**U.S. Department of Justice**
National Institute of Justice
*Office of Communication and Research Utilization*

National Institute of Justice / *Issues and Practices*

# Arresting the Demand for Drugs:

## Police and School Partnerships to Prevent Drug Abuse

## About the National Institute of Justice

The National Institute of Justice is a research branch of the U.S. Department of Justice. The Institute's mission is to develop knowledge about crime, its causes and control. Priority is given to policy-relevant research that can yield approaches and information that State and local agencies can use in preventing and reducing crime. The decisions made by criminal justice practitioners and policymakers affect millions of citizens, and crime affects almost all our public institutions and the private sector as well. Targeting resources, assuring their effective allocation, and developing new means of cooperation between the public and private sector are some of the emerging issues in law enforcement and criminal justice that research can help illuminate.

Carrying out the mandate assigned by Congress in the Justice Assistance Act of 1984, the National Institute of Justice:

- Sponsors research and development to improve and strengthen the criminal justice system and related civil justice aspects, with a balanced program of basic and applied research.
- Evaluates the effectiveness of justice improvement programs and identifies programs that promise to be successful if continued or repeated.
- Tests and demonstrates new and improved approaches to strengthen the justice system, and recommends actions that can be taken by Federal, State, and local governments and private organizations and individuals to achieve this goal.
- Disseminates information from research, demonstrations, evaluations, and special programs to Federal, State, and local governments, and serves as an international clearinghouse of justice information.
- Trains criminal justice practitioners in research and evaluation findings, and assists practitioners and researchers through fellowships and special seminars.

The Director of the Institute is appointed by the President of the United States, and upon confirmation by the Senate, serves at the President's pleasure. The Director establishes the research and development objectives of the Institute. The Director has final authority to approve grants, contracts, and cooperative agreements, and maintains responsibility for fiscal operations of the Institute. In establishing its research agenda, the Institute is guided by the priorities of the Attorney General and the needs of the criminal justice field. The Institute actively solicits the views of police, courts, and corrections practitioners as well as the private sector to identify the most critical problems and to plan research that can help resolve them.

**James K. Stewart**
*Director*

U.S. Department of Justice
**National Institute of Justice**
*Office of Communication and Research Utilization*

# Arresting the Demand for Drugs:

## Police and School Partnerships to Prevent Drug Abuse

by

**William DeJong**

**November 1987**

---

*Issues and Practices in Criminal Justice* is a publication of the National Institute of Justice. Designed for the criminal justice professional, each *Issues and Practices* report presents the program options and management issues in a topic area, based on a review of research and evaluation findings, operational experience, and expert opinion in the subject. The intent is to provide criminal justice managers and administrators with the information to make informed choices in planning, implementing and improving programs and practice.

---

Prepared for the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice, by Abt Associates Inc., under contract #OJP-86-C-002. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.

---

The following individuals provided information and assistance in the conduct of this study:

*Advisory Panel*

Ellen F. Chayet, Ph.D.
Program Resources Center
Rutgers School of
Criminal Justice
Newark, New Jersey

Sgt. Gary Gomula
Project SPECDA
New York City Police Department

Ruth Rich, Ed.D.
Los Angeles Unified School District
Los Angeles, California

*Program Monitor*

Carol Petrie
National Institute of Justice
Washington, D.C.



*The Assistant Attorney General, Office of Justice Programs, provides staff support to coordinate the activities of the following program Offices and Bureaus: National Institute of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, Bureau of Justice Assistance, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, and Office for Victims of Crime.*

# Foreword

Despite the best efforts of law enforcement officials, including new and successful law enforcement partnerships and a growing volume of narcotics seizures, despite the dramatic increase in drug-related arrests — the problem of adolescent drug abuse persists.

While recent surveys of American high school students indicate that the percentage of students experimenting with and using drugs and alcohol has leveled off after the frightful increase seen in the 1960's and 1970's, the number of students abusing these substances remains intolerably high. It is the highest level of any industrialized nation in the world, even though rates are escalating in other countries. Just as alarming, the age at which children begin to initiate experimentation continues to fall.

Clearly, the effort to curb the supply of drugs must not end. But until there is a drop in demand, and dope traffickers are unsuccessful in seducing new customers, law enforcement officials will be fighting a war they cannot win.

Why do young people so often experiment with harmful substances? It is not due to ignorance about the possible consequences of drug use. It is a tragic irony that, in the District of Columbia, one of the new "street" names for cocaine is "Len Bias." Sadly, for too many young people, that promising basketball star's death serves not as a warning, but as a challenge.

Many experts agree that the key is peer pressure. Drug and alcohol use among adolescents typically begins in a social setting involving peers, siblings, or other relatives.

What, then, is the answer? Research findings suggest that the emphasis of drug prevention education should be building students' self-esteem, teaching decision-making skills, and, most important, giving them guided practice in resisting peer pressure to use drugs and engage in other negative behaviors.

The projects featured in this monograph, Project SPECDA (School Program to Educate and Control Drug Abuse) in New York City and Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education) in Los Angeles are both designed to accomplish those objectives. These programs place special emphasis on reaching children in their last year of elementary school, giving them the facts and the skills they need to avoid being swept into drugs as they move on to junior high and high school. What makes these two programs unique is the use of full-time, veteran police officers as instructors.

Some police administrators may question whether they can afford to reassign officers from patrol to work in the schools as full-time instructors. In New York and Los Angeles, however, police administrators came to recognize that it was impossible for them to eliminate or even reduce the problem of substance abuse through ever more vigorous law enforcement. A new way had to be found.

The police instructors themselves do not question for a moment the value of what they are doing. After years of being the anonymous, uniformed "enemy," viewed with suspicion in some neighborhoods, it is gratifying and energizing for these officers that the children come to see them as positive role models who want to help them protect their future.

James K. Stewart
Director
National Institute of Justice

# Table of Contents


*Page*

**Foreword** ..... iii

**Chapter 1 Introduction** ..... 1

Project DARE: We Have to Secure a Future for Today's Kids ..... 2
Project SPECDA: Working Together, We Can Prevent Drug Abuse ..... 5
Key Program Elements ..... 7
Overview of the Monograph ..... 10

**Chapter 2 Substance Abuse Prevention Education** ..... 13

Prevalence of Adolescent Substance Use ..... 13
Recent Trends in Prevention Education ..... 14
Project DARE and Project SPECDA: Innovations in Drug Prevention Education ..... 17

**Chapter 3 The Core Curriculum for Elementary School** ..... 21

Factors Influencing the Core Curriculum Structure ..... 21
The Project DARE Curriculum ..... 23
The DARE Lessons ..... 24
1. Practices for Personal Safety ..... 24
2. Drug Use and Misuse ..... 26
3. Consequences ..... 26

4. Resisting Pressure to Use Drugs .....26
5. Resistance Techniques: Ways to Say No .....27
6. Building Self-Esteem .....27
7. Assertiveness: A Response Style .....29
8. Managing Stress Without Taking Drugs .....29
9. Media Influences on Drug Use .....30
10. Decision Making and Risk Taking .....31
11. Alternatives to Drug Abuse .....31
12. Role Modeling .....32
13. Forming A Support System .....32
14. Ways to Deal with Pressure from Gangs .....32
15. Project DARE Summary .....33
16. Taking a Stand .....33
17. DARE Culmination .....33
The Project SPECDA Curriculum .....35
The SPECDA Lessons .....36
1. Introduction .....37
2. Self-Awareness .....37
3. Peer-Pressure .....38
4. Decision-Making .....39
5. Drug Pharmacology .....40
6. Consequences of Drug Abuse .....41
7. Positive Alternatives to Drug Abuse .....42
8. SPECDA Culmination .....43

**Chapter 4 Additional Prevention Education Activities** ....45

School Assemblies .....46
Project SPECDA: One-Day Programs .....46
Drug Awareness Program, Washington, D.C. .....47
Curricula for Other Grades .....48
Project DARE: Curriculum for Kindergarten and Grades 1-4 .....48
Project DARE: Curriculum for Junior High .....51
Presentations to Parents .....54

**Chapter 5 Program Development and Implementation** ...57

Histories of Project DARE and Project SPECDA .....58
Project DARE .....58
Project SPECDA .....60
Major Obstacles to Program Implementation .....61

Concerns About the Cost of Reassigning Officers ....61
Feelings of Distrust Between Police and Schools .....61
Resistance from Members of the Police Force .....62
Resistance from Teachers and Other School Personnel .....64
Competing Program Ideas .....65
Concerns About Additional Program Costs .....66
The Planning and Implementation Process .....67
Statewide Versus Local Implementation .....68
Initiation of the Program .....68
Building a Base of Political Support .....68
Selection of Participating Communities.....70
Preparing a Formal Agreement .....71
Developing the Core Curriculum for Elementary School .....72
Conducting a Pilot Program .....73
Introducing the Program to New Schools .....74
Enlisting Public Support .....76

**Chapter 6 Program Structure and Administration** .....79

Responsibility for Program Administration .....79
Staffing Requirements .....80
Project DARE .....80
Project SPECDA .....84
Virginia's DARE Program .....86
Instructor: Duties, Scheduling and Staff Turnover .....87
Duties and Responsibilities .....87
Scheduling .....88
Staff Turnover .....90
Working with School-Based Counselors .....91
Selection of Instructors .....92
Training for New Instructors .....93
In-Service Training .....96

**Chapter 7 Monitoring Project Performance** .....99

Establishing Routine Recordkeeping .....99
Monitoring the Effectiveness of Instruction .....101
Assessing the Impact of the Program on Students ....104
Surveys and Interviews .....105
School-Based Data .....106

Student Self-Report Questionnaires .....106

**Acknowledgements** .....115

**Appendix A** Project Directors .....117

**Appendix B** A Short-Term Evaluation of Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education) .....121

# List of Figures


*Page*

**Figure 1.1** A Police/School Collaboration to Prevent Drug Abuse Brings Police into the Classroom as Full-Time Instructors ..... 3

**Figure 3.1** Lessons from the Elementary School Core Curriculum For Project DARE ..... 25

**Figure 3.2** Project DARE: Ways to Say No ..... 28

**Figure 3.3** Project DARE Certificate of Achievement ..... 34

**Figure 3.4** Project SPECDA Certificate of Completion ..... 44

**Figure 5.1** The Key Element of a Police/School Drug Prevention Education Program Is the Selection of High-Quality Officers ..... 63

**Figure 5.2** Media Events Can Help Enlist Public Support: Attorney General Edwin Meese Observes a SPECDA Class in New York City ..... 77

**Figure 6.1** Organization Chart: Project DARE/Los Angeles ..... 81

**Figure 6.2** Organization Chart: Project SPECDA/New York City 85

**Figure 6.3** DARE Officers Seek Time with Their Students Outside the Classroom ..... 89

**Figure 7.1** Suggested Items for a Police Instructor Observation Checklist .....101

# Chapter 1

# Introduction

*Police Officer Ronald Cato of New York City's SPECDA unit greets the sixth-grade class at Our Lady of Miracles School with a big grin. Cato is a large man, powerfully built, but the students sense immediately that he is warm, accessible, and that he genuinely cares about what happens to them.*

*The children—a New York mix of black, brown, yellow, and white—are primly dressed in clean school uniforms. The teacher, a middle-aged nun with spectacles, stands in the back, watching approvingly.*

*"How many of you know someone who uses drugs?" Officer Cato asks the class.*

*Several students raise their hand.*

*"And how many of you have been offered drugs?" he continues. He counts the outstretched arms.*

*Out of 25 students, eight—nearly one-third—say that they have already had to make a choice about whether to use drugs.*

*No hint of surprise crosses Officer Cato's face. He pauses a moment and then begins his lesson— wanting to reach these children, hoping to arrest the demand for drugs.*

Law enforcement agencies across the nation spend millions of dollars each year to control the distribution and sale of illicit drugs. By any measure, that effort is paying off. Each year, tons of narcotics are seized. Vast sums

of cash, weapons, boats, and planes are confiscated. Thousands of arrests are made.

Nevertheless, the drug trade continues to flourish.

Drug traffickers face risks. But they also know that, with the demand for drugs so high, there is lots of money to be made. To them, the risks seem worth it.

Thus, for every smuggling route closed, a new avenue is opened. For every arrest made, for every conviction won, a new trafficker eagerly fills the void. For every ton of drugs seized, several more slip through the enforcement net and reach the streets.

Certainly, our efforts to attack the processing, distribution, and sale of illegal drugs must continue. But there is also a need to focus on arresting the demand for drugs. Until there is a drop in demand, law enforcement officials, by their own admission, are fighting a war they cannot possibly win.

The principal way to curb the demand for drugs is education. Recognizing this fact, top police administrators in both Los Angeles and New York initiated collaborations with their respective school departments to develop, implement, and evaluate drug prevention education programs that bring police officers into the classrooms as regular, full-time instructors (see Figure 1.1).

The purpose of this monograph is to introduce these two programs—Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education) in Los Angeles, and Project SPECDA (School Program to Educate and Control Drug Abuse) in New York City—to law enforcement officials, school officials, and others who may want to consider bringing this type of police/school collaboration to their communities.

## Project DARE: We Have to Secure a Future for Today's Kids

*Dear Chief Gates:*

*I like the DARE program because the police are nice to us. The children and I like what they say to us. But the best thing I like is that they are helping us to say NO. That is what I like, because if they would not help us, who would help us to say NO? No one, so I thank you for sending the DARE program to our school.*

*Sincerely,*

*Lori*

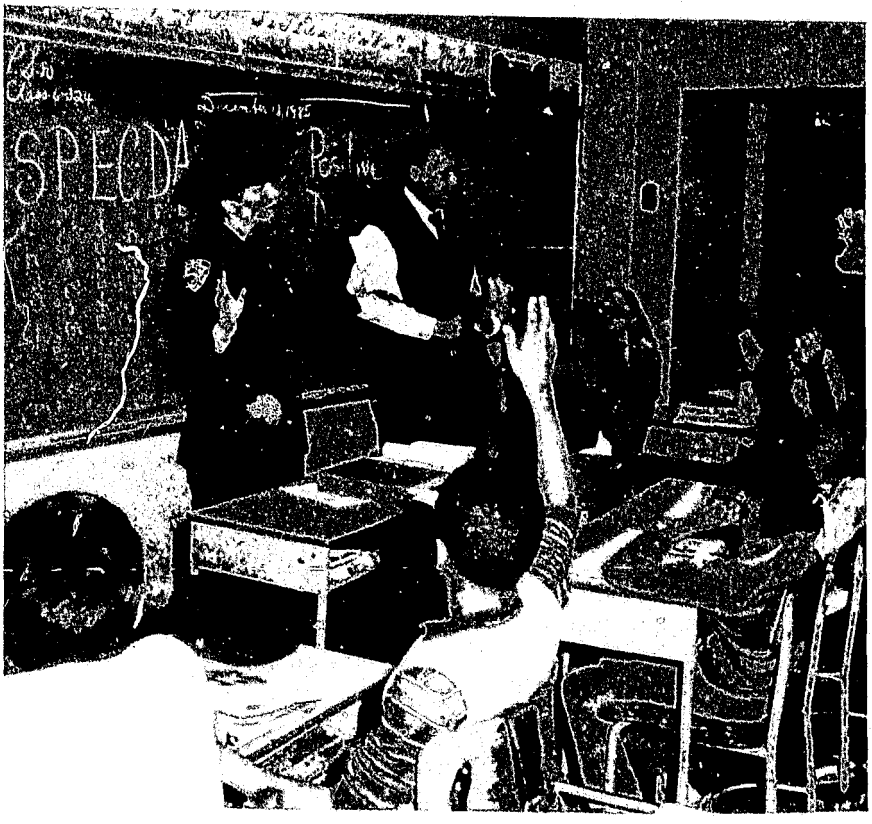
*Dear Chief Gates:*
*The DARE program has come and gone. Yes, we did a lot of fun things with the officers. For example, we played kickball, handball, four-square, and volleyball. Ever since we've had the DARE Team at our school, I feel I can resist taking drugs from anybody. I think it was a good idea to have DARE because in these days a lot of drugs are easily offered. I want to be a policeman and teach DARE to kids, too.*

*Your friend,*

*Robert*

**Figure 1.1**

**A Police/School Collaboration to Prevent Drug Abuse Brings Police Into the Classroom as Full-Time Instructors**



A joint project of the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) and the Los Angeles Unified School District, Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education) is designed to equip fifth-, sixth-, and seventh-grade children with the skills and motivation needed to resist peer pressure to use drugs, alcohol, and tobacco. DARE's instructors are uniformed police officers on full-time duty with the project. All are veteran officers, volunteers, carefully selected by DARE's supervisory staff and then fully trained by experienced officers and specialists from the school district.

Beginning with the 1986-87 school year, a DARE officer is assigned to teach in every elementary school under the LAPD's jurisdiction, offering the 17-session core curriculum to either fifth- or sixth-grade students. A junior-high program for seventh-graders, which includes early intervention with students deemed at risk, is also at full implementation in 58 junior high schools.

In bringing the core curriculum to the elementary schools, DARE officers are assigned to five schools per semester, and they visit each classroom once a week. Beyond this, the officers conduct one-day visits at other schools for an assembly program and follow-up visits in individual classrooms; hold formal training sessions on drug abuse for teachers; and conduct evening parent meetings.

Evaluations conducted on behalf of Project DARE by Evaluation and Training Institute (ETI) in Los Angeles[1] reveal great enthusiasm for the project among principals and teachers and a widespread conviction that it has been successful in making students less accepting of substance use and better prepared to deal with peer pressure. Across all of ETI's evaluations, tests of students' knowledge, attitudes, and self-esteem have shown marked improvement by students who had received DARE.

The most recent ETI evaluation[2] suggests that students receiving the DARE elementary curriculum show greater improvement in grades for work habits and cooperation during their first semester of junior high, compared to non-DARE students. Moreover, evidence from one elementary school showed that, compared to a control group of non-DARE students, the DARE students' academic grades also significantly improved during the semester they received the DARE lessons.

DeJong[3] conducted a short-term evaluation for the National Institute of Justice to assess the impact of Project DARE on the knowledge, attitudes, and behavior of seventh-grade children who received the DARE core curriculum during sixth grade. Compared to a control group, students who had DARE reported significantly lower scores on an overall index of substance use since graduation from sixth grade. These findings were especially strong for boys. (Appendix B presents a summary of this evaluation).

In response to questions in which students were to imagine friends pressuring them to use alcohol or drugs, those who had DARE were significantly less likely to indicate acceptance of the offer made. Refusal strategies used by that group more often included the student saying he or she needed to be somewhere else, walking away, and suggesting an alternative activity—all strategies promoted by the DARE curriculum.

## Project SPECDA: Working Together, We Can Prevent Drug Abuse

*Dear Chief Hill:*

*I am a sixth-grader who has just finished the SPECDA program. I think this program is really wonderful. It tells kids that drugs can harm them even if they take them only once! I also think every school should have it because it really helps!*

*Sincerely,*

*Elizabeth*

*P.S. I will never take drugs! That is how effective this program was!*

---

*Dear Chief Hill:*

*I am writing to you to tell how much I liked SPECDA. The police officers who worked with us were really friendly and understanding. They taught us to really say No to drugs and what drugs could do to us. I really enjoyed the program, and I think we should get SPECDA next year in junior high school. That's really when all the peer pressure starts and we'll need all the support we can get. SPECDA gives us that support. I also think lower grades should get SPECDA because they also need to learn to say No.*

*Yours truly,*

*Bich-nga*

---

Project SPECDA (A School Program to Educate and Control Drug Abuse) in New York City is a collaborative project of the city's Police Department and Board of Education. A 16-session curriculum, with the units split evenly between fifth and sixth grade, imparts basic information about the risks and effects of drug usage, makes students aware of the social pressures that cause drug use, and teaches acceptable methods of resisting peer pressure to experiment with drugs.

Weekly 45-minute classes are taught by SPECDA instructional teams, each comprised of a police officer and a drug counselor employed by the schools. The police instructors are veteran officers who are selected from volunteer applicants and assigned full-time to the program. Special police officer teams also conduct assembly programs for students not receiving the full classroom curriculum, with follow-up discussions in individual classes about drugs and peer pressure.

With strong support from the Mayor's Office, Project SPECDA expanded to 28 of the Board of Education's 32 school districts by the early part of 1987.

SPECDA is a two-track program. Concurrent with the education program is an increased effort by the police department's Narcotics Division to create safe passage to the city's schools by increasing arrests for drug sales and closing so-called "smoke shops" within a two-block radius of the schools. Within the first six months of the program, over 3,500 arrests were made in the vicinity of 310 schools, the majority being in the vicinity of elementary schools. Students themselves have accounted for only a tiny fraction (4%) of those arrested. Nearly four out of every five arrested were over 20 years of age.

A SPECDA pilot program was evaluated in April 1985 by the Criminal Justice Center of the John Jay College of Criminal Justice[4]. The researchers obtained data from classroom observations, interviews, and pre- and post-test questionnaires administered to the SPECDA students. Findings include:

1. SPECDA students showed significant gains in factual knowledge about drugs and the nature and scope of drug abuse. Most important, SPECDA students expressed a greater awareness of the risks of drug use, including one-time or occasional use, and the role that peer pressure plays in drug abuse. A majority of students interviewed attributed this enhanced awareness to their participation in SPECDA.
2. At the conclusion of the pilot program, SPECDA students showed strong positive attitudes toward SPECDA police officers and drug counselors, though not toward police officers in general.
3. On both the pre- and post-test questionnaires, students asserted that they were unlikely to use drugs within the next year. A majority of the students who were interviewed volunteered that SPECDA had strengthened their resolve to become or remain drug free.

While student interviews suggest that resistance to peer pressure was increased by the program, long-term evaluation on this point is still needed. Plans for a longitudinal evaluation of the full project are under development.

## Key Program Elements

*Cigarettes cause cancer, Officer Cato explains to his class of sixth-graders. He draws a picture of cancer on the blackboard—a "Pac-Man"cartoon figure.*

*"Let's call Cancer 'Mr. C'," he declares, "and just like Pac-Man, he eats up the good cells in your body and turns them into bad cells. He just gobbles them up!"*

*Officer Cato crouches down and moves quickly toward a nearby student, rapidly moving his cupped hand in an imitation of Pac-Man.*

*"Gobble, gobble, gobble!" he exclaims in a shrill voice. "Are you going to smoke?"*

*"No!" the boy shouts.*

*"Are you sure? Gobble, gobble, gobble!"*

*"No way!"*

---

While Project DARE and Project SPECDA differ in some respects, what is most striking is their basic similarity in underlying philosophy, goals, specific teaching objectives, and means. Looking at both projects together, these program elements are key:

1. The involvement of uniformed police officers as classroom instructors is the central feature of these programs. The officers are there as instructors and only serve an enforcement role in emergencies.

Police have knowledge of the drug scene and its impact on both individuals and society as a whole that regular classroom teachers cannot match. Indeed, many classroom teachers frankly admit their discomfiture in teaching lessons on drug abuse. For children this age, police hold a mystique. Kids respond to them.

Police officers also serve as role models for the children[5]. Traditionally, police have been involved with school-age children as safety officers, giving presentations on a variety of issues, or as sponsors of special sports programs. But such intermittent contact does not allow a rapport between the students and the officers to be established that allows the officers to emerge as firm,

but caring authority figures whom the children admire and want to emulate. Officers who work as instructors talk about how these programs can show the children, and the teachers, that the police officer is human, a person they can touch, a person who can help them.

Ideally, police instructors should work full-time on the program. In jurisdictions where the small number of schools does not require a full-time instructor, the officer can take on other duties such as community relations. Those other duties should not involve the officer in enforcement activities, which can put the officer's rapport with students and school officials at risk, or can lead to a court appearance during school hours.

The police instructors must be carefully selected and thoroughly trained. Administrators for both projects repeatedly emphasize that this is the most important ingredient of a successful program. Their selected officers are experienced, but relatively young, articulate, and deeply committed to working with young people. These programs cannot succeed if they are used as "dumping grounds" for officers unfit for field work.

Both programs select their officers from among volunteer applicants. Because of the stature of these programs within their respective departments, the number of applicants has always far exceeded the number of available positions.

2. These programs require a high degree of cooperation between the local school district and the local law enforcement agency. The most visible sign of this collaboration is a written agreement that specifies objectives and the agencies' respective roles and responsibilities.

