School Crisis Management Planning:
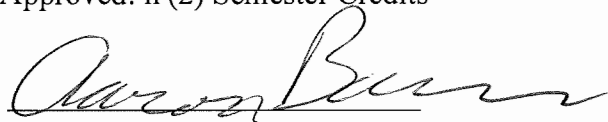
Preparing for Traumatic Events

by

Matthew Steven Clay

A Research Paper
Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the
Master of Science Degree
in

School Psychology

Approved: n (2) Semester Credits

Dr. Aaron Barnes

The Graduate School

University of Wisconsin-Stout

May, 2011

The Graduate School
University of Wisconsin-Stout

Menomonie, WI

Author: Clay, Matthew S.

Title: *School Crisis Management Planning:*

            Preparing for Traumatic Events

Graduate Degree/ Major: MS School Psychology

Research Adviser: Aaron Barnes, Ph.D.

Month/Year: May, 2011

Number of Pages: 45

Style Manual Used: American Psychological Association, 6th edition

Abstract

Each day, schools may face a variety of crises which may affect the well-being of

students and the day-to-day functionality of the school. These crises may be small or

large scale events. Bullying, violence, threats, accidents, and natural disasters are all

examples of crises that a school may have to address. In recent years, there has been a

movement toward increased accountability for crisis management planning. The 2002

reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act mandated that schools

have crisis management plans in place. Crisis management plans are typically developed

by a small team of professionals who work in the school. Such plans usually have three

major components: prevention, intervention, and recovery. Despite being federally

mandated, many schools still are not fully developing or utilizing crisis management

plans. A 2007 study found that 95% of schools reported having crisis management plans, while only 84% reported having an active crisis management team. This research paper reviews current literature pertaining to school crises and how crisis managements plans are being implemented.

The Graduate School

University of Wisconsin Stout

Menomonie, WI

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my thesis advisor, Dr. Aaron Barnes, for all of his time and hard work. Without his guidance I would have never made it through this long process. In addition, I want to thank two of my undergraduate professors, Dr. Mark Hallenbeck and Evie Brouwer. Undergraduate was never easy, and without their constant support and guidance I would have never made it as far as graduate school. I have one last teacher to thank, Mr. Cates, my fourth grade teacher. To this day, I believe that he was the one teacher who had the biggest impact on my life. I struggled throughout elementary school and he was the teacher who turned it all around for me.

Most importantly, I want to thank my parents - Jane and Steve, and my brothers - John and Nate. Without them constantly encouraging me and telling me that I could do it, I would have never accomplished this much in my life. They are my foundation and I know I can count on them for anything. Thank you.

Table of Contents

Chapter I: Introduction

Schools today continue to face a variety of threats, many of which are preventable if a school district is properly prepared. It is important that all members of a school work together and strive to repair the damage caused by a particular event. As educators, and professionals working in schools, we simply cannot underestimate how valuable immediate response and care can be. Crisis management is pivotal to maintaining a healthy and stable school and student body.

Over the course of a school year, an individual school or district may be greatly affected by a crisis. The force of these events can be felt in many different ways, all of which can have an impact on the education and well-being of students. For most schools crises are unexpected, thus leaving students and faculty surprised and uncertain of what to do next. Crisis planning has become a common approach to handling crises in many school districts. Not all schools create full prevention, intervention, and postvention plans. In addition, a crisis team is typically formed of administrators and faculty who address physical or mental health: psychologists, counselors, social workers, and nurses (Allen & Ashbaker, 2004).

Brock et al. (2009) outlined three common characteristics of crisis events. The first is that all events are perceived as being extremely negative and have the potential to generate extreme emotional and physical pain. Second, these events generate feelings of helplessness, powerlessness, and/or entrapment. Third, crisis events generally occur suddenly and without warning. Crisis events can take many different forms and each event may require a different response. Some examples of such events include: bullying, violence, school shootings, suicide, kidnappings, fatal accidents, natural disasters, and more. Depending on the crisis, the goal, or goals, of the situation may vary.

The primary goal of school crisis intervention is always to help restore the crisis-exposed students' basic problem-solving abilities and in doing so to return them to their pre-crisis levels of functioning (Sandoval & Brock, in press, citied in Brock et al., 2009). Moreover, the primary goal of professionals in the field of education is produce healthy functioning individuals that can be successful in life. With those goals in mind, it is troubling that more schools do not actively take preventive measures or implement crisis teams. Crisis planning and preparedness can be a vital step in preventing and addressing the short and long-term effects of trauma (Knox & Roberts, 2005).

We know that traumatic experiences can have a lasting impact on any individual, but even more so for children and adolescents. There are two particular disorders that are of concern for this age group: Acute stress reaction disorder (ASD) and posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Roberts (2000) described PTSD as a diagnosis that is given to an individual who is experiencing symptoms of intrusion, avoidance, or hyperarousal after experiencing or observing a serious injury, threat, or death of a loved one. These two disorders, resulting from traumatic experiences, will be elaborated upon in the literature review. Dealing with, and preventing post trauma is just one of many reasons why crisis plans should be in place. Additional reasoning for crisis plans can be found in research and statistics.

According to Adamson and Peacock (2007), crime rates in schools have reduced over the past decade, but violence has not disappeared from schools. In 2003, there were 1.9 million nonfatal crimes committed against junior high and high school students (Adamson & Peacock, 2007). In addition, Brock et al. (2009) stated that during the 2005-2006 academic year in the United States, 78% of schools experienced one or more violent crimes, 17% experienced one or more other serious incidents. Approximately 6% of students, ages 12 to 18, reported that they

avoided school activities, or a specific school location, because they thought someone might attack or harm them. Furthermore, Porter reported that from a 1993 study of 24,000 secondary students, 50% of respondents stated that they consciously use strategies to avoid harm at school (cited in Poland, 2004). While the research varies from year-to-year, it remains clear that schools continue to be places with safety concerns as well as places that many students avoid due to fear.

Being prepared for crisis prevention and intervention has many direct benefits to a school and student body, which will be further discussed in chapter two of this research paper. There is also legal rationale for having these plans in place, as well as legislation supporting them. Bailey stated that failure to address such issues can result in litigation (cited in Brock et al., 2009). Although schools often have immunity, the litigation process can be damaging to a school's image and can be a financial burden (Brickman, Jones, & Groom, cited in Brock et al., 2009). There are also several Federal acts that have provided school districts with funding for crisis preparedness efforts. Such acts include the Improving America's Schools Act of 1994, the Schools Safety Enhancement Act of 1999, the Goals 2000 Educate America Act, and the School Anti-Violence Empowerment Act of 2000 (Brock et al., 2009). Schools that receive such funding need to show the federal government that they are using the financial support in a productive and beneficial manner. Creating crisis plans and having documentation of its use is a good first step for schools to take. In addition, school districts may also have state and local laws and regulations to consider.

