

THE CAMPUS SAFETY IMPERATIVE: A QUALITATIVE STUDY
OF A STATE HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM'S INITIATIVES
TO RESPOND TO VIOLENCE ON CAMPUS

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The Campus Safety Imperative: A qualitative study of a state higher education system's initiatives to respond to violence on campus

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ABSTRACT

Crisis management is a critical issue facing higher education. Higher education leaders and campus safety advocates agree that the Virginia Tech massacre changed perceptions and approaches to campus safety at colleges and universities nationally. In the University of North Carolina System, it was the two murders of University of North Carolina at Wilmington students that occurred three years prior to Virginia Tech caused the UNC System to take significant steps toward making all of its campuses safer. This single-case study examined the University of North Carolina (UNC) System's initiatives to respond to violence on campus through the work of the campus safety forces that were formed in 2004, 2007 and 2013. The study assessed the impact that changes made to crisis management policies and practices recommended by the Task Force had on campus safety and crisis leadership. The researcher collected and analyzed documents and media reports related to the task forces' work. In addition, interview responses from eight task force members who were experienced higher education administrators were transcribed and analyzed. Triangulation of these data was used to assure the validity of this research study. Results of this case study research show that UNC's continuous focus on campus safety has led to changes in policy and practice that have made its campuses better prepared for and improved their ability to respond to crises. The findings also show that Presidential/CEO leadership was critical to the success of UNC's multi-disciplinary approach to making its campuses safer.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

The increase in violence on college campuses continues to gain national attention. Tragedies like the mass killings at Virginia Tech in 2007 and Northern Illinois University in 2008, the hazing death of Robert Champion at Florida A & M and the Penn State child abuse scandal in 2011 have caused university administrators to examine their institutions' ability to manage crises. Miser and Cherrey (2009) emphasized that the effective management of a crisis is an essential skill for campus administrators. Crises threaten organizations, people and property and, when handled appropriately, can improve the reputation of the institution and its personnel. Conversely, a poorly managed crisis can diminish trust in individuals as well as the institution.

According to Thompson, Price, Mrdjenovich, and Khubchandani (2009), the most significant incidents that initiated and perpetuated the broader discussion of college campus security and crisis management were the September 11th, 2001 terrorist attacks. After the terrorist attacks, "the Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation referred to colleges and universities as soft vulnerable targets of terror" (p. 247). Campus safety and the threat of violence are significant concerns for students, parents and higher education administrators. While the tragedy at Virginia Tech heightened the public's concern about campus safety, it is not the first time that a tragedy, that received wide spread media coverage, have occurred on a college campus (Harrington, Purcell, & Ragland, 2009). Incidents such as the University of Texas tower shootings in 1966, the Kent State shootings in 1970, the collapse of the Texas A&M Bonfire, Seton Hall's dormitory fire, and the February 2008 shooting at Northern Illinois (that claimed the lives of five students) all remind us that crisis events can occur on campus at any time. Since Virginia Tech, senior student affairs officers (SSAOs) and others campus leaders have become more knowledgeable and have learned

more about young adult grief, securing and informing the campus community, adequate and compassionate measures for response to grieving families, and statewide guidelines and protocols. Additionally, college campuses have implemented more aggressive measures, such as criminal background checks and information technology, to mitigate the risk of violence on campus. (Hughes, White & Hertz, 2007).

The development of the appropriate policies and protocols that enable effective crisis response are important aspects of crisis work. In addition to the policies, Janosik and Gregory (2009) found that passive ad campaigns and campus programming that focus on the timely reporting of crime are three times more likely to influence student safety related behavior. Since the introduction of these policies is relatively new to higher education, the research literature on the topic is limited. However, the research on campus safety, crisis and risk management in higher education is growing. Catullo, Walker and Floyd's (2009) study on *The Status of Crisis Management at NASPA [National Association of Student Personnel Administrators] Member Institutions* assessed perceptions of chief student affairs officers with regard to crisis preparedness. Similarly, Janosik and Gregory (2009), in their article, *The Clery Act, Campus Safety and the Perceptions of Senior Student Affairs Officers*, examined the effectiveness of the Clery Act and SSAOs' views of campus safety. According to Zdziarski (2006) an effective higher education crisis management system ties divisional plans to the overall institutional crisis management plan. Jacobsen (2011) asserted that senior student affairs officers (SSAOs) must assume a leadership role in planning and responding to crises on campus. Her study, *Leadership Strategies Dealing with Crisis as Identified by Administrators in Higher Education*, identified challenges such as loss of control and the complexities of multiple constituency groups, and provided strategies that mitigate these challenges that occur in crisis situations.

Bataille, Billings and Nellum (2012) asserted that preparing for a wide array of potential emergencies and being ready to employ every available form of communication are two of the keys that enable college presidents to successfully lead their campuses through a crisis. According to Bataille et al., a campus crisis can have enormous repercussions for an institution and for its leader. A college president must spend time and energy proactively assembling the information and resources needed to respond to an endless list of possible emergencies. It is this thinking and the crises that have occurred on college campuses across America, particularly those that have involved violence, that are the impetus behind leaders of state systems of higher education as well as individual institutions' efforts to explore new ways to prevent and minimize the impact of violence on campus.

Background of the Problem

The incidents of violence that occur on America's college and university campuses remain a major concern of higher education administrators, their boards of trustees, legislators, and current and prospective college students and their families. On April 16, 2007, the perception of safety on college and university campuses was forever changed when a student at Virginia Polytechnic and State University shot and killed 32 students and faculty members at the University. After the Virginia Tech incident, an emphasis on crisis management, related to campus violence, intensified and numerous state higher education systems, legislative committees, and colleges and universities began looking for contemporary models to examine and address safety on college campuses. The shootings at Virginia Tech showed that an array of strategies and resources are needed to address the ever-increasing risks facing universities (Hughes et al., 2008).

Prior to Virginia Tech, killings on college campuses such as The University of Florida, The University of Iowa, Concordia University in Montreal, and the University of Montreal – Ecole

Polytechnique shocked the higher education community (Asmussen & Creswell, 1995). While this phenomenon of violence on campus is not new, the incidents of mass shootings and their frequency of campus violence across categories (e.g. sexual assault, hazing, hate crimes, and celebratory violence) raise concerns such as the extent to which these incidents cause psychological trauma and disrupt campus life (Asmussen & Creswell, 1995). Moreover, because of the expanded reach of the media, regardless of where they occur, campus tragedies have become more prominent in our lives (Zdziarski, Dunkel & Rollo, 2007). Statistics from the Department of Education show that there were over 71,621 crimes reported that occurred on college campuses (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Safe and Drug-Free Schools, 2010). Carr (2005) reported that due to the rise in violence on college campuses, the American College Health Association (ACHA) adopted a position statement that encourages all campus health professionals to take action to end violence on campus. Similarly, in the recent years, college and university leaders have taken steps to identify gaps in their existing strategies and comply with changes in federal and state laws enacted to prevent and respond to violent crime on campus.

Need for the Study

A critical issue facing higher education in the United States is crisis management. Historically, research on crisis management had been mainly found in business literature (McCullars, 2011). While there is a small and growing body of literature in the many aspects of crisis management in higher education such as campus violence, a need still exists for research that will give campus leaders a better understanding of campus safety and provide contemporary models for preventing and responding to crises that are applicable to the real-life situations that may occur on their campuses. McCullars (2011) posited that “higher education needs to take the current opportunity to explore this plentiful field of further study” (p. 160). Zdziarski, Dunkel and

Rollo (2007) asserted that new models for how institutions can prepare for and respond to crises, with a focus of campus violence, when they occur, are needed.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine and gain a better understanding of the University of North Carolina (UNC) System's initiatives to respond to violence on campus through the work of the campus safety forces that were formed in 2004, 2007 and 2013. The study assessed the impact that changes made to crisis management policies and practices recommended by the Task Force had on campus safety and crisis leadership.

Significance of the Study

According to McCullars (2011), institutions that have been recently impacted by violence and other types of crises "can be examined about their responses and changes they have made to their crisis plans" (p.160). This study will examine the UNC's response to campus violence. The results of this study will provide a more in-depth view of campus safety, crisis preparedness and management practices, specific to campus violence and crisis leadership. Additionally, this research will add to the growing body of literature on research in the fields of crisis management and campus safety in higher education that should inform the actions of campus leaders in times of crisis.

Research Questions

The primary (overarching) research question which guided this study is:

What changes were made to policies, practices and procedures that are in place at UNC System campuses to improve campus safety and foster a non-violent environment based on lessons learned from the UNC System's campus safety efforts initiated since 2004?

Secondary research questions are as follows:

1. What is the relationship between leadership role(s) and crisis management?
2. What are some of the major threats faced by institutions and how important are financial resources to supporting campus safety initiatives?
3. How are recommendations from the task forces implemented?

Relevance to Educational Leadership

The results of a 2010 market study conducted by the American Council on Education (ACE) revealed that presidents and other administrators have a need for information on various topics they believe will help them in doing their jobs (Cook, 2012). According to the report, presidents spent increasing amounts of time on external affairs such as fundraising and constituent relations. The competencies for college administrators cited by the presidents who were surveyed included:

1. Planning and Assessment
2. Finance and Budgeting
3. Fundraising
4. Communication

Surprisingly, despite the fact that a crisis on campus can have a great impact on an institution's reputation and its people, crisis management was not high on the presidents' list of information needed or activities in which they were engaged (Bataille et al., 2012). Campus administrators must have the ability to lead in times of crisis. The issues facing higher education are complex, communication is more rapid, due to the emergence of social media, and tighter federal and state regulations require campus administrators who have the ability to lead in times of crisis (Bataille et al., 2012). To protect students and the institution's reputation, campus administrators must understand how to plan for, manage, survive, and recover from unexpected events such as protests, natural disasters, and violence that may occur on campus. The results of

this study will potentially provide campus leaders with an understanding of the phenomenon of campus violence, new models for assessing risks and contemporary approaches to managing these events effectively.

Crisis events in higher education are inevitable. It is not a question of whether a crisis event will occur. Rather, James and Wooten (2010) suggested that the questions facing higher education are: Are campus leaders prepared to provide the leadership needed in times of crisis? Why does crisis leadership matter? The authors offered the following statement regarding this critical issue facing higher education:

Crisis leadership matters because leaders of organizations and nations can make a difference in the extent to which people are affected by a crisis. Crisis leadership matters because in its absence, the stakeholders who are adversely affected by the crisis cannot truly recover from the damaging event. And crisis leadership matters because despite the damage that is caused by a crisis, effective leadership is the one factor that creates the potential for a company [college or university] to be better off following the crisis than it was before the state of affairs existed. (p. 5)

The University of North Carolina

The University of North Carolina (UNC) System is a multi-campus state university comprised of 17 constituent institutions: 16 public higher education institutions and the North Carolina School of Science and Mathematics, the nation's first public residential high school for gifted students. The UNC at Chapel Hill was chartered by the North Carolina General Assembly in 1789 and has the distinction of being the first public university to enroll and graduate students in the eighteenth century. Beginning in 1877, the General Assembly established additional higher education institutions that were "diverse in origin and purpose". Of these institutions, five are historically black universities, one was founded to educate American Indians, several emphasize technological, others prepare teachers for public schools, and one trains students in the performing

arts. In 1971, the General Assembly brought together these public institutions to form the University of North Carolina System.

The UNC is governed by a 32 member policy-making body, the Board of Governors. The UNC Board of Governors selects the president, who is the Chief Executive Officer for the University. Each of the UNC campuses is led by a Chancellor who reports to the president.

In fall 2013, the total enrollment headcount for UNC was 220,121 students. The total enrollment of minority students was 72,046. Approximately 86% of the new freshmen were from North Carolina and 13.3% were from out-of-state. The number of transfer students increased by 1.4% to 14,955 (UNC Fall 2013 Enrollment Report, 2013).

Over the last ten years, UNC has demonstrated its commitment to campus safety and security by continuously examining its policies and practices system-wide. The first of these efforts began in the spring of 2004, when UNC President Molly Corbett Broad established a university-wide task force on campus safety in response to the tragic deaths of students at the University of North Carolina at Wilmington. The Task Force on the Safety of the Campus Community was a multi-disciplinary team “which included students, faculty and representatives from a number of related campus departments (e.g. campus police, student affairs, admissions, and legal affairs)” (UNC Task Force Report, 2004, p. 2). President Broad charged the team “to look across the entire University to gauge whether or not further steps could be taken to improve or strengthen current policies and regulations impacting campus safety”. (p. 2)

In April 2007, the tragedy at Virginia Tech changed the public’s notion of safety and security on America’s college and university campuses. One of campus administrators’ worst fears had been realized: the mass killing of students and faculty occurred on campus. In May 2007, UNC President Erskine Bowles created the UNC Campus Safety Task Force “to undertake an

examination of safety on UNC campuses to make sure that UNC is doing all that it reasonably can do, consistent with the values of the University, to reduce incidence of violent crime within the university community (UNC Campus Safety Task Force Report, 2007, p. 2). The work of this 27 member task force was focused on addressing three questions:

1. What are our [UNC] universities currently doing to provide a learning and working environment for students, faculty, and staff that is safe from violent crime?
2. What are the currently accepted best practices for campus safety?
3. What can the University reasonably do to improve its ability to protect students, faculty, and staff from being victims of violent crime? (UNC Campus Safety Task Force Report, 2007, p. 4)

In the wake of allegations that UNC-Chapel Hill and Elizabeth City State University mishandled sexual assault cases and underreported crimes, UNC President Tom Ross, announced his plans to launch a campus security initiative across the UNC System. In August 2013, President Ross created the University of North Carolina Campus Security Initiative and charged the task force to:

1. Evaluate current policies and practices on the campus and system levels.
2. Gather and evaluate best thinking and practices.
3. Develop recommendations for system-level policies, tools, training.
4. Identify solutions that result in consistent and effective responses and awareness across each campus.
5. Evaluate and improve responses to sexual assault and other violent crimes.
6. Identify resources needed for implementation. (UNC System Policy Discussion Presentation, 2013).

Limitations

Patton (2002) stated, “By their nature, qualitative findings are highly context and case dependent” (p.563). Therefore, generalizability, typical of qualitative research, is a limitation of this study. Only a limited number of administrators who have a role in crisis management for an entire institution will be interviewed for this study. Despite this limitation, the specific focus on the constituent institutions in the UNC System which have similar governance structures and the identification of two exemplary institutions within the System will provide important insight that could benefit other institutions. Patton (2002) stated, “The purpose of purposeful sampling is to select information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the questions under study“(p. 169). This research will tell a specific story about how leaders in the UNC System established parameters of a safety framework for its campuses.

Delimitations

A major delimitation of the study was the specific focus on the man-made crisis: campus violence. Among the array of crisis situations that can occur on a college campus, violence has the most potential to result in multiple casualties and damage to an institutions reputation. The American College Health Association (ACHA) adopted a position statement in 1999 for the Association to address acts of violence, bias, and violations of other human rights, continued acts of violence on campus requiring college administrators “to conduct fresh analyses and create new paradigms for preventing and decreasing all campus violence” (Carr, 2005, p. 1). In addition, this researcher wanted to purposefully examine the dynamics of crisis leadership specific to campus violence, which tends to be less predictable and more complex than technological crisis and natural disasters.

Ethical Issues

This researcher obtained permission from Delaware State University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct the research on human subjects. Upon approval, the interview protocol established was used as the guide to ensure consistency throughout the project.

Definition of Key Terms

The literature on the topics of campus safety and crisis management includes the following terms that will assist the reader with understanding this research study:

1. Aggravated assault – a completed or attempted attack with a weapon and an attack without a weapon in which the victim is seriously injured
2. Campus crisis – an event, often sudden or unexpected, that disrupts the normal operations of the institution or its educational mission and threatens the well-being of personnel, property, financial resources, and/or reputation of the institution.
3. Campus dating violence – the actual or threatened physical or sexual violence or psychological and emotional abuse directed toward a current or former dating partner.
4. Critical incident – an event that causes a disruption to part of the campus community.
5. Federal Hate Crime Statistics Act – “crime motivated, in whole or in part, by hatred against a victim based on his or her race, religion, sexual orientation, ethnicity, national origin, or disability” (Wessler & Moss, 2001, p.17)
6. Hazing – “refers to any activity expected of someone joining a group (or to maintain full status in a group) that humiliates, degrades, or risks emotional and/or physical harm, regardless of the person's willingness to participate” (StopHazing.org, n.d., p.1).
7. Historically Black Colleges and Universities – institutions of higher education in the United States that were established before 1964 with the intention of serving the black community.

8. Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act – the federal statute requires institutions of higher education that participate in federal financial aid programs to keep and disclose information about crime on and near their respective campuses.
9. Risk management – the formal process by which an organization establishes its risk management goals and objectives, identifies and analyzes its risks, and selects and implements measures to address its risks in an organized fashion” (Young and Tomski, 2002).
10. Sexual assault – any type of sexual contact or behavior that occurs without the explicit consent of the recipient.