Traditional law enforcement efforts to control the sale and distribution of illicit drugs on school campuses, primarily through periodic "drug busts," have little impact on students' drug use and alienate both students and school personnel from police. An important by-product of this new approach to drug prevention education is an increased trust between the schools and law enforcement officials.

3. While these programs involve a range of prevention-centered activities, the keystone is delivery of a multi-unit curriculum that focuses on presenting factual information, building students' self-esteem, and teaching decision-making skills. Most important, the children are taught several strategies for saying no to drugs and various self-management skills. This core curriculum is targeted for children in "exit grades" who will enter junior high school the next school year.

*Dear Chief Gates:*

*I wish to express my gratitude to you for having placed the DARE program in our school. Although the program's goals are long-term in scope, we already see some results. Our children are gaining an increased awareness of the subtleties employed by drug purveyors, as well as an increased resolve to avoid drugs.*

*Officer McCauley, the officer assigned to us, is an excellent program facilitator. He has maintained a fine rapport with children of all grades. In fact, several cried upon learning that he had been reassigned. Officer McCauley is well-liked by my staff as well. His reassignment is a true loss to us.*

*Sincerely,*

*Barbara Boudreaux*
*Principal, Thirty-Sixth Street Elementary School*
*Los Angeles*

---

*Dear Chief Hill:*

*I want to take this opportunity to thank you and the members of the New York City Police Department. The children in the 5th and 6th grades who participated in SPECDA have felt the impact in a far-reaching and positive way. Each of them has had the opportunity to think about "growing up" in a supportive and caring atmosphere. Issues like peer pressure, the seductiveness of drugs, and the importance of being able to say no to friends when appropriate, have been aired in a calm, reasonable, and appropriate manner.*

*It is a tribute to the police department that they care enough about the devastation of teenage drug abuse to reassign resources and staff to our schools.*

*Sincerely yours,*

*Fred Goldberg*
*Community Superintendent*
*Community School District 10*
*New York City*

## Overview of the Monograph

The purpose of this Issues and Practices monograph is to describe Project DARE and Project SPECDA, which are widely recognized as the two best examples of police/school drug prevention education programs, and to encourage their replication nationwide. This document will be of help primarily to local police chiefs, state police and other law enforcement officials, but it will also be of interest to school personnel and others interested in substance abuse prevention.

The remainder of this monograph is organized into six chapters, which are described below:

**Chapter 2—Substance Abuse Prevention Education.** This chapter describes the underlying philosophy of police/school substance abuse prevention programs and briefly reviews research evidence that affirms that approach.

**Chapter 3—The Core Curriculum for Elementary School.** A strength of both Project DARE and Project SPECDA is the length and scope of their core curriculum for fifth- and sixth-grade students. This chapter reviews curriculum content, teaching strategies employed, and audio-visual materials.

**Chapter 4—Additional Prevention Education Activities.** This chapter reviews the additional education activities developed by DARE and SPECDA, including one-day school assemblies, abbreviated programs, DARE's junior high curriculum, and parent meetings.

**Chapter 5—Program Development and Implementation.** Looking to a replication of DARE by the Virginia State Police, this chapter outlines the steps for implementing a police/school substance abuse prevention program. Specific issues include: (1) police vs. school initiation of the program, (2) building a base of political support, (3) likely sources of resistance and how to overcome them, (4) the use of written formal agreements between school and police departments, (5) developing a core curriculum, (6) planning the scope of the program, and (7) enlisting outside support.

**Chapter 6—Program Structure and Administration.** This chapter focuses on how a police/school substance abuse prevention program can be structured and administered. Most critical is how a police/school collaboration is put into practice. Specific issues include: (1) police vs. school administration of the program, (2) type of core administrative staff needed, (3) staff duties and lines of authority, (4) qualifications for instructors and selection procedures, and (5) pre- and in-service training for instructors.

**Chapter 7—Monitoring Program Performance.** Even if a new project does not undertake a formal evaluation of its impact, there is still a need to collect data to monitor progress and effectiveness. This chapter describes various data collection techniques, including classroom observation, teacher logs, interviews, and self-report questionnaires.

## Endnotes

1. There are three evaluation reports prepared by the Evaluation Training Institute in Los Angeles, authored by G. F. Nyre: (1) *An Evaluation of Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education)* (1984); (2) Final Evaluation Report, 1984-1985: Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education) (1985); and (3) *DARE Evaluation Report 1985-1986: Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education (1986).*
2. *Nyre, DARE Evaluation Report* (1986).
3. W. DeJong, "A Short-Term Evaluation of Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education): Preliminary Indications of Effectiveness," *Journal of Drug Education*, in press.
4. N. Jacobs, D. Gruber, and E. Chayet, *A School Program to Educate and Control Drug Abuse: Pilot Program Evaluation* (New York: Criminal Justice Center, John Jay College of Criminal Justice, 1985).
5. R. Blotner and L. Lilly, "SPECDA: A Comprehensive Approach to the Delivery of Substance Abuse Prevention Services in the New York City School System," *Journal of Drug Education* 16 (1986): 83-89.

# Chapter 2

# Substance Abuse Prevention Education[1]

The problem is a familiar one: during adolescence, many of our nation's young people—despite widespread warnings from parents, the schools, and the media—begin experimentation and use of a variety of harmful or potentially harmful substances, including tobacco, alcohol, and drugs[2].

## Prevalence of Adolescent Substance Use

Just how severe is the problem? Two of the better known studies of adolescent substance use were initiated in the early 1970's:

- the Monitoring the Future Project,[3] which surveys high school seniors; and
- the National Household Survey, [4] which includes a sample of adolescents aged 12 to 17 years.

Both studies monitor trends in the prevalence of drug use by means of repeated surveys conducted at regular time intervals.

Recent results from these studies reveal the continued widespread abuse of a variety of illicit substances by adolescents and young adults. In the most recent Monitoring the Future report,[5] only eight percent of high school seniors in 1985 had never used alcohol, and only 31 percent had never smoked cigarettes. Over two-thirds of these seniors reported use of at least one illicit substance, with over half (54%) having used marijuana. Data from the 1985 National Household Survey [6] showed that, among the national sample of children aged 12 to 17, a sizeable group reported any previous use of alcohol

(56%), tobacco (45%), and marijuana (24%). Reported levels of current use were also alarmingly high: alcohol (32%), cigarettes (16%), and marijuana (12%).

Although the rates of adolescent substance abuse have leveled off since the dramatic increases seen in the 1960's and 1970's, the percentage of young people who experiment with and use drugs remains intolerably high.[7] Sadly, the United States has the highest level of teenage drug use of any industrial nation in the world.[8]

Individual states have also found alarming evidence of the extent of substance use among their young people. For example, in 1984, the Massachusetts Department of Public Health conducted a survey of secondary students to assess the use of drugs and alcohol.[9] The findings: Fully 31% of those surveyed had used one or more illicit drugs in the month prior to the survey; 60% reporting using an illicit drug at least once in their lifetime. Fifty-nine percent reporting using alcohol in the last month, with nearly half of that group of students using it in combination with an illicit drug. Importantly, age of reported first drug use was low, with 28% of respondents reporting first use of an illicit drug at age twelve or younger. A similar study in New York found that 13% of seventh through twelfth graders were "heavy" drinkers, defined as students who drink at least once a week and typically consume 5 to 12 drinks on each occasion of use.[10]

One of the more disturbing trends revealed by such surveys is the decline in the average age of first use of these substances.[11] In a number of studies, substantial numbers of young people have reported initiating use of alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana by the time of junior high school. The Monitoring the Future studies showed that, while 1.1% of 1975's senior class reported substance usage prior to sixth grade, this figure climbed for 1985's senior class to 4.3%, a four-fold increase in 10 years.[12] One chilling fact that makes this finding so alarming is that earlier age of first use is associated with higher levels of usage at later ages.[13] According to a recent poll of *Weekly Reader* magazine, one-fourth of the fourth-graders reported feeling pressured by their peers to try alcohol or marijuana.[14]

## Recent Trends In Prevention Education

The last 15 years have seen a marked change in the direction of substance abuse education. Traditionally, health education focused on providing children with knowledge about positive and negative health behaviors. Educators believed that this knowledge, combined with students' self-interest, would lead to good health practices. Research on such education efforts has suggested, however, that "teaching about the extreme negative

consequences of substance abuse is of marginal value as a preventative strategy."[15] As an example, by the time children are twelve, virtually all believe that smoking is dangerous to health, but many still begin to smoke.[16]

Appeals designed only to present facts, and to instill fear, will not work.[17] Adolescents generally enjoy good health, and the dire consequences described to them will strike many of them as too remote, too distant, too unlikely to take all that seriously. In fact, with experimentation, the emergence of an out-of-control addiction is not certain. With regular use, bad health, even premature death, are more likely, but not absolutely certain. That lack of surety is an opening for denial: "Just once won't hurt." "Doing this one more time won't matter that much." "I can control this." A recovering drug addict may warn high school students that such thinking helped lure him into drugs and eventually brought his own life to ruin. But not everyone hears the message. For some, perhaps for many students, it is too difficult to look into the face of a struggling addict and see any reflection of themselves.

Why do young teenagers so often experiment with harmful substances? A key reason is that good health is not the only value that is important to this group; indeed, it may not even be the most important one. As explained by Coates, Peterson, and Perry, ". . . health-compromising behaviors may be chosen and practiced by adolescents because they symbolize value, independence, rebellion, adulthood, and so on."[18]

And, of course, there is peer pressure. Drug and alcohol use among adolescents typically begins in a social setting that involves peers or relatives.[19] For example, a recently published investigation designed to identify the antecedents of teenage smoking found that the single most important predictor of experimentation with cigarettes was whether a best friend or several friends smoked.[20] Unfortunately, adolescents are often more concerned with their acceptance within a peer group than with the long-term risks of their behavior.

Recognizing the importance of these factors, attention has now turned to the *social pressures* that prompt children to use substances that have negative social and physical consequences. Recent efforts to discourage experimentation and use of drugs, alcohol, and tobacco focus on providing adolescents with social skills training so that they can successfully resist peer pressure. Still, teaching children how to refuse offers of drugs and alcohol is insufficient by itself, as they must also be motivated to apply those skills. To create that impetus, recent curricula also give students accurate information about the immediate and long-term consequences of substance use, build self-esteem, and teach decision-making skills.[21]

A review by Battjes[22] describes the components of these curricula in more detail:

1. **Affective education strategies** are based on correlational studies that have found a relationship between initiation of substance use and self-esteem, attitudes, and personal values. These strategies focus on: (1) promoting children's positive self-esteem; (2) developing successful interpersonal skills, including open communication and self-assertiveness; and (3) improving decision-making skills, by clarifying personal values, analyzing the consequences of substance use in light of those values, and instilling a more deliberate selection of alternative behaviors consistent with those values.
2. **Providing alternative activities** to substance use is a second common approach. Young people are encouraged to participate in community improvement projects, vocational training, organized recreational activities, and extracurricular activities, with the hope of increasing self-esteem, reducing feelings of alienation, and reducing boredom. In classroom-based programs, students are encouraged to identify alternatives to drug and alcohol use and the positive outcomes associated with each.
3. **Social skills training** teaches children how to recognize various forms of influence from peers, parents, and the media, and how to resist pressures to use substances. Such training typically involves behavior modeling, role-playing, and extended practice, and culminates in a public commitment not to use tobacco, alcohol, or drugs.

In actual practice, while certain programs may give greater emphasis to some elements, recently developed efforts tend to combine all three.

Research evidence suggests that such curricula have been effective in preventing smoking among young teenagers.[23] In applauding smoking prevention programs that emphasize social skills training, McCarthy [24] wrote:

> No other generic approach to substance use, including fear appeals, moral suasion, health consequences education, and self-esteem enhancement, has occasioned the 50 percent reduction in onset rates achieved with social skills training programs.

Interestingly, Schinke, et al.[25] demonstrated in a study of sixth-graders that students who receive social skills training along with factual information "not

only had better attitudes toward non-smoking and expressed intentions not to start, but learned more about smoking than students who only received factual material."

These successful anti-smoking curricula have only recently been applied to more general substance abuse prevention education.[26] To date, no such curriculum has been shown—on the basis of a high-quality, long-term evaluation involving an assessment of physical indicators—to have a significant impact on actual drug and alcohol use. Still, while firm conclusions regarding their efficacy cannot be drawn,[27] the well-documented effect of the anti-smoking curricula strongly suggests that these more general curricula will succeed as well. There is hope.

## Project DARE and Project SPECDA: Innovations In Drug Prevention Education

What makes both Project DARE and Project SPECDA especially innovative is the use of veteran police officers as full-time instructors. These officers, because of their "street experience," and because of the respect they typically receive from fifth- and sixth-grade children, can bring a credibility to such instruction unmatched by regular classroom teachers.

Equally important, the officers are good teachers. They are carefully selected, trained by experienced officers and specialists from the school district, and carefully monitored by their supervisors. Because these programs involve police officers in positive, non-punitive roles, students are more likely to develop positive attitudes toward police officers and greater respect for the law.

Of course, however talented they may be, good teachers can only be as effective as the lesson plans from which they work. Both DARE and SPECDA employ core curricula for fifth- and sixth-graders that are at the forefront of recent innovations in substance abuse education. Instructional units include: (1) factual information on alcohol, tobacco, and drugs and the consequences of use; (2) promoting self-awareness and self-esteem; (3) assessment of risks and decision-making skills; (4) media and peer influences that encourage substance use; (5) techniques for resisting peer pressure; and (6) positive alternatives to substance use.

A growing consensus among experts in education and public health holds that substance abuse prevention must begin early, well before children have been led by their peers to experiment with drugs and alcohol.[28] Both DARE and SPECDA introduce their core instruction just at the time when this peer pressure begins to mount.[29]

These core curricula for elementary school are introduced in Chapter 3.

## Endnotes

1. I am indebted to Dr. Marc Posner and Dr. Avron Spiro of Education Development Center, Inc., for preparing the literature review on which this chapter is based.
2. R. H. Coombs, F. I. Fawzy, and B. E. Gerber, "Patterns of Cigarette, Alcohol, and Other Drug Use Among Children and Adolescents: A Longitudinal Study," *International Journal of the Addictions* 21 (1986): 897-913.
3. L. D. Johnston, P. M. O'Malley, and J. G. Bachman, *Drugs and American High School Students*, 1975-1983 (Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse, 1984). Also, L. D. Johnston, P. M. O'Malley, and J. G. Bachman, *Drug Use Among American High School Students, College Students, and Other Young Adults: National Trends Through 1985* (Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse, 1986).
4. J. D. Miller, et al., *National Survey on Drug Abuse: Main Findings, 1982* (Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse, 1983). Also, National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA), *Highlights of the 1985 National Household Survey on Drug Abuse* (Rockville, MD: NIDA, 1986).
5. Johnston, et al., *Drug Use* (1986).
6. NIDA, *Highlights* (1986).
7. D. B. Kandel, "Drug and Drinking Behavior Among Youth," *Annual Review of Sociology* 6 (1980): 235-285. Also, N. J. Kozel and E. H. Adams, "Epidemiology of Drug Abuse: An Overview," *Science* 234 (1986): 970-974.
8. Johnston, et al., *Drugs and American High School Students* (1984). Also, Johnston, et al., *Drug Use* (1986).
9. Massachusetts Department of Public Health (MDPH), Division of Drug Rehabilitation, *A Report to the Governor's Anti-Crime Council on Massachusetts High School Student Drug and Alcohol Use* (Boston: MDPH, 1984).
10. G. M. Barnes, *Alcohol Use Among Secondary School Students in New York State* (Buffalo: Research Institute on Alcoholism, Division of Alcoholism and Alcohol Use, 1984).
11. J. Green, "Overview of Adolescent Drug Use," in G. Beschner and A. S. Friedman (eds.), *Youth Drug Abuse: Problems, Issues, and Treatment* (Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1979): 17-44. Also, Miller, et al., *National Survey*(1983).
12. Johnston, et al., *Drug Use* (1986).

13. D. B. Kandel, "Convergence in Prospective Longitudinal Studies of Drug Use in Normal Populations," in D. B. Kandel (ed.), *Longitudinal Research on Drug Use: Empirical Findings and Methodological Issues* (New York: Halstead Press, 1978): 3-38. Also, J. D. Hawkins, D. M. Lishner, and R. F. Catalano, "Childhood Predictors and the Prevention of Adolescent Substance Abuse," in C. L. Jones and R. J. Battjes (eds.), *Etiology of Drug Abuse: Implications for Prevention* (Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse, 1985): 75-126.

14. "Drug Education Gets an F," *U.S. News and World Report* (October 13, 1986): 63-64.

15. G. J. Botvin and T. A. Wills, "Personal and Social Skills Training: Cognitive-Behavioral Approaches to Substance Abuse Prevention," in National Cancer Institute (NCI), *Prevention Research: Deterring Drug Abuse among Children and Adolescents* (Washington, D.C.: NCI, 1984). See also M. S. Goodstadt, "Impact and Roles of Drug Information in Drug Education," *Journal of Drug Education* 5 (1975): 223-233; and E. Schaps, et al., "Primary Prevention Research: A Preliminary Review of Program Outcome Studies," *International Journal of the Addictions* 15 (1980): 657-676.

16. R. I. Evans, et al., "Deterring the Onset of Smoking in Children: Knowledge of Immediate Physiological Effects and Coping with Peer Pressure, Media Pressure, and Parent Modeling," *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 5 (1978): 150-156.

17. J. M. Polich, P. L. Ellickson, P. Reuter, and J. P. Kahan, *Strategies for Controlling Adolescent Drug Use* (Santa Monica, CA: Rand, 1984).

18. T. J. Coates, A. C. Peterson, and C. Perry, "Crossing the Barriers," in T. J. Coates, A. C. Peterson, and C. Perry (eds.), *Promoting Adolescent Health: A Dialog on Research and Practice* (New York: Academic Press, 1982): 1-21.

19. Polich, et al., *Strategies* (1984).

20. M. B. Mittelmark, et al., "Predicting Experimentation with Cigarettes: The Childhood Antecedents of Smoking Study (CASS)," *American Journal of Public Health* 77 (1987): 206-208.

21. R. I. Evans, "Behavioral Medicine: A New Applied Challenge to Social Psychologists," in L. Bickman (ed.), *Applied Social Psychology Annual*, Vol. 1 (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1980).

22. A. J. Battjes, "Prevention of Adolescent Drug Use," *International Journal of the Addictions* 20 (1985): 1113-1141.

23. R. A. Arkin, et al., "The Minnesota Smoking Prevention Program," *Journal of School Health* 51 (1981): 611-616. Also, G. J. Botvin, "Prevention of Adolescent Substance Abuse Through the Development of Personal and Social Competence," in T. J. Glynn, C. G. Leukefeld, and J. P. Ludford (eds.), *Preventing Adolescent Drug Abuse: Intervention Strategies* (Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse, 1983): 115-140; P. D. Hurd, et al., "Preventing cigarette smoking in seventh grade students," *Journal of Behavioral Medicine* 3 (1980): 10-19; J. Moskowitz, "Preventing Adolescent Substance Abuse Through Drug Education," in T. J. Glynn, et al. (eds.), *Preventing Adolescent Drug Abuse* (1983): 233-249; and S. P. Schinke, et al., "Skills Methods to Prevent Smoking," *Health Education Quarterly* 13 (1986): 23-27.

24. W. J. McCarthy, "The Cognitive Developmental Model and Other Alternatives to the Social Deficit Model of Smoking Onset," in C. S. Bell and A. J. Battjes (eds.), *Prevention Research: Deterring Drug Abuse Among Children and Adolescents* (Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse, 1985): 153-169.

25. Schinke, et al., "Skills Methods" (1986).

26. Battjes, "Prevention" (1985).

27. R. L. Bangert-Drowns, "Meta-Analysis of Research on Alcohol and Drug Education" (Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., August 22-26, 1986).

28. Evans, "Behavioral Medicine" (1980). Also, Polich, et al., *Strategies* (1984).

29. D. B. Kandel and J. A. Logan, "Patterns of Drug Use from Adolescence to Young Adulthood: I. Periods of Risk for Initiation, Continued Use, and Discontinuation," *American Journal of Public Health* 74 (1984): 660-665.

# Chapter 3

# The Core Curriculum For Elementary School

The purpose of this chapter is to review the content and the teaching strategies used in the DARE and SPECDA core curricula for elementary school children in the so-called "exit" grades, 5 and 6. In Chapter 4, other facets of these two educational programs are described—abbreviated programs, one-day school assemblies, parent meetings, and DARE's junior high curriculum.

## Factors Influencing the Core Curriculum Structure

The core curricula for Project SPECDA and Project DARE are remarkably similar. Both are designed to accomplish the same objectives. Both are based on the same set of assumptions about the precursors of adolescent substance use. Both employ a wide range of teaching methods that encourage student participation. There are significant differences between them, however, which center on method of delivery.

In New York, each police officer is paired with a school-employed drug counselor to form a SPECDA team. They teach the sessions together, sometimes sharing responsibility for an activity, sometimes taking turns. The reasons for using this team approach, which have little to do with teaching principles, are discussed in Chapter 5. One consequence of this approach is obvious: for the SPECDA program to work, the team members must work well together; they must have compatible teaching styles; they must demand the same level of discipline from students; they must be in sync. Program administrators who monitor the classes report that nearly every SPECDA team succeeds in accomplishing this. Still, the risk of failure is there: coordination takes work.

Using a team approach involving school personnel profoundly affects the structure of the curriculum. In Los Angeles, with only police personnel involved, the curriculum is tightly structured. DARE officers bring their own style to the classes, of course, but across instructors, there is relatively little variation in what children hear and do. With officers accustomed to the police command structure, a tightly organized curriculum is accepted as customary.

In New York, with several of the drug counselors being former classroom teachers, SPECDA staff believe that a stringently defined curriculum would not work. The SPECDA curriculum guide therefore presents optional activities for achieving each lesson's objectives. It is up to each team to select which activities to use, how they will divide responsibility for those activities between them, and whether they will customize their lesson plan for any classes that present unusual challenges. If the team devises another activity that can meet the same objective, that is acceptable and even encouraged.

Each approach has its advantages and disadvantages. Not surprisingly, because New York officers shape the lessons they teach, SPECDA administrators express little concern about teacher "burn out" and expect their instructors to serve for a number of years. In Los Angeles, eventual "burn out" is accepted as a fact; by design, DARE officers leave the program after two or three years.

On the other hand, with strict supervision and the use of veteran teachers as mentors to help new instructors, the DARE administrators can be more confident that every student is receiving the very best instruction with a proven, standardized curriculum. While SPECDA administrators are rightfully proud of the quality of instruction their program delivers, and point to the careful selection of instructors as the key element in maintaining that quality, they also recognize that giving the teams such flexibility does entail risk.

A second major difference between the DARE and SPECDA programs concerns when the core lessons are taught. DARE presents its 17-session curriculum for one semester, one lesson per week. Students receive all 17 lessons either in fifth or sixth grade, depending on which is the "exit" grade for a particular elementary school. In contrast, SPECDA divides its 16 lessons between fifth and sixth grade. Each year, eight lessons are taught on successive weeks.

The advantage of DARE's approach is that it enables instructors to cover a greater amount of material. The longer period of instruction may also allow deeper friendships between the officer and the students to develop. The advantage of SPECDA's approach is that having lessons in successive

years strongly reinforces the program's key messages. To accomplish that same objective, DARE has developed and implemented a junior high curriculum for seventh grade (see Chapter 4).

## The Project DARE Curriculum

Project DARE's core curriculum for fifth- and sixth-grade students was adapted by Dr. Ruth Rich, a curriculum specialist with the Los Angeles Unified School District, from a curriculum for Project SMART (Self-Management and Resistance Training), a prevention curriculum designed by the Health Behavior Research Institute of the University of Southern California. While there is an abbreviated curriculum for younger children and junior high school students, the heart of the DARE program is this intensive curriculum for fifth- and sixth-grade children.

The central objective of the curriculum is to teach the children various self-management skills and techniques for resisting peer pressure. Several of the DARE lessons focus on building students' self-esteem, stressing that children who feel positively about themselves will be more capable of asserting themselves in the face of peer pressure. Still other sessions emphasize the physical, mental, and social consequences of using alcohol and drugs and identify alternative means of coping with stress, gaining peer acceptance, and having fun.