It is clear that having a crisis management plan is place is beneficial; however, it is not always an easy task to complete such an elaborate plan. According to Burling and Hyle:

There are some common obstacles to crisis prevention and preparedness. Specifically, plans are not (a) comprehensive; (b) practiced regularly; (c) coordinated with community-based emergency response agencies; (d) discussed with families, staff, and students; (e) attentive to the unique considerations of students needs; (f) based on factual data and circumstances; or (g) regularly updated and used" (Cited in Brock et al., 2009, p. 21).

Awareness of such obstacles can be very beneficial in creating a crisis plan and successfully developing a working and efficient crisis management team.

Statement of the Problem

Over the past decade there has been a growing emphasis on safety within schools. As a result, there is an increasing number of schools that are developing crisis plans to ensure the safety and well-being of students. In many districts, crisis plans and teams are not being properly utilized. Without a plan of action in place, many districts fail to successfully implement prevention, intervention, and postvention actions to minimize the effects of traumatic events.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to define the components of a successful crisis plan, determine the current status of crisis events in schools, and outline federal laws and legislation supporting crisis management. Data will be collected through a compressive literature review to be completed during the fall of 2010.

Rationale

Every school across the nation faces the threat of crises. There is no way to fully prevent these events from occurring, but schools can better prepare themselves. Current research shows that many schools do not have these plans in place or do not utilize them as needed. An in depth

look at crisis management will allow schools to gain a better understanding of the need for crisis management plans, as well as the proper preparedness to implement such plans.

Research Questions

The following questions are provided to outline topics that will be addressed in this research paper.

1. What are the components of a school crisis plan?

2. Who is involved in the planning process?

3. What are the federal mandates that dictate what types of safety precautions and plans are required to be implemented by school districts?

4. What are the potential ramifications of not having a crisis plan in place?

5. What is the current prevalence of the common crisis events that occur in schools?

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are provided for clarification.

Crisis. Is an event or circumstance that occurs often without warning and initially poses an overwhelming threat to an individual or group (Heath & Sheen, 2005).

Crisis Intervention. Efforts that (1) lessen the likelihood of a crisis; (2) reduce the extent and magnitude of trauma in the event a crisis occurs; and (3) assist in inoculating students against stressors, strengthening their coping skills, and fortifying them against negative forces (Heath & Sheen, 2005).

Crisis Plan. Provides an emergency protocol to structure and organize staff responsibilities and available resources during a crisis (Heath & Sheen, 2005).

Crisis Postvention and Recovery. The time after a crisis event has occurred in which schools address the psychological and other long-term needs of those who were impacted by the crisis (Kerr, 2009).

Crisis Prevention. Steps a school district takes in order to reduce the likely of a crisis event (Kerr, 2009).

Crisis Team. Consists of individuals organized to work together as a unit and carry out designated duties listed in the crisis plan (Heath & Sheen, 2005).

Preparedness – The process of planning, and being ready for, the worst-case scenario (Kerr, 2009).

Assumptions of the Research

Several assumptions are made for the findings in this research paper:

First, it is assumed that all research participants, in all the studies reviewed, responded honestly to research questions in the reviewed articles. Second, it is assumed that researchers used reliable and valid instruments as they gathered data. Third, it is assumed that researcher integrity is intact.

Limitations

The following limitations should be considered when reading this research paper:

First, there is limited research available in some areas of crisis management. History is a specific area that focuses more on negative aspects rather than positive ones. Second, research on crisis prevalence rates is somewhat inconsistent. The data changes each year and varies by region. Third, many research articles related to crisis management have a broad scope related to the topic, and do not closely research specific roles. Fourth, research is somewhat limited on the

effectiveness of crisis management plans because they are only implemented during serious

incidents and are difficult to measure and evaluate at the time of use.

Chapter II: Literature Review

This chapter will cover a variety of in-depth information to explain crisis management plans and their importance. The discussion will include a history of case examples in crisis management, research on a variety of crisis events that can occur within a school and prevalence statistics in order to help provide an understanding of the need for crisis management. It will also detail information about the effects that crises can have on students in order to show the importance of prevention and follow-up. Additionally, information surrounding laws and legislation that mandate, or support, the use of crisis management plans in schools will be addressed to emphasize the importance of proper adherence. Lastly, a breakdown of components of an effective crisis management plan, a comparison of commonly used models, and a look at some of the obstacles of crisis management will be provided.

History

Throughout recent history there have been several cases that paved the way for present day crisis management measures. It is important to understand how schools addressed crisis events in the past, as well as the outcomes of such events. If present day schools are going to make steps toward improving school safety, they must first acknowledge both mistakes and successes of the past. The following two cases are examples of poor crisis management.

One of the earliest events to gain national attention occurred during the early 1970's in Chowchilla, California in which a kidnapping of a school bus full of children took place (Poland, 2004). According to Terr (1983), the bus full of children was buried underground for three days before being rescued, after which no counseling services were provided by the school or any outside agencies. Five years after the kidnapping, the children involved were examined and 100% were found to display clinical symptoms of depression, fear, or anxiety.

Cornell and Sheras (1998) described a second case in which a school responded poorly to a crisis event. While high school students were on winter vacation, a student died in a fatal car accident. The following day the principal invited the student body to attend school if they wished to meet with a counselor. More than 100 students decided to attend, leaving the counselors frantic and unable to help all of the students (Cornell & Sheras, 1998).

In both of these situations the school did not respond to the crises in an effective manner. Although the principal, from the second example, responded to the crisis by providing an opportunity for counseling, he or she did not fully plan for such a large outcome. While one example may be more extreme than the other, both are good examples of situations in which crisis management plans could have provided an outline of procedures, as well as people and agencies involved. For instance, many schools contract with outside agencies to help provide counseling services in the event of a large scale event in which a large amount of people are impacted. In both examples, having an outside agency come into the school setting and help provide counseling could have been very beneficial. In contrast, the following cases are examples in which a crisis management plan was properly utilized.

Sandall described an active response by a school in Cokeville, Wyoming, following a bomb explosion in an elementary school. Cokeville held a town meeting to inform the public, children were given time off, but were encouraged to return to school as they felt safe, faculty meetings were held to discuss ways to help their students cope, and students were provided with opportunities to express their emotions. Students who participated in verbalizing their feelings about the event were the ones to recover the quickest (Sandall, cited in Poland, 2004).

Busher outlined events that took place in Stockton, California, in January 1989. A gunman opened fire on a group of children at Cleveland Elementary while they were on the

playground. Tragically, five children were killed and 29 were wounded. If it were not for the previous rehearsal of crisis drills, more lives could have been lost. After the event, the school completed several steps to inform those who were concerned, as well as communicated the information to non-English speaking parents (Busher, cited in Poland, 2004).

From the four case examples provided, it is clear that crisis management is a very crucial part of a successful school system. The nature of crises can vary broadly, but proper planning and implementation can minimize many of their negative effects or even prevent them. However, there remain a large number of crises that will always be outside the realm of prevention. After reviewing some historical events in crisis management, consider the following sections which outline the current trends for many of the threats which schools are facing.