Chapter Summary

This chapter described the context in which this single case study was investigated. Presented were discussions of the critical issues of crisis management and crisis leadership and their importance to campus safety. Chapter I also provided the background of the study, the purpose of the study, the need for the study, and the research questions. Additionally, information regarding the relevance to educational leadership was included in this chapter. Chapter II focuses on the review of literature. The chapter provides prior research related to crisis management, campus violence, task forces, and crisis leadership.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Definition of a Crisis

While there is a growing body of research on campus safety and crisis management in higher education, absent from the literature is research on the results of these safety initiatives that have been launched by higher education systems and institutions across America. However, a review of the literature on campus safety and crisis management revealed that this topic has gained heightened national attention since the Virginia Tech tragedy which occurred in April 2007. There are many demands on college administrators' time and resources often leaving time for crisis management limited (Zdziarski, 2006). The discussion about crisis management began with an attempt at defining the term crisis (Zdziarski, 2006). Crisis management practices can be found in a variety of disciplines, including business, education, public administration, communications, political science, and psychology. Combs (2007) (as cited by Zdziarski, 2006) noted that these disciplines define and address crisis management from different perspectives which causes what has been described as a "fragmentation" of the literature. The literature does, however, provide some common characteristics of a crisis: negative event or outcome, threat to people and property, surprise or sudden event, and disruption to operations (Zdziarski, 2006).

The literature on crisis management in higher education began with various attempts to create a clear definition of a crisis. Most of the literature defines a crisis as a negative event or outcome that poses a threat to the organization (Albrecht, 1996). The literature also described crises as events that often occur suddenly and without warning (Harper, Paterson & Zdziarski, 2006). Harper et al. defined a crisis as "an event, which is often sudden or unexpected, that disrupts the normal operations of the institution or its educational mission and threatens the well-being of

its personnel, property, financial resource and/or reputation of the institution” (p.5). Student affairs professionals have defined crisis by listing through what they consider to be crisis situations such as the death of a student, life-threatening injuries, and loss of property (Miser & Cherrey, 2009).

The literature described three types of crises which included: (a) disasters, (b) crises, and (c) critical incidents. Disasters include events such as hurricanes, terrorist attacks, and tornadoes. A crisis only effects the institutions, not the surrounding community. A critical incident is a localized event on campus such as one that occurs in residence halls, a specific department, or campus building (Catullo et al., 2009). According to the research in the field, the future of the institution may be determined by the way a crisis is handled (Fink, 1986; Millar & Heath, 2004; Zdziarski, Dunken & Rollo, 2007).

Prior research suggested that institutions should take steps to gain an understanding of the concept of crisis preparedness after examining the various definitions of crises (Catullo et al., 2009). Catullo et al. (2009) noted that this understanding is critical in determining an institution’s status: whether it is prepared to properly prevent or address potential crises. Further, prior literature suggested that institutions that are sufficiently prepared to handle a crisis have crisis management plans that address each major crisis category, provide preparation for the different phases of a crisis, have organizational systems that support the crisis management program, and involve stakeholders in the planning process when preparing for a crisis (Zdziarski, 2001).

Additionally, Mitroff and Anagnos (2001) asserted that:

An institution’s comprehensive crisis management plan needs to prepare for at least one crisis in each of the following categories: (a) economic—market crash, major decline in stock price, and decline in major earnings; (b) informational—loss of---confidential information, false information, tampering with computer records; (c) physical—loss of equipment, plants and material supplies, loss of key facilities; (d) human resources—loss of key executives; (e) rise in vandalism and accidents; (f) reputation—slander, rumors, gossip, psychopathic acts, terrorism, violence, kidnapping; and (g) natural disasters—earthquake, fire, floods and hurricanes. (p.303)

Miser and Cherrey (2009) asserted that to develop master plans which include protocols that can be used in a wide range of crisis situations is a key to good preparation for a crisis. Central to a crisis plan is a framework for decision-making that will be needed during a time of crisis. The plan should identify key individuals on the decision-making team and clearly articulate who has authority and responsibility for managing the crisis (Harper et al., 2006; Miser & Cherrey, 2009). The crisis management team is one of the most common systems used to manage a crisis and considered by Mitroff, Harrington and Pearson (1996) as a best practice in crisis management. The team performs three primary functions: (1) developing and maintaining a crisis management plan; (2) implementing the plan; and (3) dealing with contingencies that may arise that are not addressed by the plan (Harper et al., 2006). A survey of 146 NASPA member institutions revealed that internal stakeholders who have principal involvement in crisis work were university police, university relations/public affairs, vice president for student affairs, residence life, student counseling services, dean of students, student health services, physical plant and environmental health and safety (Zdziarski, 2001).

Miser and Cherrey (2009) asserted that a university should conduct an annual crisis or disaster practice and update crisis plans. The practices could identify problems with tools and the coordination of the crisis response. Another essential element of preparation for a possible crisis, according to the literature, was the review of policies and procedures that may be needed during a crisis (Jablonski, McClellan & Zdziarski, 2008; Miser & Cherrey, 2009). Oftentimes, standard operating procedures may have to be altered significantly in order for the campus to respond quickly to a crisis. Procedures for responding to a crisis should be planned in advance and allow for maximum flexibility with the knowledge that even planned procedures may need to be altered in the midst of the crises (Miser & Cherrey, 2009).

Several incidents served as catalysts for “higher education leaders to broaden the definition of crisis and the type of events that may disrupt campus life at their respective institutions (Catullo et al., 2009, p. 303). Mitroff, Diamond and Alpaslan (2006) found that disruptive events such as serious outbreaks of illness, major food tampering, employee sabotage, fires, explosions, chemical spills, environmental disasters, significant drops in revenues, natural disasters, loss of confidential sensitive information or records, major lawsuits, damage to institutional reputations, ethical breaches by institution stakeholders, major crimes and athletic scandals were found. Research also showed that higher education administrators focused on the crises that are most likely to occur on campus (Catullo et al., 2009). According to Mitroff et al. (1996), all colleges and universities should plan for catastrophes beyond a few isolated events and the crises that are more prevalent at residential universities. An effective higher education institution crisis management system has very specific plans in various divisions that are linked with the institution’s overarching crisis management plan (Zdziarski, 2006).

Campus Violence

The death of a student caused by the violent act of another is one of the most tragic events that can occur on a college campus. In the article, *College Campus Violence: The Nature of the Problem and Its Frequency*, Pezza (1995), "examines the phenomenon of violence on college and university campuses in the United States" (p. 93). According to Pezza, college and university officials are limited in their ability to respond to violence on campus because their understanding of the problem is impeded by incomplete diagnosis and issues in the reporting of crimes. Pezza asserted that despite these challenges, "educational institutions can, however, take steps to facilitate better diagnosis and reporting of violent incidents by promoting their recognition, acknowledgement, and communication" (p. 93). To achieve these goals, Pezza continued, members

of the campus community must deal with the beliefs, attitudes and behaviors surrounding violence on campus that create barriers to action. The purpose of Pezza's study was to help college and university administrators better understand the phenomenon of violence on campus, as a means to improving intervention efforts.

Pezza's examination of the violence on college campuses was found in his description of the nature of the problem and the dimensions of the problem. According to Pezza (1995), violence and campus violence are inconsistently and variously defined. Therefore, Pezza argued, that the "lack of conceptual uniformity has contributed to the difficulty in ascertaining just what has been and what is the extent of violence on American college campuses " (p. 94). Additionally, it was this lack of uniformity that made the validity of comparisons and analyses of trends questionable (Pezza, 1995).

Pezza wrote that "few systematic attempts have been made to determine the frequency with which violent incidents occur on campus" (p. 95). Those that have, the researcher asserted, may not be accurate due to under or over reporting, low response rates, and diagnostic inefficiencies. In an effort to gain understanding of what is going on in the larger population of interest" (p. 97) on campus, Pezza made an effort to triangulate the results of several approaches. One source of information that Pezza used in his effort to triangulate the data were: Incidence and Trends using The Uniform Crime Report (UCR) which is issued annually by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI). The UCR tallies the number of murders, aggravated assaults, forcible rapes and robberies reported by colleges and universities in the United States.

The American College Health Association contributed to the literature on campus violence by issuing a "call to arms" to the college health community with the release of its Campus

Violence White Piper in 2005. The author of the paper reviewed reports and studies which described research topics that have proven important to understanding campus violence.

- *Violence in Residence Halls*. A study of campus violence conducted in 1991, which focused on victimization in campus residence halls. The study conducted by Palmer (1993) sought to discover the nature and frequency of violence directed toward particular subgroups on campus (e.g. female students, students in the minority because of their sexual orientation, racial or ethnic group membership, or religious preference; and residence hall assistants).
- *Sexual Victimization*. A study conducted by using a national sample survey, to examine respondents' experiences involving sexual victimization and sexual aggression in the previous academic year (Sandler & Shoop, 1997).
- *Victim/Perpetrator Profiles*. An exploration of the association between a number of demographic and school related variables to compare crime victims and perpetrators to non-victims and non-offenders (Kilmartin, 2001).
- *Federal Intervention*. The Crime Awareness and Campus Security Act of 1990, which took effect in 1992, requires colleges and universities that receive federal student aid to report policies, procedures, and facilities for the reporting of incidents by students and others on campus (Carr, 2005).

According to WI, Mica and Smetannikov (1993), (as cited in Pezza (1995)) the goals for the prevention of violence should be: (1) to identify the magnitude of the problem, (2) to establish who is affected by which types of violence, (3) to identify risk factors and potential interventions, (4) to assess which incidents to focus on as a matter of priority, and (5) to implement and evaluate interventions for their efficacy and cost-effectiveness. Pezza asserted that more research is needed in order for stakeholders to gain a better understanding of the nature and the scope of campus

violence. Furthermore, the researcher acknowledged that the data (results) presented in his study might be questionable in that it does not provide the data that gives a complete picture of the violence that occurs on college campuses. Pezza also asserted that, in order for educational institutions to implement interventions "aimed at preventing violence and dealing more effectively with its consequences, they should accept and acknowledge the limitations imposed by the available data" (p. 102). Institutions can take steps to improve the quality of the data by dealing with the "barriers to action presented by certain beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors surrounding violence in the university setting" (p.102).

In the nearly twenty years since Pezza conducted his research, institutions of higher education still grapple with this phenomenon of violence on and around college campuses. The literature related to this topic increased over the years and Pezza's work provided a useful perspective for higher education administrators to consider toward their efforts to foster safer campus communities. Pezza asserted that higher education administrators must understand the nature of the problem and examine it from various dimensions, which requires reviews of a variety of resources.

Asmussen and Creswell (1995) noted that little attention had been given to the escalating incidents of gun violence on college campuses. The authors recognized the need to examine how campuses react to violence in order to identify strategies and protocols for responding to violence and would help in building conceptual models for future study of the phenomenon. Their study, *Campus Response to a Gunman*, explored the context of the gun incident and provided a case analysis "that describes and interprets a campus response to a gun incident" (p. 576).

The Asmussen and Creswell study asked the following research questions:

- What happened?
- Who was involved in response to the incident?
- What themes of response emerged during the eight-month period that followed the incident?
- What theoretical constructs help us understand the campus response, and what constructs were unique to this case (p. 576)?

The authors limited their study to on campus groups which included interviews with faculty, campus administrators, and students. In addition to these interviews, the researchers gathered observational data, documents, and visual materials to identify the themes of denial, fear, safety, retriggering and developing a campus-wide plan which could be grouped into two categories: (1) an organizational response and (2) a psychological or social-psychological response of the campus community to the gunman incident (Asmussen & Creswell, 1995). Furthermore, “issues such as leadership, communication, and authority emerged during the case analysis” (p. 587). Asmussen and Creswell (1995) also reported that an environmental response developed because the campus became a safer place for students and staff as a result of the incident. Noted was the need for centralized crisis response planning that would require cooperation and coordination among units, but also allow for autonomy needed in their response to a crisis (Asmussen & Creswell, 1995). Sherrill’s (1989) model of response to campus violence, as cited by the authors, reinforces and departs from their research findings. Consistent with Sherrill’s model, Asmussen and Creswell found that “the disciplinary action taken against a perpetrator, the group counseling of victims, and the use of safety education for the campus community were all factors apparent” in their case (p. 587). However, issues raised by Sherrill that were not discussed by

participants in Asmussen and Creswell were the development of procedures for first-responders to the scene, dealing with non-students who might be perpetrators or victims, keeping records and documents about incidents, varying responses based on the size and nature of the institution, and relating incidents to substance abuse such as drugs and alcohol (p. 587). Asmussen and Creswell continued that issues, based on Roark and Roark's (1987) research regarding administrative response to violence did not emerge, as expected. Nor was there any discussion about formal linkages between the campus and local community agencies to assist with the response to a crisis on campus. According to Asmussen and Creswell, two actions recommended by crisis specialists, (1) establishing a command center and (2) identifying a crisis coordinator also were not discussed by the participants in the study.

Asmussen and Creswell (1995) also found that the campus' psychological and social-psychological response focused primarily on the psychological needs of the students who were directly involved in the incident and students and faculty who were indirectly affected by the incident. The authors reported that, in addition to the expected psychological signs of denial, fear and retriggering, participants also mentioned issues related to gender and cultural groups. However, these mentions were not discussed enough to emerge as themes, but suggest that further exploration of these issues might be topics for future study. Furthermore, Asmussen and Creswell also found that the participants in the study were concerned about the increase in violence on the campus and in the community, which contradicts literature that asserted "violent behavior is often accepted in our culture" (p.588). Asmussen and Creswell contended that their study showed the widespread impact that the gunman incident had on the campus, as well as the complex nature of a campus response which should highlight the need for an emphasis on preparedness.

Campus Responses to Violence

Hughes et al. (2008) addressed the gaps that existed in the efforts of college campuses to prevent and respond to violence. As campus administrators came to the realization that these gaps existed, they subsequently responded by seeking ways to address them through efforts such as increasing the number of police officers and security personnel, improving training for law enforcement and professional staff, and improving mass notification and web-based incident reporting platforms. In particular, the authors examined the use of incident reporting technology as a tool campuses might use to mitigate the risk of violence on campus. Hughes et al. reported that the web-based incident reporting platform provided members of the campus community a tool to report acts of wrongdoing on campus. According to Hughes et al. (2008), the use of this platform had become popular in the private sector, as a result of corporate scandals; however, colleges and universities had been reluctant to adopt its use due to “the culture and tradition that emphasizes academic freedoms rather than diligent oversight” (p. 314). The authors gathered their data through interviews with campus administrators, at the vice president level and representing 14 universities.

The goals of the study were to:

1. Understand how and why these colleges adopted the reporting software and the extent to which they use the platform.
2. Examine the process used to integrate the platform into institutional operations.
3. Identify opinions about the advantages and disadvantages of the software (Hughes et al., 2008).

Hughes et al. (2008) found that, while the process used by each university varied, in each case, a central administrator is the “first stop” for reviewing incidents reported using the system. After the initial review, the case is referred to a supervisor or delegated to the “appropriate

individual to investigate the complaint. Hughes et al. reported the following advantages provided by the system that emerged:

- Controlled environment
- Enhanced governance and communication
- Standardized reporting environment
- Web-based and always accessible (not dependent upon the university server)
- Easy to use
- Consistency in reports and process
- Anonymity. (p. 315)

Hughes et al. (2008) reported that participants were concerned that the system presented an opportunity for there to be an increase in frivolous reports and increases in workload for individuals who were responsible for managing the system. Additionally, other participants “were concerned that the reports could somehow be made public over time” which would have a negative impact on future reporting of incidents (p. 315). To address these concerns, the researchers recommended that institutions conduct appropriate training to effectively complement the system as well as training for the individuals who are responsible for investigating the reports of wrongdoing. Given this research was conducted one year after VA Tech; these universities had only been using this system for less than two years. The researchers found that it was too soon to “evaluate their value in terms of the ability to reduce undesirable or criminal behavior on campus” (p. 316).

Campus leaders cannot respond effectively to campus violence and other crimes if they do not know what the problems are or the extent to which they exist. Sulkowski and Lazarus (2011) contended that colleges and universities should use empirical data to gain support for using

enhanced safety and security methods. According to the researchers empirical data related to the impact that methods such as allowing concealed weapons on campus, the impact that increases in the use of security technologies and the use criminal profiling techniques to identify threatening students is limited. The researchers explored these methods of response to campus violence in *Contemporary Responses to Violent Attacks on College Campuses*. After the Virginia Tech shootings, many colleges increased security technology on campus, implemented more strongly enforced policies prohibiting students from possessing weapons on campus, and some colleges allowed students and faculty to carry concealed weapons on campus (Sulkowski & Lazarus, 2011). However, the scholarly research on these and other responses to violence is limited (Garcia, 2003; Harnisch, 2008; Lipka, 2009). Sulkowski and Lasurus discussed current efforts universities employed to mitigate threats of violence on campus, such as the enactment of the Campus Security Act, use of technology, allowing concealed weapons carriers on campus, criminally profiling students, conducting threat assessments, encouraging threat reporting, and implementing emergency response plans.

The Campus Security Act. The Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (Public Law 105-244), also known as the “Campus Security Act” (CSA) or the “Clery Act” predates the Virginia Tech massacre. CSA was enacted with the passage of the 1990 Higher Education Amendments Act to increase knowledge of crimes perpetrated on college campuses and was named after Jeanne Clery, a 19-year-old student who was raped and murdered at Lehigh University (Janosik & Gregory, 2003). The act requires all colleges and universities receiving federal funding, to collect and disclose information about campus crime. Institutions that fail to comply with the law are subject to civil penalties (up to \$27,500 per violation) and suspension of their federal aid. According to Gehring and Callaway’s (1997) study

(as cited in Sulkowski and Lasarus, 2011) conducted on colleges' willingness to provide campus crime data to prospective students, it was reported that only 25% of 4-year colleges complied with the regulations imposed by the CSA. Furthermore, a similar study found that two-year colleges' compliance rate was lower at 22% (Callaway, Gehring, & Douthett, 2000). There were no data which suggested that a college's compliance with the CSA would improve campus safety. Janosik (2001) found that most college students were unaware of the CSA (71%), and few (7%) who were, reported that their decision to attend a specific institution would be influenced by the crime statistics.