Through DARE, students learn that real friends will not push them into trying alcohol and drugs and that being grown up means making their own decisions and coping with problems in a positive way. Most important, students learn and practice specific strategies for responding to peers who offer them these substances. In short, they learn how to say no effectively.

The curriculum is organized into 17 classroom sessions, each 45 to 60 minutes, conducted by the police officer, coupled with suggested supplementary activities that can be taught by the regular classroom teacher at other times. A wide range of teaching activities are used—question and answer, group discussion, role play, workbook exercises—all designed to encourage student participation and response.

Several features of the DARE curriculum deserve special mention:

1. Students are given a DARE notebook that includes all of the worksheets and handouts they need for their lessons.

2. The first item in the notebook is a DARE word list (e.g., drug, peer pressure, risk) that provides space for students to write in definitions.

3. An early lesson is on general personal safety, as that is the traditional focus of police officer presentations in the schools. With this lesson, the instructor can ease more gradually into the anti-drug lessons.

4. Each classroom has a Question Box, in which students can anonymously deposit written questions about police work, drugs, or any other relevant topic. During each class, the DARE officer selects two or three to answer.

5. While Project DARE's administrators expect the instructors to follow the curriculum outline, because of their excitement about the program, the DARE officers do introduce various innovations to their teaching. One officer, for example, brings a small stuffed bear to class dressed in a policeman's uniform; the "DARE Bear" is placed on the desk of the student who answers the officer's first question correctly.

6. While participation of the regular classroom teachers is not necessary, in some cases, teachers will take an active role—helping pass out materials, answering students' questions as they complete in-class assignments, and participating in discussions at critical points. The instructor's guide suggests extended activities for the regular classroom teachers to use to introduce DARE concepts into their own lessons and to reinforce the DARE lessons—e.g., making a directory of emergency phone numbers to take home and place next to the telephone. In practice, teachers vary tremendously in their level of participation.

## The DARE Lessons

Before the DARE curriculum itself is begun, the DARE officer visits the class to introduce the DARE program and to get to know the students. After introductions, the students discuss what they think a "drug" is. In conclusion, the DARE officer defines it as "any substance other than food that can affect the way your mind and body work."

Students then take a one-page true-false quiz ("What Do You Know About Drugs?"). Items include: (1) It is dangerous to ride in a car with a driver who has been drinking alcohol. (2) Drug abuse means the wrong use of a drug or medicine. (3) Television commercials about drugs are usually true.

The following brief summaries of each lesson capture the scope of the DARE core curriculum and show the care taken in its preparation. Figure 3.1 provides a list of its 17 lessons.

### *1. Practices for Personal Safety*

This lesson acquaints students with the role of the police officer in the classroom and reviews various safety practices to protect students from harm. By lesson's end, students should be able to explain the need for laws and rules to protect people from harm.

**Figure 3.1**
**Lessons from the Elementary School Core Curriculum for Project DARE**

1. Practices for Personal Safety
2. Drug Use and Misuse
3. Consequences
4. Resisting Pressures to Use Drugs
5. Resistance Techniques: Ways to Say No
6. Building Self-Esteem
7. Assertiveness: A Response Style
8. Managing Stress Without Taking Drugs
9. Media Influences on Drug Use
10. Decision Making and Risk Taking
11. Alternatives to Drug Abuse
12. Role Modeling
13. Forming a Support System
14. Ways to Deal with Pressure from Gangs
15. Project DARE Summary
16. Taking a Stand
17. DARE Culmination

The students talk about the need for laws and list various school rules that help them stay safe. Students then review with the DARE officer a list of rights that children have, which is presented in their notebooks—e.g., the right to be protected from harm, the right to say no to another person when asked to do something they know is wrong, the right to say no to being touched in unacceptable ways. Different types of touching are described to help students differentiate between appropriate and inappropriate touching.

The 911 emergency call number is introduced, and the DARE officer leads students through role-plays that illustrate how to summon help. The students then complete a worksheet, "It's the Law," which focuses on the need to turn to adults for help in certain emergencies (e.g., "A person in a car has asked you to find his dog: Who should you tell?").

### 2. Drug Use and Misuse

This lesson highlights the harmful effects of drugs if they are misused. The film "Drugs and Your Amazing Mind" introduces the positive and negative effects of a number of drugs on the body, why people use drugs, the risks involved, and how to say no. Afterward the officer reviews answers to the true-false quiz completed previously, referring back to the film as appropriate.

The term "consequences" is defined and added to the word list. The class considers the possible consequences of various actions, such as not doing chores at home, cheating on a test, or taking a dare to drink some beer. For the next session, the students are asked to think about the consequences of using or not using drugs.

### 3. Consequences

With this lesson, students learn the many consequences, both positive and negative, of using or choosing not to use drugs.

The DARE officer assigns students to complete a work sheet that requires them to list positive and negative consequences of both using and choosing not to use alcohol and marijuana. The students then report their answers, which the DARE officer lists on the board, using a "+" to indicate positive consequences and a "—" to indicate negative ones.

At the end, the DARE officer notes that most of the negative consequences are listed under use of alcohol and drugs, whereas most of the positive consequences are listed under choosing *not* to use those substances. The officer points out that those who try to pressure others into using drugs emphasize positive consequences, leaving the many negative consequences unstated. An awareness of the negative consequences can help a person say no.

### 4. Resisting Pressure to Use Drugs

A key lesson, this session makes students aware of the different types of peer pressure they may face to take drugs and teaches them to say no to such offers by thinking of the negative consequences of drug use.

The DARE officer introduces four major sources of influence on people's behavior—personal preferences, family expectations, peer expectations, and the mass media. After defining "peer pressure," the DARE officer explains different types of pressure that friends will exert to get others to try alcohol or drugs, ranging from friendly persuasion and teasing to threats (e.g., "You better drink some, or I'm not going to be your friend.")

The students are then asked to complete two exercises, "Saying No to Friendly Pressure" and "Saying No to Teasing Pressure." The first shows a cartoon of two children pressuring a third to drink some beer in a friendly way—"Come on and let's drink some beer!" The second is similar, but the pressure is harsher—"Don't be a chicken. It's only a joint!" In both cases, the students are to write down a way to say no. Before they begin, the DARE officer reminds them that focusing on the negative consequences can help them resist these kinds of pressure.

### 5. *Resistance Techniques: Ways to Say No*

This lesson reinforces the last by having students practice effective ways of responding to peer pressure.

The DARE officer lists several techniques of refusing drugs on the board—simply saying no and repeating it as often as necessary, giving a reason or excuse, changing the subject, walking away or ignoring the person (see Figure 3.2). The DARE officer also emphasizes that children can avoid situations where they might be subjected to pressure and can choose to "hang out" with nonusers. Then, in groups, every student comes before the class and rehearses one of those resistance techniques.

The DARE officer clarifies how certain techniques work better in response to certain types of pressure. For example, in response to heavy pressure, it is best to walk away from and then avoid that person. The "trap" of using long-term health consequences as a reason for choosing not to use alcohol or drugs is explained—the person providing the pressure can retort that using it once will not hurt, and the dialogue will continue. Focusing on short-term consequences more effectively ends discussion (e.g., "I don't like the taste.")

### 6. *Building Self-Esteem*

The central message of this lesson is that self-image results from positive and negative feelings and experiences. Students learn to identify their own positive qualities.

After reviewing the students' completed homework assignment, "Why Some Kids Use Drugs," the DARE officer establishes that poor self-esteem is one of the most important factors associated with drug use. Those with high self-esteem have identified their strengths, accept their limitations, accept responsibility, and think for themselves. When people feel good about themselves, they can exert control over their behavior.

## Figure 3.2
## Project DARE: Ways to Say No

| | |
|---|---|
| Saying "No thanks" | "Would you like a drink?"<br>"No thanks." |
| Giving a reason or excuse | "Would you like a beer?"<br>"No thanks. I don't like the taste." |
| Broken record or saying no as many times as necessary | "Would you like a hit?"<br>"No thanks."<br>"Come on!"<br>"No thanks."<br>"Just try it!"<br>"No thanks." |
| Walking away | "Do you want to try some marijuana?"<br>Say no and walk away while saying it. |
| Changing the subject | "Let's smoke some marijuana."<br>"I hear there's a new video game at the arcade." |
| Avoid the situation | If you know of places where people often use drugs, stay away from those places. If you pass them on the way home, go another way. |
| Cold shoulder | "Do you want a beer?"<br>Just ignore the person. |
| Strength in numbers | Hang around with nonusers, especially where drug use is expected. |

Using the story of "Bill's Balloon," the DARE officer shows that how children feel about themselves—represented by the amount of air in their "self-esteem balloon"—results from positive and negative feelings and experiences. For example, in the story, Bill is teased by a group of boys about not wanting to try smoking after basketball. Bill ignores them. At this point, the officer blows up a balloon to illustrate how this defiance has bolstered Bill's self-esteem.

The DARE officer asserts that students develop self-esteem through compliments from others, recognition, and achievement, but also through realistic self-praise. Giving compliments helps people improve their self-image, but it also makes the person giving the compliment feel better, too. Students

put their names on top of a work sheet entitled "Giving a Compliment," which they then exchange among the class. As each sheet is passed to them, students write a compliment about the person whose name appears on top. When the sheets are eventually returned to their owner, the students write a self-compliment.

### *7. Assertiveness: A Response Style*

Assertiveness is introduced as a technique for refusing offers of drugs.

The DARE officer first asks students to share with the class what happened during the past week to increase their self-esteem and to cite a positive quality about themselves. In summation, the officer emphasizes again that self-esteem enables people to think for themselves without being pressured to do what they believe is wrong.

The DARE officer next asks students to list rights that they have—to be themselves, to say what they think, to say no. With each right is a matching responsibility—to accept differences in others, to allow others to say what they think, to allow others to say no. After defining "assertiveness," the DARE officer stresses that students must assert their rights confidently without also interfering with others' rights. Through role-plays, an assertive response style (good posture, strong voice, eye contact, calm manner) is contrasted with both passive and aggressive styles. The students then list situations that call for an assertive response.

The students work with a partner to develop a skit on being assertive, using one of the situations listed by the class or one they invent. With each performance, the DARE officer checks with the class to see if an assertive response was shown: Did the responder affirm his rights? Did he interfere with the rights of the other person? Did his body language reflect confidence?

In conclusion, the DARE officer emphasizes that assertiveness is appropriate when turning down offers to use drugs.

### *8. Managing Stress Without Taking Drugs*

This lesson is designed to help students recognize stress in their lives and to develop alternatives to taking drugs for its relief.

After defining "stress," the DARE officer describes the "flight or fight" response to danger and the physiological changes that accompany it. Noting that modern-day stressors (e.g., taking a test) do not provide the opportunity either to "flee" or "fight," the officer emphasizes that constructive ways of managing stress must be learned.

With the DARE officer's guidance, the students generate a list of "stressors," both negative and positive. Then, to determine how much stress

they live with, students complete a worksheet entitled, "My Stress Level," which asks them to indicate which of several stressors they have experienced in the past month (e.g., failed to complete an assignment, met someone new).

Working in groups, the students choose two stressors from the class list and devise strategies for preventing those stressors from operating or for relieving stress if they do. These strategies are later shared with the entire class. In summation, the DARE officer notes that there are numerous ways to manage stress, including learning how to relax, exercise, talking out problems with a family member or friend, and so on.

A key focus of the lesson is teaching the students how to use deep breathing to promote relaxation. After giving them an opportunity to practice, the DARE officer leads a discussion about when this technique can be used to relieve stress (e.g., just before taking a test).

As homework, using a worksheet in their DARE notebook, the students are asked to keep a record of stressful events that occur in their lives during the next week.

### *9. Media Influences on Drug Use*

With this lesson, students develop the skills to analyze and resist media influences to use alcohol and drugs.

In introducing the various advertising strategies employed by the mass media to promote certain products (e.g., the "bandwagon approach," snob appeal, testimonials from celebrities), the DARE officer asks the students to generate specific examples from commercials they have seen. The DARE officer then shows the students through example how to see through advertisers' strategies. For example, by showing a product being used by people who are enjoying themselves, the advertiser can suggest that people who use it will indeed have more fun.

Next, the students work in groups to create an anti-alcohol or anti-drug commercial, using the techniques employed by professional advertisers. After allowing time for students to write and practice, the DARE officer calls on each group to perform their commercial before the class.

As homework, the students describe a television commercial or magazine advertisement for alcohol or a drug product, noting which strategies are employed and what perceptions of the product the advertisers want to promote.

### 10. Decision Making and Risk Taking

The objective of this lesson is to teach students to apply decision-making skills in evaluating the results of various kinds of risk-taking behavior, including drug use.

After the class generates a list of risk-taking behaviors, the DARE instructor points out that there are a variety of everyday risks that people take. Some risks are reasonable to take (e.g., trying out for a part in a play, trying to make a new friend). Others can result in harm to themselves or others (e.g., swallowing an unknown substance, riding with a drunk driver).

Any assumption of risk involves a choice. The choices we make are influenced by several factors, including family, friends, the mass media, and, most important, personal values. On a worksheet, "The Choices You Make," students indicate which of these factors would be the most important influence in a number of decisions they might make (e.g., whether to lie or tell the truth, what to do when school is out).

The key to intelligent decision-making is to think through the likely outcomes of various alternative actions. The DARE officer lists steps to follow when faced with a choice involving risk—identifying the range of available choices, assessing the positive and negative results of each option, determining the best alternative, and seeking consultation from others prior to making the final choice. To practice decision-making skills, the students work through a role-play and several written exercises, some involving hypothetical offers of alcohol or drugs from friends.

### 11. Alternatives to Drug Abuse

With this lesson, students find out about rewarding activities that are appropriate alternatives to taking drugs.

After asking students to recall from an earlier lesson why young people use drugs (e.g., to relieve boredom, to gain peer acceptance), the DARE officer contends that these reflect various needs that all young people have, and that all of them can be met in other, healthier ways, such as playing games or exercising. The officer points out that sports and physical fitness activities have several beneficial effects, including providing opportunities for enjoyment and achievement.

The students complete a worksheet, "What I Like to Do," that asks them to generate a list of activities they enjoy, their favorite game, their favorite way to have fun alone, and so on. At the end, students are asked to explain why these activities are better than taking drugs. Another worksheet, "Name the Game," is a word puzzle involving the names of various sports and games; in solving it, students spell out a hidden message: "Say no to drugs."

### 12. Role Modeling

Older students who are school leaders and have resisted peer pressure to use drugs are brought to the classroom as role models. In their discussion with the class, these students talk about why they choose not to use drugs or alcohol. The class also asks questions that they prepared in advance. The fact that the majority of students do not use drugs is reiterated.

### 13. Forming a Support System

This lesson is intended to show that a support system emerges through having positive relationships with many different people.

The DARE officer poses two questions to introduce the concept of a "support system": Why do people need other people? What do other people do for us? The officer notes that everyone has needs that can only be met through positive relationships with others, such as needs for recognition, acceptance, and affection.

The students next complete a worksheet, "Choosing Friends," which requires them to indicate which personal qualities they look for when choosing friends (e.g., people who are honest with me, people who won't get me into trouble). When finished, the students share their responses and discuss barriers to friendship and how to overcome them.

The officer points out that the students already belong to two support groups—their family and this class. Building from that discussion, the officer draws a diagram of his "support system," with one circle representing the officer and several surrounding circles representing other groups, such as family, colleagues on the police force, and so on. As homework, the students complete a diagram of their own support system.

### 14. Ways to Deal with Pressure from Gangs

With this lesson, students learn about the kinds of pressure they may encounter from gang members and how to evaluate the choices available to them.

To begin, the students name the social activities they enjoy and the people with whom they share them. Their relationships with these people help them satisfy needs for recognition, acceptance, and affection. The DARE officer observes that young people join gangs to meet these same needs, though a gang obviously differs from a school club, sports team, or church group. The consequences of gang activity include certain areas, such as parks, being declared off-limits, graffiti, fights, and robberies.

Gangs use strong-arm tactics to get what they want, including new members. How can the students cope with bullying or intimidation? They

can avoid places where gang members "hang out." They can leave money and other valuables at home. They can make sure they are busy with constructive activities that meet their needs for friendship and love. Also, they can talk to their parents, teachers, clergymen, and the DARE officer. As a class, the students read several vignettes involving bullying behavior by gang members and discuss the choices they have and their consequences.

In conclusion, the DARE officer stresses that, although gangs are a part of the community, the students do not have to join one or approve of what they do.

### *15. Project DARE Summary*

In this session, the students summarize and assess what they have learned from participating in Project DARE.

With the class divided into competing teams, the officer reads a series of questions about Project DARE, giving each team its turn to earn points for correct responses. The team scores are computed, and the winning team is announced. Then, working individually, the students complete the same true-false quiz as before ("What Do You Know About Drugs?"), and the officer again reviews the correct answers. On the reverse side of that worksheet, students write down the three most important things they learned from Project DARE, what they liked best about the classes, and what they liked least.

### *16. Taking a Stand*

As homework, students have completed a worksheet, "Taking a Stand," which asks them to articulate how they will (1) keep their body healthy, (2) control their feelings when angry or under stress, (3) decide whether to take a risk, (4) respond when a friend pressures them to use alcohol or drugs, and (5) respond when they see people on television using alcohol or drugs. When completed, this document represents each student's "DARE Pledge." Every student reads his or her pledge to the class. The student whose pledge is voted the best must be prepared to read it at an assembly the following week.

### *17. DARE Culmination*

In a school-wide assembly, planned in concert with school administrators, the winning "DARE Pledge" from each class is read by its author. Each student who completed the DARE curriculum receives a certificate of achievement signed by the Chief of Police and the Superintendent of Schools (see Figure 3.3).

Los Angeles Police Department
and
The Los Angeles Unified School District

# Certificate of Achievement

May it be known that

_____
(NAME)

has completed curriculum in
Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE) and has made a personal commitment to avoid the pressures to begin using drugs.

HARRY HANDLER
Superintendent of Schools
Los Angeles Unified School District

DRUG ABUSE RESISTANCE EDUCATION
DARE

DARYL F. GATES
Chief of Police
Los Angeles Police Department

Figure 3.3
Project DARE Certificate of Achievement

## The Project SPECDA Curriculum

Project SPECDA's core curriculum has 16 lessons, divided evenly between fifth and sixth grade. For both grades, the curriculum follows the same general outline:

Session 1: Introduction
Session 2: Self-Awareness
Session 3: Peer Pressure
Session 4: Decision-Making
Session 5: Pharmacology
Session 6: Consequences of Drug Abuse
Session 7: Positive Alternatives to Drug Abuse
Session 8: Culmination

To the extent possible, program administrators assign an officer to the same school every year to provide continuity.

Each lesson offers a "menu" of related activities from which the SPECDA team can choose, depending on students' ability level, interests, and reactions to earlier sessions. It is up to the police officer/drug counselor teams to select activities and to decide how to present the lesson, who will take the lead for each part, and so on. For example, in the first lesson for Grade 5, the activity "Try on a Police Officer's Badge" is structured as a written homework exercise. One team adapted it to create a role-play, with a student selected to play the part of a police officer and allowed to wear the SPECDA officer's hat and badge.

Every unit of instruction described in the curriculum guide includes the following:

- Aims for the lesson: Aims are stated as questions that students will be able to answer after the lesson.
- Performance objectives: The objectives are stated as specific actions that students will be able to perform.
- Materials: Equipment, visual aids, activity sheets, handouts, and other needed supplies are listed.
- Vocabulary: Key words to be introduced in the lesson are listed.
- Development: The first activity is designed to introduce students to the theme of the lesson in a challenging and involving way.

- Conclusion: The final set of activities is designed to bring closure to the lesson by reinforcing what students have learned.

Additional activities can be chosen from a list of options to round out the lesson or can be assigned as homework.

Each SPECDA student is given a special folder in which to store worksheets and handouts. With many SPECDA lessons, students receive a pamphlet (e.g., "What You Should Know About Self-Esteem," "About Cocaine") purchased from Channing L. Bete Co., Inc., in South Deerfield, Massachusetts, as part of its Scriptographic Booklet series. SPECDA chose these pamphlets because, in their view, they are easy-to-read, provide accurate information, and use "non-ethnic" cartoon characters in the illustrations. There is room on the front and back cover for a program insignia or logo to be added.

The SPECDA teams are encouraged to help students form a SPECDA chapter at their school. The students are to elect officers and decide on special activities, which can include visits to police precincts, developing an anti-drug poster campaign, sports activities, dances, and so on. For a chapter to be formed, there must be an adult (a drug counselor or teacher) to lead it.

## The SPECDA Lessons

An important feature of the SPECDA curriculum is the so-called "pre-session" lesson taught by the regular classroom teacher to prepare students for meeting the SPECDA team. With this lesson, they learn that drug abuse is a major problem in American society, that it presents a serious danger to young people, and that there are programs, such as SPECDA, to help combat it. A discussion of these points is stimulated by a set of sample headlines (e.g., "New Program Offers Help to Teenage Drug Abusers").

The teacher next reads a fictitious letter to an imaginary Action Reporter from "A Worried Parent," which describes how her ten-year-old son took some pills that an older boy offered him. The parent writes, "Jason told me he took the pills because he was afraid to say no. Can't the schools teach our kids about the dangers of drugs?" Imagining themselves as the Action Reporter, the students write responses to this letter and share them with the class. After a discussion of the role that police and drug counselors can play in teaching children about drugs and how to say no, the teacher announces that the SPECDA team will be coming and asks the students, as a homework assignment, to prepare questions they want to ask.

Below is a summary of the SPECDA lessons. Because the eight lessons for both grades 5 and 6 follow the same outline, comparable lessons are described in tandem.

### *1. Introduction*

For both sets of lessons, this first class is a "warm-up." SPECDA's objectives are spelled out, and the SPECDA team and the students become acquainted.

**Grade 5:** The team lists SPECDA's goals and explains the roles of the police officer and the drug counselor, emphasizing that they are not there to make arrests, but to provide information so that students can make informed decisions. Specifically, students will learn the facts about drug abuse and its consequences and how they can identify and resist negative peer pressure. Most importantly, they can make the right decision about drugs by saying no.

Activities from which the team can select include: (1) "Try on a Police Officer's Badge," which asks students how they would respond as police officers to each of five situations. (2) "A Drug Counselor's Job," which asks students to respond as counselors to people's questions. An example: "Yesterday my brother gave me some beer to drink. I didn't like it but he teased me and said I'd get used to it. He was high. How can I handle it?"

At the end of the session, the students are given a letter about the SPECDA programs for their parents to read. They also receive a card that lists the SPECDA Hotline number for their school district, which they can call any time they or any of their friends have questions about drug abuse.

**Grade 6:** The SPECDA team and the purposes of the lessons are introduced. It is emphasized to the students that each one of them can affect others' behavior, by their example and by telling their friends about what they learn from SPECDA. The same set of optional activities is used to help the SPECDA team and the class become better acquainted.

### *2. Self-Awareness*

The primary aim of these lessons is for students to examine their own special qualities, qualities that differentiate them from others, their roles in the home, school, and neighborhood, and their responsibilities.

**Grade 5:** In the opening activity, students write their name on a sheet of paper, circle it, and list their special qualities, each linked to the circle by a line so that the diagram resembles the sun.

Other activities include: (1) having students create their own coat of arms using answers to nine questions (e.g., What makes you happy? What

is your strongest personality trait?); (2) the "Compliment Toss," a game that encourages students to compliment one another; and (3) recitation of the Reverend Jesse Jackson's poem, "I Am Somebody." A final discussion focuses on the importance of developing a "positive attitude."

**Grade 6:** The SPECDA team asks each class member to use one word to describe himself; with each report, the specialness of that student is emphasized. The team explains that one way of understanding their different roles is to examine their relationships with others. Why do they spend more time with some people than others? What are some of the groups to which they belong? What do their parents or caregivers do for them? What responsibilities do the students have in return?

There are several alternative activities from which the instructors may choose:

- "How Do You Feel About Yourself?", is a quiz from a SPECDA pamphlet, "What You Should Know About Self-Esteem." For students whose quiz reveals poor self-esteem, the pamphlet explains what steps they can take to give their self-esteem a boost.
- For the exercise "Me and Somebody Else," students are paired off and talk to each other about themselves. Together, they write down ways in which they are alike and different, and ways in which all people are alike and different. They then report these answers to the class.
- "A Family Contract" asks the students a series of questions about family responsibilities and reciprocal obligations—How does a parent show love and respect for a child? Do children's obligations toward their parents change when the children are teenagers?