Prevalence of Crises

Bullying. Bullying is a commonly occurring crisis event that takes place in schools. Bullying can be a difficult term to define to everyone's satisfaction. Heath and Sheen (2005) defined bullying as, "a form of aggression in which one or more students physically, psychologically, or sexually harass another student repeatedly over time" (p. 6). An imbalance of power also typically exists whereby the bully is typically bigger, stronger, or older than the targeted victim (Heath & Sheen, 2005). Bullying is generally unprovoked and targeted individuals are usually seen as being unable to retaliate. There are two common types of targets: passive and proactive. Passive targets are typically students who are quiet, loners, have few friends, or are viewed as physically weak. The proactive targets are those who are quick-tempered, anxious, and reactive (Heath & Sheen, 2005). No matter what type of victim, the prevalence rates are still high.

Over the past 30 years there have been many studies that reviewed the prevalence of bullying in schools in many different countries. According to Rigby (2008), the earliest study was conducted during the 1800's in Norway. A national sample of over 80,000 students, between the ages of 7 and 16 years, completed a survey. Fifteen percent of respondents stated that they were bullied "now and again" during the school year, whereas 3% indicated that they were bullied on a weekly basis. In another study completed in England during the 1990's, researchers found that 7% of students reported being bullied on a weekly basis. The largest survey on bullying in the United States was completed in 2001; the sample population consisted of over 15,000 students, grades 6th through 12th, attending Virginia schools. Results from this study found that approximately 8% of students were being bullied on a weekly basis (Rigby, 2008). Results from the 2007 School Crime Supplement to National Crime Victimization Survey indicated 32% of students cited being bullied at school in the past year (Dinkes, Kemp, Baum, & Synder, 2009).

There are also variations in bullying behaviors between genders. In comparison with females, males are three to four times more likely to physically assault their victims. Sixty-five percent of bullying perpetrators were males, and nearly 80% of victimized males were bullied by another male (Olweus, 1993). In addition to variation between genders, there is also a large amount of variation in the type of bullying that occurs.

Five main types of bullying, as defined by Rigby (2008), are: exclusion, cruel teasing, name-calling, threats, and physical bullying. Results from a study done in Mississippi showed that, among students aged 12-17 years, name-calling was the most common type of bullying followed by cruel teasing and physical bullying (Rigby, 2008). In 2007, 21% of bullied students said they were made fun of, 18% were subjected to rumors, 11% were physically bullied, 6%

were threatened with harm, 5% were subjected to exclusion, and 4% were forced to do something they did not want to do (Dinkes et al., 2009).

In recent years, technology has also served as a platform through which individuals can bully their victims anonymously; this is referred to as cyber-bullying. This may include text messages, e-mails, instant messages, or other forms of online contact. Bhat (2008) defined it as the use of any information and communication technology to harass, intimidate, or victimize others. A recent study completed in Canada found that as many as 25% of children are being targeted by cyber bullies (Rigby, 2008). In 2007, 4% of American students reported being cyber-bullied (Dinkes et al., 2009).

Violence. Fights and other forms of violence are another type of crisis event that many schools deal with each year. Violence can come in many forms, thus it is hard to narrow the scope of statistics on the issue. Over the last decade, many studies have found a decreasing number of instances in which violence occurs on school grounds. The U.S. Department of Education reported that during the 2000 school year, 90% of schools had "no serious violent crimes" and 43% had no crime at all (cited in Conoley & Goldstein, 2004). The U.S. Department of Justice found that 1 out of every 100 students from age 12 to 18 were a victim of serious violence at school or while traveling to school (cited in McCabe & Martin, 2005). A recent survey showed that the percentage of students who reported being in a fight on school grounds decreased from 16% in 1993 to 12% in 2007 (Dinkes et al., 2009). Another potential serious threat of violence occurs when weapons on brought onto school grounds.

Weapons. Weapon usage in schools has been a topic of note in the field of education for many years, specifically since the tragic shootings that occurred at Columbine High School in 1999. In 2007, 6% of students acknowledged that they had carried a weapon on school grounds

within the last 30 days, which was a decrease from 12% in 1993 (Dinkes et al., 2009). McCabe and Martin (2005) explained that there have been many school shootings between the years 1974 and 2000, 65% of which occurred between 1992 and 1999. The U.S. Department of Justice reports 11,000 physical assaults involving the use of a weapon on school grounds during the 1996-1997 academic year. These numbers on violence and weapon use in school are alarming, despite the decrease in recent years (cited in McCabe & Martin, 2005). Regardless if the numbers are increasing or decreasing, schools should always be prepared to address crisis events involving weapons and violence.

Sexual Assault. Sexual harassment, assault, and rape make up another category of crisis events. Lichty, Torres, Valenti, and Buchanan (2008) stated, two nationally representative studies on sexual harassment in schools found that, in grades 8 through 11, approximately 4 out of 5 students reported experiencing sexual harassment during the school year. The U.S. Department of Justice stated that approximately 4,000 cases of rape or other types of sexual assault were reported by school officials during the 1996-1997 school-year (cited in McCabe & Martin, 2005). Unfortunately, it seems as though the prevalence of sexual assault in schools is increasing.

Violent Deaths. The previous crises were those that have a tendency to escalate over time. In contrast, the death of students or teachers, regardless of cause, can have an immediate impact on the student body. Death is arguably the crisis of largest concern because the ramifications are the most significant and, unlike the other crises, the outcome is irreversible. The student and teacher death rate is difficult to accurately measure because there is a large amount of variation between the reports of various states and districts. The remainder of this section will analyze the available information and statistics.

Dinkes et al. (2009) reported 43 violent deaths that occurred on school grounds or in connection to a school-related event. Victims included students, staff, and non-students. In this case, a violent death is defined as a homicide, suicide, or a legal intervention; legal intervention refers to a situation in which a death occurs as a result of actions taken by law enforcement. Between July 1, 2007 and June 30, 2008, those 43 deaths consisted of 36 homicides, 6 suicides, and 1 legal intervention (Dinkes et al., 2009). In comparison, there are a larger number of deaths that occur off school grounds.

According to Dinkes et al. (2009), during the 2006-2007 school year there was a total of 1,748 homicides of children ages 5-18. Over the course of the 2006 calendar year, there were 1,296 suicides among children ages 5-18. Every year between 1992 and 2007 there were at least 50 times as many youth homicides away from school than at school and at least 150 times as many suicides away from school than at school. During this time frame there has been no consistent pattern of change in the number of youth suicides (Dinkes et al., 2009). Taking this into account, the importance of suicide screening and preventative measures will likely continue to grow in importance.

Motor-Vehicle Accidents. Not all crises allow schools to take direct preventative measures. Motor-related accidents are the leading cause of death among individuals age 15 to 20-years-old. In a report by the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), it was noted that 3,490 drivers between the ages of 15 and 20 died in motor vehicle accidents in 2006. An additional 272,000 were injured in crashes. This death count accounted for 12.9% of all motor vehicle deaths for that particular year. Between 1996 and 2006, driver fatalities for this age group rose 3% (NHTSA, 2008). These numbers can partially be explained the occurrence of driving under the influence of alcohol.