Security Technology. Many colleges have increased their use of security technologies on campus such as video surveillance cameras, emergency phones, metal detectors, mass notification systems, automatic door locks, and duress alarms in an effort to address campus safety concerns (Sulkowski & Lazarus, 2011). However, little data exist that measures the effectiveness of these technologies in preventing or responding to crises (Garcia, 2003). An ongoing challenge is a college's desire to uphold an environment that fosters sharing of ideas and information (Sewell & Mendelsohn, 2000).

Criminal Profiling. Security experts have developed criminal profiles that attempt to identify people who might be potential school shooters in K-12 schools (Sulkowski & Lazarus, 2011) and characteristics of college attackers have also been identified. College attackers, for example "tend to be older than the general student population (Mean age = 28), have graduate student status, lack balance in life (i.e. focus solely on achievement at the expense of interpersonal relationships), and have experienced a significant disruption in an important relationship" (p. 343). The research, however, suggested that at different times, thousands of students display these

characteristics, which might lead to large numbers of students being considered potential threats (Sulkowski & Lazarus, 2011).

Threat Assessment Approach to Preventing Violent Attacks. The findings in Sulkowski and Lazarus (2011) were consistent with prior research that found that many colleges created multi-disciplinary teams to evaluate individuals who may pose a potential threat to the campus community. This threat assessment approach was developed by the FBI's National Center for the Analysis of Violent Crime. According to the researchers, a growing body of research supports the efficacy of threat assessment approaches in K-12 schools. Like K-12 schools, many colleges have adopted the threat assessment approach by creating threat assessment or behavioral intervention teams and adapting their practice to the higher education environment.

Efforts to Improve Communication of Threats. In the years since Virginia Tech, most higher education institutions have taken steps to improve communication between students and campus leaders. For example, many colleges have mass notification systems through which they can notify students about threats via mass text messaging and recorded messages sent to their cell phones. Colleges also use e-mail and social networks such as facebook, twitter and instagram to notify the university community of threats to its safety (2011). Zdziarski et al. (2007) found that email (86%) was the most commonly used method of mass warning followed by webpage updates (79%), text messaging (66%), public address systems (40%), radio systems (34%), alarms/sirens (33%), and visual systems (15%). About 6 % of the colleges surveyed did not have a mass notification system established.

Emergency Response Plans. According to Fox and Savage (2009), more than 90% of colleges and universities had created emergency response plans (ERPs). These plans usually reflect the internal and external collaboration with different units and organizations needed to

respond to campus crises. In active shooter situations, specially trained officers comprise a college's Critical Incident Response Team (CIRT) (Sulkowski & Lazarus, 2011). The authors found that 78% of colleges and universities have implemented or improved emergency response plans, and many have tested them with field training. Fox and Savage's (2009) research also suggested that colleges that had experienced a critical incident within the past five years are more likely (71%) to have tested their plans than colleges that had not been affected during that period (52%).

Campus Safety Task Forces

Higher education institutions are some of the most complex organizations that exist. Over the years, these organizations have become more complex and the issues and problems with which they are faced have contributed to their complexity. According to Bess (2008), the most important difference between higher education organizations and profit-making corporations is "the separation of the roles of academic and administrative personnel and the sharing of authority and responsibility" (p. 36). Decision making can be difficult and time consuming on college and university campuses because these institutions are both bureaucracies and political entities (Bess, 2008). In these organizations, the work of committees and task forces are often important components of the decision making process. In today's environment, the commitment and expertise of the entire college or university community and its strategic partners are required to solve the challenges facing them. In an educational setting, task forces and committees are often formed to investigate an issue or problem and develop a plan of action that will address it. Task forces and committees are similar, but differ in duration and focus (Jennings, 2007). According to Jennings, committees focus on general tasks and require ongoing attention, whereas task forces focus on more specific concerns and are discontinued once they've achieve their goal.

Current research shows that a project's success is enhanced by the task force approach because the group's members bring together different skills and ideas, become the project's advocates within the organization, squelch rumors about the project, foresee potential hurdles to implementation and build solutions into their recommendations (Wright, Ekstrom & Goldstein, (2009). According to the literature on small group development, there are two major determinants of a task force's success: (1) how the task force is established and (2) how the members of the task force work together (Wright et al., 2009). In addition, a major factor in a task force's success is the ability of the group to work together. Tuckman (1965) contended that groups must progress through four stages of development in order to accomplish a group's or task force's mission. Tuckman and Jensen (1977) amended the Tuckman model to include a fifth stage: adjourning. Tuckman's model consists of the following five stages of group development:

- **Forming.** Group members identify their similarities, expectations, resources and skills. They agree on a common purpose.
- **Storming.** The team works out its processes, roles, and resource needs. Members deal with their differences and communication issues. Fundamental questions about the task force's purpose may surface, and a wave of cynicism or resistance may appear.
- **Norming.** The team begins to collaborate in decision-making, give and receive feedback effectively, agree on direction and desired outcomes, and establish each member's role in achieving team goals.
- **Performing.** The team employs effective methods for meeting its goals, responds quickly to change and achieves the desired results.

- **Adjourning.** The team dissolves which involves terminating roles, completing tasks and reducing members' dependency on one another (Adapted by the University Of Washington Department of Education, p. 2).

Today, the task force approach to solving problems is commonly used by leaders of non-military organizations such as business, government, law enforcement, non-profit entities, and education. Jennings (2007) asserted that “committees and task forces are a fact of life in today’s schools” (p. 95).

Urban areas across the United States have created task forces to address issues related to gang violence and, in January 2014, President Barack Obama announced the creation of a new task force, the White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault. The purpose of the task force is to help higher education institutions prevent and respond to incidents of sexual assault. In the aftermath of the shooting rampage at Virginia Tech on April 16, 2007, “a number of states, other governmental entities, and non-governmental organizations convened groups to examine the lessons learned from the tragedy at Virginia Tech and other aspects of campus safety” (IACLEA Analysis of the Virginia Tech Tragedy, 2008, p. 3). A selected list of these groups and their related reports can be found below:

- Mass Shootings at Virginia Tech, April 16, 2007, Report of Review Panel, Presented to Governor Kaine, Commonwealth of Virginia, August 2007.
- Investigation of April 16, 2007 Critical Incident at Virginia Tech Prepared by the Office of the Inspector General for Mental Health, Mental Retardation & Substance Abuse Services, James W. Stewart, III. Report #140-07(2007).
- Oklahoma Campus Life and Safety and Security Task Force (CLASS) Final Report (January 15, 2008).

- New Jersey Campus Security Task Force Report, Submitted by Governor Jon S. Corzine (October 2007).
- Expecting the Unexpected – Lessons from the Virginia Tech Tragedy, by American Association of State Colleges and Universities (2007).
- The Report of the University of California Campus Security Task Force, University of California Office of the President (January 2008).
- Gubernatorial Task Force for University Campus Safety, Report on Findings and Recommendations, State of Florida (May 24, 2007).
- Governor's Task Force on Campus Safety, State of Wisconsin (November 15, 2007).
- Missouri Campus Security Task Force, Report on Findings and Recommendations (August 21, 2007).
- Report of the Campus Safety Task Force Presented to North Carolina Attorney General Roy Cooper (2008).
- National Association of Attorneys General, Task Force on School and Campus Safety, Report & Recommendations (September 2007).
- Report to the President of the United States on Issues Raised by the Virginia Tech Tragedy, June 13, 2007 (IACLEA REPORT, 2008).

The International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators (IACLEA) created the IACLEA Special Review Task Force whose purpose was to synthesize the reports and recommendations for campus safety that were written by the various governmental and non-governmental groups that were created following the tragedy at Virginia Tech (Thrower et al., 2008). In addition, the authors used key findings from their analysis of these reports to develop a blueprint for campus safety. According to the authors, the circumstances that led Seung-Hui Cho

to commit the mass shooting at Virginia Tech were his unmanaged mental health issues; easy access to firearms; a lack of communication among direct campus service providers; and erroneous interpretation of federal law, specifically, the Family Education, Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) and Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA). Based on these findings, the authors offered recommendations categorized in three foundational areas that represent promising and emerging practices:

- 1. Emergency Planning and Critical Incident Response.** Thrower et al. (2008) asserted that all colleges and universities should conduct a comprehensive threat and vulnerability assessment to be used as a basis for its institutional risk management strategy. Key components of the strategy, according to the authors should include: a) emergency plans that comply with the National Incident Management Command System, b) emergency communications plans that enable the campus to notify the entire campus through multiple points of contact, and c) response plans that strengthen the college's or university's partnerships and mutual aid agreements with local governmental entities in all areas of emergency response.
- 2. Empowering and Resourcing the Campus Public Safety Function.** Thrower et al. (2008) contended that during times of emergency, the director of campus public safety or chief of police should have direct access to the most senior decision makers and should play an integral role in developing emergency operations and crisis management plans. In addition, campus public safety officers should be provided with the equipment, training, and authority needed to respond effectively prepare for and respond to crisis situations.

3. Prevention and Education Programs to Address Campus Safety Risks. Institutions should offer comprehensive prevention programs to end violence on campus with a particular emphasis on violence against women such as stalking, sexual assault and relationship violence. In addition, according to the authors, faculty, staff and students should be trained on how to respond to the range of emergencies that could occur on campus and about what notification systems will be used (Thrower et al., 2008).

Crisis Management Model

In Search of Safer Communities: Emerging Practices for Student Affairs in Addressing Campus Violence (Jablonski, McClellan, & Zdziarski, 2008) provided a useful framework through which to view crises specific to campus violence, the Crisis Management Model. To discuss the issues of violence, the authors presented the model in four phases: (a) Prevention and Mitigation, (b) Preparedness, (c) Response, and (d) Recovery. Elements of the model are used by the United States Department of Homeland Security and the Incident Command System.

Prevention and Mitigation. The first phase of crisis management, the prevention and mitigation phase, often receives limited attention. In the prevention and mitigation phase, "a campus seeks to identify action or strategies to identify actions or strategies to prevent potential crisis events from occurring or at least mitigate the impact of such events if they do occur"(Zdziarski et al. (2007, p. 9). It is in this phase that many of the prevention efforts are focused toward influencing the behavior of students, faculty and staff that make it less likely that certain crises do not occur. The authors presented four areas of focus in Student Affairs professional practice related to the prevention and mitigation of campus violence: campus climate and culture; training and awareness; mental health and behavioral interventions; and infrastructure and policy (Jablonski et al., 2008).

With respect to campus climate and culture, a caring community is less likely to experience incidents of violence and is better able to respond and recover from violent incidents that might occur (Zdziarski et al., 2007). Research on efforts to promote campus climates and cultures that reduce the risk of violence is emerging and offers some insight into the phenomenon. For example, Laker (as cited in Zdziarski et al., 2007) focused on understanding and addressing the construction of masculinities which is important because males are the perpetrators of much of the violence on college and university campuses and in our communities. Therefore, the authors suggested that programs with a focus on men and violence could be effective. Also, approaches that engaged students in leadership development and campus life that combats antisocial behavior had shown promising results.

The study showed that there was also considerable evidence that showed the link between alcohol and drug use on violence that occurs on campus. Practical examples of mitigating the effects included programs designed to educate students on the risks associated with alcohol and drug abuse, dissemination of materials that specifically identified acts of violence as unwelcomed and unacceptable consequences of the misuse of alcohol and other drugs (Jablonski et al., 2008).

Training and awareness. Prior research suggested that in order to use the resources previously mentioned all members of the campus community must participate in the appropriate training to develop the knowledge and skills needed to respond effectively during times of crisis. Recent changes to the Clery Act in 2011 identified all members of the university community as CSAs defined as an official of the university who has significant responsibility for student and campus activities including, but not limited to student housing, student discipline and campus judicial proceedings. An official is defined as any person who has the authority and the duty to take action or respond to the particular issues on behalf of the institution. Zdziarski et al. (2007)

asserted that training and awareness programs related to campus violence should be offered to students, families, staff, and faculty at orientation and reinforced regularly. The training, they suggested, "should include information on conflict management and the recognition of behavior that may indicate [whether] an individual presents a risk to themselves or others" (p. 14).

Students are the primary beneficiaries of the training that is provided on campus and, because they interact with their peers in various ways, they should be equipped with information that would help them to recognize troubling behavior in fellow students and themselves (Zdziarski et al. (2007). The training should include practical examples and can be delivered through workshops, first-year seminars, web-based education programs, newspaper articles, printed materials and other formats.

Another important constituency is the faculty who are likely to encounter troubling behavior in the classroom or evidence of thinking in a student's writing that may cause concern (Zdziarski, 2007). Therefore, it is imperative that student affairs professionals develop partnerships with colleagues in academic affairs to provide faculty with information and tools that will enable them to address troubling behavior in the classroom or concerning thinking. The authors recommended that resources which support the training, such as pamphlets, quick help books, and web pages are made available to faculty and other members of the campus community.

Furthermore, "campus security or police departments ought to be accredited wherever possible" (Zdziarski et al., 2007, p. 15). Not only does the accreditation provide a useful framework for assuring that officers have the appropriate training, but it also "helps to assure that the officers in the department have the latest information related to responding to incidents of violence on campus" (p. 12). Organizations like the IACLEA are sources of accreditation of campus safety and police departments (Zdziarski et al., 2007). In addition, accreditation sends the

message to the campus community that its law enforcement agency meets standards of professional practice that indicate the quality of their training, skills, resources, etc. to respond appropriately and effectively in times of crisis. Training for staff, faculty, and students working in higher education should also include knowledge of the implications that federal compliance laws such as the FERPA, HIPAA, the Clery Act, and Title IX have on the practice and the well-being of students (Zdziarski et al., 2007). Additionally, Jablonski et al. (2008) suggested the importance of staff receiving training; "training on broader legal issues of negligence and liability" (p. 16).

Students on college campuses demonstrate a myriad of behaviors, many of which are great sources of pride for the professionals who encourage and support their success, and there are also times when their behaviors are cause for great concern. Research informs us that poor behavior could merely be a lapse in judgment that presents an opportunity for a "teachable moment" or it could be a sign of a more serious mental health issue. Jablonski et al. (2008) reported that Ursula Delworth's Assessment-Intervention of Student Problems (AISP) suggested that student behaviors that raise campus safety concerns can be charted on a continuum from disturbed to disturbing. In Delworth (as cited in Jablonski et al., 2008), examples of disturbed behavior included a student muttering to himself, a student who has neglected to practice good hygiene, or a student who becomes frustrated or agitated easily. Delworth contended that the behavior moves, on the continuum, toward disturbing when the muttering turns toward threats to himself or others, the neglectful hygiene presents a health threat to others, or the agitation causes someone in the campus community to fear for his safety. Situations like these require institutions to develop processes and mechanisms to handle the identification and reports of students who exhibit troubling behavior.

Zdziarski et al. (2007) recommended that colleges and universities create a formal structure to "identify and address situations in which the behavior of students (or other members of the

community) indicates they may be experiencing difficulty in functioning or may be a threat to self or others" (p. 17). This recommendation was consistent with that of the FBI's National Center for the Analysis of Violent Crime which "encourages schools to create a multidisciplinary team to evaluate threats" (Sulkowski & Lazarus, 2011, p. 343). These teams should include student affairs, mental health, law enforcement, and legal affairs professionals. They might also include representatives from academic areas, campus ministry, student health services, residence life and other areas of the campus for a specific situation in which they might be able to provide information related to the reported troubling behavior (Jablonski et al., 2007).

The goal of a threat assessment team is early intervention to ensure the health and wellbeing of the individual and the campus community (Jablonski et al., 2008). The university should establish a reporting system that members of the university community could use to submit reports of troubling behavior of individuals on campus. The threat assessment team's discussion would be purposed to:

- Develop a more complete understand of how the individual is interacting with the university community
- Identify existing points of communication and support
- Develop an action plan for following through and determine whether additional steps need to be taken (Jablonski et al., 2008, p. 14).

The actions taken should be consistent with ethical and legal practices (Jablonski et al., 2007, p. 17). The team will need to make a distinction between disturbed behavior and disturbing behavior. Team members may need to engage other individuals on campus who might be able to report on activity that could indicate whether a student has the capacity or interest in engaging in violence. In these instances senior student affairs officers and law enforcement officials may lead

the work of the team (p.18). The threat assessment team must focus on the behavior that the student of concern exhibits. Each situation that the team examines should be assessed individually. The team should base its actions on "the generalizations, fears, hearsay or prejudices that exist on campus or in the larger society" (p. 18).

Preparedness. While it is not possible to prevent all acts of violence that might occur on campus, colleges and universities must take steps to prepare to respond to campus violence (Jablonski et al, 2007). Preparedness is the second phase of the emergency planning model and, asserted by Jablonski et al., student affairs professionals should play a lead role in preparing the campus to respond to violence. Campuses develop plans, assemble teams, and train personnel during the preparedness phase of crisis management. The following are the key considerations related to managing campus crises, particularly campus violence.