### *3. Peer Pressure*

These lessons focus on the ways in which peers influence young people to experiment with tobacco, alcohol, and drugs, and how that type of influence can be resisted.

**Grade 5:** A beginning discussion centers on the students' own experiences with peer pressure and its good and bad effects.

After the students read a small pamphlet, "To Smoke or Not to Smoke," they are divided into small groups, and each is assigned a topic to research: Why do people start to smoke? What are some reasons for not smoking? What are some ways to "kick the habit"? Each group reports its findings to the class.

Alternative activities underscore the difficulty of resisting peer pressure. In one, to be assigned as homework, students interview parents, grandparents, or neighbors about the fads that were current when they were growing up and their own reactions to conformity pressures.

**Grade 6:** Students learn the dynamics of peer pressure and specific techniques for saying no. The initial discussion centers around a series of questions: Why do some kids go along with dangerous fads? Why do we sometimes do things against our own better judgment? The instructors stress that people with high self-esteem are more likely to base their decisions on what they want, not what their peer group wants.

To resist peer pressure, one has to practice saying no. The instructors distribute a handout, "Peer Pressure: It's Okay to Say No," which outlines differing ways to turn down offers of drugs or alcohol.

An alternative activity for this lesson is the "SPECDA Pyramid Game." Students spin a dial to see how many spaces they can advance. The instructions on individual spaces are designed to reinforce SPECDA's key messages: (1) "Someone offers you a cigarette. You don't want it but you try it anyway. Back one space." (2) "You see a drug pusher on the corner. You cross the street to avoid him. Advance one space."

### *4. Decision-Making*

These lessons stress that peer pressure can be resisted by following a logical decision-making process: consider the consequences, get all the necessary information, and think for oneself.

**Grade 5:** The students' initial discussion with the SPECDA team focuses on decision-making: that even doing nothing represents a decision; that to make good decisions, one must think about the consequences of different options; that one can turn to people who are trusted for support and information; and that one should not make decisions simply because of peer pressure.

Alternative activities include:

- Showing the film, "How Do You Tell?", which underscores the need to make decisions based on a careful weighing of the consequences.
- "A Love Story," which asks the students in small discussion groups to consider the motives and actions of three characters in a story about being pressured to use drugs.

- "It's Easier Not to Start," which uses the Surgeon General's warning about cigarettes that appears on print advertisements to initiate a discussion of the dangers of smoking and why young people smoke.

**Grade 6:** The "right" decision for a given person depends completely on what that person values. The SPECDA team points out that anything a person cares about reflects some underlying value (e.g., acceptance from others, good health, self-regard). People make decisions by examining options and choosing the one that best matches their values.

The "right" decision for one person may not be the "right" decision for others. How do people know if a decision is right for them? To know, the students must answer these questions: Do they feel good about their decision? Did they decide because of something they want or because of peer pressure?

Next, after reviewing the handout, "For Kids Only: What You Should Know About Marijuana," the instructors lead a discussion that highlights the negative consequences of marijuana use.

In one alternative activity, students are asked to analyze a decision made by another person, for example:

> Shawna has wanted to go out with Buzzy for a long time and when he asks her to a party she's thrilled. Buzzy offers Shawna a joint and tells her he doesn't go with girls who don't smoke. Shawna doesn't want to smoke but she doesn't want to lose Buzzy, so she takes the joint.

The students describe how the character's feelings influenced the decision and write down what advice they would give that person.

### 5. *Drug Pharmacology*

These lessons aim to acquaint students with common drugs of abuse and their effects on the body and mind.

**Grade 5:** In the opening discussion, the SPECDA team focuses on the difference between prescription medicines and nonprescription drugs. A differentiation is made between drug use, misuse, and abuse. Drug safety rules are developed by the class (e.g., Take medicines only from reliable adults. When taking medication, carefully follow directions. Never buy street drugs.)

Next, a handout, "What Every Kid should Know about Alcohol," is distributed and students search it for the answers to several questions about alcoholism.

Alternative activities include "What Do You Know About Drugs and Alcohol?", which includes a short quiz and discussion questions for the class that highlight drug misuse and abuse. "Drugs in the Media" asks the students, as a homework assignment, to find examples in newspapers and magazines of drug use, misuse, and abuse.

**Grade 6:** An initial discussion focuses on teaching students the difference between legal and illegal drugs, the effects of drugs on the body, and the hazards of drug abuse. Importantly, accurate information on new drugs of abuse (e.g., "crack," or so-called "designer drugs") is emphasized.

Next, students review the pamphlet, "What Everyone Should Know About Drug Abuse," which highlights the physical effects of drugs and the risks in taking them. The lesson concludes with the instructors reviewing with the students the basic rules of drug safety.

One alternative activity focuses on how to read prescription drug labels. In another, the students use the pamphlet on drug abuse to answer research questions (e.g., If illegal drugs are so hazardous, why do people take them?).

### *6. Consequences of Drug Abuse*

These lessons are designed to achieve several objectives. With their completion, students should be able to: (1) examine the forces that induce some people to abuse drugs, (2) list the legal, economic, and social consequences of drug abuse, (3) make informed decisions about drugs, and (4) explain how drug use is related to AIDS.

**Grade 5:** Through discussion, students first define "addiction," talk about why people try drugs (e.g., peer pressure, curiosity, as an escape), and list the many consequences of doing so.

After the handout "What You Should Know about Marijuana" is distributed, the class is divided into relay teams for a contest to see who can first write on the blackboard five immediate risks of smoking marijuana.

Alternative activities include: (1) a class debate on the resolution, "Taking drugs just once can't hurt you"; (2) a role-play of a story about a "down-and-out" drug addict, with subsequent discussion; (3) showing the film, "Wasted: A True Story," about a young person who began abusing substances when only eight years old; and (4) a former drug addict currently in treatment coming to the class as a guest speaker.

**Grade 6:** The SPECDA team notes that there are many seductive reasons for taking drugs. The problem, of course, is that these effects are temporary. Hence, people will take the drugs repeatedly, eventually becoming addicted.

But addiction is not the only risk. Drug users might overdose and die. They might be infected by the AIDS virus if they share needles with an infected person. With misuse or abuse of any drug, their mind and body will deteriorate. They can suffer economically because of the high cost of supplying a habit. They can lose the people they love. The instructors ask rhetorically, "Is taking drugs worth these risks?"

Alternative activities include inviting a speaker from a local rehabilitation program; a quiz on drugs and their effects; and a role-play in which students enact the story of a cocaine-user.

To conclude, the instructors distribute a handout, "About PCP." Students read about why this is an especially dangerous drug and what they can do if they believe someone is having a bad reaction to it.

### *7. Positive Alternatives to Drug Abuse*

With these lessons, students focus on the several alternatives to drug experimentation and abuse that are available to them.

**Grade 5:** In the opening discussion, the SPECDA team asks the students to list the consequences of three risky behaviors (e.g., taking pills without knowing what they are). Alternatives to taking each risk are discussed, especially nonharmful alternatives that could make them feel good about themselves.

After identifying a number of leadership skills, students are asked to think of situations in which they took a leadership role (e.g., giving a friend advice, having the courage to say no to peer pressure, working to achieve a goal). A handout, "How to Develop Your Leadership Skills," is distributed, and students search for two new ideas about ways to be a leader (e.g., setting an example, helping to settle differences).

Several alternative activities are available: (1) having the children list ten activities they enjoy, and where in the community they can do them; (2) having the students write ten different answers to the question "Who am I?", which should include the responsibilities they have and their long-term goals; (3) a discussion of school and community resources available to help people with problems; and (4) a discussion of how to respond to temptation or when one is not sure what to do.

**Grade 6:** The SPECDA instructors again stress that everyone has leadership qualities that can be developed. Everyone is suited to lead in certain situations. Have they ever suggested that their group of friends play a particular game? Then they are leaders. Have they ever stopped a fight? Then they are leaders. Have they ever said no to friends who wanted them to do

something dangerous? Then they are leaders. Everyone has a leader who must be followed before all others: oneself.

The class receives the pamphlet, "About Cocaine," which includes information on "crack." The instructors remind the class that they do not have to take cocaine if it is offered to them. They have a choice to make.

### *8. SPECDA Culmination*

In this last session, for both grades 5 and 6, a student panel is formed to answer questions that students submitted eight weeks before, when the SPECDA lessons first began. Next, the SPECDA team leads the class through a set of review questions.

Students then complete "What I Learned from SPECDA" to evaluate the course. A SPECDA glossary is distributed, and the students write down definitions of key words and concepts that they learned from the lessons.

In conclusion, the class recites Jesse Jackson's poem "I Am Somebody," and a special ceremony is held to distribute SPECDA buttons and awards for exemplary work.

With the end of the sixth-grade program, students completing the SPECDA program receive a certificate of completion signed by the Police Commissioner, the Chancellor of the Board of Education, and the President of the Board of Education (see Figure 3.4).

SCHOOL PROGRAM TO EDUCATE AND CONTROL DRUG ABUSE

# SPECDA

## Certificate of Completion

presented to

_____

IN RECOGNITION OF YOUR SUCCESSFUL COMPLETION OF
THE SCHOOL PROGRAM TO EDUCATE AND CONTROL DRUG ABUSE.

| BENJAMIN WARD | JAMES F. REGAN | NATHAN QUINONES |
|---|---|---|
| Police Commissioner | President | Chancellor |
| City Of New York | Board Of Education | Board Of Education |
| | City Of New York | City Of New York |

_____
Date

Misc. 1-84 (3-85)-3

Figure 3.4
Project SPECDA Certificate of Completion

# Chapter 4

# Additional Prevention Education Activities

Both Project DARE and Project SPECDA have created a full complement of prevention education activities to supplement their core curriculum for fifth- and sixth-graders. In both cases, program developers recognized that the core curriculum alone could not do the job of fighting adolescent drug abuse:

- There is a need for assembly programs at schools that cannot be offered the core curriculum.
- Prior to fifth and sixth grade, students need lessons on drug safety and peer relations that will prepare them for the intensive lessons presented in the "exit" grades.
- In junior high and high school, where the peer pressure to experiment with and use substances is most intense, the prevention lessons of the core curriculum need to be reinforced.
- Parents need instruction, too, not only on the objectives and content of the curriculum, but on how to recognize signs of drug abuse local program resources, and family communication.

This chapter reviews the range of education activities developed by DARE and SPECDA to meet these needs, including one-day school assemblies, abbreviated programs, DARE's junior high curriculum, and parent meetings. The Drug Awareness Program, developed through the U.S. Attorney's Office in Washington, D.C., is also described as a useful model for assembly programs.

## School Assemblies

### *Project SPECDA: One-Day Programs*

It is best for a fledgling project to begin modestly at first, to grow year by year toward full implementation. During this time, however, there will be several requests for an education program from schools not covered by the full curriculum. And even after full implementation in the public schools is achieved, there will be continued demand for assemblies from private and parochial schools.

Of the two programs, Project SPECDA has the more extensive assembly program: there are presently three assembly teams of five officers each, one for each school level (elementary, junior high, and high school). While the project continues to grow, districts not receiving the core curriculum are eligible for presentations at all three school levels. Even when city-wide implementation in the public schools is achieved, assemblies will still be presented to elementary school children in kindergarten through grade 4 and to junior high and high school students.

The assembly teams also give presentations in the city's parochial and private schools. Assemblies for fifth- and sixth-graders at these schools are also given one day a week by individual SPECDA officers who teach the core curriculum in the public schools on other days.

Whatever the grade level, the objective of the SPECDA assembly program is the same: to acquaint students with the problem of drug abuse and to urge resistance to peer pressure. The program begins with a general assembly held in the school auditorium. After a brief introduction to Project SPECDA, a film is shown, followed by a question-and-answer period.

In presentations for grades 4 through 6, a movie often used is "The Wizard of No," which shows a young boy who acquires assertiveness skills through the benevolent intervention of a magical wizard. After describing the link between self-esteem and assertiveness, the film models how to say "no" effectively by suggesting alternative activities.

After the general assembly, each officer has follow-up visits with three to five classes. Time with each class is limited, but the number of topics covered during class discussion is ambitious:

- self-awareness and peer pressure (e.g., identifying one's special qualities, everyone's need to be accepted, the link between self-esteem and being able to resist peer pressure);
- decision-making (e.g., considering the pros and cons in making a decision, the consequences of decisions),

- pharmacology (e.g., legal vs. illegal drugs, the effects of readily available illegal drugs);
- consequences of drug abuse (e.g., why some people abuse drugs, the physical, legal, economic, and social problems that can result from drug abuse, the unreliability of drugs bought from pushers);
- positive alternatives to drug abuse (e.g., identifying enjoyable activities and community resources); and
- community and school resources for people who need help with a drug problem.

At the end of the class, the officers distribute various handouts. For example, for the early elementary grades, there is a SPECDA coloring book. For high school, several handouts produced by the National Institute of Drug Abuse on the dangers of commonly abused drugs (opiates, sedative-hypnotics, hallucinogens and PCP, marijuana, stimulants and cocaine, and inhalants) are passed out.

### *Drug Awareness Program, Washington, D.C.*

The Drug Awareness Program, which was originated by a group of black attorneys at the U.S. Attorney's Office for the District of Columbia, is less ambitious in scope than either Project DARE or Project SPECDA, but it is a good model for how an assembly program can be created and implemented through the hard work of dedicated volunteers. A manual prepared for U.S. Attorneys by the Office of Public Affairs of the U.S. Department of Justice outlines how to prepare for these assemblies and various content alternatives for the presentation.

The District's Drug Awareness Program brings a federal prosecutor to junior high and high schools to conduct assemblies, during which students are given factual information about substance abuse and its effects on the mind and body, peer pressure, and current drug enforcement efforts.

In the main presentation, the federal prosecutor expresses his concern for the students—everyone wants the very best for them and will help them make the right choices for their future. But should they make the wrong choice, the prosecutor continues, then they will have to face the consequences, including the risk of physical harm or death and the risk of criminal prosecution. " We love you," the prosecutor declares, "but we hate drugs."

The students also hear from a variety of selected speakers, which can include narcotics investigators from local law enforcement units, federal narcotics agents, adult "role models" who have resisted peer pressure and remained drug-free, and convicted narcotics dealers.

In addition, former drug addicts from RAP, Inc., present a skit on the dangers of drugs, focusing on one young man's decision to resist falling into the drug culture that surrounds him. The audience is encouraged to ask questions after the performance. Program organizers view this component, involving young adults from the same community as the students, to be essential to the program's credibility and effectiveness.

Other U.S. Attorney's Offices that have replicated this program use a 10-minute videotape made available by the Justice Department that features interviews with several drug addicts who are presently struggling to free themselves of their addictions. These men stress that friends pushed them into trying drugs, but having done so, it is clear that they weren't really "friends" at all. The main message of the videotape is that "playing with drugs is playing with death."

Whenever feasible, the program participants visit individual classrooms after the assembly for additional discussion with students.

In addition to raising students' awareness, the Drug Awareness Program can serve as a catalyst to stimulate other law enforcement officials and concerned citizens to develop longer-term prevention efforts. In this regard, the Justice Department manual stresses (1) the importance of getting press coverage of the school visitations, (2) other vehicles for getting out the anti-drug message (e.g., public service television programs, radio call-in shows, presentations to community service organizations), and (3) follow-up seminars with teachers and parents.

Materials available from the Office of Public Affairs include (1) the "how-to" manual prepared by the U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Public Affairs, (2) a 55-minute videotape prepared by the Office of Public Affairs that instructs prosecutors on how to design and implement the program, (3) the ten-minute videotape for use in the assemblies, which focuses on the five drug-users in rehabilitation, (4) a bowdlerized version of the same tape free of "rough language," and (5) a five-minute videotape that gives an overview of Federal drug enforcement efforts.

## Curricula for Other Grades

### *Project DARE: Curriculum for Kindergarten and Grades 1-4*

As part of its effort to develop a comprehensive Kindergarten-Grade 12 program, Project DARE developed an abbreviated curriculum for grades K-4 that lays the groundwork for the core curriculum in grades 5 or 6. This abbreviated curriculum includes four sessions for kindergarten, four sessions for grades 1 and 2, and five sessions for grades 3 and 4. For grades 1-4, students are issued notebooks containing their worksheets.

The lessons for **kindergarten and grades 1 and 2** include the following:

*1. Being Safe*

Using an overhead projector, the DARE officer shows the kindergarten children several illustrations of safety rules they should know (e.g., watch out for cars or people when you are using the sidewalk, always tell Mom or Dad where you are going to play).

For grades 1 and 2, the DARE officer asks the class to name safety rules at school and at home. Special emphasis is given to explaining the difference between "good" and "bad" touches and how to answer the door or telephone when alone in the house. The students then complete two worksheets on safety rules.

*2. Drug Safety*

For all three grade levels, the DARE officer, using a card display of various substances, calls on students to classify the substances as foods or nonfoods. They then list nonfood items around the house and talk about whether they may be harmful. Students then complete a worksheet that asks them to identify which items are safe to taste and which are harmful.

*3. Learning to Say No*

For all three grade levels, the DARE officer talks about the danger of taking any food or nonfood item from strangers. If a stranger shows too much interest in them, the child should not stop to talk, should say no to whatever the person wants, and should tell their parents what happened.

The officer then reads several imaginary stories that require students to notify someone (e.g., a stranger asks the child to help find his lost dog). Using the worksheet "Tell Someone," the students indicate whom they could notify.

*4. About Feelings*

The DARE officer introduces the idea that everyone has good and bad feelings by asking the students a series of questions about what makes them happy, angry, scared, or sad. Students are called on to act out each of these emotions. The discussion then shifts to focus on what they can do to make themselves feel better when they are sad (e.g., telling a parent or friend how they feel).

The lessons for **grades 3 and 4** are similar, but are geared to match the children's greater knowledge and stronger cognitive abilities:

### *1. Rules to Keep Safe*

The DARE officer explains that the police and schools are helping students learn how to protect themselves by saying no when they are asked to do something unsafe. The discussion focuses on why we need rules, how rules help us, and different types of rules. To be safe, students have to recognize situations where rules apply, resist those who tempt them to break rules, and report to someone when that happens.

Using illustrations, the DARE officer asks the students to listen to a series of stories about children their age and to analyze for each whether it represents a safe or unsafe situation, what rule applies, what the children should do or say, and whom, if anyone, they need to inform.

### *2. Drugs May Help or Harm*

After defining "drug," students talk about the beneficial effects of medicines and drugs. They then complete a worksheet, "Drugs in the Store," which asks them to identify drugs from among the depicted items for sale at a drugstore. As a class, they classify each of the drugs by the type of beneficial effect it can have.

In the subsequent discussion, the DARE officer notes that some drugs are not medicines, and that some can be harmful. Some drugs, like alcohol and tobacco, can be purchased by adults; some are illegal. Even medicines can be harmful if not used correctly, so they should be taken only when a parent, doctor, or nurse tells the students to do so.

### *3. Saying No to Drug Offers*

After generating a list of drugs that are not medicines, the students offer reasons why they are harmful (e.g., they can change the way the mind works, they can induce accidents, they can be habit-forming). The DARE officer introduces the idea that most young people try drugs because they are offered them by friends.

As in the core curriculum (see Chapter 3), ways of saying no to offers of drugs are then introduced and rehearsed, with emphasis on giving a reason or excuse to justify the refusal.

### *4. Feeling Special*

The DARE officer first asks the students to list what it is that makes them special—for example, things they do well, what they want to be when they grow up. The students are paired, exchange lists, and then report to the class what they learned about their partner.

The officer notes that the students are also quite similar to one another in many ways, for example, in the emotions they experience. After they list various types of feelings, the students are asked to describe times when they experienced one of those emotions. The discussion then centers on physiological changes that accompany emotions and different ways of eliminating unpleasant feelings.

*5. Dare to Say No*

The students list what their friends might "dare" them to do (e.g., run across the street, steal). The DARE officer emphasizes that saying no is a legitimate response to a dare; they might lose a friend, but, more important, they are deciding for themselves what is best. Ways of saying no are reiterated. The class is then divided into teams, and the DARE officer asks questions to review what the students have learned.

## *Project DARE: Curriculum for Junior High*

The duties of the DARE officers assigned to the junior high schools involve coordinated work with the school counseling staff, including individual and group consultation with students deemed "at risk," supervising sports or drill teams, and organizing contests and special assemblies.

The junior high school curriculum itself presently includes eleven formal lessons; plans call for this number to be reduced to only nine by Fall 1987.

*1. Drugs and the Law*

The purpose of this lesson is to inform students about laws and school disciplinary codes concerning the possession, use, distribution, and sale of narcotics and alcohol. The DARE officer indicates that the intent of such regulations is protective rather than punitive.

The class discussion focuses on a number of questions: What laws and rules affect what young persons do? Under the law, in what ways are juveniles treated differently from adults? What school laws and standards of conduct assure that the school environment protects students and fosters learning?

At the end of the lesson, the students complete the worksheet "You Call It," which asks them to classify various actions as an infraction of a school rule, a crime, a status offense, or a delinquent act.

They also complete a short quiz on drugs, which can be compared to results of a second administration at the end of the program.

*2. Drug Use and Abuse*

After presenting a list of drugs on the blackboard, the DARE officer asks the students to write down their common properties (e.g., all can be habit forming) and the ways in which some of them differ from the others (e.g., tobacco and alcohol can be legally purchased by adults).

In defining "drug abuse," the DARE officer explains that, because many drugs can be habit-forming and can lead to the harm of the individual or society, they are controlled substances whose use and sale is limited or prohibited. The concept of "drug dependence" is explained.

*3. Consequences*

On the worksheet "Consequences," students list both the immediate and future impact of not using tobacco, alcohol, and marijuana, using them occasionally, or using them heavily. The subsequent discussion focuses on students' responses, leading to the observation that more positive outcomes are listed under "nonuse," whereas more negative outcomes are listed under "use."

*4. Drugs and Pressures*

The class explores the myth that the use of drugs is justified because it is normative. Students estimate how many adults smoke cigarettes and how many drink alcoholic beverages, subsequently learning that the majority of adults use alcohol responsibly and do not smoke.

Using a worksheet entitled "Guesstimates of Teenage Smoking and Drinking," the students estimate the percentage of students who use alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana each month; again, the fact is that a small minority of students use these substances that often.

The discussion then shifts to an analysis of differing types of influences on people's actions, the powerful impact of peer pressure, and the types of strategies that peers use in trying to affect others' behavior.

*5. Assertive Resistance*

This lesson instructs students on how to say no, using the same list of strategies promoted by the DARE core curriculum (see Chapter 3). Again, students learn that certain strategies work better in response to certain types of pressure. They learn that, in refusing an offer of drugs or alcohol, focusing on short-term, rather than long-term negative consequences is more likely to bring an end to the pressure. They learn to distinguish an assertive versus either an aggressive or timid response style. The key to this lesson is active rehearsal of the refusal strategies.

*6. Decisions and Risks*

Students generate a list of risk-taking behaviors and then distinguish between reasonable and unreasonable risks. Risk-taking is the result of a choice. Ideally, that choice should reflect a conscious weighing of the positive and negative consequences of various alternative actions.

On the worksheet "Rate the Risk," students assess the degree of risk involved in various behaviors (e.g., smoking a cigarette, hitchhiking, having a glass of champagne at a family celebration). Another worksheet, "People Problems," asks students to read three short vignettes about other students who are pushed to try drugs or alcohol, to assess what choices those students have, and to offer advice.

*7. Role Modeling*

This lesson duplicates lesson 12 of DARE's curriculum for fifth- and sixth-grade students, which is described in Chapter 3. Older students who are school leaders and have resisted peer pressure to use drugs are brought to the classroom as role models.

*8. Forming a Support System*, and

*9. Ways to Deal with Pressure from Gangs*

These two lessons duplicate lessons 13 and 14 of DARE's core curriculum for fifth- and sixth-graders. The decision to repeat these lessons reflects widespread public concern in Los Angeles with the severe problems created by criminal gangs involving teenagers and young adults.

*10. Project DARE Summary*

This session features a contest between two teams and completion a second time of the quiz taken during the first lesson. As homework, on a sheet entitled "My Personal Plan," students write a paragraph on how they would respond when pressured to use a drug.

*11. Taking a Stand*

Students take turns reading their completed essays before the class. If equipment is available, these readings are videotaped and played back afterward. The DARE officer summarizes the major points of the lessons and presents each student with a DARE certificate of completion.