In 2006, of the 3,490 deaths, 25% of the drivers had a blood-alcohol content level of .08

g/dL or higher (NHTSA, 2008). The severity of crashes increases with the involvement of

alcohol. However, these statistics are slowly improving. The number of fatal accidents, in

which the driver had a blood-alcohol content of .08 g/dL or higher, decreased by 7% between the

years 1996 and 2006. Another alarming aspect of alcohol consumption, in combination with

operating a motor vehicle, is the use of seatbelts or restraints. In 2006, 65% of all passengers

and 77% of all drivers in alcohol related accidents were not using seat-belts or restraints of any

kind (NHTSA, 2008).

Disasters. The final type of crisis to be discussed takes a very different form than those

previously mentioned. Disasters, as defined by Kerr (2009), are events or series of events that

can cause widespread, severe damage, injury, death, or loss of property. This includes natural

disasters, as well as man-made hazards such as chemical spills, fires, terrorism, power plant

emergencies, and damn failure (Kerr, 2009).

While there is limited research on disasters as they directly pertain to schools, there is a

larger amount of research that focuses on disasters themselves. In a study conducted by Thacker,

Robin, Sabogal, and Henderson (2008), deaths associated with natural disasters were examined

between the years 1979 and 2004. The specific areas researched included: excessive cold due to

weather conditions, excessive heat due to weather conditions, lightning, storms (floods,

blizzards, tornadoes, and hurricanes), and Earth movements (earthquakes, volcanic eruptions,

avalanches, landslides, and other events).

Results from this study found that between 1979 and 2004, there were a total of 21,491

deaths associated with natural disasters. From that total, 10,827 were due to excessive cold,

5,279 due to excessive heat, 1,906 due to lightning, 2,741 due to storms, and 738 due to earth

movements (Thacker et al., 2008). Although this study did not research the direct impact on school functioning, the assumption can be made that any natural disaster that causes a significant amount of damage can impact specific individuals, or groups of individuals, and their ability to successfully operate in school. Many of these disasters may even occur while students are in school, or prevent a school from opening following the disaster. Regardless of the study's focus, there are many implications that professionals in the field of education must be aware of and prepared for. Currently, it appears as though schools are not readily prepared for large-scale disasters.

Lee, Parker, Ward, Styron, and Shelley (2008) conducted extensive research in Mississippi schools following Hurricane Katrina regarding emergency and disaster preparedness. Surveys were administered to over 1,100 public and non-public schools. The majority of schools had crisis management plans; however, a significant amount of those schools did not have guidelines for large-scale disasters. Respondents reported that the crisis management plans were particularly strong in identifying the roles of school leaders, outlining the chain of command, and interpreting the storms' impact to the media. In contrast, areas considered inadequate were communication channels for administration, staff, and parents; dealing with electric, fuel, and energy needs; and the ability to effectively operate for an extended period of time during the storm (Lee et al., 2008). This study is a good example of how many schools have crisis management plans, but often lack the ability to effectively and fully implement them. Educators need to be prepared because disasters, as Hurricane Katrina did, can impact students, families, and the community in many different ways.

Mohay and Forbes (2009) discuss the different ways in which natural disasters can impact those involved. Witnessing death or injury as well as perceived life threat are factors that

can be very detrimental, particularly to younger children who have less developed coping skills. Often people become separated from their family and loved ones and lose their immediate support during what may be very challenging times for them. The family home may be destroyed along with their belongings, destruction could lead to job loss, and typical family functioning can be greatly impaired. All of these things can have serious short term and long term effects on those involved (Mohay & Forbes, 2009).

Short and Long Term Effects of Trauma

School crises may constitute a traumatic event and the impact on students or faculty members should not be disregarded. The effects of trauma can take many forms, and can manifest in both short and long term. This section will discuss both short and long term effects of trauma, the varying characteristics for children and adolescents, as well as some current research and statistics.

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is a troubling condition that can be experienced by people of all ages, ethnicities, and genders. An individual must meet the specific criteria outlined in the *DSM-IV* in order to be diagnosed as having the disorder. James and Gilliland (2001) summarized these diagnostic criteria into six points. First, the person must have been presented with an event that involved actual or threatened death, serious injury, or threat to self or others' physical well-being. Second, the person re-experiences the event in some form. Third, the person persistently avoids the stress educing stimuli. Fourth, the person has persistent symptoms of increased nervous arousal, which was not present prior to the traumatic event. Fifth, the disturbance causes clinically significant distress or impairment on critical areas of living (e.g. social, occupational, self-care). Sixth, these symptoms continue for at least one month (James & Gilliland, 2001).

Mohay and Forbes (2009) outlined several risk-factors for children developing PTSD which are based on age, gender, and personality. Children in the pre-kindergarten age-range appear to be more susceptible to developing PTSD than older children. Girls have also been found to consistently display more symptoms of PTSD than boys. Individuals who have high anxiety personality traits in normal situations are much more likely to develop PTSD after experiencing a traumatic event (Weems et al., 2007). Emotional development and related skills, such as proper coping skills, are also strong indicators of whether or not an individual is likely to develop post-traumatic stress disorder (Pina et al., 2008).

Acute stress disorder (ASD) is another common effect of trauma. Unlike PTSD, ASD is generally considered to be a short-term, shorter in duration and quicker to manifest. Bryant, Salmon, Sinclair, and Davidson (2007) described ASD and how it differentiates from PTSD. ASD was introduced in the *DSM-IV* to identify traumatized individuals within the first month that the traumatic event occurred, and those who would likely subsequently be diagnosed with PTSD. The main difference between ASD and PTSD is the requirement of three dissociative symptoms to be present for diagnosis of ASD, whereas PTSD requires meeting six different diagnostic criteria as previously listed (Bryant et al., 2007).

In addition to common forms of post-trauma disorders, a new construct called student alienation syndrome (SAS) has been proposed within the last decade. Not much attention will be given to this construct, beyond this section, since it is not yet a diagnosable condition outlined in the *DSM-IV*. Hyman, Cohen, and Mahon (2003) explain that SAS results from the maltreatment of children by either teachers or peers in a negative school environment. It consists of three factors: oppositionality, hypervigilance, and hopelessness (Hyman et al., 2003). Regardless of

the specific condition that an individual may be diagnosed with, there are many common behaviors associated with stress reaction which may vary greatly by both age and gender.

Kerr (2009) outlined other common stress reactions for children ages 1-5, 6-11, as well as adolescents. Ages 1-5 may exhibit any of the following reactions: increased clinginess, helplessness, passiveness, regression to earlier childhood behaviors (e.g. sucking thumb), new irrational fears, increased crying, loss of appetite, feeling of sickness, nightmares, speech difficulties, tics, anxiety, irritability, sadness, temper tantrums, and withdrawal from events and peers. Children ages 6-11 may exhibit the following reactions: inability to concentrate, school avoidance, aggression, hyperactivity, regression, increased competitiveness, play that involves reenactments of the trauma, changes in apatite, nightmares, sleeplessness, physical symptoms of pain or illness, angry outbursts, self-blame, and guilt. Adolescents may exhibit the following reactions: irritability, bossiness, difficulty concentrating, memory loss, risk-taking behaviors, desire for revenge, social withdrawal, anxiety or fear for personal safety, guilty, self-blame, shame, feelings of inadequacy, and more (Kerr, 2009).

