43624

Dear Sir:

Recently, I have proposed to study the role orientation of public school police officers. Through research, it has come to my attention that you have developed a questionnaire that I think would aid me in my study. Although my study involves role conflict in public secondary schools, the question of role orientation and role conflict is very similar to that addressed by your study regarding institutions of higher learning.

I would very much like to use your questionnaire with minor revisions in terminology. I think that, through replication of research like yours in the public schools, we might find significant reason to regard much of the research regarding institutions of higher learning relevant to formulation of public school/police liaisons.

Could you please write to me regarding your consent to use the questionnaire. Should you need additional information, I am providing a business card with my name and phone numbers. Please feel free to call me collect.

Thank you in advance for your response.

Sincerely,

Brenda M. Cox
Assistant Principal, Grand Prairie, ISD
Doctoral Candidate, University of North Texas

SHERIFF JAMES A. TELB
LUCAS COUNTY
1622 SPIELBUSCH AVENUE
TOLEDO, OHIO 43624

EMERGENCY: (419) 243-6111
FACSIMILE: (419) 255-3096

COURTHOUSE OFFICE: (419) 245-4764
JAIL OFFICE. (419) 245-4941

September 25, 1996

Ms. Brenda Cox
2505 Escatante Avenue
Fort Worth, Texas 76112

Dear Ms. Cox,

Permission is hereby granted to you to use any and all of the materials found in my Doctoral dissertation titled <u>The Relationship Between Personal Characteristics of Campus Security Officers and Their Role Orientation</u>, published in 1980.

Best wishes on your research and on successful completion of your Doctorate.

Sincerely,

James A. Telb, Ph.D.
Sheriff Of Lucas County
Professor of Criminal Justice-The University to Toledo

JAT/bm

APPENDIX E

OPEN-ENDED RESPONSES

School resource officers had the following comments in regard to the open ended question: Please describe any conflicts that you see in following both law enforcement and school objectives.

- Problems occur when SRO and principal do not understand the job descriptions of each. Politics. Favoritism. Bias toward a sub-culture in the school. Power fights

- School officials cover-up laws that are broken that the legislature mandates they must report for the sake of their image.

- Whether right or wrong it seems that the district overall has a problem with being consistent with decisions. Sometimes it depends on who the student is or who their parents are to determine school punishment or how much trouble they get into through the law. I think the district needs to be uniform in its zero tolerance policy throughout the district.

- Confusion on what a "police officer" can or cannot do. School administrators are not clear on the difference between a penal code violation and "house rule" violation.

- None - The police department and school district have the same goal: make the schools safer and educate the students.

- The objectives are not always the same. Sometimes they conflict because a peace officer has different expectations than the school. Criminal law and house rules are not the same. The school can act on "reasonable suspicion" but an officer must have "probable cause."

- My job is to only enforce city and state laws. I cannot, by city policy, enforce any ISD house rules.

- A balance must be achieved between both areas: one or both parties at a time must have input to reach a common goal.

- A student cannot be helped until he wants help.

- None. The school and I work hand in hand.

- Some teachers feel that we treat students too harsh that commit crimes.

- The only major conflict that I feel could happen is if "egos and pride" enter into the SRO/administrator relationship. The SRO is the principal's agent and works to assist the administrator. Both must know when to let the other take over in a particular situation. In our school district we know when to defer to the other without any ego or self-pride problems.

- School sports (football) has been the only problem. Sports programs seem to be more important than anything else. You need a strong principal also; a weak one helps no one.

- If you follow by-the-book law enforcement, then you would make arrests all day long and would never be on campus because you would spend your day in the jail and juvenile for a lot of "petty" offenses. Yet, there are some instances that strict law enforcement comes in handy. Also, some administrators higher in the district believe that the SROs are here strictly for counseling; that is entirely wrong. There can be a happy median.

- There are no (or, virtually no) conflicts. SROs and administrators work well together to provide quality instruction and a safe environment for the student body.

- I see no conflicts. The role of the SRO is as follows: (1) Police Officer, (2) Counselor, (3) Education. I will change teachers' tires, jump start vehicles, etc. My primary supervisor is the chief of police, then the school administrator.