## Presentations to Parents

Both Project DARE and Project SPECDA conduct evening workshops for parents, led by the officer teaching at the school. These meetings are open to all parents, who are notified by the school. The objectives of these presentations are to:

- provide parents with information about abuse (e.g., drug recognition, physical symptoms of drug abuse, behavioral signs of drug usage);
- inform them about the educational program; and
- elicit their help in reinforcing the program's key messages about resisting peer pressure.

The officer also discusses strategies for improving family communication, other steps they as parents can take to prevent their children from abusing drugs, and community resources for drug counseling and intervention.

Because some parents will be suspicious of police being in the schools, it is important for the officer to emphasize at these presentations that schools were not selected for the program because of a large substance abuse problem, but because of the high level of cooperation between police and educators in preventing substance use. The officers must stress that they are not there in a law enforcement capacity or to collect undercover information.

It should be noted that, in New York City, when the SPECDA program first starts, the children are required to bring a letter to their parents that announces their child's participation in the program and introduces SPECDA's teaching objectives. It is stressed that the officers are to serve as role models, not to enforce the laws regarding drug use. In closing, the letter encourages the parents to discuss SPECDA with their child.

In Los Angeles, the highlight of the parent meetings is the film "Sons and Daughters, Drugs and Booze," which describes the scope of the drug problem, its prevalence in all sectors of American society, the keys to prevention, and how parents can communicate with their children about this problem. Videocasette copies of the film are available with Spanish subtitles.

Both programs distribute several handouts to the parents. For example, the DARE officers use a handout entitled "Twenty Ways to Encourage Your Children to Use Drugs." Examples include:

- Talk *to* your children, not *with* them. Never listen.
- Always pick up after them and don't encourage them to accept responsibility.

- Never tell them how much you love them and never discuss your feelings with them.
- Always expect the worst and never give them the benefit of the doubt.

In New York, many of these same points are introduced by having the parents complete a "Parenting Quiz" to assess their effectiveness as parents.

In Los Angeles, the DARE officers also pass out copies of the student quiz "What Do You Know About Drugs?" and the accompanying answer sheet, buttons, brochures, bumper stickers, and other materials. Spanish translations of all written materials are available.

One of the DARE brochures includes "Tips for Parents," which are reviewed at the meeting. These include:

- Establish family rules that make the use of drugs non-negotiable.
- Educate yourself about drugs, so you can talk informatively with your children and answer their questions.
- Since peer pressure is a major factor in teen drug use, know your children's friends.
- Talk with other parents. Try to establish uniform rules that make access to drugs harder for your children and their friends, such as curfew, the amount of spending money they receive, and their use of a car.

# Chapter 5

# Program Development and Implementation

- *Is drug prevention education a legitimate police function?*
- *Can the police department afford to take officers out of patrol cars and assign them to classroom duty? Will the public support such a move?*
- *Can the frequent distrust between police and school administrators be overcome?*
- *Can qualified officers be found to teach this complex subject?*
- *Will a new program detract from ongoing efforts by prevention specialists who have already been working in the schools?*

Suspicions, doubts, financial worries, battles over "turf"—as with any new program, a jurisdiction that chooses to develop and implement a police/school drug prevention program will have to grapple with many important concerns. The challenges faced in creating an innovative program such as Project DARE or Project SPECDA are considerable.

Thus, it is reassuring to look at what has been accomplished in both Los Angeles and New York. In those cities, police officials found that the distress over adolescent drug abuse was so keen that nearly all school administrators, teachers, and parents welcomed police involvement in prevention education. There were concerns about that involvement, some strongly voiced. But the excitement of bringing an innovative and possibly powerful new program into the schools created a spirit of goodwill and cooperation that promoted constructive solutions in response to those concerns.

Looking to the examples provided by the Los Angeles and New York programs, as well as to the statewide implementation of Project DARE in Virginia, this chapter provides an overview of issues related to program development and implementation.

## Histories of Project DARE and Project SPECDA

The Los Angeles and New York experiences in implementing a large-scale drug prevention program serve more to inspire than to instruct, as, in many ways, their experiences are unique:

- Both cities rank among the nation's largest school systems and largest police departments. Sheer size alone makes the particulars of these programs' development, implementation, and current administration unlikely models for most jurisdictions across the country.
- In statewide or regional programs, the political and financial obstacles to setting up this program are compounded by the large number of local police departments and school boards that must be involved in that process.
- In both cities, the support of top police administrators—Chief Daryl Gates in Los Angeles and Commissioner Benjamin Ward in New York—was singular in its intensity. Many of the obstacles that would normally be faced in developing a new project, not the least of which is getting the endorsement and financial support of top officials, were not an issue in these cities.

Still, a review of the histories of Project DARE and Project SPECDA, by highlighting the key issues involved in developing this type of program, is instructive.

### *Project DARE*

Project DARE began in Los Angeles when Chief of Police Daryl Gates approached the Superintendent of Schools, Dr. Harry Handler, in January 1983 to explore how they could collaborate to deal more effectively with the problem of drug and alcohol use among adolescents.

Law enforcement efforts in Los Angeles to control the distribution and sale of illicit drugs on school campuses, primarily through undercover work and periodic "drug busts," had made little impact and had alienated students and school personnel from police. Chief Gates suggested that a new approach, focused on prevention and designed to build trust between the schools and law enforcement, was needed.

Through these discussions, the idea took root for a prevention program jointly sponsored by the school district and the police department. Although the patrol function is obviously critical, and the public demands high police visibility, Chief Gates viewed Project DARE as a priority and offered to reassign officers to the program. After examining current drug abuse education and prevention programs, a joint police/school task force recommended that:

- the program address the broad spectrum of substance abuse, including drugs, alcohol, and tobacco;
- a comprehensive approach extending from kindergarten through high school be put in place;
- veteran police officers, who would be recognized by the students as experts in the field of substance abuse, serve as full-time instructors; and
- an emphasis be placed on teaching the skills and developing the strength of character that would enable students to make responsible decisions regarding substance use.

By July 1983, ten police officers had been selected and trained to teach the DARE curriculum. A lieutenant, a sergeant, a detective, and a clerk typist were assigned to coordinate and administer the program. During the 1983-1984 school year, 8,181 fifth- and sixth-grade students were taught the core curriculum. In addition, approximately 79,000 other students were taught the K-4 curriculum or received a one-day assembly program.

In April 1984, the Office of Criminal Justice Planning, as part of its Suppression of Drug Abuse in Schools Program, awarded DARE a grant to increase the number of instructors to 15. Eleven officers were assigned to the elementary schools, three were assigned to pilot a new nine-session junior high school curriculum, and one was assigned to present the one-day DARE program to private schools and public elementary schools not participating in the core program.

By degrees, the program moved toward full implementation. During the 1986-1987 school year, every elementary school under the Los Angeles Police Department's jurisdiction had a DARE officer assigned to teach the core curriculum; approximately 258,000 students from 347 elementary schools received their DARE graduation diploma. The junior high school curriculum reached approximately 91,000 seventh-graders in 58 middle schools. In total, Chief Gates committed 53 line officers to serve as DARE instructors, plus supervisory and clerical staff.

### *Project SPECDA*

In September 1984, Nathan Quinones, the Chancellor of the New York City Board of Education, and Benjamin Ward, Commissioner of the New York Police Department, held a press conference to announce the formation of a planning committee to develop a new drug prevention education program.

This planning committee was headed jointly by the police department's Office of the Chief of the Department, its Community Affairs Division, and the Board of Education's Drug Programs Office. The committee soon identified three major goals for the program:

- to alter constructively the attitude and perceptions of young people as they pertain to drug usage;
- to increase student awareness of the effects and consequences of drug and substance use; and
- to build the foundation for better student relations with police and drug counselors.

After a draft curriculum was developed, a pilot project in two of the Board of Education's 32 school districts, one in the Bronx and one in the Bedford-Stuyvesant section of Brooklyn, was initiated in February 1985. Students participated in an eight-week program with weekly presentations given by a uniformed police officer in partnership with a Board of Education drug counselor. Assembly programs for elementary, junior high, and high school students were also given. This initial effort involved 27 police officers (selected from 150 applicants) and 50 drug counselors.

The pilot test was evaluated by the Criminal Justice Center of John Jay College. Based on that successful experience, the program was expanded in September 1985 to seven districts, one in each of the police department's patrol boroughs. By January 1987, the program expanded into 28 of the city's 32 school districts, still moving toward being in place in every district. The way for this rapid expansion was cleared with a strong endorsement of Project SPECDA from Mayor Ed Koch.

The police department's commitment of resources is enormous. In 1987, SPECDA's education unit involved 102 instructors, 15 sergeant field supervisors, two lieutenant field supervisors, four command staff (including a captain), and six administrative aides. In addition, a coordinator's office, which handles overall program planning and public relations, includes a deputy inspector, a lieutenant, a sergeant, a line officer, and one civilian employee.

## Major Obstacles to Program Implementation

Certain sources of resistance to a new police/school drug prevention effort are predictable, and program developers must be prepared to address them. In this section, several obstacles to program implementation and ways of overcoming them are described.

### *Concerns About the Cost of Reassigning Officers*

This type of program is a legitimate police initiative, similar in intent to neighborhood watch, Officer Friendly, and other crime prevention efforts. Yet, the reassignment of officers from patrol and other essential law enforcement work to teach in classrooms is a profound step. Every veteran officer is an important weapon in the fight against crime, whose training represents a significant financial investment. In communities where public concerns about crime are especially great, it may be politically impossible for the police department to staff a drug prevention program.

While some police administrators will request of government officials that the prevention program be accommodated by enlarging the police force, such support cannot be expected. In nearly every jurisdiction, the issue will be unavoidable: Is the prevention program important enough, is its potential great enough, to make the redeployment of officers worth the cost of having fewer officers on patrol? Clearly, in both Los Angeles and New York, where the complement of officer instructors is drawn from the existing force, top administrators were convinced that a prevention education program was a wise use of manpower. Ultimately, of course, the answer to these questions must emerge from evaluation data (see Chapter 7).

In New York City, school administrators were faced with a similar dilemma. Prior to Project SPECDA, the school-based counselors in many of the city's school districts were already involved in prevention activities and carried extensive counseling caseloads. With the introduction of SPECDA, and with no additional funds available from the state, the counselors' duties were redefined and, by necessity, the number of students and families referred for outside counseling increased.

### *Feelings of Distrust Between Police and Schools*

At first, many skeptics expect the clash of police and school cultures and the frequent distrust between these two groups to make a successful police/school collaboration difficult, if not impossible. Indeed, these two groups do often appear at odds:

- The police effort to stem the drug trade sometimes appears in conflict with the school's interest in controlling and disciplining its students without outside interference.

- Police and schools have different administrative styles. Police, as paramilitary organizations, have a firm, hierarchical command. Schools are usually more flexible, less stringent in their demands on staff, and more often committed to a participatory decision-making process.
- Many police officers and teachers hold certain stereotypes about one another. The "macho," "dumb," "right-wing" cop is matched by the "wimpy," "idealistic," "left-wing" teacher.

A claim that the worlds of education and law enforcement are mutually incompatible will sometimes be used as an argument for rejecting a police/school prevention program.

In Los Angeles, for example, a member of the city's Board of Police Commissioners was unhappy about having a "paramilitary force" teaching moral values to elementary school children. Her discomfort was not due to the anti-drug message, which she strongly endorsed, but to a concern that DARE involves police teaching other messages about which there is not community consensus—e.g., whether to express feelings openly, whether to trust police officers as helpers.

Program officials in both Los Angeles and New York have seen that, when individual police officers serve as instructors in the classrooms of individual teachers, whatever feelings of distrust exist will quickly evaporate in most cases. The keys to making this program work are selecting high-quality, articulate police officers who defy the popular stereotype and providing rigorous training (see Figure 5.1).

### *Resistance from Members of the Police Force*

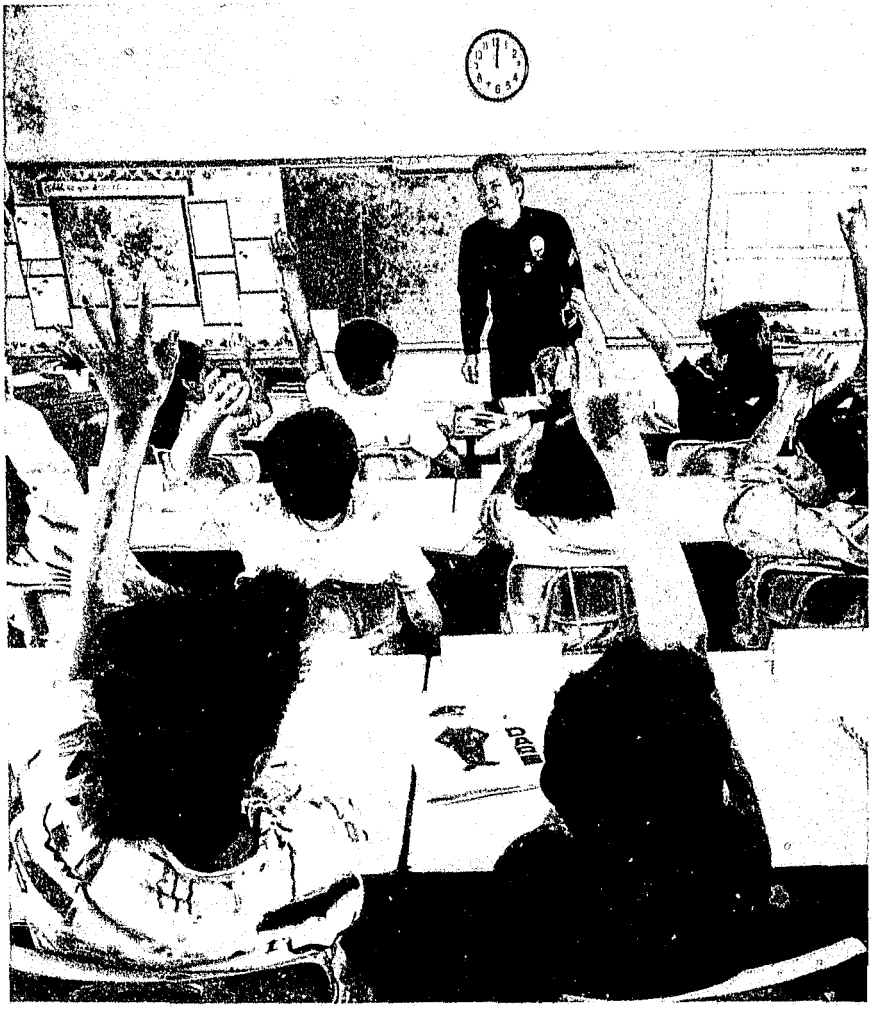
Not surprisingly, some members of the force, including both line officers and command staff, will not endorse the department's decision to assign officers to classroom duty. To some, quite simply, a school assignment is not "real police work."

This skepticism can be reinforced by a program policy that prohibits officers from wearing their guns in the classroom. In New York City, SPECDA officers do remain armed, as administrators believe their uniformed officers must be protected at all times while on duty. In Los Angeles, on the other hand, the officers are unarmed, as administrators are concerned that the gun is distracting to students and can create an unwanted barrier between them and the officers.

In New York and Los Angeles, where top command staff made this type of program a priority, there was no question about the program being accepted. Nevertheless, efforts were undertaken to introduce the program

## Figure 5.1

**The Key Element of a Police/School Drug Prevention Education Program is the Selection of High-Quality Officers**



to key administrators, precinct captains, and line officers so that they would understand the department's motives and how the redeployment of officers would impact their units, if at all.

In Los Angeles, the school district has its own school police force which operates independently of the Los Angeles Police Department. At first, some school police resented this intrusion in their "turf." Others resented that DARE officers could only be called upon for help in true emergencies. With discussion, however, school police came to understand that the DARE officers must be regarded purely as members of the faculty. It should also be noted that DARE officers minimize contact with the school police so that students will not surmise that they are collaborating in an enforcement effort.

### *Resistance from Teachers and Other School Personnel*

A common concern of many teachers is the quality of instruction that police officers will provide. They will ask, as professionals, how police can do a good job of teaching with relatively little training.

But if the officers are selected properly, and if they have previous speaking experience as teachers or crime prevention officers, school personnel will soon realize that their students are in competent hands. Another factor is that, with both DARE and SPECDA, police officers are reminded that they are visitors in the classroom; they must respect the regular teacher's authority, and they must accede to his or her classroom rules.

School personnel may also be concerned that police instructors, while focusing on their classroom work, will still have to act as law enforcement officers, gathering and passing on intelligence information, which can put them in potential conflict with school officials who think first and foremost of the child's interests, not enforcement of the law.

Both DARE and SPECDA have carefully considered how their officers should respond when a child mentions to them compromising information about themselves or a close family member. In New York, the officers are instructed to refer students to the drug counselor with whom they work. There are occasions when that referral may seem abrupt to the child, but due to concerns about the police department's liability, the officers make a strenuous effort to avoid hearing any information from a child that may require a law enforcement response.

With Project DARE, the officers are instructed to take the same actions that any member of the school faculty would take under such circumstances, to work within the procedures established by the school district or the principal. On school grounds, the principal rules. As in New York, if a DARE officer is given information that concerns persons other than the child's family, they will pass it on to the appropriate law enforcement unit.

A different sort of obstacle that can arise is school administrators' and teachers' concern that the extended drug prevention curriculum will take away

too much time from basic coursework. Indeed, with the schools so often asked to devote classtime to help solve society's problems while still being held accountable for teaching basic skills, such apprehension is legitimate.

In Virginia, the state's Department of Education prepared a document to show how specific Project DARE lessons would directly address state-mandated health education objectives. Similarly, in Massachusetts, program developers have stressed that Project DARE meets the non-mandatory teaching objectives for fifth and sixth grade outlined by the Governor's Alliance Against Drugs.

### *Competing Program Ideas*

Program developers may also encounter resistance from school officials or other government officials who favor a competing program for combating adolescent drug abuse.

In Massachusetts, for example, the Governor's Alliance Against Drugs encourages local schools to adopt any of several commercially available, comprehensive, and developmentally-based Kindergarten-Grade 12 curricula that can be taught by specially trained classroom teachers. At first, when a group approached the state about implementing Project DARE, some officials worried that the DARE curriculum, with its focus on fifth- and sixth-grade students, would let the schools "off the hook" in terms of implementing the comprehensive curriculum. Reassured that DARE would not supplant the state's program, but could be a vital part of it, most state officials eventually came to see DARE as a good option for local communities to consider.

In New York, rapid expansion of the program was made more difficult by the division of the New York schools into 32 autonomous districts, each with its own superintendent and its own school board. In many of these districts, prevention programs were already in place; the drug counselors made classroom presentations, held assemblies and parent workshops, helped organize other special activities, and provided intervention services, including individual, group, and family counseling. As a result, some school-based drug counselors resisted having police enter the schools with a new program.

With these various programs already in place, the idea occurred to program planners to form police officer/counselor teams to co-teach the classes.

Still, some drug counselors were highly threatened by the assignment of police officers to conduct prevention classes. There were concerns regarding job security. Others were dismayed that, with no new counselors hired, the redeployment of counselors to the new program would necessitate a decrease in other ongoing prevention activities. Similar worries were expressed about

how they would manage their caseloads with these new demands on their time. Some resented the intrusion of those whom they viewed to be non-experts in health education and wondered how easily they would be able to team teach with police officers. Now, with the program tried and tested, most of the counselors enthusiastically endorse the program.

A good strategy, which was followed in New York, is to bring people involved in existing programs or who have competing ideas into the planning process. The program should enhance what they do or help them do a better job of achieving their objectives, not make their own contribution unnecessary or unwanted.

### *Concerns About Additional Program Costs*

There are additional significant program costs that must be considered. Expenses will include:

- training costs: outside speakers and consultants; possible hotel and meal costs; possible classroom rental;
- travel: travel allowances for field supervisors (or the cost of using department vehicles);
- teaching materials: student notebooks, handouts, booklets, films, and drug display kits;
- equipment: projectors, screens, and answering machines; and
- promotional materials: brochures, buttons, lapel pins, and bumper stickers.

It should be noted that selling the prevention program to schools may be made more difficult if they are expected to cover these expenses. If the police department or school budgets cannot cover it, program administrators can look to alternative funding sources.

In New York, for example, a small part of the funding for the SPECDA pilot test came from assets seized in a heroin case cracked by the New York Drug Enforcement Task Force, which coordinates Federal, state, and local organized crime and drug trafficking cases. This application of the seizure provisions of the Comprehensive Crime Control Act of 1984 was lauded by Attorney General Edwin Meese in a Department of Justice press release (January 23, 1986): "I can think of no more appropriate use of the ill-gotten gains of drug dealers than the effort to persuade America's young to say 'no' to drug use." The difficulty with relying on this source of funds is, of course, its unreliability.

Alternatively, corporations, foundations, or civic organizations may be willing to pay costs for certain components of the program. In New York,

the Charles V. Hayden Foundation provided funding to the Criminal Justice Center of John Jay College to conduct its evaluation of the Project SPECDA pilot test. In Northampton, Massachusetts, the Northampton Rotary Club provided the plastic covers used for DARE student notebooks. In-kind contributions may also be possible. In Los Angeles, local corporations developed a promotional brochure to support Project DARE's fundraising efforts, and an independent film producer developed a videotape for use at parent meetings, fundraisers, and other forums.

In Virginia, the State Police, which coordinates the state's DARE program, was able to establish a special trust account, separate from its regular budget, to accept donations in support of DARE activities. This account is routinely audited by Virginia's State Auditor.

Where public agencies themselves cannot accept cash contributions, a nonprofit agency can be established that would be able to do so. For example, the New York City Police Foundation is a private, tax-exempt organization "committed to improving police services through the development and financing of innovative programs not otherwise possible under the department's budget." This foundation received money from local McDonald's franchise owners for a remote-controlled robot ("Officer Mac") to instruct children on drug abuse and child abduction. Similarly, in Los Angeles, a foundation to support replication of Project DARE nationwide has been established.

## The Planning and Implementation Process

The process followed in establishing a new police/school prevention education program will depend in part on whether the jurisdiction involved is a single city or town, a regional consortium of smaller communities, or an entire state. In some cases, the replication effort will have been dictated by a top government administrator, possibly even a governor or mayor. In other cases, the push to replicate the project will come from police or school staff who must then seek that kind of top-level support. Given this diversity, there are no fixed guidelines regarding how a new program should be planned, developed, and implemented.

With that caveat in view, the purpose of this section is to highlight key considerations in creating a new prevention education program. To a great extent, this will be accomplished by reviewing the recent example of Virginia's statewide replication of Project DARE. While their development process will not necessarily serve as a roadmap for others to follow, the underlying needs and concerns are universal, and their example can provide an informative lesson.

### *Statewide Versus Local Implementation*

The decision to implement a prevention education program ultimately lies with individual communities. But small communities interested in a police/school prevention education program may want to form a regional consortium or urge a state agency, such as the state police, to develop a statewide program. Replication efforts may be more efficient and more successful when there is centralized planning and direction at a regional or state level.

Local officials can benefit greatly from the involvement of people who are part of a regional or statewide effort and can lobby other community leaders and potential corporate sponsors, provide training and technical assistance, and monitor program implementation. It must be emphasized that, while a regional or state agency can provide overall coordination, each local community has to "own" its own program.

In Virginia, the task of effecting a large-scale replication of Project DARE was taken on by Lt. Wayne Garrett, Deputy Assistant Director for the Narcotics Unit of the Virginia State Police. In the late summer of 1985, the Virginia State Police received a $66,000 grant from the state's Department of Criminal Justice Services to prepare the way for Project DARE's implementation in 15 Virginia communities. Other states where a state agency has sought to introduce a program statewide include Arizona, Illinois and Massachusetts.

### *Initiation of the Program*

Historically, for both Project DARE and Project SPECDA, the impulse to introduce police officers as classroom instructors came from top police administrators. Because these prevention programs entail a police service to the schools, in other jurisdictions, it is also likely that initiation of the program will come from the police.

Early on, though, police and school officials must work in concert. In Virginia, as a first step, a meeting was held between the Director of the Bureau of Criminal Investigation for the State Police and the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the state's Department of Education (DOE) so that the groundwork for joint program planning could be put in place. At that meeting, the Superintendent agreed to help obtain support from local schools, to adapt the DARE curriculum to Virginia's needs, and to help provide training for the officers selected as instructors.