There is also a significant difference between males and females in regards to how they react to experiences of trauma. Heath and Sheen (2005) stated boys are less likely to react with crying or hysteria but are more likely to make jokes and use irreverent humor. For males, humor may be a coping mechanism to ease the pain they are feeling. Teachers and other school faculty should be familiar with this type of behavior and do their best to be accepting and understanding of it and its purpose rather than making the assumption that the individual is not properly coping with the problem.

The conditions and symptoms outlined in this section can all lead to adverse effects on a child's education and life in general. Shannon, Lonigan, Finch, and Taylor found that 51% of

children who were diagnosed with PTSD following a specific traumatic event experienced a decrease in school performance (cited in Mohay & Forbes, 2009). James and Gilliland (2001) explained how the prevalence of PTSD is relatively low in comparison to the general population; however, the rate is significantly higher when compared to others who have experiences a traumatic event. Simply experiencing a traumatic event greatly increases your chances of developing PTSD and displaying long-term adverse effects (James & Gilliland, 2001). After reviewing some of the research, it becomes very clear why immediate, appropriate, and effective crisis response is a very important part of a school system.

Legislative Movements

Over the past twenty years there has been a continued push for increased accountability for proper and effective crisis management. In addition to those discussed in chapter one, the 2002 reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act marked the beginning of federally mandated crisis management. Under the Safe and Drug Free Schools provision (20 U.S.C.S §7114, 2002), it is required there be funding for a crisis management plan, allowing school to respond to violent and traumatic incidents on school grounds (Bosher, Kaminski, & Vacca, 2004). Although there is now federal legislation for schools to have a crisis management plan, the law does not give specific detailed guidelines for how such a plan needs to look. The following sections will discuss additional legislation that certain states have passed to further guide the process.

According to Pagliocca and Nickerson (2001), there are three broad areas of interest for state level policy and legislations: (a) policing function, focusing on the general safety and security of the school; (b) educational function, focusing on day-to-day activities within a school such as curriculum, school climate, and behavior management; (c) crisis management function,

focusing on planning for and responding to critical situations. Each of these may take different forms within the school setting. Further elaboration and examples are provided for each below.

For policing function, many states have adopted legislation that either mandates or allows them to prevent violence on their school campuses by using outside personnel and technological strategies. This may be in the form of security personnel, local law enforcement officers, security camera, metal detectors, and more (Pagliocca & Nickerson, 2001). One example of this is Arizona Revised Statutes §15-154, which requires local schools to use trained resource officers (SROs) and/or juvenile probation officers (POs) in order to qualify for funding. An example of security technology legislation is Miss Code Ann §37-3-83, which allows Mississippi schools to use video cameras in the classroom to monitor student behavior (Pagliocca & Nickerson, 2001).

Education function involves more of a curriculum-based approach to promoting school safety. This can be seen in the form of prevention programming and school-wide screening. For example, Mo Rev Stat §161.650 is a Missouri legislation that directs the State Department of Elementary and Secondary Education to identify violence prevention programs and add instruction related to criminal street gangs to the already existing curriculum (Pagliocca & Nickerson, 2001).

Unlike the two previous functions, the crisis management function focuses less on prevention and more on action when crises may occur. One example of this is Project Save, Safe Schools Against Violence in Education, which is an act that was passed by the New York Senate and Assembly in July 2000 (Pagliocca & Nickerson, 2001). This act has three main components that schools are to follow. First, school safety plans. This involves the development of district and building-level safety teams and safety plans regarding crisis intervention. Second, school

emergency response plan are required. This entails developing a team and plan for managing serious violent incidents or other large-scale emergencies. Third, status of emergency response plans must be known. This component keeps schools accountable and helps ensure that they continue to develop, update, and practice their response plans. The law also states that schools must make their school safety plans available for public review (Pagliocca & Nickerson, 2001).

Crisis Plans

Through research, we have established that there is a need for proper crisis management as well as legal mandates requiring that schools be proactive in creating plans. Like many areas of education, there is a discord between theory and practice. For instance, many school districts may have crisis management plans but do not have active teams to follow through with these plans. This section will focus on describing the composition and function of crisis plans and crisis teams in theory.

Many models of crisis management exist. Poland outlines three primary levels to be addressed. The first is primary prevention; this involves activities like conflict resolution, safety training programs, alcohol and drug awareness, and programming for at-risk youth. An example of this may be school-wide suicide screening in which the faculty may administer a mental health survey to all students. Next is secondary intervention; this would include steps after a crisis has occurred to help minimize the effects and prevent the situation from escalating. At this level, schools would also address the needs of the parties involves, notify parents, and address any media response. The third and final level is tertiary intervention. After the situation has calmed, school will then focus on the long-term needs of those involved by providing counseling and other forms of assistance (Poland, cited in Knox & Roberts, 2005).

In a more recent model, Kerr (2009) describes four phases for crisis planning: Mitigation/Prevention, preparedness, response, and recovery. Within prevention, it is suggested that schools follow the acronym ISIS: Information and intelligence garnered through supervision and surveillance. Information refers to the knowledge that we have about our schools, community, students, and visitors. Information is gained through proper supervision. Whereas intelligence refers to secretive information that others may not want us to learn which we obtain through surveillance. For example, faculty may overhear conversations of concern, spot something in a note passed in class or posted online, etc (Kerr, 2009).

The second phase, preparedness, sets the goal to be prepared for the worst-case scenario. This phase is composed of three segments: crisis planning, crisis preparation, and crisis communications planning. Planning must be linked to prevention, preparation includes training, and communication planning involves networking with outside agencies that may be involved in the event of a crisis (Kerr, 2009). This is an area that is often a challenge for many school districts due to a lack of time and funding.

The third phase, response, sets the goal to restore physical and psychological safety to those affected and answers the question, "now what?" Schools may rely on emergency response protocols which use specific communications to direct actions (Kerr, 2009). For example, schools may have code systems to notify faculty of an incident and what they should do next. If the faculty is notified that a code red is in effect, perhaps this means that teachers are to go into lock-down mode. This provides an avenue for faculty to take action while maintaining order within the school.

The fourth and final phase outlined by Kerr (2009) is recovery. At this point, school would be taking the proper steps to ensure the long-term physical and mental health of the

students. In addition, time is taken to analyze and evaluate the success of the previous phases. For example, the crisis team may meet at a later date for team members to evaluate and reflect on the process. If it is determined that changes need to be made to ensure future success, revisions are made to policies and further training is provided to faculty members.

Similarities and differences can be seen between the various models. More recent models have the tendency to be longer and more detailed than older models. This is likely due the increased need and push for crisis planning. Available resources on crisis management models include more thorough guidelines and steps for preparing and writing a crisis plan. This allows school to be more prepared and to have a better idea how to handle specific scenarios rather than just a broad picture focus.