Role of the president. The roles, responsibilities and expectation of the various leaders and administrators responsible for responding to a crisis must be clear (Jablonski, et al, 2008). An institution's crisis management plan must consider the expectations of the President and what her role will be during a crisis event. The President's level of involvement will differ depending on the institutional type, size and nature of the crisis (Jablonski et al., 2008). The President may have a prominent role as the chair of the crisis management team or delegate that responsibility to the appropriate administrator who has decision-making authority; however, the chair (or the administrator) would inform, consult and advise the President on significant actions that are recommended regarding the response to a crisis (Jablonski et al., 2008).

Campus police and security. The Chief of Police or Director of Public Safety should have decision-making authority when an act of violence occurs on campus (Jablonski et al., 2008).

Communication. Preparedness for a crisis, in particular, a violent incident on campus also includes having a plan for communications. The Clery Act is clear in its guidance that campus administrators, under the law, must provide the campus community with a timely warning when they believe a situation poses a threat to students, faculty and staff. When administrators are contemplating the decision to issue a warning to campus, the two most difficult questions that must first be answered are:

1. When does a situation pose a threat?
2. What is considered timely?

The concept of a "timely warning" was largely debated in the aftermath of Virginia Tech and was the focus of the victims' families' lawsuit against the institution (IACLEA, 2007). Jablonski et al. (2008) posited that administrators must identify the criteria for what poses a significant and imminent threat to the campus community well before the campus faces a violent situation. A determination of the threat typically needs to be made without the opportunity to convene a variety of stakeholders; therefore, the criteria need to be established and the authority to make the decision to alert the campus should be assigned to an administrator with the appropriate level of authority. The individual could be the Police Chief or the Dean of Students.

Jablonski et al. (2008) further asserted that, "the manner in which the warnings are communicated to the campus community" (p. 26) should be considered and determined in advance. In the year following the Virginia Tech tragedy, many institutions focused their attention on improving the use of text messaging systems for mass notification of potential threats to the campus community. Jablonski et al. recommended that campuses employ a multimodal approach (i.e. email, websites, radio, televisions, siren and speaker systems, and reverse 911 systems) to

effectively communicate warnings. Administrators must also understand the limits of these systems and "build in redundancy" in whatever approach that is implemented.

Finally, campus administrators should spend time planning the content of the warning. The warning should be clear and concise. It should not only notify the campus community of the threatening or dangerous situation that exists, it should also provide instructions about the appropriate action that members of the community should take.

Preparedness training. Training is perhaps the most important aspect of the preparedness phase. Plans and protocols are not much use if team members lack appropriate and sufficient training in how to respond during a crisis. The most effective way to train for these incidents is practice. The two most effective means of training for teams are: (1) table-top exercises and (2) simulation. As defined by the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), a table-top exercise is a:

A focused practice activity that places the participants in a simulated situation requiring them to function the capacity that would be expected of them in a real event. Its purpose is to promote preparedness by testing policies and plans by training personnel. Many successful responses to emergencies over the years have demonstrated that exercising pays huge dividends when an emergency occurs (FEMA.gov).

During the exercise, the team leader and team members describe the actions they would take in the event of the crisis that is presented. The process involves the team describing additional actions it would take as the simulated crisis unfolds. The exercise concludes with a team debriefing to identify what aspects went well and what aspects of the response require improvement (Jablonski et. al, 2008).

Response. According to Zdziarski et al. (2007), the response phase to a crisis begins when an event occurs and whatever plan has been developed operates in real time. The focus is on the

steps taken when a crisis occurs. This is the time that the campus energy and resources are used to follow the crisis plan.

Recovery. The goal of recovery is to return to learning and restore the infrastructure of the school as quickly as possible, but the time it takes for recovery will depend on the incident and the resources that are available to deal with the stressors created by the incident (Wright et al., 2009; Zdziarski et al., 2007). The focus should be on the students, with one of the major goals being to provide a caring and supportive environment. University staff should be trained to “deal with the emotional impact of the crisis, as well as to initially assess the emotional needs of students, staff, and responders” (Wright et al., 2009). The following elements of the recovery phase have been established as critical to the phased approach to crisis management.

- Stress management - Trauma experts emphasize the need to create a caring, warm, and trusting environment for students following a crisis. Experts recommend that administrators allow students the opportunity to talk about what they experienced.
- Debrief – Conduct daily debriefings for staff, responders, and others who assist with the recovery. According to mental health providers stress the importance of ensuring that people who are providing “psychological first aid” are supported with daily incident stress debriefings, which help staff cope with their own feelings of vulnerability.
- Remember – Remember anniversaries of crises. Zdziarski et al. (2007) contended that these types of events provide opportunities for people affected by crises to share the healing process and rebuild the community so that it can put the past behind them and move the community forward.
- Evaluate – Evaluating recovery efforts will help prepare for the next crisis. Use methods such as interviews, focus groups with emergency responders, students, teachers, families and staff. (Zdziarski et al., 2007, pp. 48-49)

Examples of questions to ask are:

- Which classroom-based interventions proved most successful and why?
- Which assessment and referral strategies were the most successful and why?
- What were the most positive aspects of staff debriefings and why?

- Which recovery strategies would you change and why?
- Do other professionals need to be tapped to help with future crises?
- What additional equipment is needed to support recovery efforts?
- What other planning actions will facilitate future recovery efforts? (Wright et al., 2009, p. 2).

Crisis Leadership

According to James and Wooten (2010), crisis leadership is “a continuous process that involves developing a mindset for reflecting, adapting, and learning from the crisis situation and its aftermath” (p. 8). The authors contended that a frame of mind, accompanied by a key set of behaviors, is essential to one’s ability to lead in a crisis situation. James and Wooten explained that this crisis leadership mindset is characterized by “openness to new experiences, willingness to learn and take risks, an assumption that all things are possible, and a belief that even in times of crisis, people and organizations can emerge better off after the crisis than before” (p. 8).

In June 2012, the American Council on Education (ACE) convened a Presidential Roundtable “to examine best practices campuses should follow when confronted with an extraordinary event that threatens to affect all members of an institutional community” (Bataille et al., 2012, p. 1). The publication, *Leadership in Times of Crisis: “Cool Head, Warm Heart*, “highlights the major themes that emerged from this conversation and provides academic leaders with sound advice from their peers about how to approach a crisis on campus” (p. 2). The participants included 16 college presidents whose institutions differed in size, location and campus culture, media experts, and attorneys. Media experts, attorneys and 16 presidents discussed how to approach a crisis on campus-recognizing, reports the authors, that each campuses culture and history will affect the responses and call for different approaches.

In the introduction, Bataille et al. (2012) identified three key elements to frame the study: (1) the campus context, (2) understanding the landscape, and (3) making choices. From the perspective of the campus context, Bataille et al. stressed that during a crisis the campus needs presidential leadership that is “strong and unwavering”(p. 2). Crisis events such as athletic scandals, residence hall fires and mass shootings that occurred on campus, in recent years, have presented new challenges for campus leaders in the age of more media scrutiny which require campus leaders to be “savvy in their relationships with the media and work effectively with their own public relations staff” (p. 3). In addition, the authors pointed out that these challenges are augmented by more complex reporting required by state and federal regulations and the impact of new technologies on campus communications.

Campus leaders must understand the landscape of crisis response and management. Bataille et al. contended that campus leaders should be aware of the frameworks for crisis management and should know about state and federal regulations and frameworks such as the Incident Command System, the National Interagency Incident Management System, and The Clery Act of 1990. In addition, the authors asserted that leadership teams must be aware of services and resources available to them through the American Red Cross, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, the U.S. Department of Homeland Security and others. These agencies provide support in times of crisis beyond that which the institutions can provide. According to Bataille et al. (2012), it is imperative that campus leaders know who and what is guiding leadership decisions made during a crisis. Crisis situations call for a leader to make choices that are determined by the change a crisis might cause to the campus routine. Should classes be canceled? Does the football team travel? How do we address a racial incident that occurs on campus? Does the answer depend on the circumstances?

Two themes emerged from the roundtable discussion: (1) communications strategies and (2) resources (Bataille et al, 2012). Campus leaders must be able to communicate effectively with the various constituencies connected with institutions. According to the authors, roundtable participants emphasized that campuses should develop and test crisis response protocols before crises occur. This preparation should include a plan for communicating during and after a crisis as well as consist of “conscientious relationship-building” with media and the “various groups with a stake in the institution” (p. 10). Campus leaders should expect that the media will report on all stages of a crisis and the institution’s response from crisis to recovery.

Internal and external resources are important to an institution’s ability to handle a crisis effectively. These resources include knowledge of the staff, crisis management plans, general counsel and emergency funds. Bataille et al. (2012) recommended the use of crisis teams who are trained to respond to the different types of crises that may occur on campus. In addition, the authors urged campus leaders “to be proactive during the planning stages of crisis management and establish relationships with individuals or organizations that can be of assistance during a crisis” (p. 15-16).

Theoretical Framework

For this study, the theoretical frameworks of chaos theory and emergent self-organization, resource dependence theory, and situational leadership theory were used to examine the topic of campus safety.

Chaos Theory and Emergent Self-Organization. Chaos theory (CT) has emerged as an often used framework in much of contemporary theorizing in crisis management and communication (Sellnow & Seeger, 2013). Often referred to as “the butterfly effect,” according to Sellnow and Seeger, CT refers to “a broad family of approaches emphasizing the interactivity,

dynamism, non-linearity and lack of simple predictability associated with complex systems. In many ways, CT is a meta-theory, a paradigm or a guiding set of principles about how complex systems behave, which also include how they collapse and recover” (p.108).

Hayles (1990) asserted that the goal of CT is to achieve, at some level, predictive understanding of a phenomenon by relying on scales, perspectives and methods broader than those found in causal and deterministic patterns. In addition, CT offers a realistic view of disrupting, complex, confusing, contradictory and change-inducing events (Sellnow & Seeger, 2013). Sellnow and Seeger explained that CT proposes that “small variances in a system, for example, the flapping of a butterfly wing, may have a much larger impact on a system” (p.109). According to Eve, Horsfall and Lee (1997), the theory is powerful and problematic because the variance in a system may be so small that it is not possible to predict the outcomes of these systems, especially when they are under stress.

Crises, according to principles of CT, are points where the direction, character and/or structure of a system are disrupted by a sudden change (Sellnow & Seeger, 2013). The researchers contended that this occurs most often in complex systems with high levels of interdependence because they tend to be more tightly coupled and more likely to experience higher levels of variance and instability than less complex systems. Sellnow and Seeger noted that CT suggests that organizations with higher levels of complexity, which describes many modern organizations, are more likely to experience crises. Accordingly, such complexity creates systematic vulnerabilities that may result in systematic breakdowns. CT explains that a natural process of self-organization often emerges out of the chaos that is caused by crises which leads to the creation of new structures, relationships and understandings (Sellnow & Seeger, 2013).

In relation to crisis management, Sellnow and Seeger posited that system flexibility, resilience and response capacity inherent in this concept of emergent self-organization may be drawn upon by leaders, in times of crisis. For example, the researchers reported that amidst the extreme chaos of 9/11, “structures of order emerged as office workers at the World Trade Center began spontaneously to organize teams to coordinate the evacuation, including disabled and injured colleagues down the stairs” (p. 110). CT has been applied to risk and crisis management and communication as a means of understanding both the disruption and restoration of order in organizations (Heath, 1998). Wheatley (2007) (as cited in Sellnow & Seeger, 2013), suggested that leaders’ and managers’ primary means for responding to crises and other instances of sudden change is self-organization.

CT is useful to both the practitioner and investigator; however, the lack of precision limits the extent to which researchers can test its propositions (Sellnow & Seeger, 2013). Therefore, it is often used as a conceptual framework in case studies which have influenced other theoretical frameworks such as organizational learning theory and the discourse of renewal.

Resource Dependence Theory. Resource dependence theory (RDT) is the study of how the external resources of organizations affect the behavior of the organization. Pfeffer and Salancik’s (1978) *External Control of Organizations*, which explored how external forces affected organizations and provided insights for designing and managing organizations to mitigate these affects, is considered the seminal book that established the concept of resource dependence. According to Pfeffer and Salancik, RDT influences many organizational strategies including the structure of organizations, recruitment of employees and board members, external organizational links and more. Davis and Cobb (2010) asserted that “the most widely-used aspects of the theory outlined in *External Control* analyze the sources and consequences of power in interorganizational

relations: where power and dependence come from, and how those that run organizations use their power and manage their dependence” (p. 23). There are the three core ideas of RDT:

1. Social context matters
2. Organizations have strategies to enhance their autonomy and pursue interests
3. Power (not just rationality or efficiency) is important for understanding internal and external actions of organizations (Davis & Cobb, 2010, p. 23).

RDT is comprehensive in its scope in that it combines an account of power within organizations with a theory of how organizations seek to manage their environments (2009). Recent studies by Hillman, Withers & Collins (2009); Davis and Cobb (2010); and Drees & Heugens (2013) discussed the importance of RDT in explaining the actions of organizations regarding their attempts to mitigate or overcome external dependencies or constraints. The basic theory, summarized, advises leaders to choose the least-constraining means to manage relationships that will allow them to minimize uncertainty and dependence and maximize their autonomy (Davis & Cobb, 2010). For example, if dependence comes from relying on one source, then the solution is to identify alternate sources. Davis and Cobb suggested that the forming of alliances, which require coordinated efforts with other organizations, as another tactic used to manage dependence. These two tactics show and are consistent with RDT, “organizations exchange resources with their environment as a condition for survival” (Shafritz, Ott, & Jang, 2011, p.43).

RDT brought issues of power to the forefront of organizational studies (Davis & Cobb, 2010). While RDT is most commonly used in Management and Strategy, Davis and Cobb’s analysis showed that RDT’s influence extended beyond management to health care, public policy, sociology and education. Conditions that existed when the theory was conceptualized are present

today—economic crisis, dissatisfaction with political leadership, increased social activism—and make issues of power and dependency more salient.

Situational Leadership. Over the past few decades, researchers and practitioners have been engaged in the search for the best style of leadership. However, according to Hersey and Blanchard (1988), no such “best style” exists. They asserted that successful leaders adapt their behavior to meet the demands of their situation. In practice, administrators can use the Situational Leadership Model to assess and diagnose the demands of their situation and change their leadership style based on specifics of the task and the maturity of the individuals or teams they are leading. This leadership theory recognizes that task and relationship behavior are two critical dimensions of a leader’s behavior.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) offered the following definitions of these two dimensions: Task behavior is the extent to which a leader engages in one way communication by explaining what each follower is to do as well as when, where and how tasks are to be accomplished. Relationship behavior “is the extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication by providing socioemotional support, ‘psychological strokes’ and facilitating behaviors.” (p. 1)

Hersey and Blanchard contended that there is no “best style of leadership” and that any one of the four basic styles of leadership could be effective depending on the situation in which it is applied. Therefore, Hersey and Blanchard suggested that leaders use the following labels and descriptions of the four styles of Situational Leadership to determine the appropriate leadership style to use.

1. High-task/low-relationship leader behavior (S1) is referred to as “telling” because the leader defines roles of the followers and tells them what, how, when and where to do the tasks.

2. High-task/high-relationship leader behavior (S2) is referred to as “selling” because the leader’s attempts to get followers to “buy into” decisions that have to be made.
3. High-relationship/low-task behavior (S3) is called “participating” because the leader and followers share in the decision making and the followers have the ability and knowledge to accomplish the task.
4. Low-relationship/low-task behavior (S4) is labeled “delegating” because leaders give followers more responsibility since the followers are high in readiness and have the ability and are willing to assume the responsibility.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) asserted that the interplay among:

The amount of direction (task behavior) a leader gives, the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and the “readiness” level that followers exhibit on a specific task, function, activity or objective that the leader is attempting to accomplish through the individual group or groups (followers) forms the basis of Situational Leadership. (p.1)

According to situational leadership theory, the leader can reduce task behavior and increase relationship behavior as the follower’s level of readiness increases (Hershey & Blanchard, 1988). This behavior should continue until the follower or the group reaches a moderate level of readiness, then it would be appropriate for the leader to decrease task behavior and relationship behavior. At this level of readiness, according to Hershey and Blanchard, “the follower is not only ready in terms of the performance of the task but is also confident and committed” (p.3). According to situational leadership, the four readinesses or maturity levels are the following:

- M1 (low) – The group or individual is not willing and is not able to perform the work or task.
- M2 (moderate) – The group or individual is not able but willing to perform the work or task.

- M3 (moderate to high) – The group or individual is able but not willing to perform the work or task.
- M4 (high) – The group or individual is able and willing to perform the work or the given task. (Hershey & Blanchard, 1988, p.3)

The application of situational leadership is dependent upon the task, the characteristics of the group, interpersonal relationships within the group and the characteristics of the organizational culture (Hernandez, Bumsted, Spivack, Berger, & Zwingman-Bagley, 1997). The key to the situational leadership model is for the leader to become effective and efficient in identifying his or her team's behavior and recognize the levels of readiness and choose the most appropriate leadership style. Situational leadership is valuable for supervision, coaching, empowering and delegating responsibilities to individuals and teams (Northouse, 2001).

Chapter Summary

Chapter II provided the reader with an overview of prior literature on crisis management, campus violence, task forces, and crisis leadership. Additionally, Chapter II highlighted research reports that provided the background and foundation to understand the significance of the problem from the standpoint of being a national issue that necessitates a more thorough examination. Chapter III provides the methodology that guided the plan of action for the research project.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Research Design

A single case study approach was employed for the purposes of this study. Yin (2009) defined case study research as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (p. 401).” According to Creswell (1998), a case study is:

An exploration of a ‘bound system’ or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context. The bounded system is bounded by time and place, and it is the case being studied – a program, an event, an activity, or individuals...Multiple sources of information include observations, interviews, audio-visual material, documents and reports (p. 62).