### *Building a Base of Political Support*

Even if police and school administrators have the discretionary power to undertake a program of this scope, support from the appropriate

government entity (e.g., governor's office, mayor's office, or town council) is needed. At a minimum, obtaining that support is politically wise. On occasion, however, that support will prove to be invaluable. In New York, for example, the Mayor's support for the program helped overcome the difficulties inherent in introducing Project SPECDA to 28 of the city's 32 autonomous school districts.

In certain jurisdictions, especially where there is already an active drug prevention effort, there will be several government entities whose support is needed. In Massachusetts, for example, where a statewide replication of Project DARE is under way, several state agencies have a role to play in substance abuse prevention, including: (1) the Governor's Alliance Against Drugs, a statewide network of community-based task forces representing schools, law enforcement agencies, parents, and other concerned citizens; (2) the Department of Public Health, which contracts with eight regional prevention centers statewide to train regular school teachers and to promote school-based substance abuse prevention activities; (3) the Criminal Justice Training Council, which develops and provides training to law enforcement officers in the state; and (4) the Massachusetts Committee on Criminal Justice, which administers substance abuse prevention and enforcement grants.

One way to secure such support, and to ensure that the new program reflects a wide range of expertise and accommodates competing points of view, is to appoint an advisory board. The advisory board can oversee project plans, review accomplishments, brainstorm solutions to problems that arise, and explore ways to continue the project beyond its initial start-up.

Virginia's advisory board involves both police and education officials, including:

- the Associate Director for Health, Physical Education, and Driver Education Services from the state's Department of Education;
- the President of the Virginia Association of Chiefs of Police;
- the President of the Virginia State Sheriff's Association;
- the Chief of Law Enforcement Services from the state's Department of Criminal Justice Services; and
- the Assistant Director of the Special Investigation Division of the Virginia State Police.

During its first year, the Virginia board developed a model police/school agreement, established instructor qualifications, and set various program policies (e.g., officer instructors will be unarmed).

In some jurisdictions, especially in those where outside funding may be needed to pay for program materials, a representative of the business community can serve on the board. It should also be noted that, when public agencies cannot accept donations, the advisory board itself could incorporate as a nonprofit entity for accepting and disbursing donations to local programs.

### *Selection of Participating Communities*

Typically, when first starting, statewide programs will need to select participants from among several interested communities. Factors to consider in this selection include: (1) the commitment of the law enforcement agency to reassign qualified officers to serve as classroom instructors; (2) the enthusiasm of school officials for hosting the program; (3) the size of the school district and the number of students that can be reached; (4) the jurisdiction's ability to cover the costs of materials and other program costs; and (5) regional distribution of sites.

As a first step in selecting communities for Virginia's new DARE program, Lt. Rodger Coombs, Director of Project DARE in Los Angeles, was invited to Virginia to address the state's Police Chiefs' Association. At that meeting, several chiefs declared their interest in bringing DARE to their communities. The Superintendent of Public Instruction from the Department of Education (DOE) then wrote to the local school superintendents of those communities to inform them of their police department's interest. Importantly, school officials were assured that their district had not been singled out because of a special drug problem, but because of law enforcement interest in Project DARE.

Meetings in interested communities were held with school administrators and the police chief for a presentation by Lt. Garrett and the DOE staff and for a full discussion of the DARE concept. At those meetings, the school superintendents were encouraged to discuss DARE with their local school board. Interestingly, in New York, with each school district operating autonomously, presentations of this type were needed before each district's school board and superintendent.

In Virginia, once school districts formally indicated their willingness to participate, they were asked to identify a contact person and to provide basic information on their elementary schools (e.g., number of fifth- or sixth-grade classes, average class size). Using that information, Lt. Garrett met with the chief of police of each town to plan the allocation of police officers.

As necessary, police and school administrators in each community, or personnel to whom these tasks had been delegated, conducted additional planning meetings to devise a written agreement between the school district

and police, to explore funding options for notebooks, films, and other implementation costs, and to plan strategies for building widespread community support.

### *Preparing a Formal Agreement*

A police/school prevention education program will succeed only if a strong partnership between police and school officials is forged. Thus, a key step in the implementation of the program is devising a written agreement between school and police officials. Such agreements can solidify a commitment to the program, define the respective roles of the school and police agencies, and launch a sound working relationship.

Written agreements (or memoranda of understanding) typically include the following:

- A statement by school and law enforcement officials of their commitment to implement the program as a strategy to prevent substance abuse among school children.
- A definition of the police role: (1) to identify the required number of police officers to teach the curriculum; (2) to redeploy identified officers for a specified time period, including time required for training and other program activities; and (3) to provide overall coordination and supervision of the instructors.
- A definition of the school role: (1) to assist in the training of police officers; (2) to provide classroom time for the lessons; (3) to coordinate scheduling with the officers; (4) to define the classroom teacher's role during the lessons and for follow-up activities; and (5) to encourage teacher support.
- Establishment of procedures for regular communication between school and law enforcement officials.
- Confirmation of plans for joint community and parent education.
- Establishment of who will assume overall responsibility for project oversight, selection of officers, and further project development.

A jurisdiction may also want to include a statement of time-specified objectives, including the number of students to be reached with the core curriculum, special assemblies, and abbreviated programs for grades K-4. Plans for eventual development of a junior high curriculum can also be specified.

It should be noted that, where the program operates statewide, a written agreement between state agencies may also be desirable. In Virginia, the Department of Education took responsibility for reviewing and revising the DARE curriculum, selecting appropriate films, developing the training curriculum for new officers and identifying outside speakers, producing a promotional brochure, and arranging for an outside evaluation of the project. The State Police took responsibility for collecting and reporting program and management data, providing a one-week course at the academy that is part of the instructors' training, promoting the program, and providing student graduation certificates.

### *Developing the Core Curriculum for Elementary School*

As noted in Chapter 3, while the Project DARE and Project SPECDA core curricula are similar, there are important differences between them. Replicating sites are presented with two important choices to make regarding method of delivery and curriculum content.

One choice to make is whether to have the core prevention lessons concentrated in a single semester, as with DARE, or to split them between grades 5 and 6, as with SPECDA.

The SPECDA curriculum, with the lessons divided, has three key advantages. First, the program's key messages can be more strongly reinforced when the students are seen in successive years. Second, updated material can be presented during the second year. Third, scheduling logistics may be easier to manage when classes are seen for only eight weeks at a time rather than for a full semester. On the other hand, a concentrated course, such as Project DARE, allows more information to be taught and promotes deeper friendships between the instructors and students. It also lessens the problem of children moving away before completing the entire curriculum.

The second decision to be made is how tightly to structure the curriculum. The choice is a difficult one. With Project DARE, officers are presented with a single curriculum plan to follow, whereas with Project SPECDA, the instructors are given a menu of activities from which to choose for each lesson. As noted in Chapter 3, the advantage of DARE's approach is that every student will receive a proven, standardized curriculum. In short, a desire for uniformity leads to better quality control. The advantages of SPECDA's approach are: (1) the instructors can select those activities that will work best with each individual class, and (2) when instructors have greater choice over what they teach and can pick activities that match their own style, they may be less likely to "burn out."

When program developers use either or both of these core curricula as models, they may still want to make minor changes in them that reflect

the needs and mores of their particular jurisdiction. In Virginia, review and revision of the Los Angeles DARE curriculum was undertaken by officials of that state's Department of Education. Minor changes were made throughout, for example:

- The DARE officer brings a Word List poster to each classroom to be displayed on a bulletin board.
- At the first class, the officer brings a small trunk, a "special treasure chest," filled with items that represent important facets of the officer's life.
- A different film was selected for the early lesson on the consequences of drug use.
- A lesson in which an older student comes to the class as a "role model" is presented as an optional add-on lesson.
- Material dealing with gang involvement was dropped, as street gangs are not a serious problem in Virginia.

In Baltimore County, Maryland, which developed its own curriculum based on the Project DARE model, a unit was added that applies peer resistance techniques to other adolescent life experiences.

Both the Los Angeles and New York programs have found that the core curriculum needs periodically to be reviewed and updated. The instructors themselves will be an important source of information on how the teaching activities should be revised; as outlined in Chapter 7, officers can be asked to complete a short form after finishing each lesson that asks them to describe their experience with it and any suggestions for changes.

Program administrators have found that they will want to make changes in content as well. In New York, for example, a revision is presently in progress to put a greater emphasis on stress reduction and on "crack," given its upsurge in popularity in New York. In Los Angeles, a lesson that officers planned on their own was dropped from the original curriculum, two lessons on alternatives to drug use were condensed to one, and new lessons were added on developing support systems and avoiding gang involvement (see Chapter 3).

### *Conducting a Pilot Program*

While the concern about adolescent substance use may make it tempting to rush toward full project implementation, a more cautious approach that allows for pilot-testing and fine-tuning of the program is advisable. Both the Los Angeles and New York programs introduced their programs on a

pilot basis. Both of them learned valuable lessons from those pilots that improved the projects considerably before full implementation was undertaken. This same plan was followed in Virginia as well.

In Los Angeles, Project DARE was introduced as a pilot program in 1983, with ten officers in 50 schools reaching over 8,000 students. Interviews with principals, teachers, and parents who served on school advisory committees showed overwhelming support for the program, thereby giving it the momentum to expand. School officials saw the DARE program as a valuable addition to their schools, a well-executed program that had led to tangible, positive outcomes in students' attitudes and behavior.

Originally, the program brought police officers to classrooms every other week for the entire school year. During alternate weeks, the regular classroom teachers presented lessons that reinforced and extended what the officers were teaching. This pilot program truly represented a combined police officer/teacher effort. The pilot test showed, however, that not having the officers come every week interrupted the flow of their lessons. Moreover, some teachers neglected to do their lessons or gave them inadequate time. Hence, as the program moved to its second year, the teacher lessons were made optional, and the switch was made to the present format of weekly officer-led sessions for one semester.

In the 1985-1986 school year, before full implementation, a so-called "partial" program for fifth- and sixth-graders was introduced on a pilot basis in response to principals' complaints that their schools were being "abandoned" when the DARE program moved on to other schools. This abbreviated program, however, did not allow a rapport to develop between the police officers and the children. Principals from schools where this program was tried recommended that resources devoted to it be used instead to add more schools to the full core program.

A pilot program also gives program administrators an opportunity to try out and revise methods for selecting and training the officers. These essential aspects of program administration are described in Chapter 6.

### *Introducing the Program to New Schools*

Before police instruction starts in the classroom, meetings are held with principals and teachers to discuss their concerns. Typically, field supervisors meet with the principals to discuss scheduling and other logistics. The police instructors themselves introduce the program to the regular faculty.

In Los Angeles, field supervisors review with the principals what Project DARE needs them to do: (1) to regard the assigned officer as an educator, (2) not to expect the officer to engage in law enforcement activities, except

in a true emergency, (3) to provide the officer with a mailbox, (4) to provide copies of all school bulletins during the semester, (5) to schedule a faculty meeting early on in the semester, and (6) to schedule and publicize a parent education meeting.

The purpose of faculty meetings is to familiarize teachers with the prevention lessons, including suggested activities that the teachers themselves can use with their classes to reinforce and extend the officer-led lessons. The instructor also explains that the program is a collaborative effort of the school district and the police and reassures them that police officers are not on campus for law enforcement or to conduct covert operations.

At these meetings, the officers can ask the teachers for any special assistance. In Los Angeles, for example, officers give the teachers the DARE word list and ask them to incorporate the vocabulary into their own language arts lessons. Their help is asked for keeping the Question Box available to students, providing a place to store the DARE notebooks, and collecting homework. The officers also suggest that Project DARE might be a good subject for bulletin board displays.

These meetings should be supported by information packets. In Los Angeles, an information packet for elementary school teachers and principals includes:

- a written overview of the project, the curriculum, and the graduation assembly;
- a copy of the brochure, "DARE to Say No!";
- a list and brief description of DARE's core curriculum;
- a copy of the worksheets that appear in students' DARE notebooks;
- the student quiz "What Do You Know About Drugs?" and an answer sheet with explanatory back-up material; and
- the handout for parent meetings, "Twenty Ways to Encourage Your Children to Use Drugs."

Similar packets have been developed for junior high school teachers and principals.

In Virginia, so-called "Instructional Guides" were prepared with the table of contents for the curriculum and a reprint of key lessons (e.g., peer resistance techniques for Grades 5 and 6, drug safety for K-2, and safety rules for Grades 3 and 4). As noted before, the Virginia Department of Education also prepared a handout for both principals and teachers that lists the state's mandated learning objectives in health education for each grade and the DARE lessons that help meet those objectives. For example, an

objective for grade 6 is that students will be able to analyze critically "food advertising, facts, and fallacies." One objective of the DARE lesson, "Media Influences on Drug Use," is to develop that critical ability by teaching students the various techniques that advertisers employ. In this way, school officials could see that using Project DARE actually moved them toward achieving state-mandated objectives and was not just an "extra" that uses valuable classtime that could otherwise be devoted to basic skills.

### *Enlisting Public Support*

Steps to make the general public and parents aware of the program are also undertaken, both to create a supportive, "anti-drug" climate for prevention and to ensure the program's continuation and expansion (Figure 5.2). In addition, promoting the program may lead to outside contributors helping to supply the needed educational materials and to cover other implementation costs. Outreach to the public should be an ongoing activity, not one undertaken only at the program's outset.

Several strategies are used to promote awareness of the program, enlist support, and solicit private donations:

- presentations to local clubs, foundations, or corporate sponsors, using visual aids such as a slide-tape show or videotape;
- fund-raisers sponsored by ad hoc organizations of parents and other concerned citizens;
- distribution of promotional material, such as brochures, flyers, buttons, and bumper stickers;
- preparation of press releases and invitations to the press to attend classes or graduation ceremonies;
- publication of articles in professional periodicals and parents magazines; and
- duplication and distribution of letters of endorsement.

Both Project DARE and Project SPECDA provide rich examples of these types of efforts.

In Virginia, to help promote the new DARE program, a ceremony was held in Richmond at which police and school officials from each participating community signed their written agreement. Witnessed by drug abuse prevention advocates, parent-teacher organizations, law enforcement agencies, and the press, officials from each jurisdiction publicly demonstrated their commitment to the project. Addresses were given by the state's Secretary of Transportation and Public Safety, the Attorney General, the

## Figure 5.2

**Media Events Can Help Enlist Public Support: Attorney General Edwin Meese (Second from Left) Observes a SPECDA Class in New York City**

Superintendent of the Virginia Department of State Police, and the Department of Education's Superintendent of Public Instruction. Similarly, in New York City, the Mayor, the Police Commissioner, and the Chancellor of the Board of Education held a press conference to announce the new SPECDA program.

A brochure developed by Project DARE in Los Angeles, "DARE to say NO!" continues to be distributed to principals, teachers, and parents to introduce them to DARE, its focus on resisting peer pressure, and the types of lessons students are taught. As noted in Chapter 4, it also includes "Tips for Parents."

Project SPECDA distributes a similar handout to parents, teachers, and community groups that explains both the law enforcement and education components of SPECDA and introduces the core curriculum. A newly produced handout is targeted to parents: " Parents: What You Can Do About Drug Abuse." Another new handout on "crack" is presently being translated into Spanish.

A second DARE brochure, "DARE: Drugs Are Everyone's Problem," designed and produced with funding from the Coca-Cola Bottling Company of Los Angeles and in-kind contributions from designers, is distributed to companies and civic organizations to encourage contributions to the project. The brochure emphasizes that the drug problem persists despite efforts to bring drug sales and distribution under control. Growing narcotics arrests have not solved the problem of persistent demand, which can be changed through sound prevention education.

In New York, a music video, with a song written by one of Project SPECDA's original police instructors, creates a fun atmosphere and encourages student participation. It is used primarily in school assemblies, but also for other presentations. A 22-minute videotape, developed with a grant from the Community Trust, is used to introduce the program to parents and others. The Los Angeles DARE program also uses an introductory videotape for these types of presentations.

# Chapter 6

# Program Structure and Administration

This chapter reviews several aspects of program structure and administration for police/school drug prevention education programs, including: (1) responsibility for program administration; (2) the type of staff needed and their duties; (3) instructors' duties and schedules; (4) selection criteria for police officer instructors; and (5) the scope of introductory and in-service training for those instructors.

## Responsibility for Program Administration

Administration of a program like Project DARE or Project SPECDA is primarily the responsibility of the law enforcement agency that provides manpower for the program. Equally important, however, is that an education official be identified who is an equal partner with the law enforcement agency's program director.

When the program operates in a single city, this education official will be a school department employee. When the program operates statewide, this official will most likely work for the state's department of education. Also, with a regional or statewide program, participating communities may want to identify a local school official who can coordinate implementation of the program with local law enforcement officials.

At whatever level, this education official's duties can include facilitating the program's introduction to new schools, trouble-shooting problems in implementation, coordinating data collection, developing and implementing the training seminar for instructors, and revising i ,tructional materials. Most

important, this person serves as the school district's liaison with the police department, working as a full and equal partner.

An issue that arises outside the major urban centers, when small towns and rural areas are involved, is whether the program should be implemented at a local, regional, or state level. In such cases, an argument can be made that the lead for new programs should come from state drug enforcement agencies, rather than from the police or sheriff's departments in individual communities. There are three key reasons. First, coordination among the municipalities is easier at the state level. Second, state-level administration can create standardization across jurisdictions and a single, consistent project image. Third, with this arrangement, state police can be used as substitutes or to teach in small jurisdictions that cannot afford to reassign an officer to the program.

## Staffing Requirements

Exactly what staff are required to operate a police/school prevention program depends on numerous factors, including the type of jurisdiction involved (i.e., city, region, or state), the jurisdiction's geographic size, the number of schools served, the range of educational activities provided, the command structure of the law enforcement agency, and the program's involvement in fostering replications of the program elsewhere. This section briefly describes the staffing of the Los Angeles, New York City and Virginia programs, which by example can help others consider the staffing requirements in their own jurisdiction.

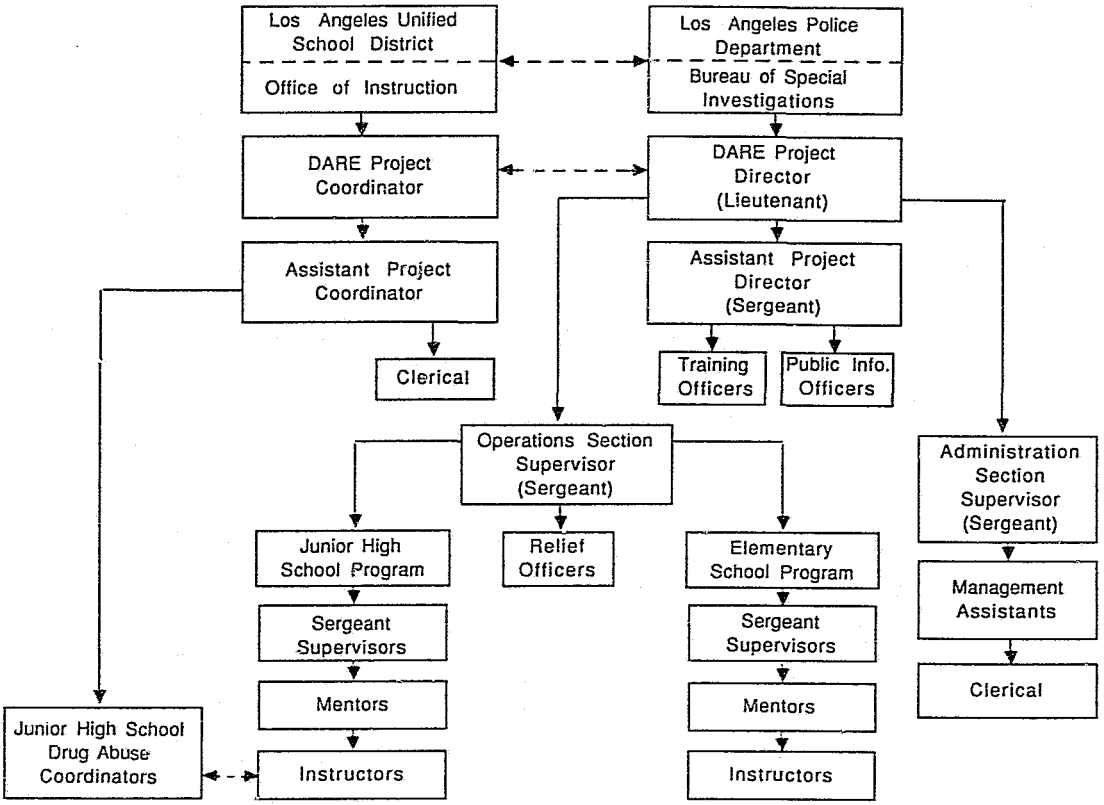
### *Project DARE*

Figure 6.1 is an organization chart for Project DARE in Los Angeles that shows staff positions and lines of authority for both the police department (LAPD) and the school district (LAUSD).

The Project Director based at LAPD, with lieutenant rank, oversees all unit operations, exercises line supervision over assigned personnel, and is responsible for activity reports and other documentation required by the Bureau of Special Investigations, which houses the project. He provides leadership in the development and implementation of the program, represents DARE publicly, and acts as a liaison with Federal, state, city, and county agencies. A significant portion of the Director's time is spent working with community law enforcement and school officials to plan program activities and to coordinate promotional activities for generating community support.

The Assistant Project Director, a sergeant, is the main point of contact with school personnel, sharing responsibility with them for developing,

## Figure 6.1
## Organization Chart: Project DARE/Los Angeles



reviewing, and revising all instructional materials and for organizing and implementing the training seminars for new instructors. In addition to conducting community presentations and workshops, he also supervises the veteran instructors assigned to the training cadre and two officers who also respond to public information requests.

The Administration Section Supervisor, also a sergeant, manages the administrative functions of the unit. These duties include: (1) developing funding proposals and department budget requests, (2) managing outside grants, (3) accounting, (4) maintaining supplies and stocks of curriculum materials, (5) preparing correspondence and responses to public inquiries, and (6) helping coordinate outside public appearances by all project staff.

Day-to-day supervision of operations is delegated to the Operations Section Supervisor, a sergeant, who exercises line supervision over the field supervisors, mentors, and instructors, including relief officers.

The Supervisors for the elementary and junior high school programs, all sergeants, are the instructors' immediate supervisors. They audit classes, evaluate the officers' class performance, and help train new instructors in the field. They are also responsible for establishing teaching schedules; maintaining time records; preparing sick reports, injury reports, and logs; and investigating personnel complaints. They are also chiefly responsible for managing relations with individual school principals.

The police officers assigned as Mentors can be likened to coaches. They watch the instructors' lessons twice a week, offer constructive feedback, and demonstrate the lessons as necessary. Every Mentor is assigned ten instructors. They also serve as substitute teachers as needed and conduct one-day programs in private and parochial schools. When time permits, they assist with administrative tasks in the program's central office and do public speaking engagements.

The DARE Project Coordinator is the school district's principal liaison with the police department, LAUSD regional administrators, school principals, and other school-based staff. The Coordinator is responsible for orchestrating the introduction of the program into new schools and pilot testing new activities. She also coordinates the collection of school-based data, in-service training for the officers, and revisions in the program's instructional materials.

In concert with the Drug Abuse Coordinators at the junior high schools, the DARE Coordinator helps plan and coordinate prevention and early intervention activities, including program implementation schedules, testing dates, teacher in-service training, and parent awareness programs.

The Coordinator also participates in the frequent two-week training seminars for new DARE officers. She also lines up other education specialists within the school district or outside consultants to present units on teaching strategies, classroom management, stages of chemical dependence, and so on.

Finally, the Coordinator supervises clerical staff in preparing reports, maintaining project records, preparing curriculum materials, and communicating with administrators of participating schools.

At each junior high school, a school-employed Drug Abuse Coordinator is responsible for implementing a substance abuse prevention and early intervention program. Each Coordinator works under the administrative direction of the school principal, with technical assistance provided by the school district's Assistant Project Coordinator and LAPD staff, especially the officer instructor assigned to that school. The Drug Abuse Coordinators receive a full day's training organized and conducted by the school district's DARE staff.