Once a school establishes a crisis management plan, it is important that there is a crisis team that works to ensure proper implementation of the plan as well as rehearsal of the plan. Knox and Roberts (2005) explain that teams often vary in size but are typically in the range of four to eight people. Teams should be a manageable and functional size. If a team is too big it may be difficult to operate successfully, if a team is too small there may not be enough people to fully implement the plan. Suggested crisis team roles include a team leader, assistant team leader, media coordinator, staff notification coordinator, in-house communication coordinator, and a crowd-management coordinator (Knox & Roberts, 2005). This is just one example of some roles that may be on a crisis team.

Kerr (2009) defines nine different roles for members of a crisis team. A crisis team leader is needed, which is usually filled by the principal or administrator. A crisis team leader designee, this person is second in command and would fill-in if the leader is absent or offsite. An offsite manager is needed to prepare in-shelter facilities in the event of a school evacuation;

this would need to be a person who does not have any direct responsibilities to students. A security coordinator would be another role in which that individual would be in charge of securing the school until law enforcement or other help can arrive. A medical responder is a needed member of the team; this person would need some sort of medical training, often this may be the school nurse. Next on the list is a communications coordinator, this is the person that would manage both internal and external communication. A mental health specialist is also a very important team member role; this could be the school counselor, psychologist, or some offsite professional. A facilities manager is also needed to help address utility needs, direct traffic, and provide floor plans. Finally, other staff members may fill other various roles (Kerr, 2009).

Literature on crisis planning has many small differences but is largely consistent. The goal of this section was to provide you with a general understanding of what the literature says should be the components of a crisis plan, and the roles of crisis team members. The next section of this research paper will focus on current research on the use and implementation of crisis plans and teams in the public school systems.

Current State of Crisis Management in Schools

This section will focus on how crisis management practices are really applied in the field. Five different research articles will be briefly summarized. The articles take a look at several different aspects related to crisis management. The first is a study which focuses on how the tragic 1999 Columbine High School shootings impacted push for more effective planning.

Crepeau-Hobson, Filaccio, and Gottfried (2005) surveyed 234 school mental health professionals from varying Colorado school districts. 40.3% were school counselors, 19% were school psychologists, 14% were principals, roughly eight percent were social workers, and 18%

of respondents checked "other." Respondents were asked to report on whether or not they used specific services and strategies before and after April of 1999, when the Columbine shootings took place. The most notable changes were in the use of crisis plan, which increased in usage by 20.2%; group counseling, increasing by nearly 10% in use; crisis teams, which increased by roughly 9% in use; and daily check-ins with at-risk students, 8% increase. Respondents were also asked about additional changes that were made in violence prevention strategies. 62.7% of reported tighter security procedures, 40% reported stricter disciplinary procedures, 32.3% said there was a greater security presence, 17.3% stated that locker searches were more frequently used, and 26.4% said that other measures were implemented (Crepeau-Hobson et al., 2005).

In Another study, Razi and DeChillo (2005) collected data from 11 schools in an urban and suburban area located just outside Boston, Massachusetts. Schools were separated into groups based on size, and then schools were randomly selected from each group. A total of 18 schools were contacted and 11 agreed to participate in the study. Data were obtained through a survey that was filled out by the school administrator and interviews with school counselors. Results from the survey indicated that all 11 schools had crisis plans in place, six of which have used their plans within the past six months. Nine of the 11 schools stated that the principal was the primary person responsible to respond to a crisis. Seven of 11 school stated that they had security systems, four said that they have violence prevention meetings, and eight held annual meetings to review the crisis plans. Through the counselor interviews, it was discovered that the reoccurring themes for issues related crisis planning were: clarity of roles, collaboration/networking, communication, debriefing/follow-through, media, safety, training/practice, and written policies (Razi & DeChillo, 2005).

Gainey (2009) conducted a study which examined how South Carolina school districts could be prepared to respond to crises in a more effective way. Questionnaires were sent to the varying school district's superintendents and public relations managers. A total of 47 superintendents, and 40 public relation managers responded. When asked if the district has a written crisis plan in place, 43 superintendents and 39 public relations managers said yes, the remaining said no or did not respond to the item. When asked if they had an internal advisory committee, also known as a crisis team, only 53.2% of superintendents said yes, the remaining said that they did not have one, were considering one, planning for one, or were in the process of implementing one; only 38.3 % stated that they had an external advisory committee. Additionally, Gainey (2009) accessed what types of categories were covered by the crisis plans schools had in place. The broad categories on the questionnaire were: natural disasters, structural/physical problems, environmental hazards, economic problems, human situations, reputation problems, and informational hazards. The majority of respondents reported they had most of these categories in their crisis plans; however, a few areas in which there was a lower rate of usage was economic problems, reputation problems, and informational hazards (Gainey, 2009). The two remaining research articles that will be covered focus on the experiences and training of school psychologist in regards to crisis management.

Adamson and Peacock (2007) surveyed 228 school psychologists regarding their experiences with crisis intervention teams and plans. The respondents were all drawn of a pool of member of the National Association for School Psychologist and all worked at least half-time at their school. They found that 95.1% of those surveyed worked for schools that did have active crisis plans and 83.6% had crisis teams. Of those that said their school had a crisis team, 91.4% served on the team. The school psychologists were also asked what experiences they have had

with crises that impacted their schools. The most common responses were: expected deaths other than suicide (71.5%), suicide (62.7%), and transportation accidents (48.2%). Respondents were also asked about crisis team roles and crisis plan components, however, results were consistent with the previously research articles mentioned and will not be further discussed.

The second study which focused on school psychologist took a closer look at training and preparation for crisis management. Allen et al. (2002) randomly surveyed 276 practicing school psychologists from the 1999 dictionary of Nationally Certified School Psychologists and asked them what kind of university training they received in regards to crisis management. 37% of respondents reported that they had some sort of training or experience with crisis intervention prior to graduating. To further break it down, 23% said they had specific course work on crisis intervention, 5% said they had a specific course, 15% said it was mingled in with other course work, and 3.3% said that they learned about crisis intervention/management from taking additional workshops while in school (Allen et al., 2002).

To further investigate the training of school psychologist for crisis management, Allen et al. (2002) broke down the sample into separate groups based on when they graduated with their degree in school psychology. The groups include: 1994-2000, 1987-1993, 1980-1986, and 1979 or earlier. Results indicated a steady increase over time in the amount of training received while in school. To put it in numbers, 56% of school psychologists graduating after 1987 reported having course work or experiences in practicum/internship versus only 28.6% of those who graduated prior to 1987.

Conclusion

Through this literature review we can see growing need for crisis management in the public school setting. There are many reasons to do so, including high rates of crime, violence,

bullying, and other issues that occur in the school. Furthermore, there are also an increasing number of federal and state mandates that require action. Despite all of that, research shows that there is still not a very high rate of effective crisis management occurring. There is much more that needs to be done and can be done through creating effective crisis management plans and teams.