The case study approach offered this researcher a way to investigate complex social units that have multiple variables that might be important to understanding a phenomenon (Reis, 2009). The case study provides a rich holistic account because it is grounded in real-life situations. Case study research offers insights and depth of meaning that expand one’s experiences. Reis asserted that such insights could help to inform future research. Multiple data collection procedures are involved in single–case study research. Interviews, archival records, artifacts, participant observation, and direct observations are the types of data collected in case studies. Because of its strengths, case study research is often used in education, social work, administration, and health. According to Reis, case studies have proven effective for examining the educational innovations, program evaluation, and policy development. For the purpose of this research, five types of data were analyzed by the researcher: document reviews, administrator interviews, artifacts, participant

observation (focus group), archival records and direct observation. The conceptual framework for this study is depicted in Figure 1 below.

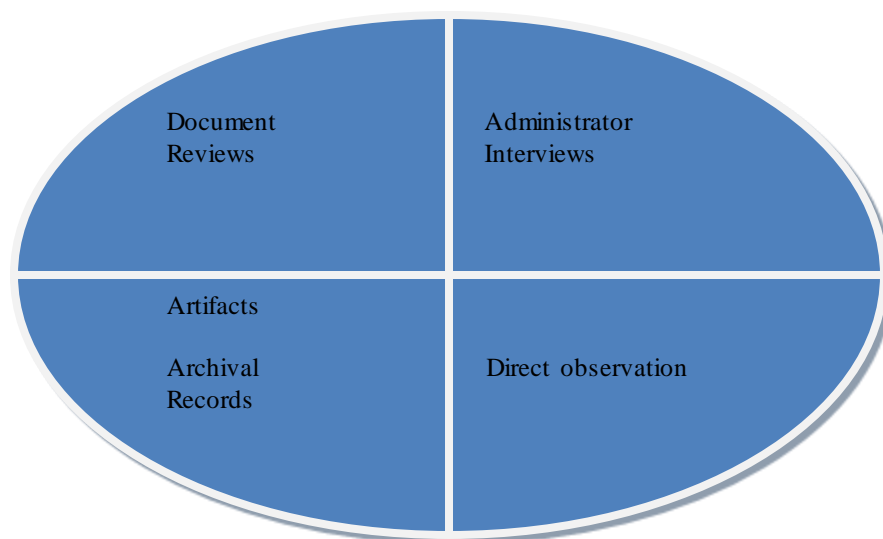


Figure 1. Case Study Framework. The four types of data that will be gathered and analyzed in the proposed study.

The Case Study Organization – The University of North Carolina

The University of North Carolina (UNC) is a multi-campus state university system. It is comprised of 16 public higher education institutions and a public residential high school for gifted students. UNC at Chapel Hill was chartered by the North Carolina General Assembly in 1789 and is recognized as the first public university to enroll and graduate students in the eighteenth century. Additionally, the General Assembly established six higher education institutions that were “diverse in origin and purpose”. Of these institutions, five are historically black universities, one was founded to educate American Indians, several offer technological programs, others prepare public school teachers, and one emphasizes the performing arts. In 1971, the General Assembly formed the UNC System by bringing these institutions together (Figure 2).

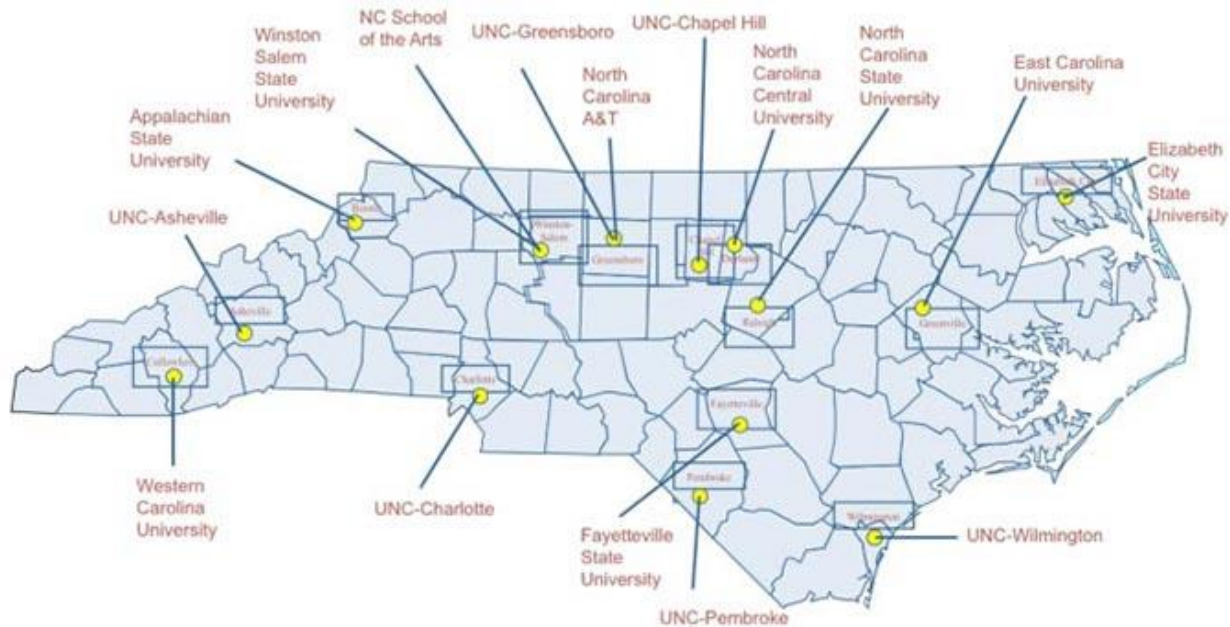


Figure 2. The University of North Carolina System

UNC is governed by the Board of Governors, a 32 member policy-making body. The president, who is the Chief Executive Officer for the University, is selected by the UNC Board of Governors. Each UNC campus is led by a Chancellor who reports to the president. The Board of Trustees has delegated power and authority, from the Board of Governors, over academic matters and other campus operations for each campus.

In 2016, student enrollment for UNC is over 220,000 of which over 72,000 were minority students. The System enrolled approximately 86% of the new freshmen from North Carolina and 13.3% from out-of-state. (UNC General Administration, 2014).

In 2004, UNC demonstrated its commitment to campus safety and security when UNC President Molly Corbett Broad established a university-wide task force on campus safety in the aftermath of two student deaths that occurred at UNC at Wilmington. The multi-disciplinary team “which included students, faculty and representatives from a number of related campus departments (e.g. campus police, student affairs, admissions, and legal affairs)” (UNC Task Force Report, 2007, p. 2) was charged by President Broad “to look across the entire University to gauge

whether or not further steps could be taken to improve or strengthen current policies and regulations impacting campus safety” (p. 2).

In May 2007, UNC President Erskine Bowles created the UNC Campus Safety Task Force “to undertake an examination of safety on UNC campuses to make sure that the University of North Carolina is doing all that it reasonably can do, consistent with the values of the University to reduce incidence of violent crime within the university community (UNC Campus Safety Task Force Report, 2007, p. 2). The work of this 27 member task force was focused on addressing questions related how the institutions were working to provide a safe environment for students, faculty and staff, and what they could reasonably do to make campuses safer (UNC Campus Safety Task Force Report, 2007).

In August 2013, UNC President, Thomas Ross created the UNC Campus Security Initiative and charged the task force to evaluate existing policies, practices and procedures, make recommendations on improvements and identify resources necessary to implement changes (UNC System Policy Discussion Presentation, 2013).

Participants

This research study used a non-probability sampling method known as purposeful sampling. According to Babbie (2004), purposeful sampling should be used in the selection of the units to be observed on the basis of the researcher’s judgment about which ones will be the most useful or representative. In relation to this study, Creswell (2003) further clarified purposeful sampling by stating “that the idea behind qualitative research is to purposefully select participants or sites (or documents or visual materials) that will best help the researcher understand the problem and the research” (p. 185).

This case study was conducted on the work of the campus safety task forces initiated by the UNC System in the wake of two murders that occurred on the campus of the University of North Carolina at Wilmington in 2004 and in response to the mass killings at Virginia Tech in 2007. The participants for this study were selected either because they were members of the task forces or had responsibility for safety on a UNC campus. They were executive, senior and mid-level administrative positions at the university system office or on the campus at a four-year university. These administrators held the title of president, vice president, dean of students, associate vice president, assistant vice president or Chief of Police. The interviewees possessed five years or more of administrative experience and had some level of responsibility for crisis preparedness and management. Participants also represented the diversity of the UNC System in terms of race, ethnicity, gender and age. Galloway (2005) stated:

Purposive sampling requires a procedure that is governed by emerging insights about what is relevant to the study based on the focus determined by the problem and purposely seeks both the typical and divergent data to maximize the range of information obtained about the context (p.148).

Eight of the twelve individuals invited to participate in the study agreed to be interviewed. Each participant was given a pseudonym and their job title was generalized to maintain anonymity.

Data Collection Procedures

Five types of data were collected in this case study research: (1) documents; (2) archival records; (3) interviews; (4) direct observation; and (5) artifacts (Yin, 1994). In this study, data was collected from a combination of these sources. A semi-structured interview was the primary method for collecting data. This tool is “flexible and likely to promote fruitful reflection by the participants” (Mill, 2001, p. 385). The interviews provided further understanding of the task forces members’ perspectives on matters related to campus safety and crisis management. The advantage of the interview was that the use of probing and open-ended questions allowed participants to

respond in their own words. Open-ended questions provided this researcher an ability to evoke responses from participants that were meaningful to them, rich and explanatory (LeCompte, 1999). Once the sample was identified, participants were sent an e-mail inviting them to participate in the study and seek their confirmation.

After consent from the participants and approval from the Delaware State University Institutional Research Board to conduct the study was obtained, the data collection began. An overview of this study was provided to the UNC System's Vice President for Academic and Student Success and Associate Vice President for Safety and Emergency Operations. The study participants were provided an overview of the study via telephone and email.

Prior to engaging the participants in the interview process, the participants were encouraged to ask questions before providing their consent. The interviews were scheduled and conducted at the participants' institutions and over the telephone. Semi-structured interviews of one hour in length were conducted following a predetermined interview guide and an Apple iPhone 5 digital voice recorder was used to record the interviews. The recorder stores highly compressed windows media audio format voice messages and is capable of CD-level sound recording quality. The recorded interviews were transferred and stored on the researcher's personnel computer (PC) and the files were destroyed at the conclusion of the research.

In addition to the interviews, documents such as task force reports and policy manuals were collected. Further, archival records like campus safety survey data, news articles and other media coverage of the Task Forces' work was also collected. By using multiple sources of data, this researcher was able to triangulate the evidence which increased the reliability of the data and the process of gathering it (Tellis, 1997). Tellis asserted that triangulation serves to corroborate the

data gathered from other sources. Fielding and Fielding (1986) suggested that triangulation of data mitigates the threat to validity related to each different type of data that are collected.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to evaluate how a sample of participants from the survey population would respond to the research questions. Additionally, the pilot study helped determine “if there are flaws, limitations, or other weaknesses within the interview design” (Kvale, 2007, as cited by Turner, 2010, p. 4) and allowed me to make revisions that were needed prior to the implementation of the study. According to Turner (2010), pilot testing helps researchers with the process of refining research questions. The pilot study was conducted with two qualified participants from the targeted population beyond the study’s sample. As recommended by Martinko and Gardner (1985) and Glense and Peshkin (1992), the pilot study was used to gain additional insight about the research process, interview protocol, and observation techniques.

Data Analysis

Following each interview, the voice recordings were professionally transcribed by CaptionSync, a company that specializes in providing captioning and transcription services. In addition to holistic coding, the researcher used hand coding to code and sort transcript segments; identify emerging themes, and manage field notes.

Once the themes emerged and patterns were established, the researcher collected instances from the data, particularly the interviews, to identify meanings relevant to the issue - a form of data analysis and interpretation known as categorical aggregation (Creswell, 1998; Stake, 1995). Finally, in addition to emerging patterns, categorical aggregations, and descriptions, this researcher analyzed the data for the purpose of generalizations of what people could learn from the case either for

themselves or for applying it to a population of cases, an interpretation method known as naturalistic generalization (Creswell, 1998).

Document reviews were selected as another unit of data collection and analysis for this study. Task force reports, safety plans, memoranda, newspaper articles, policies and artifacts such as screenshots and meeting minutes of committees were examined. The researcher reviewed and analyzed the documents that were collected. Documents related to task force deliberations, implementation of recommendations, and communication were selected and analyzed. The document reviews provided background information about UNC's campus safety initiatives and helped the researcher to better understand how task force recommendations were communicated and implemented across the campuses. The researcher also used the document review to corroborate statements made in the participant interviews. The review of documents was organized from the onset with a schedule for access and review. According to Stake (2010) data collection through document review follows the same line of protocol as observing or interviewing. As a result, documents were analyzed for frequencies or contingencies.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher is the instrument in qualitative research. Stake (2010) asserted that "the researcher him- or herself is an instrument, observing action and contexts, often intentionally playing a subjective role in the study, using his or her own personal experience in making interpretations" (p. 20). According to Stake this subjectivity is essential to gaining a better understanding of the human experience. Klenke (2008) suggested that the researcher's perspective is vital to the process of qualitative research. This researcher conducted interviews with a select group of campus administrators. The researcher gathered and reviewed documents and artifacts to gain insight into the case study organization.

Chapter Summary

Chapter III provided the reader with an overview of the methodology that was utilized to conduct this research project. A case study approach allowed this researcher to investigate the outcomes and response to campus violence from the perspective of initiatives implemented within an educational system. A purposeful sampling of a select group of college administrators served as the participants. This researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with the participants and reviewed significant reports, archival materials and white papers on the subject matter. As part of the data analysis process, hand coding was used to capture the data and organize the information for interpretation.

CHAPTER IV

Results and Findings

This study examined the work of campus safety task forces that were created by the University of North Carolina System to assess the impact that changes made to crisis management policies and practices recommended by the Task Forces had on campus safety and crisis leadership. The results from the interview responses, documented data, campus safety survey data, direct observation, and artifacts were collected and analyzed. The researcher examined the case study organization's task force reports, implementation plans, media, regulations and artifacts such as agendas and minutes from task force meetings. In addition to these units of analysis, participants responded to questions during face-to-face and telephone interviews. The results of the data analysis and themes that emerged through the analysis process are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Research Questions and Themes

Primary (overarching) research question:

What changes were made to policies, practices and procedures that are in place at the University of North Carolina System campuses to improve campus safety and foster a non-violent environment based on lessons learned from the UNC System's campus safety efforts initiated since 2004?

Theme A: UNC Campuses are better prepared to manage crises on campus.

Secondary research questions:

1. What major threats to campus safety are higher education leaders most concerned about?

Theme B: Campus leaders are most concerned about gun violence, sexual assaults and interpersonal violence on their campuses.

2. How important are financial resources to supporting campus safety initiatives?

Theme C: Adequate resources for qualified personnel, training and technology are critical to an institution's ability to implement campus safety efforts.

3. What is the relationship between leadership role(s) and crisis management?

Theme D: Presidential/CEO leadership at the system and campus level is essential to effective implementation of campus safety efforts and crisis management.

Case Study Organization

The University of North Carolina, a multi-campus university that serves the state through teaching, research and scholarship, and outreach and service served as the case study organization. Established in 1776, UNC is the oldest public university in the United States. The University enrolls approximately 225,000 students on 16 university campuses across the state and at the North Carolina School of Science and Mathematics, a residential high school for gifted students.

UNC is led by the president, who is the Chief Executive Officer for the University. Each of the UNC campuses is led by a Chancellor who reports to the president. Each university campus has a board of trustees which has delegated power and authority, over academic matters and other campus operations, from the Board of Governors. The Board of Governors is a 32 member policy-making body for the University of North Carolina.

Since 2004, UNC has demonstrated its commitment to campus safety and security by continuously examining its policies and practices system-wide. The first of these efforts began in the spring of 2004, when UNC President Molly Corbett Broad established a university-wide task force on campus safety in response to the tragic deaths of students at the UNC at Wilmington. In May 2007, following the mass killing that occurred at Virginia Tech, UNC President Erskine Bowles created the UNC Campus Safety Task Force “to undertake an examination of safety on UNC campuses to make sure that the University of North Carolina is doing all that it reasonably can do, consistent with the values of the University to reduce incidence of violent crime within the university community (UNC Campus Safety Task Force Report, 2007, p. 2).

In response to allegations that UNC-Chapel Hill and Elizabeth City State University mishandled sexual assault cases and underreported crimes, UNC President Tom Ross, announced his plans to form a task forces to review campus safety and security policies, practices and procedures across the UNC System. In August 2013, President Ross launched the UNC Campus Security Initiative.

Participant Demographics

This part of the chapter outlines the data results from the eight interviews conducted with executive, senior and mid-level administrators employed at the university system office or at four-year constituent institutions of the University of North Carolina. All of the participants were employed with the research organization and held titles of chancellor, director, vice chancellor, associate vice chancellor, associate vice president, chief of police, and vice president. Each participant had at least five years or more experience in higher education administration and had some responsibility for campus safety preparedness, response, or recovery. Four (50%) of the participants interviewed were male, and four (50%) were female. Two (25%) of the participants

were African American, and six (75%) were Caucasian. The demographics of the participants are provided in Table 2.