Typically a school counselor or health educator, each Drug Abuse Coordinator's specific duties include:

- working with the school's administrative and teaching staff in the development and implementation of a school behavior code that includes guidelines concerning the possession and use of alcohol tobacco, and drugs;
- working cooperatively with the DARE officer assigned to the school and scheduling the officer's time in the classrooms;
- coordinating educational and other prevention programs to heighten awareness and knowledge about the dangers of drug or alcohol dependence, including in-service faculty meetings on warning signs and referral procedures, PTA meetings, school assemblies, and after-school support group sessions; and
- developing and promoting school procedures for the indentification, possible referral, and follow-up of at-risk students who need special assistance.

The Drug Abuse Coordinators also maintain statistics on the number of students participating in various awareness programs, support group meetings, and other activities; the number of parent conferences; assignments to school-based support groups and outside referrals; and case dispositions. These data are compiled for periodic progress reports.

As noted, the LAPD instructors for the junior high program work very closely with each school's Drug Abuse Coordinator. They help to establish

an appropriate school disciplinary code and to set up referral procedures for at-risk students. They also assist in working with students to organize after-school support groups, "talkshops," peer counseling, and special activities for lunch hours and after school, including "rap" contests, poster contests, sports leagues, drill teams, or a school beautification program.

### *Project SPECDA*

Figure 6.2 displays an organization chart for Project SPECDA. The Education Unit is organized under the department's Deputy Commissioner for Community Affairs, while the Coordinator's Office and the SPECDA Enforcement Unit are both organized under the Office of the Chief of the Department.

**Education Unit.** The Commanding Officer, a captain, serves essentially the same functions as the Project DARE Project Director, providing overall leadership, overseeing program operations, reviewing and issuing activity reports, handling disciplinary problems, and maintaining relationships with cognizant school personnel.

A lieutenant serves as Operations Coordinator and oversees the Administrative and Resource Sergeant and other central staff. The Operations Coordinator's principal duties include coordinating monthly reports, preparing activity reports, managing gasoline allotments, issuing department plates for official business, and so on.

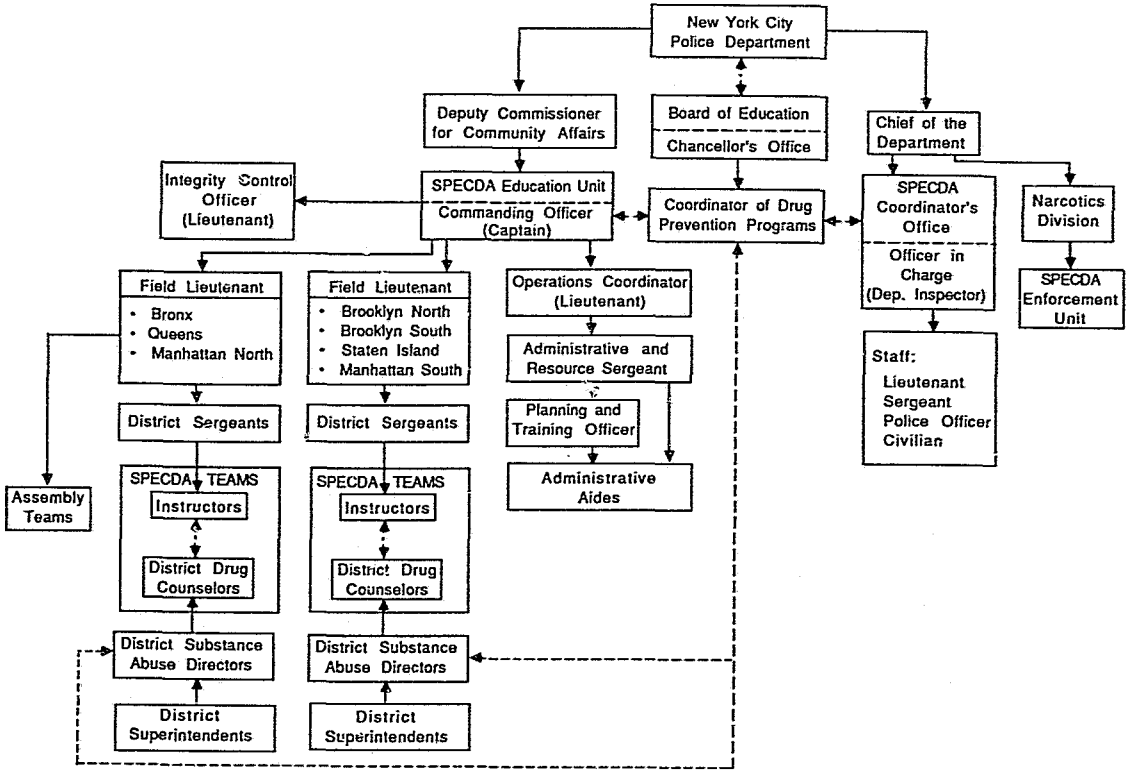
The Administrative and Resource Sergeant is responsible for the unit's budget, managing relationships with outside vendors, and maintaining the supply stocks of educational materials. He oversees work by the Administrative Aides on payroll, time records, roll-call, and other clerical matters.

The primary duty of the Planning and Training officer is to keep abreast of changes in the field of drug abuse, to plan and implement in-service training, and to issue periodic staff bulletins.

The two Field Lieutenants help select the instructors and oversee the delivery of instruction in their command boroughs. They act as a liaison with school officials, decide on instructors' school assignments, and help handle scheduling problems. In addition, they observe classes, review reports on officers filed by the District Sergeants, and handle any personnel issues that those officers cannot resolve.

As noted in Figure 6.2, one of these Field Lieutenants also oversees the assembly teams. Three teams of five officers each work city-wide, with each team responsible for a particular school level (i.e., elementary, junior high, and high school). Assemblies are conducted five days a week. It should

## Figure 6.2
## Organization Chart: Project SPECDA/New York City



be noted that members of the assembly teams can also serve as substitute instructors for the core lessons in fifth- and sixth-grade classes.

The District Sergeants directly supervise the instructors, monitor their classes, file performance reports, and submit command and movement logs and other required paperwork. Each District Sergeant oversees the work of five or six instructors, who are assigned to teach in two of the city's 32 school districts. In addition, these supervisors help with scheduling for the regular classes and parent workshops, distribute handouts and other materials used by the program, and maintain inventory control. Finally, as needed, the sergeants can also serve as substitute teachers.

The New York City Board of Education does not have any staff assigned to work only on Project SPECDA. Management of the SPECDA program is the responsibility of the Coordinator of Drug Prevention Programs, who works with the Substance Abuse Directors in each of the city's 32 school districts. Each district is responsible for hiring and overseeing the drug counselors who serve on the SPECDA teams.

**Coordinator's Office.** Under the direction of a Deputy Inspector, this office provides overall planning as the project continues to grow toward city-wide implementation, responds to public information requests, and works with officials from other jurisdictions who are interested in learning more about Project SPECDA. Three sworn officers (a lieutenant, a sergeant, and a line officer) and a civilian employee report to the Deputy Inspector in charge.

**SPECDA Enforcement Unit.** This unit, which concentrates on drug enforcement activities near the city's schools, is organized under the Narcotics Division, which, like the Coordinator's Office, reports to the Office of the Chief of the Department.

## Virginia's DARE Program

This statewide program is directed by the Virginia State Police, Bureau of Criminal Investigation, Special Investigations Division, which is responsible for narcotics enforcement.

As members of a state agency working with individual communities, the DARE staff fulfills the following roles: (1) coordinating the program and exercising overall management; (2) encouraging local communities to participate; (3) providing guidelines in selecting officers; (4) training those officers; (5) offering technical assistance; (6) furnishing instructional materials; and (7) collecting summary information for progress reports. Importantly, state troopers are available as substitutes, and, in certain communities that cannot provide officers from their own forces, a trooper will be assigned as the instructor.

With the continued growth of the project, the Project Director's time with DARE is spent primarily representing the program publicly and working with new participating communities. He also manages the program budget, is responsible for filing reports, and oversees the work of the Regional Coordinators. It is important to note that the Project Director does not work full-time on DARE, but also has other major responsibilities with the Bureau of Criminal Investigation.

The three Regional Coordinators monitor, but do not supervise, the instructors in an assigned region, helping ensure consistent, high-quality instruction across the participating communities. As needed, they notify substitute instructors and can serve as substitutes themselves. They also act as the key liaison between the State Police and the schools and give presentations to outside groups.

One of these Coordinators, who oversees a smaller geographic region and spends less time on the road, helps the Project Director prepare quarterly reports, handles correspondence, and manages logistics for the yearly training seminar for new instructors. Another is responsible for conducting formal performance evaluations for the state troopers working as instructors. All three Coordinators play a major role in the training seminars for new instructors.

## Instructors: Duties, Scheduling, and Staff Turnover

### *Duties and Responsibilities*

Being an instructor is a demanding job. Consider this list of duties and responsibilities compiled by the Virginia DARE program for instructors teaching the core curriculum for fifth and sixth grade:

- maintaining relations with school principals and other key school personnel;
- preparing weekly lesson plans;
- preparing and distributing student notebooks;
- preparing teaching aids, including posters, handouts, props, etc.;
- preparing guides to auxiliary activities for regular classroom teachers;
- reviewing and grading homework assignments;
- participating in extracurricular activities at the schools (e.g., Christmas programs, field trips);

- arranging school assemblies for the culmination exercises;
- completing DARE diplomas prior to the graduation ceremony;
- giving presentations at faculty meetings;
- giving presentations at parent education and PTA meetings;
- giving other public speaking engagements;
- recordkeeping of daily and monthly activities; and
- attending in-service classes.

Working as instructors may spare officers the burdens of shift changes and weekend duty, but, in the bargain, they must agree to work very hard.

### *Scheduling*

Ideally, any officer assigned to the prevention education program is full-time. When a police department is too small to support a full-time assignment, then the officer can be assigned other non-enforcement duties, such as community relations or office administrative work. One reason for avoiding enforcement duty is to prevent the instructors from having court dates arise that could interfere with their teaching schedule. A more important reason is to make sure that the officer's visible role as an educator in the schools is not compromised by enforcement duty.

Duty assignments and schedules vary tremendously across programs, depending on the ambitions of the program, the number of different educational programs in place, and the number of officers assigned as instructors. In this regard, DARE and SPECDA differ in one key respect: the DARE officers teaching the core curriculum for fifth and sixth grade do so five days a week, whereas their SPECDA counterparts have a mix of duties, spending three and a half days a week teaching the core lessons.

In Los Angeles, DARE officers teaching the core curriculum in elementary schools are assigned five schools per semester. The officers spend one full day per week at each school, teaching four fifth- or sixth-grade classes and one K-4 abbreviated program lesson per day. Time is also allowed for the officers to spend time with students more informally, so that they will come to know the DARE officers as friends (see Figure 6.3). In the morning, the officers greet students as they enter the school, and recess is spent on the playground. If DARE officers sense that a particular student is resistant to the curriculum or has an unfriendly attitude toward police, they will make a point of seeking out that student.

In New York, the teaching schedule is designed to give the instructors greater day-to-day variety. Three days per week, in partnership with the

## Figure 6.3
## DARE Officers Seek Time with Their Students Outside the Classroom

school-based drug counselors, the officers teach the core curriculum to four elementary school classes a day in the public schools. One day per week, the SPECDA teams conduct assemblies for grades K-4 or for junior high students. One day per week, typically a Friday, the SPECDA officers alone present the core curriculum at a parochial school while the drug counselors (who are public school employees) see students in counseling and attend to other duties. At some point during that day, each SPECDA team convenes to plan the next week's lessons.

It should be noted that, in smaller school systems, a similar mix of duties can be taken on by the instructor if fewer than five days per week are necessary for the core curriculum. With Project DARE, for example, certain days could be devoted each week to one-day assemblies at private

or parochial schools, abbreviated programs for K-4 or junior high, the full junior high curriculum, or follow-up sessions at schools previously served.

A daily schedule form can help instructors keep track of their appointments. In Virginia, at the end of each week, officers complete such forms for the upcoming week. The form for each day lists the school to be visited, its address, and phone number; the principal's name; which lesson is to be taught that week; and the classroom schedule, including times, room numbers, grades, the teachers' names, and the number of students in each class. The form also has space for listing any special events the officers must attend that day, such as PTA or faculty meetings.

Another important scheduling issue is how to make use of officers' time during the summer and during other school holidays. The problem is partly solved by the fact that it is during these times that the officers will take vacations. Beyond that, both DARE and SPECDA have found ample project work for the officers to do during these periods.

In Los Angeles, because so many schools have year-round operation, there are a large number of classes that need to be served. Other instructors are also assigned to compile and organize the instructional materials for the next fall. In New York, if officers worked overtime during the school year, they can take "comp" time during the summer. Moreover, the SPECDA officers give presentations at summer school, day camps, boys' athletic leagues, and at other special summer programs. Occasionally, they will man SPECDA booths at street fairs.

It must be reiterated that, for reasons cited before, the DARE and SPECDA instructors are not reassigned to enforcement duties during summers and holiday periods. However, assignments involving other forms of community relations work, neighborhood crime prevention, or administrative duty are entirely appropriate.

### *Staff Turnover*

Both DARE and SPECDA expect instructors to make at least a two-year commitment to the program. In New York, program administrators anticipate that nearly all officers will remain with the program for four or five years. They have thus far experienced virtually no turnover in staff. In Los Angeles, reassignment occurs after two or three years; only a few officers stay longer with the program to work as mentors with novice instructors.

Project DARE administrators view this quicker turnover as both inevitable and desirable. It is inevitable, in part, because the work is intense and, especially after the first year, increasingly repetitious. As noted in Chapter 3, DARE's core curriculum gives officers relatively little latitude in

structuring their lessons. By the end of the third year, some officers are "burned out" and welcome a change. Just as important a factor is that DARE officers are frequently promoted out of the program.

The turnover in the DARE program is considered desirable for two reasons. First, new officers bring new enthusiasm. Second, when experienced instructors leave the program, they are more effective officers, with improved communication skills, a different perspective on community problems, and experience in talking with school officials, community groups, and parents.

## Working With School-Based Counselors

As noted in Chapter 5, in New York, drug counselors were already in place in most of the Board of Education's school districts when Project SPECDA was initiated. It was therefore possible to form the SPECDA teams, to have police officers and drug counselors combine their differing perspectives in presenting the core curriculum for elementary schools.

The constitution of each SPECDA team is determined by the appropriate school district's Substance Abuse Director and the District Sergeant, based on their assessment of who would work best together. Whenever possible, to provide role models for both boys and girls, they try to pair male and female instructors.

For new instructors, a major focus of their training is to help build rapport between the team members. In the view of SPECDA's management, the system has worked. Only occasionally have they found it necessary to break up a team and reassign personnel because of personality conflicts.

It should be noted that, originally, SPECDA administrators had hoped to have police officer/drug counselor teams work together in the same school district for four to five years. But with rapid expansion of the program (see Chapter 5), veteran teams had to be disbanded so that new instructors could work with experienced people.

For a team approach to work, the police officers and drug counselors must work well together. The SPECDA staff notes that, in many cases, the drug counselors will defer to the officers, who, quite naturally, are the focus of the children's attention, especially at first. This is decidedly not the program's intent; responsibility for the classes is to be shared equally.

To facilitate that, the SPECDA teams meet each Friday to discuss their progress and to plan the next week's lesson. Other issues are discussed: how the curriculum needs to be shaped for a particularly difficult class; how their teaching styles can be made more compatible; how they can better manage the class (e.g., by taking turns in responding to students' questions, by remembering to call on students who do not raise their hands).

It must be remembered, of course, that the drug counselors have their own realm of special responsibility in working with at-risk or troubled students. The counselors are trained professionals: they know how to intervene with students, and they have a referral network they can call on. According to SPECDA staff, being paired with the police officers also increases the counselors' credibility with the students, which leads to a greater number of requests for assistance.

It is clear that having team teachers greatly increases the costs of a prevention education program. It is equally clear that, for each team, developing a coordinated approach to the lessons, working well together, and "getting along" requires commitment and hard work. But the SPECDA program has shown that, if resources are available to support team teaching, it cannot only be made to work, but can offer significant advantages to the students.

## Selection of Instructors

Project DARE and Project SPECDA have similar criteria for their officer instructors. When screening the dozens of applicants who wish to serve as instructors, both programs look for a certain type of officer: a veteran, but still relatively young; one who has excellent speaking and communications skills; and one whose appearance and manner project a professional image. The officer must have the proper motivation: a sincere desire to serve as a role model and to work hard as a classroom instructor. The officer must also have a spotless record, beyond reproach, with no disciplinary actions or investigations.

There is no room in these programs for the "macho supercop." There is no room for the officer who wants a "cushy" job with weekends and holidays off. There is no room for the "desk jockey" who is unsuited for patrol duty. DARE and SPECDA administrators insist that their officers must be the best.

These two programs have listed several specific qualities that they look for in their candidates:

- Officers with some college education are preferred. In both New York and Los Angeles, a few of the selected officers are former school teachers. Others have a vocational teaching certificate or have served as instructors at the police academy.
- The officers must have a strong desire to participate in the program that reflects their enthusiasm for its mission. Their motivations for applying are judged, in part, by their previous involvement with youth, as coaches, scout leaders, church leaders, etc.

- In both programs, officers who speak a foreign language are highly valued. In New York, for example, the current roll of SPECDA instructors includes officers who speak Spanish, Cantonese, and Greek; program administrators are hoping to recruit officers who speak Vietnamese or Korean.
- Given the need for continuity in instruction, and the difficulties in arranging for substitute teachers, officers who have taken minimal sick leave are preferred.

A conscious effort is made by both programs to ensure that the officers selected are representative of the ethnic diversity of the community and the particular schools to which officers are assigned. In New York, for example, 32 of the first 50 officers chosen were either black, Latino, or female. Whenever possible, officers are assigned to teach in the communities in which they grew up, perhaps even in the school they attended.

The selection procedures followed by DARE and SPECDA are also similar. Job notices are distributed throughout the department. Routinely, in both Los Angeles and New York, there are far more applicants than available positions. A background check is executed on each applicant, followed by an interview.

It should be noted that, while the Los Angeles and New York police departments take sole responsibility for selecting officers, some programs may want school representatives or others involved. In Virginia, for example, the Superintendent of Public Instruction and other members of the program's advisory board helped interview and select the initial cadre of DARE instructors. In addition, in several communities (e.g., Chesterfield County, Newport News, Richmond), local school officials joined police administrators in interviewing applicants and judging mock classroom presentations they were asked to prepare.

## Training for New Instructors

Both the DARE and SPECDA programs have developed extensive training programs for their new officers, to familiarize them with their responsibilities, to review the content and underlying philosophy of the prevention curriculum, and to introduce them to various teaching and classroom management strategies. In both cases, development and implementation of the teacher training has been a joint responsibility of police and school officials.

A key component of this training is for officers to prepare and teach one of the core lesson plans to fellow trainees, who play the role of fifth- and sixth-grade students. Building toward that, the officers have other

opportunities to speak briefly before the class. In Los Angeles, mentors assigned to the training unit, all of whom are veteran DARE instructors, help the trainees prepare for each presentation and offer specific suggestions for improvement. In New York, presentations of two, five, and ten minutes are videotaped and then critiqued by a veteran instructor who meets individually with the trainees.

Proper training of the instructors requires covering a broad range of subjects. The training is arduous: 80 hours in Los Angeles, up to 105 hours in New York. Topics include:

**Background Information**

1. current trends in narcotics packaging, distribution, use, and control;
2. current police enforcement programs and the role of other agencies in drug abuse prevention and control;
3. narcotics identification;
4. symptoms and signs of drug and alcohol abuse;
5. substance abuse prevention models;
6. stages of adolescent chemical dependency;
7. stages of normal child development;
8. the power of peer pressure on decision-making and behavior; and
9. elementary school operations and the role of the police officer in the school system.

**Teaching Techniques**

1. communication techniques in the classroom;
2. teaching modalities and techniques;
3. use of audiovisual materials and other teaching aids;
4. classroom behavior management (dealing with problem children, use of praise, use of proximity and body movement); and
5. lesson planning.

**Program Components**

1. review of program goals, objectives, and strategies;
2. core curriculum for fifth- and sixth-graders;
3. abbreviated programs for elementary school students;

4. one-day assembly programs;
5. presentations to parent-teacher organizations and other parent groups; and
6. presentations to principals and teachers.

**Public Presentations**

1. communication skills; and
2. how to prepare for public speaking engagements.

**Public Relations**

1. how to introduce the program at a new school;
2. how to interact with school administrators, faculty, and parents;
3. how to build community support; and
4. different sources of funding, including public monies, foundations, community service organizations and clubs.

**Miscellaneous**

1. how to recognize the emotional and physical symptoms of child abuse;
2. the responsibilities of police and school personnel in suspected child abuse cases;
3. procedures for handling information of potentially criminal activity cited by students; and
4. how to identify and prepare guest speakers.

**Duties and Responsibilities**

1. administrative duties;
2. recordkeeping requirements; and
3. relevant department guidelines and protocols.

For both programs, several outside speakers contribute to the success of the training. DARE, for example, asks a panel of school principals to talk about their impression of the program, its impact on students, and their insights into what is necessary for the police/school collaboration to function smoothly. An education consultant reviews teaching methodology and classroom management strategies. A specialist reviews the stages of child development, how to build positive experiences for children, and various motivational techniques. Finally, a health specialist describes the stages of adolescent chemical dependency.

School and police personnel also contribute. For example, the Los Angeles school district's reading specialist for secondary education is

responsible for the unit on communication skills. Veteran DARE officers and program administrators handle several sections, including public speaking techniques, faculty in-service presentations, and PTA presentations. A member of the police department's narcotics division reviews recent trends in narcotics use and trafficking. In addition, the trainees visit an elementary school classroom and confer with school staff.

The DARE training notebook assembled by school district personnel includes several background articles on drug abuse prevention (e.g., "How to Tell If Your Kids Are Involved"), child development (e.g., "Some Ways to Show Respect for a Young Child"), peer pressure, and child sexual abuse; guidelines (e.g., "How to Outline a Speech"); and checklists on classroom management (e.g., "Suggested Rules for Discipline," "Suggestions for New Teachers," "Words That Foster Good Feelings"). In New York, this type of material is included as part of the published curriculum guide.

In New York, a major concern of the training is to help establish a rapport among the police officer/drug counselor teams and to work out issues related to team teaching. Two key elements of successful team teaching are reviewed:

- cooperation — delegating responsibility according to competencies; recognizing and accepting differences between team members; viewing SPECDA as a joint venture, with shared responsibilities; and
- flexibility — accepting and giving constructive suggestions; complimenting one another; accepting change and making necessary adjustments; being open to the partner's suggestions.

Most important, the trainees observe demonstrations of team teaching by three experienced teams. Small group discussions are held every day, for clarifying personal feelings and beliefs regarding drug use/misuse/abuse and for building mutual feelings of confidence among team members.

For both programs, the training culminates in a graduation ceremony, with each graduate receiving a diploma. In Virginia, its first graduation of DARE officers was used as a public relations opportunity. Formal addresses were delivered by, among others, Virginia's Attorney General and the Director of the White House's Drug Abuse Policy Office. A formal program announcement included a list of the participating communities and the graduating officers.

## In-Service Training

Both DARE and SPECDA recognize that in-service training for the instructors is needed to keep their skills sharply honed. In addition, in-service

sessions provide a forum for program administrators to hear suggestions for supportive community activities or for revisions of the instructional materials.

There are three principal ways that in-service support can be provided. First, squad meetings during the school year are an opportunity for officers to share experiences, discuss and solve classroom problems, review especially difficult lessons, and so on. In Los Angeles, bi-weekly meetings are regularly scheduled. In New York, meetings are convened whenever possible on school holidays.

Second, once each year, the instructors can attend a special training session to refresh their training, review changes in the instructional materials, and see lessons modeled. In New York, a "SPECDA Reconvening Workshop" is convened for one day each year. A central feature of this workshop is small group meetings for sharing and problem-solving, followed by group reports at a plenary session. In Los Angeles, a week-long refresher course is scheduled each summer.

Third, training bulletins can be issued to staff. In New York, for example, a recent bulletin was issued on "crack." In another, a new department procedure was described that is designed to help parents or guardians learn if a substance they find in their child's possession is a controlled one.

# Chapter 7

# Monitoring Project Performance

Effective program administration requires effective monitoring of program implementation and impact. When first considered, planning and establishing the necessary procedures, developing the myriad forms, training staff to use them, and compiling the information as it comes in is a daunting prospect. But it is an inescapable fact that programs can only improve when there is good information on which to base decisions.