- Conflicts occur when a principal disallows police action without good cause. Some principals see an officer on their campus as a threat to their authority. We have an excellent system at our campus. Since there is a mechanism in place to deal with behavioral problems, it is used until it seems to be ineffective. At that point administration makes a referral to the SRO.

- The teachers do not understand the role of the SRO and want the officer to be a disciplinarian. If the officer acts as a disciplinarian, then his/her role becomes confused in the minds of the students. The officer begins to take authority that he/she has no legal ground to hold. In addition, if the administrators too often authorize the officer to work in their place, it can cause the officer to become too comfortable being in a position that is legally hard to define and could lead to the dismissal of good cases and law suits.

- Jealousy among teachers.

- Lack of training for SROs in Texas educational law and resolving the truancy problem.

- There is no real conflict. However, students do not need to be brought into the legal system for every violation of law brought to the SRO's attention. The SRO position takes on a more tolerant approach to students in a school setting in comparison to how law violators are handled on the "streets." The program is to help and work with students rather than punish them.

- There are no conflicts if the administrator lets you do your job and they do theirs. They back each other. The kids are required to take orders from both and are punished by me or the principal.

- The only problem I see is more support from school administrators.

- No problems: we work together. They don't get into my business and I don't get into theirs. The SRO concept is clearly understood by all involved.

- There aren't conflicts at this school. The administrators are eager to cooperate with SROs. We work together to do what is in the best interest of all at our school. The administration keeps us informed on what is going on and how/if it should be handled.

- Sometimes school administrators tend to use the SRO as a tool to punish the students. Example: If you don't behave. I'll have you arrested. This puts the officer in an awkward position because the elements for an arrest may not exist. The officer, not the administrator, needs to determine if an arrest needs to be made.

- There should be no conflict since you are dealing with two separate governments. There is no question when there is a law violation of the Texas Penal Code; it supersedes the school government and becomes a police matter. The school has no say.

- I don't see any conflicts except that school administrators do not understand law officers' jobs well and often think we have more authority than we do in some cases. They do not understand how much power we have in other cases. I have no duty to report to anyone at school and they have none to report to me except as outlined in State law (reporting incidents to the police).

- I have only one supervisor: that is my sergeant at the police station. The principals and I keep each other well informed. We work well together. Once I get involved in a criminal matter, it is a police problem, and the decisions made are my decisions, not the principals. We do sometimes talk to each other about the best course of action.

- There is generally little conflict when both parties understand the role of the SRO and his/her duties, responsibilities, and authority. The only conflict to date is when the officer feels a certain offense needs to be handled by the law enforcement action and a principal chooses administrative action. Also, a few principals have difficulty with criminal activity that occurs on their campus. Some feel that it is a direct reflection on their inability to do their job; therefore, they push to hide and conceal incidents.

- I am a city police officer assigned to the schools. Sometimes the school personnel want special enforcement or not according to whether a student is liked or not. This statement is in regard to serious offenses. Class C misdemeanors are negotiable.

- Conflicts will exist in any profession; however, they can be avoided if a well informed administration understands that the officer is commissioned through the state and has taken an oath of office and must abide by the oath.

- They both are supposed to be designed to do what is best for the children involved. Personal opinions sometimes come into play.

- It is really hard being both Mr. Nice and Mr. Bad Guy, but my job as a police officer is strictly enforcement. Most of the time the students understand and except it. I do the best I can to help them understand it when conflicts occur.

- School district personnel would like the police officer assigned to the school to take action on rules that are not a violation of the law.

- The main problem is trying to enforce "in house rules" in which we as officers, according to our city policies, can not do.

- We need to be a different sub-division. In other words, we should work for the district but not answer to any administrators only the chief and the superintendent.

- As law enforcement officers we are governed by the penal code and statutory laws; however, it is not our objectives to go into the school to make criminals of

the students. It is rather to teach them their responsibility of being civilly responsive and accountable for what they do. Sometimes that means arrests.

- The only conflict as an SRO is when the parents try to tell us how to do our jobs.