Table 2

Participant Demographics

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Campus Safety Experience
Paula	Female	62	African American	30 years
Bill	Male	62	African American	35 years
Joan	Female	64	White	5 years
Tina	Female	55	White	12 years
Rob	Male	65	White	11 years
Trisha	Female	58	White	35 years
Tom	Male	55	White	25 years
Elena	Female	70	White	10 years
Note: The names listed are not the real names of the participants				

Coding and Themes

The researcher conducted multiple readings of the interview transcripts and made notes while re-reading the text, found patterns in the data, and categorized the data into themes. Creswell (2009) asserts that qualitative data should be divided into four to five themes which represent the major findings in qualitative research. The five themes that emerged were: (a) UNC Campuses are better prepared to manage crises on campus, (b) Campus leaders perceived that the UNC Campuses are safer as a result of the Task Forces' work, (c) Campus leaders are most concerned about gun violence, sexual assaults and interpersonal violence on their campuses, (d) Adequate resources for qualified personnel, training and technology are critical to institutions' ability to implement campus safety efforts, (e) Presidential/CEO leadership at both the system and campus levels made campus safety a priority.

Findings

The researcher established a protocol for interviewing the participants and for collecting and reviewing other units of analysis, which can be found in Chapter III of this study. This section first presents the results of the interview responses, and then turns to a presentation of the results of the other units of analysis. The overarching research question and the four secondary research questions are addressed and answered as a result of the unit analyses and interview responses. As stated above, four themes emerged from the analyzed data: (a) UNC Campuses are better prepared to manage crises on campus, (b) Campus leaders are most concerned about gun violence, sexual assaults and interpersonal violence on their campuses, (c) Adequate resources for training, technology, and qualified personnel are critical to an institution's ability to implement campus safety efforts, (d) Presidential leadership at the system and campus level is essential to effective implementation of campus safety efforts and crisis management.

Primary (overarching) research question

What changes were made to policies, practices and procedures that are in place at the University of North Carolina System campuses to improve campus safety and foster a non-violent environment based on lessons learned from the UNC System's campus safety efforts initiated since 2004?

Theme A: UNC campuses are better prepared to manage campus crises.

Interview Participant Responses. All of the participants (100%) believed that UNC campuses are better prepared to respond effectively to campus crises because of the task forces' work. Trisha believed that campuses are better prepared "because it [campus safety] was identified as a priority for every campus." This belief was shared by the other respondents who said that "the task force raised the consciousness and awareness of the

campus safety issue” and “caused Chancellors and their cabinets to focus on the issue of violence on campus.” These sentiments were supported by Bill who stated:

There became a heightened awareness and understanding of the problems. Consistent sets of policies and procedures were established on campuses and system-wide. Examples include the admission policies, expanded use of technology, and criminal background checks.

Tina was emphatic in her response that aligned with Bill’s comment:

I absolutely believe that we are better prepared...And I think when it comes to health and safety of students and of the 17 constituent campuses (16 of us primarily in the higher education world) you have a different set of obstacles and challenges than in other venues. I think by putting a system-wide focus on safety and bringing expertise and training to this issue, you have ramped up the possibility of doing things better and I think that is indeed what the UNC System has done. A major outcome of the second task force was the creation of the system level position whose has responsibility for safety and emergency preparedness and helps to maintain the system-wide focus on campus safety. So, every iteration of the task force makes us better as individual institutions and as a system.

Theme B: Campus Leaders are most concerned about active shooter, sexual assault, suicide and interpersonal violence.

Interview Participant Responses. When asked to identify the types of crises that higher education institutions should be prepared to manage, participants responded that active shooter situations, interpersonal violence, natural disasters, suicide and sexual assault were the most important types of crises that higher education institutions should be prepared to encounter. Of these crises listed, campus leaders were most concerned about active shooter situations, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. While participants acknowledged that active shooter incidents on campus are rare in comparison to the violent incidents that occur more frequently, all of the participants ranked the threat of an active shooter most concerning “because of the potential for mass casualties” that the incident presents. Five participants were most concerned about sexual assault, and four participants

ranked interpersonal violence and suicide among the top three threats to campus safety.

While Tom agreed that institutions should be prepared to respond to active shooter situations, he also expressed a strong concern about the safety risks, which “come from interpersonal violence” that “really affect our students day to day”. He then added:

We spend a lot of time and effort on interpersonal violence prevention, response, suicide prevention, and assessment of student risk. I think probably one of the best things that came out of the task force that I know is active on most campuses is our behavioral intervention team and our threat assessment team.

Tina agreed:

The third area that is actually more relevant on a day-to-day basis is the kind of crises in health and safety that we base from three other areas that are our current focus of safety: suicide, high risk alcohol and drug use, and interpersonal violence. Those are far less understood and you don’t aim at one in any particular sort of way. Unlike one giant event, these can be insidious, difficult things to deal with on a daily basis which makes them far harder for us to get our hands around and come up with preventative and crisis response measures.

Theme C: Adequate resources for training, technology, and qualified personnel are essential to implementing campus safety efforts.

Interview Participant Responses. All of the participants spoke to the importance of having enough resources to support campus safety efforts. The resources identified as critical to an institution’s ability to create and maintain a safe campus environment, by campus administrators, include staff, training and education for students, staff and faculty, and technology.

Tina took a strong position on the issue of funding:

This is probably my greatest frustration. We’ve done so much hard work under the leadership of three outstanding system presidents and every one of them has recommended resources that have still yet to be given. It is not an issue that has been embraced at the state level for publically funded institutions. In that way we have acknowledged the problem, but haven’t had the resources we need allocated to solve the problem. The state funding we’ve gotten is miniscule as compared to what we

need. Now, not everything we need requires a lot of money. We've done far better than we've done in the past with system-wide training on Clery and active shooter. We've brought in experts from the Secret Service and other experts on interpersonal violence. But we're still pretty strapped in terms of resources for personnel.

Similarly, Paula noted:

I think many campuses, prior to Virginia Tech did not really allocate resources more than having a campus security or campus police force but resources are needed to contact students through their cell phones. You also need resources to be able to identify who comes on and off campus. Some campuses have invested in more officers to check ID's at campus entrances and to have more of a presence on campus.

Most of the leaders advised that personnel, training, and technology were the most important resource needs for campuses. Police officers and mental health professionals were most often cited as the personnel needed to address campus safety efforts. Bill responded that institutions needed to offer competitive salaries in order to recruit qualified police officers. He stated, "salaries are important because if you can't compete, you're not going to get what you need." Tom agreed that "resources for law enforcement salaries are among the most important."

Education and training on safety related practices and policies were key recommendations included in every UNC task force report. Consistent with these recommendations, all of the respondents remarked that training for staff and faculty was a critical resource need. Joan said, "I would think that the people and the training are inextricably linked. I think having people without training doesn't really do any good." The 2004 Task Force found that additional measures should be taken to screen applicants prior to admission and, therefore, identified "red flags" that would suggest that applicants pose a risk to safety. Additionally, training for personnel involved in the admission process to identify such "red flags" was a major recommendation.

Most of the respondents also commented that training and education that broadened and deepened their knowledge of incident command, on responding to an active shooter and on conducting threat assessments are critical to crisis management. Training related to sexual assault prevention and response, and Clery compliance were also mentioned as critical needs for campus administrators, faculty, staff, and students.

Tina described her work on the task force in this way:

I felt like I was going back to school again. I don't think I ever thought, in my job, that I would be charged with health and safety to the level that I have been. It's like being a voracious student of constantly changing information. You don't think that in our roles on campus that health and safety would be among your primary goals, that it's what university life is about. Increasingly, it's become more of the work of college campuses.

The issue of mental health was raised, as Cho, the student who committed the mass killings at Virginia Tech was shown to have had serious mental health concerns. Tina observed that "Students are coming to universities with profound [mental health] diagnoses and yet [universities] don't have the providers to provide the support that students need. So probably our single biggest quandary right now is how we rebuild the mental health infrastructure in this country and, as a subset, on college campuses." Tina's comment is consistent with a study conducted by STAT which asserts that colleges and universities are not meeting the student demand for mental health care (Thielking, 2017). The study found that high student-to-counselor ratios make it necessary for campus counselors to focus on students who have acute needs or are in crisis, which in many instances leave little time for providing adequate services for issues such as depression, anxiety, and eating disorders (Thielking, 2017).

Many of the participants also listed technology as one of their critical needs in the campus' efforts to improve safety and security. Referring to the System's creation of the

UNC Suspension and Expulsion Data Base that allows UNC institutions to share information about applicants' disciplinary history within the University of North Carolina, Bill responded that "our campuses are safer now than they were before this task force." In addition to the creation of the database, the accompanying process changes and regulation that required all UNC institutions to perform checks on their applicants to determine the existence of any "red flags" that would trigger a more extensive look into a student's background before an offer of admission was made. Paula stated that investments needed to be made in communications technology that would allow for mass notification to the campus community through audible systems, text messaging and email.

Paula said:

I think what's most important is the ability for us to contact students, faculty, staff and some parents when there is something going on at campus through their cell phones. I think that's the most important because we learned that many students are linked to their cell phones and respond to messages received through their phones. There are a variety of notification systems that campuses have begun using including those with sirens.

Further, many of the respondents expressed their enthusiasm for bringing the use of technology that is becoming more commonplace in campus law enforcement departments such as camera systems, license plate readers, and multi-channel radios. A section of the 2007 Task Force focused on technology and equipment needs on the UNC campuses, needs that were identified through an examination of Virginia Tech's response to the shooting that occurred on its Blacksburg, Virginia campus in April 2007.

Theme D: Presidential/CEO leadership at the system and campus level is essential to effective implementation of campus safety efforts and crisis management.

All of the participants' responses were consistent with what Bataille and Cordova (2014) assert is the "overwhelming mandate...that all senior administrators need to be prepared to address any threat to the campus---whether that threat is one that endangers students and employees or is a situation that will affect the long term reputation of the campus"(p.xiii). Tina stated, "I think because of our three [UNC] presidents, starting with President [Molly] Broad, this issue [campus safety] has been brought to life in terms of it being a system-wide imperative." In addition to the leadership that was provided by the system presidents, the chancellors, following the presidents' example, made safety and security a priority at the campus level. Tom stated that the staff received a "specific charge from the chancellor" to implement the task force recommendations. In the midst of a crisis, the campus community, stakeholders, and the local community depend on the leadership for guidance and direction (Gores, 2014).

When asked to identify the competencies leaders (in this instance, they were referring to presidential leadership) should possess in order to be effective in times of crisis, the participants provided a number of competencies, qualities and skills they considered important for leaders to possess. The complete list of responses is provided in Table 2.

While all of these skills were considered important, four emerged as essential to success:

1. Knowledge – leaders must know and be familiar with crisis management procedures and protocols. The respondents stressed that leaders should know NIMS and incident command protocols in addition to their own institution's emergency/crisis management policies and plan.
2. Decision-making – leaders must have the ability to make good decisions even when they do not have all of the information. Crises are unexpected and can cause considerable disruption to campus operations and the situation change quickly, which requires quick action in order to respond effectively. Therefore, leaders must be comfortable with taking decisive action

using the information available to them. Delays could make the difference between life and death.

3. Communication – leaders must be able to explain the situation with the appropriate level of detail to various constituencies: students, faculty, staff, boards of trustees, legislators, and general public.
4. Judgment – leaders must be able to exercise good judgment under pressure, sometimes with incomplete information

Table 3

Participants’ List of Leadership Competencies/Characteristics

- | |
|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Knowledge of Crisis Management Practices2. Decision-making3. Organized4. Listening Skills5. Communications Skills6. Good judgment7. Calm/even-tempered8. Integrity/honesty9. Self-awareness10. Empathy |
|--|

Task Force Reports

A task force report is a document that presents the findings and recommendations of the group of people formed to carry out a specific project or solve a problem that requires a multi-disciplinary approach. The final reports of the Task Force on the Safety of the Campus Community

(2004), the UNC Campus Safety Task Force (2007), and the UNC Campus Security Initiative (2014) which represent the UNC System's sustained work toward addressing the issue of campus safety and security were reviewed. The reports, presented by members of the task forces, are similar in format in that they each include an executive summary, an overview of the task force's approach (i.e. background and context, data collection methods, and working groups/subcommittees), a summary of the findings, task force recommendations, and a list of Task Force Members. While the Task Force reports were issued to the UNC President and to the UNC Board of Governors, intended audiences also included policymakers, students, faculty and staff of the UNC campuses, and the general public.

In addition, the reports included examinations of safety and security related policies and practices that existed on the various campuses, at the time, reviews of literature on campus safety and crisis management, in some cases, briefings, white papers, and committee reports on topics that required further examination or review. For example, the 2007 task force report included a review of the mental health coverage that existed in the University Mental Health plans. The 2014 task force report included supplements on Addressing Alcohol and Other Substance Abuse and on Preventing and Responding to Sexual Violence.

Each task force found that "the crime rate of every UNC campus is well below the statewide crime rate" (UNC Campus Security Initiative, 2014). Also, the reports emphasized the University System of North Carolina's commitment to remain open and accessible as it continued its efforts to improve safety and security on its campuses. Background information about the composition of the UNC Security Initiative task force and how it approached its work also described characteristics that were common across of all UNC's efforts toward making its campuses safer and more secure. Each task force effort:

- Involved people from every UNC campus who had experience and a role in campus safety and security
- Reviewed evidence-based best practices that could be adopted or adapted on UNC campuses
- Sought opportunities for campuses to collaborate and share resources
- Identified needs related to policy, personnel and equipment (UNC Security Initiative, 2014).

Task Force on the Safety of the Campus Community. In the spring of 2004, UNC President Molly Corbett Broad established a university-wide task force on campus safety. The Task Force on the Safety of the Campus Community, was a multi-disciplinary team “which included students, faculty and representatives from a number of related campus departments (e.g. campus police, student affairs, admissions, and legal affairs)” (UNC Task Force Report, 2007, p. 2). The task force was established in response to the tragic deaths of two students at the University of North Carolina at Wilmington. The murders of Jessica Faulkner and Kristen Naujoks shocked the UNC Wilmington and the entire University of North Carolina. President Broad charged the team “to look across the entire University to gauge whether or not further steps could be taken to improve or strengthen current policies and regulations impacting campus safety” (p. 2). After a review of the literature, comparison of North Carolina’s crime statistics, a national survey of best practices at select universities, campus crime reports, and admissions applications, and the use of criminal background checks in admissions, the task force reported 10 findings. The researcher organized these findings into three categories: 1) crime rates; 2) students as victims of crime; and 3) students as perpetrators of crime. This information provided the background and context which led the task force to separate into two working groups. The Admissions Subcommittee focused on methods that might help campuses, through the pre-enrollment process, to identify students who might pose a threat to the safety of the campus. The Campus Environment Subcommittee focused on the overall

safety of the campus environment (Task Force Report, 2004). Over a period of six months, the subcommittees and the full task force held face-to-meetings, conference calls and communicated by email. Their work and findings resulted in seven recommendations related to training for admissions professionals, planning, and safety education for students, faculty, and staff.

UNC Campus Safety Task Force. In April 2007, the mass killing of students and faculty by a student, Seung-Hui Cho, brought about a dramatic change in the way higher leaders viewed the safety and security on American college and university campuses. In May 2007, UNC President Erskine Bowles created the UNC Campus Safety Task Force “to undertake an examination of safety on UNC campuses to make sure that the University of North Carolina is doing all that it reasonably can do, consistent with the values of the University to reduce incidence of violent crime within the university community (UNC Campus Safety Task Force Report, 2007, p. 2). The work of this 27 member task force was focused on addressing three questions:

1. What are our [UNC] universities currently doing to provide a learning and working environment for students, faculty, and staff that is safe from violent crime?
2. What are the currently accepted best practices for campus safety?
3. What can the University reasonably do to improve its ability to protect students, faculty, and staff from being victims of violent crime?

(UNC Campus Safety Task Force Report, 2007, p. 4).

UNC Campus Security Initiative. In the aftermath of allegations that UNC-Chapel Hill and Elizabeth City State University mishandled sexual assault cases and underreported crimes, UNC President Tom Ross, announced his plans to launch a campus security initiative across the UNC System. In August 2013, President Ross created the UNC Campus Security Initiative and charged the task force to:

1. Evaluate current policies and practices on the campus and system levels.
2. Gather and evaluate best thinking and practices.
3. Develop recommendations for system-level policies, tools, training.
4. Identify solutions that result in consistent and effective responses and awareness across each campus.
5. Evaluate and improve responses to sexual assault and other violent crimes.
6. Identify resources needed for implementation. (UNC System Policy Discussion Presentation, 2013).

Newspaper Stories

UNC task force works on making campuses safer – Star News Online, July 2, 2004

This article describes the first meeting of the campus safety task force that was formed by UNC system President, Molly Broad. The writer reports that the task force was formed following the murders of two University of North Carolina at Wilmington students for the purpose of making UNC campuses safer. It was reported that the issue of criminal background checks was a topic of discussion because both individuals charged with the murders “apparently lied about their criminal histories on admissions applications”. The writer reported that John Peck, who killed himself three days after he shot and killed Christen Naujoks had pleaded guilty to two felony sexual assault charges in 2001. Curtis Dixon, who had been charged with the kidnapping, rape and murder of Jessica Faulkner, “apparently failed to report a misdemeanor larceny conviction”. In addition, the reporter wrote that task force members were presented information from a survey “that showed fewer students feel their campuses have done all they can to ensure safety” between 1998 and 2002. In response to the information the task force organized its work into two subcommittees. One subcommittee was assigned to review admissions practices and another subcommittee to review

safety on campus. UNC officials and task force members were interviewed and quoted for this story. The article was fair, balanced and informative. The reporter provided background information about the incidents that led to the task force being formed and some insight into how it approached its work.