Chapter III: Summary, Critical Analysis, and Recommendations

After reviewing the literature, it is clear that there is a high need for schools to implement crisis management plans in their districts. Although the status of crises in schools has marginally decreased over the last 10 years, the need to protect our students and develop effective crisis management will always be present. This chapter will summarize some of the key findings from the literature review, a critical analysis of the findings, discussion about limitations of the research, as well as recommendations for the future.

Summary of Findings

When it comes to crisis management, history provides a very detailed background of both effective and ineffective methods. Schools should make extensive efforts to learn from past mistakes, as well as past successes. There are a variety of potential threats to the everyday functioning of students and the school system. By reviewing past experiences across the country, educators can learn new and better ways of preventing such events and develop new ways to mitigate the trauma of future crises.

The best example of this is the kidnapping of a school bus full of children in California during the 1970's. This is an example of a situation that was handled very poorly and one in which very little crisis management was even applied. A lot of research was done on the students involved in this traumatic experience and much of the results are alarming (Terr, 1983). From this case we learned a lot about how traumatic experiences can have very devastating and long-term effects on the individuals involved if the situation is not properly mediated. Several other cases were reported in the literature review, but none more important than this.

After reviewing the history, the literature review summarized some recent and current statistics on the prevalence of specific crises that threaten schools. Bullying is a real threat that

many students face on a daily basis. Bullying may occur in many forms, including verbal abuse, physical abuse, isolation, and cyber-bullying; thus creating difficulty for school faculty when it comes to effective prevention. One of the most recent findings is that the rate of cyber-bullying is beginning to increase; this is particularly troublesome because anonymity may serve as a barrier to identifying bullies or providing thorough interventions.

Violence and death are two other threats facing schools. Recent research shows that the rate of violence within schools is slowly decreasing, which gives reason to believe that crisis management plans are helping in many districts. Along similar lines, death was the final form of crisis that was addressed; which included illness, homicide, suicide, and accidental death. Death is arguably the most impactful crisis, as it can have both short- and long-term effects on individuals who are still alive. Individuals may react very differently to grief which can create challenges for schools when they attempt to intervene. It is also a particularly difficult issue for schools to address because, unlike some other crises, death can have a much more profound impact on the student body regardless of whether it happens on or off school grounds.

Arguably the most challenging crisis to address would be a natural disaster. Although they may have the lowest occurrence off all potential crises, they may result in comparatively large effects. A natural disaster could lead to a large number of students losing their homes, communities, schools, and even loved ones. Large scale disasters may lead to complete chaos and a total imbalance in student and school functioning because the focus of school moves towards mental health and not academics. Crisis teams often implement safety percussions while a natural disaster strikes, such as tornado and fire drills, but preparing for the wide-spread damage and aftermath can be much more challenging.

Being prepared for the aftermath of a disaster is essential in preventing trauma. Research supports two major types of disorders that can occur after an individual experiences trauma. The first is acute stress disorder which is relatively brief in duration and manifests itself more quickly following a traumatic experience (Bryant et al., 2007). The more prevalent disorder of the two is post-traumatic stress disorder. This is much longer lasting and can be experienced by anyone regardless of gender, age, or ethnicity. In addition to these two disorders, a new reaction to trauma is being studied which pertains specifically to students. The new construct is called student alienation syndrome and is a result of maltreatment of children by either teachers or peers in a negative school environment (Hyman et al., 2003). In the event that trauma cannot be prevented, schools should have counseling programming in place and immediately available to the students. In some situations, schools may even contract with outside agencies to provide additional mental health services. In response to school crises and trauma, there have been many legislative movements to help create accountability in crisis management.

Across the country, there are many variations in what crisis management looks like because many states have created laws that mandate specific types of crisis management planning within their states. Several of the most important legislative movements, however, took place at the federal level. The 2002 reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education act mandated that every district have a crisis management plan in place. To aid in the process, the Safe and Drug Free Schools provision (20 U.S.C.S §7114, 2002) required that funding be in place for schools to effectively respond to traumatic events within the school (Bosher, et al., 2004). Now that schools are required to have crisis management plans, there is a growing amount of research on crisis management teams and the planning process.

Recent research has shown an increase in involvement in crisis management planning. A growing number of schools have active crisis teams in place and have established connections with outside agencies that would help in the event of a crisis. Many studies have found similar findings in regards to the active members are on the crisis team and what specific areas are covered in plans. In a study that interviewed school counselors, it was discovered that some common issues with crisis management planning was a lack of clarity in roles, weak collaboration and networking, limited debriefing and follow-through, poor training, and unclear written policies (Razi & DeChillo, 2005).

Critical Analysis

There is currently a wide range of research on many topics related to crisis management in schools. However, some topics have limited research, while others have inconsistent findings. The history of crisis management is difficult to research. While there are many articles available on specific events, it is often unclear what kinds of crisis management techniques were implemented in those specific situations, thus making it difficult to critique and learn from them. In addition to that, there are more case studies done on situations in which something was done poorly, rather than when something was done well. If there were more research on crisis management success, the benefits would be better documented and there would be a stronger theoretical framework to build upon in the future. There is, however, a larger amount of research on crisis prevalence.

Through the literature review it was discovered that there are some inconsistent findings in regards to specific crises. This can create some difficulty in determining what information is best and the most accurate. For example, one article may state that the rate of violence is decreasing in schools, while another may say that it is increasing. There also exists a lot of

overlap in the research, which creates a narrow scope of information. Moreover, many times a study has a larger focus and does not provide useful and applicable information which may be beneficial to a school that is hoping to create or revamp their crisis team or plan.

When attempting to research a more specific type of crisis it can be difficult to pinpoint those statistics. For instance, a lot of research focuses on violence within the school but not on the specifics of who was involved, degree of violence, type of violence, etc. Another example of this has to do with students or faculty death. Some studies mentioned the number of deaths but there was little research available on how the death occurred (illness, accident, etc.). Moreover, there is a lot of available research on the frequency of weapon use and sexual assaults among youth, although there was very little specification as to whether or not such events occurred on or off school grounds.

When reviewing the research on prevalence, the reliability of the measures should be taken into consideration. The majority of studies used informal measures to gather information and formulate statistics. For instance, most of the studies used a survey format in which they asked students or faculty to report the occurrences of different crises. When using this type of research there is a strong susceptibility to rater and observer biases. Perhaps a school administrator estimates high amounts of violence because there has been a lot recently and he or she perceives the situation as being worse than it truly is. On the opposite end up the spectrum, many students may not report the occurrence of certain events out of fear of pride. Many students refrain from reporting being bullied out of fear that it will make the matter worse. Therefore, the results from many research studies may not be completely reliable.

Similar to measures of prevalence, much of the research on crisis management teams involved the use of interviews and surveys of faculty and team members. If a researcher is

looking to evaluate the effectiveness of a crisis management team there may not be any specific measures to use. As a result, team members or other faculty may be asked to simply rate the process which can be very subjective. Different team members may have very different viewpoints on the effectiveness of the crisis management team thus creating unreliable or invalid results.