- Schools need to treat all students the same. It should not matter if one students mother is head of the PTA and the other's mother is in jail. Schools should have one set of rules and stick to them. If there is a violation of the law the school has no standing to tell the officer to arrest or not to arrest. I think students should be punished by the police then when they are done, they should be disciplined through the school. Hitting the students twice really gets their attention.

- I am an officer assigned to work in the schools. There is an agreement between the PD and the ISD in respect to salaries, overtime, vehicles, and equipment. The scope of my duties as an officer are defined by general orders of the police department. We work in cooperation with the schools. I have no authority in respect to school discipline. Law enforcement is a given part of my job. I try to make myself approachable to students and staff at all times regardless of the nature of the problem. I believe strongly in intervention and prevention to solve problems before they become law violations. I also believe in counseling and classroom presentations to educate students as a means to avert violation of the law.

- I see no conflict. I'm a police office paid by the city and am assigned to a school campus to provide law enforcement services as well as educational programs. public relations for the police department, guidance services of the law enforcement nature to students, faculty, staff and parents. We work well together and do what we feel is in the best interest of the students. Sometimes police action is called for and other times it isn't. However, there are certain offenses for which there is no tolerance, drugs and weapons.

- Politics—you have to work at it. As an SRO you have more than one master.

- School law and municipal law differ at high degree because we think more about the well-being of a child instead of arresting. There is a conflict in authority except when there is a clear cut choice of breaking the law.

- In my experience, some principals have not understood the role of a school liaison officer and have under-utilized them for other responsibilities other than enforcement. Likewise, at times, administrators have requested criminal action which cannot be pursued due to lack of understanding of the laws governing arrest and search and seizure. Lastly, I have noticed that administrators have rejected contacting police when they are appraised of a situation of a criminal matter, demanding a criminal investigation. Instead, I have witnessed some administrators attempt to handle criminal matters in-house and reluctantly or failing to contact police at all.

- My job as a police officer is clearly defined in city and state statues which clearly direct and establish my role and objectives as a certified "police" officer in the state of Texas. Serious conflict will exist when either police and/or school attempt to exchange and/or direct the other in the execution of their duties.

- At specific schools the principals attempt to order the SRO around which can cause friction. If that problem is corrected the year goes smoothly. The police officer needs to work with the administrators and the administrators with the officer.

- There are times when school punishment is more justified than criminal consequences which may never identify the root of the behavior problem. The courts don't have the resources that the schools have to access it. I hope we as SROs don't lose our discretion over all criminal incidents.

- School policy should be enforced by school administrators with consideration. Law enforcement officers should be primarily used for enforcing the law, traffic, security and safety practices. When laws are enforced, police are taken seriously.

- As a police officer with 19 years of police service, there is a considerable difference between "street" and school work. The main objective here is what is best for the students and not the old philosophy of "hook-em, book-em, and cook-em." At times that creates a problem with what action should be taken. Luckily for me, the administration here is very open minded and takes what advice I give them. It has been easy working within this administration unlike others in my district.

- My actions as an SRO/police officer are dictated by the police department.

- There could be a real problem if the administrators don't understand that there are some violations of the law that he has no control over. Some administrators want to control what goes on with their students. There must be good communication between the SRO and the school officials. I believe that certified peace officers should be in every high school, junior high and every elementary school should have a police officer visiting the students every day. The concept: police departments have been ineffective in stopping juvenile crimes. If police officers made their presence in elementary schools maybe in 5 to 10 years we would see a reduction in juvenile crimes. Fire departments have been doing this for years; police departments have not.

School administrators responded to the same open ended question above in the following manner:

- SROs should always work with the school administrator in charge prior to arresting or ticketing any student. There are some exceptions to this when excessive force or the amount of illegal substance warrants it. I have personally worked with five different SROs and only one was "trigger happy." Not every situation warrants a ticket. A good SRO works in conjunction with the campus administration to meet the objectives of the campus. No SRO should ever be asked to not follow the law by an administrator.