Killings Shock Wilmington Campus – Star News Online, July 12, 2004

Debate grows about criminal-background checks for students

This article focuses on the growing discussion about the use of criminal background checks in the admissions process. This matter became an issue after two students at UNC Wilmington, Jessica Faulkner and Christen Naujoks, were stalked and murdered by other students who had criminal histories that they did not disclose on their admissions applications. The writer reports that some university officials cited cost and time constraints as potential barriers to the practice of conducting background checks being added to the review of student applicants. The reporter also presents a faculty member's assertion that background checks should be conducted and his belief that a criminal background check would have saved Jessica Faulker's life. The article also presented UNCW's view that the university "responded as well as possible" in Naujoks' case and consistent with state and national admissions practices in Faulkner's case.

However, Rosemary DePaolo, chancellor of UNC Wilmington, and Molly Broad, president of the UNC system recognized that more could be done. The writer reported that both leaders were forming separate task forces to review safety practices on the UNCW campus and across the university system. The article serves at least two purposes: to inform and to explore an issue. The writer provided information about the circumstances related to the tragic deaths of the two UNCW students. He wrote, "Apart from both being suspected of stalking their victims before murdering them, Dixon and Peck shared something else in common. They were both accused of lying on their

college application in order to get into college. Both covered up their criminal histories in order to gain admission into UNCW”. The article had a serious tone wherein the writer presents the facts and the different points of view related to the issue in a fair and balanced way. The article quoted university officials at the campus and system level (e.g. chancellor, president, university police chief, UNCW spokesperson, and UNC system spokesperson), a member of the faculty, and Najouks’ father.

UNC system initiative to look at campus violence – The Herald Sun, June 14, 2013

This news article is about the announcement by UNC President Tom Ross calling for a review of the UNC system’s safety practices. The article focuses on the incidents related to sexual assault and the alleged mishandling or accusations that sexual assault cases were handled inappropriately at UNC Chapel Hill and Elizabeth City State University. The writer reported that UNC Chapel Hill was under investigation by the Office of Civil Rights in the U.S. Department of Education and that President Ross acknowledged that “ECSU’s problems could lead to an investigation by OCR”. The article was written to inform and describe the purpose of the initiative and the circumstances that led to its formation. The reporter wrote that “sexual assault became a major topic of discussion this year on the UNC campus after three students, one former student, and former assistant dean of students, Melinda Manning, filed a complaint against the university with the Office of Civil Rights alleging that the university violated the rights of sexual assault victims and created a hostile environment for students who reported sexual assaults”.

Ross launched the new “initiative to review whether campuses in the UNC system are using best practices when it comes to responding to and addressing allegations of sexual assault, harassment and other violent crimes”. Ross said he wanted working groups to focus on:

1. Policies, procedures, and practices for responding to and addressing sexual assault and harassment
2. The work and functions of campus police departments
3. Policies procedures and practices for ensuring accurate and timely reporting of campus crime and security information.

The reporter explores the topic of violence in this piece. The reporter emphasized the facts and information about the problems that existed on the two campuses, the challenges the system faces, and the President's commitment "to identify better ways to help prevent sexual assaults and other crimes, to properly investigate and respond to allegations of sexual assault and violence in accordance with Title IX, to accurately collect and report crime and security statistics, and to ensure that the law enforcement function of campus police are appropriately carried out" (Ross, 2013). The story was fair and balanced because of its focus on the facts. The writer presents the problem, reinforces that campuses are considerably safer than the larger community and shows that the system has taken action.

UNC Campus Security Initiative Releases Final Report and Recommendations – July 31, 2014

This new story is about the release of the task force final report and its recommendations. The information content of the article came from the executive summary of the report which described the purpose of the task force, its composition, its chairs and external partners. The story provided the context and background related to the task force's work and reported key recommendations found in the report. The reporter included quotes from well-known national campus safety experts who offered favorable comments about the recommendations, which enhanced the credibility of the task force's work.

UNC Rising to Challenge of Improving Campus Safety

This article is about the actions that the University of North Carolina system has taken over time to improve safety and security on its 17 campuses. These actions include hiring experienced safety personnel, engaging in education and training, and preparing for a wide range of safety threats. Since the 2007 Campus Safety Task Force completed its system-wide review of safety practices and issued its recommendations, “the University has continued to expand and improve its safety plans including making safety a consistent element of its legislative budget request”. A key recommendation of that task force, the reporter wrote, “was that the University needed somebody here to work as a liaison between General Administration and campuses on safety and security issues”. In 2008, President Bowles established the associate vice president of Safety and Emergency Planning position to work UNC campus personnel to make sure they are prepared to deal with violence, including sexual assault, and other emergencies on campus. As reported, his work also includes coordinating efforts between campus personnel and local and state first responders. The writer reported that campus personnel participated in numerous training simulations such as active shooter to weather related emergencies, in 2009 and 2010. The writer quoted the associate vice president, Brent Herron, who stated “Training has become such an ingrained thing now that university campuses just do it”.

The writer also reported that the University equipped law enforcement officers with body cameras and that many of the campuses have added more closed-circuit TV to help deter criminal activity and help solve crimes. In addition, the associate vice president is quoted as saying “keeping our campuses safe is a 24/7, 365 effort”. The article provided information about the implementation of key recommendations made by task forces formed under the leadership of three

UNC presidents since 2004. This researcher found and retrieved the article from the University of North Carolina General Administration website which suggests that it was written to not only provide information about the University's commitment to safety, but also to show the public that it has taken tangible and effective steps toward making campuses safer.

Regulation on Student Applicant Background Checks – Adopted October, 26, 2006

The recommendation and decision to perform background checks on applicants to UNC institutions which came from the 2004 Task Force on the Safety of the Campus Community was the most debated of the recommendations made by the task force. Opponents of the measure were concerned about the costs associated with conducting background checks, its limitations, and whether certain populations of students would be disproportionally affected by the measure. Supporters of the recommendation argued that there were ways to address cost concerns, in the interest of safety, by the UNC General Administration and the campuses working together to develop and implement the appropriate policies, tools and training.

In 2006, the UNC Board of Governors adopted the *Regulation on Student Applicant Background Checks*. The regulation is found in the University of North Carolina Policy Manual, which is the official document that articulates the Board of Governors' policies and, administrative regulations, and guidelines of the president (UNC Policy Manual). Regulations are defined as "those rules or requirements of the president that the General Administration, the constituent institutions, and the designated affiliated entities are required to follow" (p.1). The *Regulation of Student Applicant Background Checks* requires UNC institutions to perform background checks on applicants for admission and names the tools and methods they are expected to use to perform the checks:

1. The UNC Suspension and Expulsion Database

2. The National Student Clearinghouse
3. North Carolina Department of Public Instruction enrollment database (when it becomes available). Constituent institutions were instructed to check DPI enrollment records until the database becomes available.

This regulation provides specific guidance to campus personnel about how the background check process should be conducted, information about triggers (or red flags) that personnel should consider when reviewing applicant records; language that should be contained in admission letters; scope of criminal background checks; and guidance on how to handle the review of applicants when she has a positive criminal or disciplinary record. Further, the regulation articulates the President's expectations for record keeping, importantly, "a record of the process used to determine whether or not the student posed a significant threat to campus safety and the basis for that determination" (UNC Policy Manual), if the applicant was found to have an occurrence(s) in her history that required further review. The University of North Carolina System, led by President Molly Broad, at the time demonstrated its commitment to campus safety by initiating and adopting this regulation, based on a recommendation made by the task force.

Memorandum from President Tom Ross – May 13, 2015

UNC President Tom Ross addressed a memorandum to all chancellors of UNC institutions on the subject of implementation of Campus Security Initiative and the fee approved by the UNC Board of Governors to fund priority recommendations contained within the report of the Campus Security Initiative (attached as Appendix E). The memorandum was carbon copied to each institution's executive leaders: Chief Financial Officers, Chief Academic Officers, Chiefs of Staff, Vice Chancellors for Student Affairs, Chief Legal Officers, and Chief Human Resource Officers. Among these, there were recommendations that President Ross and the Board of Governors

expected to be implemented by October 1, 2015. These priority recommendations were divided into three categories: campus-based positions, shared services, appointments to the University of North Carolina system-wide Campus Security Committee and salary increases for public safety officers and telecommunicators. The chancellors were given specific instructions to “increase salaries for commissioned law enforcement officers and emergency telecommunicators at each campus, with the goal of eventually bringing those salaries to established market rates” (Ross, Memorandum, 2015). Ross continued, “that the remainder of the security fee should be prioritized to defray the costs of implementing the high priority recommendations in the Campus Security Report. According to President Ross, the purpose of the memorandum is to provide “initial guidance on implementing the recommendations from the report and the fee” (Ross, Memorandum 2015). Ross reminded the chancellors that the University of North Carolina Board of Governors “authorized a system-wide annual fee of \$30 per student to secure recurring funding to implement certain priority recommendations of the report” (Ross, Memorandum, 2015.) The fee is charged to all students, in every term. In addition, UNC General Administration is allocated \$4 (13.3%) of the \$30 fee to fund system-wide coordination, trainings, and other shared services functions (p.3). In direct language, President Ross wrote that he was “requiring the chancellors of the constituent institutions and my staff at General Administration to proceed with implementing the recommendations from the UNC Campus Security Initiative” (Ross, Memorandum, 2015). His instructions prioritized which recommendations should be implemented including a time line. Institutions were expected to follow the guidelines for implementing salary improvements. UNC General Administration also informed the institutions, through this memo, that they would be expected to submit a report on the use of the fee revenue to the Board of Governors. The

memorandum is an example of presidential leadership in that it clearly outlines President Ross' expectations with regard to implementing the recommendations of the Campus Security Initiative.

Chapter Summary

Chapter IV provided the reader with the themes and findings that were derived from analyses of participant interviews and documents, direct observation, media and other artifacts that collected for this study. Five major themes emerged that addressed the overarching research question and the three secondary questions that guided this study. Chapter V will discuss the data, themes and the research questions. Further discussion will include the implications that this study has on research and practice.

CHAPTER V

Discussion

Following the Virginia Tech tragedy, there has been an evolution of campus safety in the high education community. The tragic event caused colleges and universities across the United States to examine their policies and practices related to campus safety. For the University of North Carolina, this period of evolution began three years before the Virginia Tech tragedy when the University of North Carolina was shocked and saddened by the murders of Jessica Faulkner and Kristen Naujoks, two female students who attended the University of North Carolina at Wilmington. The 2004 Task Force on the Safety of the Campus Community formed by President Molly Broad marked the beginning of the UNC's system-wide efforts at toward making its constituent institutions safer for students, faculty and staff.

Since 2004, three UNC presidents, including President Broad, have initiated reviews of safety and security policies, procedures and practices across the University of North Carolina's 17 constituent institutions. These leaders recognized early on that a multi-disciplinary approach to address the complex issue of campus safety was required. Therefore, each effort employed multi-disciplinary teams comprised of individuals whose knowledge and experience included campus law enforcement, student affairs, residence life, mental health counseling, human resources, admissions, and legal counsel. The task forces reviewed evidence-based best practices that could be adopted or adapted on UNC campuses; sought opportunities for campuses to collaborate and share resources; and identified needs related to policy, personnel and equipment (Task Force Report, 2014).

The purpose of this study was to examine the work of campus safety task forces that were created by the University of North Carolina System to assess the impact that changes made to crisis management policies and practices recommended by the Task Forces had on campus safety and crisis leadership. The overarching question, which guided the research was: What changes were made to policies, practices and procedures that are in place at the University of North Carolina System campuses to improve campus safety and foster a non-violent environment based on lessons learned from the UNC System's campus safety efforts initiated since 2004?

UNC's focus on safety and security produced 83 recommendations, most of which have been implemented at the system level and on the campuses. These efforts were "intended, first and foremost, to help protect students from harm" (UNC Campus Security Initiative Report, p. 3) led to the development of the Suspension and Expulsion Database and training programs that help admissions personnel determine whether applicants pose a threat the campus community. The work led President Bowles to create a position at UNC General Administration that has the responsibility for coordinating campus safety and emergency management efforts system-wide. The associate vice president for campus safety and emergency management also serves as a liaison between local, state and federal agencies for emergency planning and response. The Campus Security Initiative task force recommendation a group of priority recommendations and the Board of Governors approved a \$30 Campus Security Fee that provided partial funding to implement the priority recommendations and continued funding for other safety and security related recommendations. When interviewed about the recommendations of the UNC Campus Security Initiative, Gina Maisto, a nationally recognized expert of campus safety, said:

This initiative reflects a holistic approach to campus safety weaving together the many challenges and issues that impact students and communities. At every level, the initiative

maps out responses, that are compliant with the law, consistent with the University's educational values and informed by the dynamics of interpersonal and sexual violence and their impact on individuals and communities.

UNC's continuous attention to campus safety ensured that the threats (gun violence, sexual assaults and interpersonal violence) its campus leaders responded that most concern them are addressed in their safety planning and implementation. Consistent with the literature, the review task forces found that adequate resources for qualified personnel, training and technology are critical to an institution's ability to implement campus safety efforts. The task forces' recommendations reflect this finding and the Board of Governors Approved a Campus Security fee to provide needed funding to implement safety recommendation and support for safety and security is included in the University's annual legislative budget request.

Presidential/CEO leadership at the system and campus level is essential to effective implementation of campus safety efforts and crisis management. The participants in this study remarked that the UNC Presidents and their own chancellors made campus safety a priority system-wide and a priority on campuses. Their comments are consistent with Bataille's (2012) assertion that presidential leadership is tested in times of crisis. The UNC Presidents responded to their respective crises in a manner that allowed for campus communities to heal and employed an approached that helped to make campuses safer according to senior leaders.

Implications for Future Research

This study provides much needed data on the impact that the UNC system's task force work and the implementation of their recommendations in terms of policy, practice, and procedure have had toward making campuses safer. Based on these findings, there are several implications for future research. First, many of the participants expressed frustration because it is difficult to evaluate the success of campus safety measures particularly the ones that are more preventative.

Developing further understanding about ways to assess the preventative impact of safety efforts is important. Further, evaluating whether campus student conduct processes should continue to handle sexual assault cases is important because of their growing complexity and resources needed to adjudicate these matters appropriately. Third, future research on new technologies that could help to improve safety and security on campus would benefit institutions. Campuses email, text messaging, and social media, which is costly, for emergency notification. Is there technology that is more effective that would also allow institutions to manage costs more effectively?

Higher education leaders are encouraged to continue to make campus safety a priority at their institutions. The model provided by the University of North Carolina shows that sustained efforts by interdisciplinary teams focused on issues related to campus safety can have a positive effect on policy, practice, training and resource allocations needed to implement strategies that will make campuses safer. Opportunities exist for future research on improving the effectiveness of these teams, especially related to a better use of data analytics might help them to be more proactive in meeting emerging needs and demands for safe and secure campus communities. The results of this study show that expectations should be set by, and outcomes monitored by, presidents/CEOs and boards to ensure that appropriate safety and security measures are implemented.

Implications for Future Practice

Although this study is an examination of one higher education system, the approach that the University of North Carolina has taken to address campus safety, over time, provides a model for higher education. The overall findings suggest that multi-disciplinary teams, comprised of individuals with knowledge and experience in campus safety and security, and emergency response are needed to address the issue of safety. The findings also show that collaboration system-wide,

on campus and with local, state, and federal agencies are critical to preparation, response, and recovery from crisis. No higher education institution has all of the expertise and resources needed to manage the array of crises that could occur on its campus. As new threats emerge and policy and practice change, safety education and training for students, faculty, and staff will continue to be a need. Manuals need to be developed to assist universities and the colleges on how to develop policies, programs, reporting procedures, compliance protocol, and best practices relating to safety concerns. Training must be in place for all employees of the campuses to assist with the change in culture of the College, as well as on how to accurately take the report, help end the situation promptly, refer to the appropriate services, and to have the knowledge of how to handle the safety related situations (Wooten & Mitchell, 2016).

Finally, Presidents/CEO of higher education institutions must develop the mindset for “thinking about the unthinkable” (James & Wooten, p. 62, 2011). As the landscape of higher education has changed with the rise of rapid communication, more state and federal regulations, and societal problems making their way on campuses, the role of the president has become more complex. Institutions and their boards of trustees expect presidents to not only show strong leadership in good times, but also provide steady, confident leadership in times of crisis. The findings of this study provide examples of how leadership responded well to crisis situations and led campuses in the most important aspect of crisis management preparation.

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**Appendix A:
Administrator Consent Email**

To: [Email]

From: katkins@desu.edu

Subject: Campus Safety Study

Body: Dear Colleague,

Principal Investigator: Kemal M. Atkins, Ed.D(c), Doctoral Student,
Delaware State University

Faculty Supervisor/Mentor: Dr. N.K. Rathee, Department of Education,
Delaware State University

I am Kemal Atkins, a doctoral student working towards a doctoral degree in educational leadership at Delaware State University. You are invited to take part in a research study of Campus Safety.