Lastly, there is insufficient research on federal monitoring of follow-through in regards to crisis management planning. In a 2007 study, Adamson and Peacock found that only 95.1% of schools surveyed reported having a crisis management plan in place. However, it was federally mandated to have one in place as of 2002. It is clear that not all schools are fully taking reasonability and action to prevent and mitigate traumatic experiences occurring in their schools, despite federal mandates.

Recommendations

Crisis management is a growing domain within the field of education and there is an increasing amount of research available to support it. It has been shown that there can be many negative impacts and outcomes as a result of a traumatic event. There are many case studies that have been completed showing what happens when a school does not successfully implement crisis management planning. However, there seems to be a limited amount of case studies pertaining to effective crisis management and positive outcomes. This is an area in which further investigation and research could be done to show school districts the benefits and help to create a theoretical framework for future crisis management.

It is recommended that more research be done on school crises in more specific areas. A lot of the current research focuses on broad areas such as 'violence' or 'death'. Researchers could further investigate the details of such crises. For example, one study might focus

specifically on physical violence without the use of weapons. In addition, many studies do not specify if the prevalence rates are directed as youth as a whole or only on instances in which those events take place on school grounds. Clarity in future research would be beneficial.

In the area of crisis management plans, there is a need for more research on individual school plans. There is a large amount of information that outlines what should be on an effective plan, but very little information is available on how many school use crisis plans, as well as what those specific plans entail. It is recommended that further research investigates how plans are implemented, how much funding is put into the process, and how team members are recruited. Furthermore, there is a little to no research available on the role that classroom teachers play in the process of crisis management implementation. It is common that one or two teachers participate on the crisis team, but there is little information describing the extent to which other teachers are involved in the process.

References

Adamson, A., & Peacock, G. (2007). Crisis response in the public schools: A survey of school psychologists' experiences and perceptions. *Psychology in the Schools*, *44*(8), 749-764.

Allen, M., & Ashbaker, B. (2004). Strengthening schools: Involving paraprofessionals in crisis prevention and intervention. *Intervention in School & Clinic, 39*(3), 139-146.

Allen, M., Jerome, A., White, A., Marston, S., Lamb, S., Pope, D., & Rawlins, C. (2002). The preparation of school psychologists for crisis intervention. *Psychology in the Schools*, 39(4), 427.

Bhat, C. (2008). Cyber bullying: Overview and strategies for school counselors, guidance officers, and all school personnel. *Australian Journal of Guidance & Counseling*, 18(1), 53-66.

Bosher, W.C., Kaminski, K.R., & Vacca, R.S. (2004). *The school law handbook: what every leader needs to know*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.

Brock, S.E., Nickerson, A.B., Reeves, M.A., Jimerson, S.R., Lieberman, R.A., & Feinber, T.A. (2009). *School crisis prevention and intervention: The prepare model*. Bethesda, MD: National Association of School Psychologists.

Bryant, R., Salmon, K., Sinclair, E., & Davidson, P. (2007). The relationship between acute stress disorder and posttraumatic stress disorder in injured children. *Journal of Traumatic Stress, 20*(6), 1075-1079.

Conoley, J.C., & Goldstein, A.P. (2004). *School violence intervention*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Cornell, D., & Sheras, P. (1998). Common errors in school crisis response: Learning from our

    mistakes. *Psychology in the Schools*, *35*(3), 297.

Crepeau-Hobson, M., Filaccio, M., & Gottfried, L. (2005). Violence prevention after columbine:

    A survey of high school mental health professionals. *Children & Schools*, *27*(3), 157.

Dinkes, R., Kemp, J., Buam, K., & Snyder, T. (2009, December). *Indicators of school crime and*

    safety: 2009. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Gainey, B. S. (2009). Crisis management's new role in educational settings. *Clearing House*,

    82(6), 267.

Heath, M.A., & Sheen, D. (2005). *School-based crisis intervention*. New York, NY: The

    Guilford Press.

Hyman, I., Cohen, I., & Mahon, M. (2003). Student alienation syndrome: A paradigm for

    understanding the relation between school trauma and school violence. *California School*

    Psychologist, *87*386.

James, R.K., & Gilliland, B.E. (2001). *Crisis intervention strategies*. Belmont, CA:

    Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.

Kerr, M.M. (2009). *School crisis prevention and intervention*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Knox, K., & Roberts, A. (2005). Crisis intervention and crisis team models in schools.

    Children & Schools, *27*(2), 93-100.

Lee, D. E., Parker, G., Ward, M. E., Styron, R. A., & Shelley, K. (2008). Katrina and the schools

    of Mississippi: An examination of emergency and disaster preparedness. *Journal of*

    Education for Students Placed at Risk, 13(2/3), 318-334.

Lichty, L., Torres, J., Valenti, M., & Buchanan, N. (2008). Sexual harassment policies in K-12

    schools: Examining accessibility to students and content. *Journal of School Health*,

    78(11), 607-614.

McCabe, K., & Martin, G. (2005). *School violence, the media & criminal justice responses*.

    New York, NY: Peter Lang Publishing.

Mohay, H., & Forbes, N. (2009). Reducing the risk of posttraumatic stress disorder in children

    following natural disasters. *Australian Journal of Guidance & Counseling, 19*(2), 179-

    195.

NHTSA. (2008, March). *Traffic safety facts: 2008 data: Young drivers* (DOT HS 810817).

    Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from: www-nrd.nhtsa.dot.gov/pubs;810817.pdf

Olweus, Dan. (1993). *Bullying: what we know and what we can do*. Malden, MA:

Blackwell.Pagliocca, P. M., & Nickerson, A. B. (2001). Legislating school crisis response: Good

    policy or just good politics?. *Law & Policy*, 23(3), 373.

Pina, A. A., Villalta, I. K., Ortiz, C. D., Gottschall, A. C., Costa, N. M., & Weems, C. F. (2008).

    Social support, discrimination, and coping as predictors of posttraumatic stress reactions

    in youth survivors of hurricane katrina. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent*

    Psychology, 37(3), 564-574.

Poland, S. (2004). School crisis teams. In J.C. Conloney & A.P. Goldstein, *School violence*

    intervention: A practical handbook (p. 131-163). New York, NY: The Guilford

Press.Razi, A., & DeChillo, N. (2005). High schools respond to crises: Lessons learned. *Journal*

of School Violence, 4(2), 115.

Rigby, K. (2008). *Children and bullying : How parents and educators can reduce bullying at*

    school. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Roberts, A.R. (2000). *Crisis intervention handbook : Assessment, treatment, and research.* Oxford, NY: Oxford University Press.

Tacker, M. F., Lee, R., Sabogal, R. I., & Henderson, A. (2008). Overview of deaths associated with natural events, United States, 1979-2004. *Disasters,* 32(2), 303-315.

Terr, L.C. (1983). Chowchilla revisited: the effects of psychic trauma four years after a school bus kidnapping. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 140,* 1543-1550.

Weems, C. F., Pina, A. A., Costa, N. M., Watts, S. E., Taylor, L. K., & Cannon, M. F. (2007). Predisaster trait anxiety and negative affect predict posttraumatic stress in youths after hurricane katrina. *Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology,* 75(1), 154-159.