- If the administrator and SRO are at odds, of course, the program will be ineffective. The most effective situations involves them two working together, listening to each other's input, and agreeing upon a course of action.

- The officers sometimes resort to intimidation tactics while dealing with students. This approach is not a method we, as school administrators, like to see used.

- The penal code overrides school discipline. It has had a tremendous calming affect on our schools. We do not focus on the failures but our successes in working together. We would not recommend disciplinary action for an SRO, but we would ask that they be removed from our campus if necessary.

- Sometimes school officials want a student ticketed or removed (arrested), but due to criminal law, the SRO can not do so.

- Sometimes the SRO does not contact the parent(s) in a timely manner.

- Both SRO and campus officers should work together to create a secure campus environment. Therefore, conflicts should be at a minimum.

- Parents complain when they see a student cuffed and awaiting transport while on campus.

- Everyone must be consistent and fair in administering discipline. Law enforcement and the school administrator must do what is best to maintain a safe environment. Different schools may require a different response to the same situation.

- SRO should not do "routine" discipline.

- Our SRO allows school discipline to occur first and steps in at the request of administration. We have had zero conflicts.

- The SRO should work closely with the school principal as to how he/she wants the SRO to function at the school and what role the principal wants the SRO to play. The climate tone must be set by the principal, and the SRO must function within that capacity.

- The police department's policy requires an adult witness to arrest on a fight.

- No conflict occurs as long as the principal has the final decision making role.

- SROs do not have a clear understanding of their position at times. They get very familiar with students, and sometimes their role becomes "cloudy." We are developing a citizenship curriculum for the officer to incorporate into his/her duties in the classroom. The primary role of the SRO should be as a "crime prevention" expert and protection from outside forces.

- There have been times whereby the SRO officer has had a conflict between "enforcing the law" and administrative or building procedures. These have usually been in the realm of philosophical (differences between operating on the street and in the context of a school). Our SRO officer is a municipal police officer who has volunteered to be a SRO and thus is fulfilling a dual purpose.

- The SRO is not aware of how special education status and modifications and behavior plans effects student behavior in schools.

- No conflict occurs as long as laws and district policies are administered equally in all situations with all students.

- There should be little or no conflict in that the objective for school officials and law enforcement officials are compatible and complementary. However, the specific person who serves in the SRO position should be of a certain personality. That is, SROs should not be of the "night stick/hard-head" school. Rather, they should be "service oriented" and positive communicators.

- The SRO can selectively choose to turn over a violator to the school rather than take legal action in addition to school discipline; however, the SRO doesn't always communicate why he/she doesn't pursue some cases. Many times the SRO does not consider himself/herself a part of the school. Until districts have their own police forces, the "who works for whom" problems will continue to exist.

- Sometimes there can be dissension between city and school cops.

APPENDIX F

FOLLOW UP MAILINGS

September 23, 1996

Dear School Resource Officer:

Several weeks ago I mailed to you a questionnaire with a request that you complete it and return it to me in a pre-addressed, postage paid envelope. As of this date, I have not received it. The results from this questionnaire are essential to this study and for me to complete this phase of my graduate work. I am again asking you to take a few minutes to complete the attached questionnaire and return to me no later than October 14, 1996. I need your questionnaire returned in the enclosed self-addressed, postage paid envelope in order to make the study valid. Neither you nor your institution will be identified.

Your cooperation in assisting me with this effort will be very much appreciated. This is important to me personally and the finding could also benefit your program as well. If you have any comments, questions or concerns, please call me. Thank you so much for your help.

Sincerely,

Brenda M. Cox
Assistant Principal, Grand Prairie, ISD
Adams Middle School (972)262-1934
Doctoral Candidate, University of North Texas

September 23, 1996

Dear Fellow Public School Administrator:

Several weeks ago I mailed to you a questionnaire with a request that you complete it and return it to me in a pre-addressed, postage paid envelope. As of this date, I have not received it. The results from this questionnaire are essential to this study and for me to complete this phase of my graduate work. I am again asking you to take a few minutes to complete the attached questionnaire and return to me no later than October 14, 1996. I need your questionnaire returned in the enclosed self-addressed, postage paid envelope in order to make the study valid. Neither you nor your institution will be identified.