We are eager to learn more about the impact of UNC Campus Safety Task Force recommendations on campus safety and crisis leadership in the University of North Carolina System and its constituent institutions. You are being asked to participate in this research because you were a member of the 2004 or 2007 task forces or have some responsibility for safety at your institution fitting the description of the area needed for this research. Your input and perspectives will be invaluable to my study.

Should you decide to participate, we will request that you participate in a one-on-one interview with the researcher for this study. The interview will occur at a time and location that is convenient for you. The questions that you will be asked will pertain to your experience on the task force and your campus responsibilities related to campus safety. You are not required to answer any question. The interview is expected to last no longer than one hour. Due to the nature of the questions and the manner in which your information will be confidentially maintained, I do not expect there to be any discomforts, inconveniences or other risks.

You will be given a pseudonym and a number. With your consent, interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed. They will be destroyed once the coding is completed. In the publication of results from this study, no identifying information of the individuals participating will be included and all participants will be anonymous.

There is no promise that your participation in this research will directly benefit you. However, it is expected to benefit the limited body of knowledge regarding campus safety and crisis leadership in higher education.

All the information that you provide in this study will be confidential. If we publish the results you will not be identified in any way. We guarantee that confidentiality of all participants will be maintained.

Your decision to participate in this study is voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in the study or withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without prejudice. In the event that you decide not to participate or discontinue your participation, it will not affect your future relations with either Delaware State University or your employer. No individual data will be reported nor will individual school data be reported.

Thank you in advance for participating in this research study by completing the survey. If you have additional questions, please feel free to contact me at (919) 475-7118. In the event that you have questions regarding your rights as a participant in this study, please contact the Delaware State University's Office of Sponsored Programs, (302) 857-6810.

When you sign this document below, your signature indicates that you consenting to participate in this research study and that you have read and understand the information above.

Thank you for your participation!

Sincerely,

Kemal M. Atkins
Doctoral Candidate
Delaware State University
Email: Kemal.atkins@yahoo.com

Signature of Participant _____

Print Name of Participant _____

Appendix B:
Participant Informed Consent Email (Student)

To: [Email]

From: katkins@desu.edu

Subject: Campus Safety Study

Body: Dear Student Leader,

Principal Investigator: Kemal M. Atkins, Ed.D(c), Doctoral Student,
Delaware State University

Faculty Supervisor/Mentor: Dr. N. K. Rathee, Department of Education,
Delaware State University

I am Kemal Atkins, a doctoral student working towards a doctoral degree in educational leadership at Delaware State University. You are invited to take part in a research study of Campus Safety.

We are eager to learn more about the impact of UNC Campus Safety Task Force recommendations on campus safety and crisis leadership in the University of North Carolina System and its constituent institutions. You are being asked to participate in this research because you are a student leader in the UNC Association of Student Governments and have some responsibility for working campus administrators on safety at your institution fitting the description of the area needed for this research. Your input and perspectives will be invaluable to my study.

Should you decide to participate, we will request that you participate in a one-on-one interview with the researcher for this study. The interview will occur at a time and location that is convenient for you. The questions that you will be asked will pertain to your experience on the task force and your campus responsibilities related to campus safety. You are not required to answer any question. The interview is expected to last no longer than one hour. Due to the nature of the questions and the manner in which your information will be confidentially maintained, I do not expect there to be any discomforts, inconveniences or other risks.

You will be given a pseudonym and a number. With your consent, interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed. They will be destroyed once the coding is completed. In the publication of results from this study, no identifying information of the individuals participating will be included and all participants will be anonymous.

There is no promise that your participation in this research will directly benefit you. However, it is expected to benefit the limited body of knowledge regarding campus safety and crisis leadership in higher education.

All the information that you provide in this study will be confidential. If we publish the results you will not be identified in any way. We guarantee that confidentiality of all participants will be maintained.

Your decision to participate in this study is voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in the study or withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without prejudice. In the event that you decide not to participate or discontinue your participation, it will not affect your future relations with either Delaware State University or your employer. No individual data will be reported nor will individual school data be reported.

Thank you in advance for participating in this research study by completing the survey. If you have additional questions, please feel free to contact me at (919) 475-7118. In the event that you have questions regarding your rights as a participant in this study, please contact the Delaware State University's Office of Sponsored Programs, (302) 857-6810.

When you sign this document below, your signature indicates that you consenting to participate in this research study and that you have read and understand the information above.

Thank you for your participation!

Sincerely,

Kemal M. Atkins
Doctoral Candidate
Delaware State University
Email: Kemal.atkins@yahoo.com

Signature of Participant _____

Print Name of Participant _____

Appendix C: Interview Protocol

The researcher is conducting interviews with senior administrators who possess at least five years of experience in higher education administration. The administrators were also selected because they have some responsibility for safety and security at their respective institutions. Additionally, the researcher is conducting a focus group with student leaders who represent UNC System institutions as members of the University of North Carolina Association of Student Governments (UNCASG). The organization advocates for students on a wide range of issues related to access to college, affordability and safety. The researcher will use your feedback to assess the impact that the UNC System's campus safety initiatives have had on campus violence and crisis leadership.

1. Assigned pseudonym: _____
2. Assigned number: _____
3. Age: ____18-24 ____25-34 ____35-45 ____46-55 ____56+
4. Gender: ____Male ____Female
5. Race/Ethnicity: ____African American ____American Indian ____Asian ____Hispanic (non-white) ____White
6. For administrators-Title: _____
7. For administrators-Years of administrative experience: ____
8. For administrators-Have you received training on the Incident Command System (ICS)?
____Yes ____No
9. For administrators-Have you received training on Threat Assessment? ____Yes ____No
10. For administrators-Have you received training on Crisis Communication? ____Yes ____No

**Appendix D:
Campus Administrator Interview Questions
Administrator**

**Campus Safety Interviews Questions
(Campus Administrator)**

The primary (overarching) research question, which guides this study, is:

1. What changes were made to policies, practices and procedures that are in place at the University of North Carolina System campuses to improve campus safety and foster a non-violent environment based on lessons learned from the UNC System's campus safety efforts initiated since 2004?

Secondary research questions are as follows:

RQA: What major threats of violence are higher education leaders most concerned about?

IQA1: Do you think that the UNC campuses are better prepared to handle crises, as a result of the task force work? Why or Why not?

IQA2: What are the most important types of crisis that institutions should prepare for? Why?

IQA3: Are UNC campuses safer than they were in 2004?

RQB: How important are financial resources to supporting campus safety initiatives?

IQB1: What types of resources are needed to support campus safety initiatives?

IQB2: Which of these resources would you consider to be the most important?

RQC: How are recommendations from the task forces implemented?

IQC1: How does your organization determine which task force recommendations are implemented?

IQC2: Who is responsible for implementing safety recommendations in your organization?

IQC3: What are the barriers to your organizations ability to implement safety recommendations?

RQD: What is the relationship between leadership role(s) and crisis management?

IQC1: Discuss your role and experience on UNC's 2004 and/or 2007
Campus Safety Task Forces.

IQC2: Discuss your experience with crisis management.

IQC3: What do you think are the top three competencies leaders should possess to
lead in times of crisis?

**Appendix E:
Interview Questions
Students**

**Campus Safety Interviews Questions
(Student)**

The primary (overarching) research question, which guides this study, is:

1. What changes were made to policies, practices and procedures that are in place at the University of North Carolina System campuses to improve campus safety and foster a non-violent environment based on lessons learned from the UNC System's campus safety efforts initiated since 2004?

Secondary research questions are as follows:

RQA: What major threats of violence are higher education leaders most concerned about?

IQA1: Please tell me what you know about the UNC System's campus safety efforts.

IQA2: Do you think that the UNC campuses are better prepared to handle crises, as a result of the task force work? Why or Why not?

IQA3: What are the most important types of crisis that institutions should prepare for?
Why?

IQA4: Are UNC campuses safer than they were in 2004?

RQB: How important are financial resources to supporting campus safety initiatives?

IQB1: What types of resources are needed to support campus safety initiatives?

IQB2: Which of these resources would you consider to be the most important?

RQC: How are recommendations from the task forces implemented?

IQC1: Please name three programs or practices that are intended to make your campus safe that exist on your campus and when they were started.

IQC2: Who is responsible for safety and crisis management on your campus?

IQC3: What are the barriers to your school's ability to implement safety?
recommendations?

IQC4: How do students learn about what to do if or when a crisis occurs on your
campus?

RQD: What is the relationship between leadership role(s) and crisis management?

IQC1: Discuss your role in ensuring and maintaining a safe, non-violent
campus environment.

IQC2: What do you think are the top three competencies leaders should possess
to lead in times of crisis?

Appendix F: Memorandum from President Tom Ross-May 13,



Constituent Universities

Appalachian
State University

East Carolina
University

Elizabeth City
State University

Fayetteville State
University

North Carolina
Agricultural and
Technical State
University

North Carolina
Central University

North Carolina
State University
at Raleigh

University of
North Carolina
at Asheville

University of
North Carolina
at Chapel Hill

University of
North Carolina
at Charlotte

University of
North Carolina
at Greensboro

University of
North Carolina
at Pembroke

University of
North Carolina
at Wilmington

University of
North Carolina
School of the Arts

Western Carolina
University

Winston-Salem
State University

Constituent High School

North Carolina
School of Science
and Mathematics

An Equal Opportunity/
Affirmative Action Employer

Thomas W. Ross
President

May 13, 2015

MEMORANDUM

To: Chancellors

From: Thomas W. Ross

Subject: Implementation of Campus Security Initiative Report and Fee

As you know, the Board of Governors approved the establishment of a \$30 campus security fee at the Board's February 2015 meeting. The Board's approval includes an expectation to use a portion of the fee to increase salaries for commissioned law enforcement officers and emergency telecommunicators at each campus, with the goal of eventually bringing those salaries to established market rates. The Board's approval is also based on an understanding that the remainder of the security fee should be prioritized to defray the costs of implementing the high priority recommendations in the Campus Security Initiative Report (Report). This memorandum provides initial guidance on implementing the recommendations from the report and the fee.

Implementation of the Campus Security Initiative Report Recommendations

I am requiring the chancellors of the constituent institutions and my staff at General Administration to proceed with implementing the recommendations from the UNC Campus Security Initiative. The recommendations are described in detail in the Report. The attached chart of recommendations (Attachment 1) with this memorandum divides the recommendations into three groups: implementation group 1 (Blue); implementation group 2 (Green); and implementation group 3 (Yellow). The recommendations in implementation group 1 should be addressed as the first priority. Some of the recommendations should primarily be implemented by each individual campus, while others will be coordinated through UNC General Administration on a system-wide basis, as is noted on Attachment 1. Each campus should implement recommendations 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 15, 21, and 22 by October 1, 2015, or make substantial progress toward implementation on each of those recommendations. The order and approach to the implementation of these recommendations will vary from campus to campus.

Phase One

Positions

By October 1, 2015, each campus should have the following positions appropriately staffed. Job descriptions with minimum qualifications and skills requirements will be shared with campuses via separate communication.

Campus-Based Positions

- 1) Title IX Coordinator – Consistent with Recommendation 8 in the Report, ensure that you employ and have designated a Title IX coordinator who has the qualifications and capabilities to perform all essential duties and responsibilities of the Title IX coordinator position, consistent with the minimum qualifications and skills requirements established for Title IX coordinators in the UNC system.
- 2) Clery Compliance Officer – Consistent with Recommendation 22 in the Report, establish and fund a Clery compliance officer position at your campus. The position's minimum qualifications must meet the minimum qualifications and skills requirements established for Clery compliance officers in the UNC system.
- 3) Substance Abuse Counselor – Consistent with Recommendation 15 in the Report, ensure that your campus has access to at least one trained, licensed and appropriately qualified substance abuse counselor, or other counselor who can address issues associated with interpersonal violence. Counselors should meet the minimum qualifications and skills requirements established for counselors in the UNC system. If your campus needs assistance partnering with a neighboring campus to accomplish this, UNC General Administration will facilitate this partnering.

Shared Services Positions

- 1) Hearing Officer – Consistent with Recommendation 11 in the Report, ensure that individuals who serve on hearing panels or as hearing officers to adjudicate cases involving allegations of serious offenses, including Title IX-related offenses, have adequate levels of training, knowledge, and experience deciding and adjudicating such that they are qualified to serve in these roles. The campus security fee will support hearing officers in a shared services arrangement that your campus may access as one possible way to meet this requirement.
- 2) Investigator – Consistent with Recommendation 6 in the Report, ensure that reports or complaints involving serious offenses, including sexual misconduct, are investigated only by an investigator that meets the minimum qualifications and skills requirements established for investigators in the UNC system. Those campuses with amounts listed in the "Shared Services Investigators" column of the chart in Attachment 3 will participate in shared services arrangements. UNC General Administration will work in consultation with those campuses to develop shared services arrangements for three investigators and will share more information about those arrangements as details become available.

Nominate Individuals for Campus Security Committee

I will ask chancellors to make campus staff available as needed beginning in summer 2015-to participate in the implementation of the Campus Security Initiative recommendations. As a first step, we will work with chancellors to identify appropriate individuals to serve on the University of North Carolina system-wide Campus Security Committee, which is addressed more fully in Recommendation 3 of the Report and the Campus Security Committee Charter (Attachment 2). The Committee will be representative of the system's 17 constituent institutions and include individuals who have familiarity with various aspects of campus safety and security. The UNC Campus Security Committee members will initially be responsible for collaboration, information sharing, and project work associated with implementing the Campus Security Initiative recommendations system-wide. Beyond its work related to implementation of the Campus Security Initiative's recommendations, the Committee will provide ongoing oversight and advice to the president and other University leadership on good policy practices and possible system-wide improvements related to campus safety and security.

Public Safety Officers' and Telecommunicators' Salaries

By October 1, 2015, campuses should increase salaries for commissioned law enforcement officers and emergency telecommunicators consistent with the information provided below about implementation of the campus security fee.

Phases Two and Three

Additional guidance on implementation of the future phases will follow at a later date.

Implementation of the Campus Security Fee

Below is specific guidance regarding the implementation of the student campus security fee. Please remember that the fee is designed to help campuses offset the cost of implementing the recommendations of the report, but will not cover the full cost of the implementation.

Student Charges

The Board of Governors authorized a system-wide annual fee of \$30 per student to secure recurring funding to implement certain priority recommendations of the report. (See Attachment 3 for additional information.) This fee is to be charged to all students, in all terms and methods, and shall be pro-rated for part-time students. For summer term, the fee should be pro-rated on a per credit hour basis.

System-wide Support

Of the \$30 fee, \$4 (13.3%) is to be allocated to General Administration for system-wide coordination, trainings, and other shared service functions.

Public Safety Officers' and Telecommunicators' Salaries

At a minimum, the amount of funding shown in the "Compensation" column of Attachment 3 shall be used to materially advance the market competitiveness of commissioned law enforcement officer and emergency telecommunicators' salaries. The following guidelines shall apply in implementing these salary improvements:

- The first priority shall be to bring all of the covered employees closer to or at the relevant SHRA (SPA) market rate based on available resources. An exception shall be made for employees who have an active disciplinary or performance issue, in which case, an increase shall only be provided if and when such matter is satisfactorily resolved in the judgement of the employee's supervisory chain and the Campus Chief Human Resources Officer. The salary improvements outlined in this memorandum shall not be considered an individual employee entitlement.
- The applicable market rate shall either be the Office of State Human Resources (OSHR) "standard" rate or the "metropolitan" rate, depending on the particular labor market needs of the campus and whether or not OSHR approval has been obtained for use of the "metropolitan" rate.
- The Campus Police Chief/Public Safety Director and Chief Human Resources Officer shall closely consult and evaluate their specific recruitment and retention experience for the covered job classifications to jointly determine if the OSHR "metropolitan" rate is applicable and appropriate for their campus. Campuses are encouraged to seek permission to use the "metropolitan" rate from OSHR when individual recruitment and retention issues indicate that it is appropriate, but there is not any firm mandate to do so as a result of this initiative.
- No single employee may have in excess of a 10% cumulative salary increase funded by security fee revenue.
- In the event a campus shall have brought all of the covered employees to the relevant market rates, and there is funding from the "Compensation" column unexpended, the Chancellor may seek approval from the President to utilize any surplus funding to create a salary reserve for future market adjustments for the covered positions, or for some other immediate use that directly enhances the recruitment or retention of commissioned law enforcement officers and/or emergency telecommunicators.

Eligible Uses of Remaining Revenue

Campus fee revenue remaining after funding system-wide support and public safety officer and telecommunicators' salary increases shall be spent on campus security measures. The first priority for expenditure of these funds shall be to meet the first priority requirements of the Report (described above). If a campus already has the first priority recommendations in place, funding may support other report recommendations.

Monitoring

We expect to report on the implementation of the fee and fee revenue expenditures to the Board of Governors in the 2015-16 fiscal year. Please ensure that your systems and accounting allow for tracking these expenditures by use.

Questions

We know many of you will have questions about implementation of the Report's recommendations and the student campus security fee. We will be speaking with vice chancellors for student affairs, human resources officers, and others as needed in the weeks to come.

Attachments

cc: Chief Financial Officers
Chief Academic Officers
Chiefs of Staff
Vice Chancellors for Student Affairs
Chief Legal Officers
Chief Human Resource Officers