Your cooperation in assisting me with this effort will be very much appreciated. This is important to me personally and the finding could also benefit your program as well. If you have any comments, questions or concerns, please call me. Thank you so much for your help.

Sincerely,

Brenda M. Cox
Assistant Principal, Grand Prairie, ISD
Adams Middle School (972)262-1934
Doctoral Candidate, University of North Texas

APPENDIX G

CHART ON INDIVIDUAL QUESTIONS

Question 1: Officers engaged in law enforcement/security activities on public school campuses prefer to be called campus police officers rather than campus security officers.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	95	4.7053	0.666	0.068
Principals	86	3.856	1.008	0.109

Difference = .8797
T-test = .000
Chi-Square = .00000
Significant P < .001

Question 2: Over one-half of the functions of the campus law enforcement/security officers are service-related.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	95	3.0905	1.026	.105
Principals	87	3.9080	1.063	.114

Difference = .0814
T-test = .600
Chi-Square = .47494
Not Significant P > .05

Question 3: The role of the campus law enforcement/security officer is one that allows for more service and less law enforcement.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	94	3.3830	1.146	.118
Principals	87	3.7471	1.059	.114

Mean Difference = .3641
T-test = .028
Chi-Square = .22605
T-test Significant P < .05

Question 4: The role of the campus law enforcement/security officer does not differ significantly from the role of municipal police officers.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	95	2.0158	1.326	.136
Principals	87	2.4713	1.170	.125

Mean Difference = .4445
T-test = .017
Chi-Square = .19593
T-test Significant P < .05

Question 5: Campus law enforcement/security officers should enforce the law "by the book" or at least in the same manner as other law enforcement officers.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	95	3.2421	1.294	.133
Principals	87	3.3793	1.144	.123

Mean Difference = -.1372
T-test = .449
Chi-Square = .04350
Chi-Square Significant P < .05

Question 6: School district policies for carrying out the duty of campus law enforcement/security officers should limit the officer's flexibility and discretion in how they choose to handle serious incidents.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	94	1.9574	1.200	.124
Principals	86	2.3605	1.147	.124

Mean Difference = .4030
T-test = .023
Chi-Square = .01093
Significant P < .05

Question 7: Generally, incidents of student misconduct that violate the law should be referred to the civil authorities instead of the building principal or school district personnel.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	94	2.5426	1.094	.113
Principals	87	2.2989	1.090	.117

Mean Difference = .2437
T-test = .135
Chi-Square = .04128
Chi-Square Significant P < .05

Question 8: Generally, incidents of student misconduct that violate the law should be referred to both the civil authorities and the school principal or school district personnel.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	93	4.0430	.908	.094
Principals	87	4.3218	.856	.092

Mean Difference = -.2788
T-test = .036
Chi-Square = .03615
Significant P < .05

Question 9: One of the functions of campus law enforcement/security officers should be to assist teachers and/or students in starting their car when their batteries fail.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	95	3.8000	1.078	.111
Principals	86	4.1512	.660	.071

Mean Difference = .2477
T-test = .117
Chi-Square = .31307
Not Significant P > .05

Question 10: A function of campus law enforcement/security officers should be to assist motorists if they have locked their keys in their car on campus.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	94	2.5106	1.134	.117
Principals	87	2.4138	1.073	.115

Mean Difference = .0968
T-test = .556
Chi-Square = .89818
Not Significant P > .05

Question 11: Because of the nature of the job, campus law enforcement/security officers should be required to bear arms at all times while on duty.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	93	4.6774	.740	.077
Principals	86	3.9651	1.142	.123

Mean Difference = .7123
T-test = .000
Chi-Square = .0001
Significant P < .001

Question 12: The school administration and faculty should encourage strict law enforcement on campus by the campus law enforcement/security department.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	95	3.8000	1.078	.111
Principals	86	4.1512	.660	.071

Mean Difference = -.3512
T-test = .008
Chi-Square = .00763
Significant P < .01

Question 13: Campus law enforcement/security officers should have the

responsibility for controlling traffic on campus.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	95	2.8105	1.249	.128
Principals	87	3.1839	1.095	.117

Mean Difference = -.3734
T-test = .033
Chi-Square = .06650
T-test Significant P < .05

Question 14: Campus law enforcement/security officers should be expected to make

certain all campus facilities are secure.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	95	2.8421	1.214	.125
Principals	86	3.2791	1.175	.127

Mean Difference = -.4370
T-test = .015
Chi-Square = .07616
T-test Significant P < .05

Question 15: Campus law enforcement/security officers should be permitted to use their discretion in making an arrest versus a referral to the school principal or other school district personnel if the situation involves a student who commits a misdemeanor.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	95	4.2000	.766	.079
Principals	87	3.4713	1.209	.130

Mean Difference = .7287
T-test = .000
Chi-Square = .00002
Significant P < .001

Question 16: Campus law enforcement/security officers should be permitted to use their discretion in making an arrest if the situation involves a nonstudent who commits a misdemeanor.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	93	4.3118	.794	.082
Principals	86	3.9884	1.035	.112

Mean Difference = .3235
T-test = .020
Chi-Square = .21230
T-test Significant P < .05

Scenarios

A. The school sponsored a hard "rock" concert in an outdoor stadium. The concert attracted a large crowd of students and non-students. You suspect that alcohol consumption and marijuana use is prevalent. Uniformed officers are assigned to the event.

Question 17: Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest anyone, whether a student or nonstudent, in possession of alcohol while under legal age to do so.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	93	4.2366	.852	.088
Principals	86	4.5116	.699	.075

Mean Difference = -.2751
T-test = .019
Chi-Square = .03139
Significant P < .05

Question 18: Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer any student found in possession of alcohol while under the legal age to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	79	4.0759	1.047	.118
Principals	83	4.1446	.939	.103

Mean Difference = -.0686
T-test = .662
Chi-Square = .27646
Not Significant P > .05

Question 19: Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest anyone who is in possession of a marijuana "joint."

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	93	4.3871	.738	.076
Principals	86	4.4186	.789	.085

Mean Difference = -.0315
T-test = .783
Chi-Square = .69760
Not Significant P > .05

Question 20: Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer any student found in possession of a marijuana "joint" to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	94	4.2766	.977	.101
Principals	87	4.1379	1.058	.113

Mean Difference = .1387
T-test = .361
Chi-Square = .82490
Not Significant P > .05

B.   Students were observed stealing candy from vending machines in the halls and cafeteria. There was no damage to the machines.

Question 21: Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest these individuals for petty theft.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	95	3.4947	.995	.098
Principals	87	2.9425	1.093	.117

Mean Difference = .5522
T-test = .000
Chi-Square = .00056
Significant P < .001

Question 22: Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer these students to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	94	4.3085	.640	.066
Principals	87	4.4483	.586	.063

Mean Difference = -.1398
T-test = .128
Chi-Square = .46283
Not Significant P > .05

C.   Two students and a nonstudent get into a shoving match and exchange several punches in the stands during a football game.

Question 23: Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest all individuals involved and charge them with a simple assault or similar charge.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	93	3.9785	.847	.088
Principals	87	3.9080	.972	.104

Mean Difference = .0704
T-test = .604
Chi-Square = .09578
Not Significant P > .05

Question 24: Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest the nonstudent and charge him/her with simple assault or a similar charge.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	92	3.4348	1.261	.131
Principals	85	3.6588	1.201	.130

Mean Difference = -.2240
T-test = .228
Chi-Square = .80150
Not Significant P > .05

Question 25: Campus law enforcement/security officers should arrest all individuals involved and charge them with a simple assault or similar charge. In addition to this action, the students should be referred to the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	93	4.1183	.858	.089
Principals	85	4.2118	.952	.103

Mean Difference = -.0935
T-test = .492
Chi-Square = .36430
Not Significant P > .05

Question 26: Campus law enforcement/security officers should refer the students to
the school principal or other appropriate school district personnel.

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SROs	93	4.0645	.987	.102
Principals	83	4.0120	1.018	.112

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