Moreover, documenting the full range of project activities and their impact is vital to making the case for continued growth and expansion. The reassignment of police officers as full-time classroom instructors is a major administrative decision. Continuing to do so can only be justified on the basis of hard data showing that the decision has paid off.

This chapter highlights three facets of effective monitoring: (1) establishing routine recordkeeping to document program effort; (2) monitoring the effectiveness of instruction; and (3) assessing the impact of the program on students' knowledge, attitudes, skills, and behavior.

## Establishing Routine Recordkeeping

Most basic is an activity or progress report to be kept by each officer. Recorded data can include number of classes taught, number of in-service teacher meetings, number of presentations before parent groups and other public appearances, description of other prevention activities, and so on.

Since public appearances are not part of the officer's day-to-day routine, it is especially important that these be documented: name and location of

the organization, type of group (e.g., civic organization, faculty), contact person, telephone number, number of people in attendance, length of program and topics covered, and needed follow-up.

Monthly project summaries can be compiled from these individual reports. The Virginia program developed a DARE Statistical Report for this purpose during its first year. For each participating community, the following data are summarized each month:

- the total number of fifth- and sixth-grade pupils in the community's public schools;
- the total number of public elementary school pupils reached by the core curriculum;
- these same data for private schools;
- the total number of public, private, and parochial school pupils given visitation (assembly) lessons; and
- the number of faculty workshops, PTA meetings, parent meetings, and presentations before civic organizations, and the total in attendance.

Obviously, statewide figures can then be tallied from these individual reports.

In New York, SPECDA reports the total number of "monthly contacts" — defined as the number of students per class, multiplied by the number of sessions per week, multiplied by four weeks. Thus, a class of 25 students seen once per week for four weeks would result in 100 reported contacts. Across each year's eight-session curriculum, each student represents eight potential contacts. For assemblies, which include follow-up in classrooms, each student represents two potential contacts. SPECDA reports the total number of contacts for each of the Board of Education's school districts and for the project as a whole.

Due to a special concern that the officers define themselves as school instructors who must respect the role of the principal in enforcing school rules, DARE administrators in Virginia developed a form to keep track of incidents that required the officers' intervention or involved them in a "counseling" role. This form asks for the date of the incident, the child's age and sex, and whether the child is a DARE student. The key section calls for the reason the child was referred to others (e.g., in possession of tobacco; threatened, attempted, or caused physical injury to another person), which clearly reminds officers that referral to the proper school authority is exactly what they must do in all but extreme situations.

## Monitoring the Effectiveness of Instruction

Program administrators, immediate supervisors, and mentors should frequently observe the instructors in the classroom. A checklist simplifies the observers' recordkeeping and helps guarantee that the instructors receive all necessary feedback.

Figure 7.1 shows a number of items that can be included on such a checklist. These items are organized into three categories: the instructor's presentation of materials, classroom management, and miscellaneous. If a team approach is used, as with Project SPECDA, additional items should focus on how well the team members work together, whether they share responsibility equally, etc..

### Figure 7.1
### Suggested Items for a Police Instructor Observation Checklist

Presentation of Materials

1. Follows the lesson plan as outlined in the curriculum.
2. Demonstrates good command of the lessons.
3. Introduces the class so that students know what to anticipate.
4. Emphasizes the key terms and ideas to be learned.
5. Periodically orients and prepares students for what is to follow.
6. Teaches at a pace that is not too fast and not too slow.
7. Makes clear transitions.
8. Explains the work to be done in class and how to do it.
9. Provides summaries of what students have learned.
10. Gives explanations the students can understand.
11. Stays with a topic until the students understand.
12. Finds differing ways to explain things that are hard to understand.
13. Uses good examples.
14. Interjects a discussion of his/her experiences as an officer in an appropriate way.
15. Shows examples of how to do classwork and homework.
16. Uses language appropriate to the students' grade level.

**Figure 7.1** (Continued)

17. Speaks clearly and distinctly.
18. Conveys enthusiasm.
19. Maintains students' interest.

Classroom Management

1. Keeps classroom order without stifling participation.
2. Provides students with clear rules of classroom conduct.
3. Provides students with standards for satisfactory performance.
4. Gives all of the students an equal opportunity to participate.
5. Encourages students to ask questions.
6. Is able to draw out quiet or reluctant students.
7. Gives the students enough time to practice role-plays, skits, etc..
8. Reinforces students who answer questions or act out role-plays.
9. Asks questions to make sure the students understand.
10. Asks students before they start work if they know what to do and how to do it.
11. Moves well from students' discussion to address major teaching points.
12. Rephrases students' responses as needed.
13. Is responsive to students' questions.
14. Continuously monitors student learning and adjusts instructional strategy accordingly.
15. Establishes eye contact.
16. Uses the blackboard effectively.

Miscellaneous

1. Has good appearance and posture.
2. Has a good relationship with the regular classroom teacher.
3. Lets the students get to know him/her as an individual.

Students can also be asked for their written assessment of the classes. In addition to open-ended questions, a number of statements about the classes can be listed, with students asked to indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each (e.g., 1 = Disagree a lot, 2 = Disagree a little, 3 = Agree a little, 4 = Agree a lot). For example:

- The classes taught me useful information.
- The classes will help me not use drugs.
- The police officer seemed to like me.

Another good way to measure student reaction to the curriculum is to ask them to agree or disagree with statements regarding what their classmates thought of it. For example:

- My classmates seemed excited about the class.
- Because of these classes, my classmates are unlikely to use drugs.

The police instructors, especially novices, can also be asked to keep a log of their experiences with each lesson, for several reasons. First, requiring this instills in the officers a conscious effort to analyze how each lesson went. This, in turn, leads to greater advance planning. Second, based on officers' experiences, school district personnel may wish to revise or update the instructional materials.

Third, this log helps the officers remember experiences or concerns they should share with their fellow instructors at staff meetings. Even within a tightly structured curriculum, officers must find their own teaching style, their own way of effecting transitions, their own way of encouraging student response. Greater program effectiveness will result when officers can teach one another.

One way for logs to be kept is to provide officers with a form on which they can report their reactions to each lesson upon completing it. Questions might include:

- Overall, what was the students' reaction to this lesson? Were they excited, bored, responsive, uncommunicative?
- Were there particular concepts or ideas the students found hard to understand?
- Which activities did the students enjoy most? Least?
- Were any of the activities inappropriate for your students?
- Did any portion of the lesson lead to any classroom management problems?

- What would you want to do differently the next time you teach this lesson?
- Compared to other lessons, how much time did you spend preparing for this lesson?
- How could your training have better prepared you to teach this lesson?
- Did the curriculum guide provide sufficient information about how the lesson should be taught?
- What improvements, if any, in this lesson do you suggest?

This type of information is especially critical in the early years of the program when a newly developed or revised curriculum is being used.

If requiring every officer to complete such a log after each lesson is too burdensome, then each officer can be assigned the responsibility for reporting on a single assigned lesson. Another possibility is to ask the officers to tape-record their answers to open-ended questions for later transcription.

## Assessing the Impact of the Program on Students

To measure the effectiveness of a police/school drug prevention education program, funders, senior administrators, or government officials may require a rigorous evaluation, one that involves control groups (that is, groups of students who do not receive the special classes) and the collection of follow-up data for several years.

Setting up such a study is complex, depending a great deal on the extent of program implementation, the presence of other anti-substance abuse programs, recordkeeping procedures, the ease of data access, and financial resources. For this reason, this chapter does not review various experimental research designs that might be used.[1]

Unless program staff possess research and data analysis experience, assistance in conducting such an evaluation should be solicited from local research professionals. In many jurisdictions, a social science professor at a nearby college or students working with that professor may be able to provide advice free of charge.

Whether a formal evaluation is required or not, police/school prevention education programs need to install procedures for measuring the impact of the prevention program on students' knowledge, attitudes, skills, and behavior. There are three principal sources of data that program administrators can routinely use: (1) surveys and interviews with students, teachers, and others; (2) school-based data on students' school performance; and (3) self-report questionnaires completed by the students.

### *Surveys and Interviews*

Regular classroom teachers, principals, and members of school/community advisory committees will have important perspectives on the success and failings of the drug prevention education program. In New York, for example, researchers looking at the Project SPECDA pilot test relied heavily on such interviews and roundtable discussions with participating students, classroom teachers, and the SPECDA instructional teams.[2]

Survey or interview questions can focus on:

- their perceptions of the program's overall quality;
- their reaction to various program features and to individual components of the curriculum;
- students' reactions to the program;
- its apparent impact on students' knowledge, attitudes, and behavior;
- obstacles encountered in implementing the program;
- any problems that arose in scheduling or delivery;
- any opposition from parents or others that emerged;
- suggestions for improvement;
- whether their expectations for the program were met; and
- whether they wish the program to continue.

One survey format is to ask respondents to indicate the extent to which they agree with statements concerning the impact of the program, such as:

- There are now fewer disciplinary problems at our school.
- Students at our school are showing a more positive attitude toward police officers.
- Students are showing a greater willingness to talk with teachers about drug problems at the school.
- Students are now better able to resist peer pressure.

While affirmative answers to these questions are not definitive proof of a program's impact, they are at the very least a useful way of establishing whether the program has strong support in the schools and the community.

If special sessions for parents are conducted, they can be given a brief questionnaire that asks their opinion of the session, tests what they learned, and assesses their beliefs and attitudes about the fight against adolescent drug use and the approach taken by the prevention program.

For example, Nyre[3] reports that, in Los Angeles, prior to the DARE session for parents, only 39 percent disagreed with the statement, "There is not much parents can do about their children using drugs," whereas 95 percent disagreed with it following the officer's presentation. Beforehand, 68 percent disagreed with the statement, "It is okay for children to drink alcohol at a party as long as adults are present." After the presentation, there was uniform rejection of that notion. Results from other questions from that evaluation showed strong parental support for DARE's goals and for having uniformed officers teaching about drugs. These findings were replicated during the subsequent school year.[4]

### *School-Based Data*

While neither DARE nor SPECDA had the objective of improving students' school performance, and it would be unfair to demand of them that they do, there is some evidence, as noted in Chapter 1, that they may sometimes have that degree of impact.[5]

If school records are thorough, up-to-date, and easily accessible, several types of data would be useful for an assessment of program impact on students' general well-being, including: (1) academic grades, (2) conduct grades, (3) number of extracurricular activities, and (4) absenteeism and tardiness, and (5) disciplinary actions, including detentions, suspensions, and expulsions.

### *Student Self-Report Questionnaires*

Periodic questionnaires filled out by each participating student (and perhaps also by control group students) is the easiest and most direct way of assessing both the short- and long-term impact of this type of program. While researchers often express concern about the honesty of such self-reports, especially when they concern socially undesirable or criminal behavior such as illicit drug use, the respondents are likely to provide valid information when certain precautions are taken.[6]

First, the questionnaires must be at an appropriate reading level. In some jurisdictions, versions of the questionnaires in Spanish or other languages may be needed. If someone reads the questionnaires to the students, that person should not be affiliated with the police/school program or be personally invested in the outcome of the evaluation.

Second, students must be assured that the information they provide will be held in confidence. They must understand that only the researchers will have access to their answers. The principal, their teacher, and the police officer instructor will not examine their questionnaires and will not be able

to trace which one is theirs. Clearly, for this assurance to be meaningful, the questionnaire must be completed by an entire class at once.

One way to ensure such confidentiality is to ask students not to write their name on the questionnaire, but to generate a special code number (e.g., the first letter of their first name, the last letter of their surname, and the day of the month on which they were born).

Alternatively, if other sources of information such as school-based records, will be used, and it is therefore important to know who filled out each questionnaire, a cover page with a code number and space for students to write their name can be used. The cover page can be removed, collected by the instructor, placed in an envelope, sealed, and delivered to the researchers, thus leaving students with the main questionnaire which is identified only by their code number. Students should understand that only the researchers will have access to a file that links code numbers and students' names.

With confidentiality ensured, students are more likely to respond to an open appeal for them to respond honestly.

Third, it is also desirable to use a "cover story" about the purpose of the questionnaire to take the focus off the particular prevention program. It should never be announced that the questionnaire is designed to see if the students were affected by the program. Quite often, if respondents know that the purpose of the questionnaire is to assess program impact, many will be motivated to "cooperate" by providing possibly inaccurate information that would reflect favorably on the program. One possibility is to simply tell the students that the questionnaire is for a survey of "students' attitudes and behavior."

It should be noted that, in the absence of random assignment of students to treatment and control groups, it will be necessary to have the program participants complete a questionnaire both before and after the program. Repeated administration is likely to make the questionnaire's purpose more obvious and could affect the honesty of students' self-report. If possible, the questionnaire should be administered well before and well after the curriculum itself, to make the link less obvious.

Fourth, if students are asked to report whether they have recently used a number of substances, an additional check on self-report validity is provided by listing a bogus drug among the substances.[7] Misrepresentation through the over-reporting of actual drug use can be eliminated to some extent by dropping from the study those respondents who report use of that non-existent drug.

Fifth, students can be asked to report how often their best friend used each of several substances during the time period in question. With that friend left unidentified, students may feel more comfortable reporting that information honestly. It is known, of course, that a major predictor of adolescent friendship patterns is alcohol and drug use.[8] Young people whose friends use alcohol and drugs are very likely to use those substances themselves.

A sixth method for enhancing the validity of self-report data is what researchers have called the "bogus pipeline" method.[9] As part of scientifically rigorous research, researchers will often collect urine or saliva samples by which physical indicators of recent alcohol, drug, or tobacco use can be assessed. When respondents know that such measures will be taken, and the veracity of their self-report can be tested, they will be motivated to provide accurate information. With the "bogus pipeline," however, the respondents are led to believe that such indicators are being taken, when, in fact, they are not. As one example, students can be asked to lick a piece of litmus paper (which will turn color from their saliva and thereby reinforce a belief that their actual alcohol and drug use can be detected) and to turn that in with their questionnaire.

One of the values of using student questionnaires is that there are a number of points of information that can be inquired about, including background information, self-concept, knowledge and attitudes, and substance use. Appendix B is a summary of a short-term evaluation of Project DARE, which should be reviewed for ideas regarding how data from the questionnaires can be analyzed and presented.

**Background Information.** To see what impact the prevention program has had on different types of students, students should be asked to provide basic background information about themselves, including gender, racial/ethnic background, age, parents living at home, number of siblings, number of older siblings, and language spoken in the home. If the possible impact of program participation on students' grades and conduct is of interest, and it is unfeasible to collect that data from school records, the students can also be asked to report that information.

**Self-Concept.** To measure students' self-concept or self-esteem, published scales can be used,[10] or a new set of measures can be developed. For example, students can be asked to use rating scales to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement (e.g., 1 = Disagree a lot, 2 = Disagree a little, 3 = Agree a little, 4 = Agree a lot) with various statements related to self-esteem and independent decision-making, such as these used by DeJong:[11]

- When somebody puts me down or makes fun of me, I always feel bad about myself.

- I usually don't let other kids talk me into doing something I don't want to do.
- I think for myself and make my own decisions.
- I often do things that make me proud of myself.
- Sometimes I do things I really don't want to do just so my friends will keep liking me.
- I often feel like I don't care what happens to me.

Program participants would be expected to score higher on an overall self-esteem index formed by adding the scores of individual items.

**Knowledge and Attitudes.** Students' knowledge and attitudes toward drug use can be measured in a similar way. The following items are examples:[12]

**Peer Influences**

- Real friends don't push kids into trying drugs or alcohol.
- A true friend would never ask you to eat or drink something that wasn't really safe.
- More than half the kids my age use alcohol or drugs like marijuana.
- If your best friend offers you a drug, you have to take it.
- Kids who use drugs have more friends than those who don't.
- If you attend a party where everyone else is drinking beer and wine that doesn't mean that you have to join in.
- If someone you like wants you to do something you think is wrong, there is no way you can say no and still be friends.

**Acceptability of Drug/Alcohol Use**

- It's okay for kids to try marijuana, just to satisfy their curiosity.
- Any kid who says that drinking alcohol isn't fun is really out of it.
- There is nothing wrong with kids smoking cigarettes as long as you don't smoke too many.
- Kids who drink alcohol are more grown up than those who don't.
- It is okay for kids to drink alcohol as long as it doesn't become a habit.

- Using drugs is wrong, no matter how little you use them.

**Consequences of Drug/Alcohol Use**

- Drugs bought on the street are not safe to use.
- It is perfectly safe to take medicine that a doctor has given to someone else.
- Sometimes the only way to keep from feeling sad is to get "high."
- When you have a really bad headache, you can take as many aspirin as you want to make the headache go away.
- Kids who smoke cigarettes all the time find it hard to quit when they want to.
- If you're under a lot of stress, drinking alcohol or taking drugs won't really help.
- Taking drugs can help you have more fun when you're bored.

**Attitudes Toward Police**

- Most police officers can be trusted.
- Police officers would rather catch you doing something wrong than try to help you.

**Miscellaneous**

- If someone offers you a drug such as marijuana, you should talk to an adult about what happened.

Similar items were used in the evaluation of Project SPECDA by Jacobs, et al.,[13] including:

- When you believe something is bad and your friends believe it is good, you should pretend to agree with them.
- Drugs that you can buy at a drugstore, like aspirin and cough medicine, cannot hurt you.
- People can stop using cocaine very easily because it is not physically addictive.
- The same drug can affect different people in very different ways.
- Police are paid to enforce the law, and they do not really care about the people they arrest.

It is also important to include additional items that ask students to predict their future use of alcohol, tobacco, or drugs (e.g., "By the time I enter high school, I will probably have tried alcohol at least once.")

It would be expected that program participants would demonstrate more accurate factual information about alcohol and drugs and less accepting attitudes regarding their use; agree more often that the majority of their peers do not use these substances; express more positive attitudes toward police; and be less likely to predict their own future experimentation or use of alcohol, cigarettes, or drugs.

**Behavioral Skills.** Questions can also be included to assess students' willingness and ability to refuse offers of alcohol or drugs. One format used by DeJong[14] is to show students a cartoon depicting three children, with two of them putting pressure on the third to try, for example, a marijuana cigarette. Students can be asked to pretend that they were the third child and the other two were friends from school and to write down what they would say in response to their friends' offer to them. Another format is to ask them to imagine another child who is tempted by an offer and to ask them to write down what the child could say or do.

Students' responses can later be coded by type of response; examples include:

- Student is willing to accept the offer.
- Student refuses the offer, but does not elaborate.
- Student refuses, citing inconsistency of substance use with self-image.
- Student refuses, citing consequences.
- Student refuses, attempting to change the subject.
- Student refuses, suggesting an alternative activity.

At least two judges should be used to code the responses. A demonstration of a high level of agreement between the judges will enhance confidence in the validity of the scoring system.

In response to these types of questions, program participants should be expected to more often indicate refusal of the offer and to use more effective refusal strategies stressed by the prevention program.

Similar types of exercises can be used to assess other skills that the prevention program emphasizes: the ability to articulate a set of personal values, to make decisions that are consistent with those values, to cope constructively with stress, to talk to others about feelings and personal problems, to find alternatives to drug use.

**Substance Use.** To measure the extent of recent substance use, students can be asked to report how often they used various substances over

a defined period of time (e.g., six months, or since graduation from sixth grade). Again, rating scales can be used (e.g., 1 = Never, 2 = Once, 3 = A few times, and 4 = A lot of times).

Substances to be listed include:

- beer, wine, and hard liquor (bourbon, gin, rum, vodka, whiskey);
- cigarettes and smokeless tobacco;
- marijuana (grass, pot, joints);
- speed (uppers, whites) and downers (reds);
- inhalants (glue, paint, "white-out"); and
- PCP (angel dust).

If other substances are used heavily in a particular locality, those should also appear on this list. As noted before, it is helpful to include a fictitious substance as a check of students' truthfulness in reporting their use of other substances.

An overall index of substance use can be formed by adding the scores for each item. Separate indices for alcohol use and for illicit drug use can also be formed. It should be expected that program participants would report significantly less frequent use of alcohol, cigarettes, and drugs.

## Endnotes

1. T. D. Cook, and D. T. Campbell, *Quasi-Experimentation: Design and Analysis Issues for Field Settings*(Chicago: Rand McNally, 1979).
2. N. Jacobs, D. Gruber, and E. Chayet, *A School Program to Educate and Control Drug Abuse: Pilot Program Evaluation* (New York: Criminal Justice Center, John Jay College of Criminal Justice, 1985).
3. G. F. Nyre, *Final Evaluation Report, 1984-1985: Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education)* (Los Angeles: Evaluation Training Institute, 1985).
4. G. F. Nyre, *DARE Evaluation Report, 1985-1986: Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education)* (Los Angeles: Evaluation Training Institute, 1986).

5. *Ibid.*
6. B. A. Rouse, N. J. Kozel, and L. G. Richards (eds.), *Self-Report Methods of Estimating Drug Use: Meeting Current Challenges to Validity* (Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse, 1985).
7. W. DeJong, "A Short-Term Evaluation of Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education): Preliminary Indications of Effectiveness," *Journal of Drug Education*, in press.
8. D. B. Kandel, "Similarity in Real-Life Adolescent Friendship Pairs," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 36 (1978): 306-312.
9. R. I. Evans, et al., "Increasing the Validity of Self-Reports of Smoking Behavior in Children," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 62 (1977): 521-523.
10. M. Rosenberg, *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1965).
11. DeJong, "Short-Term Evaluation" (in press).
12. *Ibid.*
13. Jacobs, et al., *A School Program* (1985).
14. Nyre, *DARE Evaluation Report* (1986).

# Acknowledgements

This monograph is designed to introduce Project DARE and Project SPECDA to the law enforcement community, school officials, and others who may want to consider bringing this type of police/school collaboration to their communities. Having helped in a small way to introduce this type of program to my home state of Massachusetts, I am hopeful that others will be inspired by what they read here, just as I was inspired by what I observed in SPECDA and DARE classrooms.

While some in the education establishment are skeptical of police officers fulfilling the role of classroom instructors, I have been delighted to discover that, as a result of careful screening and exhaustive training, these police officers will be among the very best teachers their students will ever have. In every class I have observed, even those taught by new instructors whose inexperience was obvious, the kids have responded eagerly to these officers. Each time, seeing the rapport between the police officers and the kids, I feel renewed hope that these programs will be the ones to make a difference.

I am indebted to several people who contributed their time and energy to help me complete this monograph. First, I wish to thank Carol Petrie, who first gave me the opportunity to be introduced to police/school substance abuse prevention education programs, and who served as the Program Monitor for this project. As always, her efforts (and her patience) greatly assisted me through all phases of this project.

My work on this monograph benefitted greatly from the time devoted to my site visits by the project staffs. I wish to thank the following individuals for their hospitality, their forthright answers to my questions, and their patience: Lt. Rodger Coombs of the Los Angeles Police Department, the Project Director for Project DARE, and Sgt. Don Van Velzer; Dr. Ruth Rich and Johanna Goldberg of the Office of Instruction, Los Angeles Unified

School District; Lt. Wayne Garrett of the Narcotics Unit, Virginia State Police, who has supervised the statewide implementation of Project DARE; Harold D. Lakey, Supervisor for Health and Physical Education, Virginia Department of Education; Deputy Chief John Jay Hill of the New York Police Department, the now former director of Project SPECDA; and Clendon H. Lee, Jr., Special Assistant to the U.S. Attorney for the District of Columbia, and Assistant U.S. Attorney John Palmer, who operates the Drug Awareness Program in the District.

Several additional staff members were especially helpful to me: Sgt. George J. Villalobos of the Los Angeles Police Department; Lt. James Davis, Lt. Tom Seery, and Sgt. Gary Gomula of the New York Police Department; and Detective Jehru St. Valentine Brown of the D.C. Metropolitan Police. I also wish to thank the many other people at each program who generously spent their time meeting with me, the many officers who allowed me to observe their classes, and the school teachers who allowed yet another visitor in their classrooms.

I am also indebted to Glenn F. Nyre, Vice President of Evaluation and Training Institute in Los Angeles, for his help in setting up the short-term evaluation of Project DARE that I conducted in 1986, and to Dr. Roberta Blotner of the New York City Board of Education, who graciously consented to be interviewed by telephone concerning the history and current status of Project SPECDA. Several law enforcement officials who had received training from Project DARE in Los Angeles kindly consented to answer questions about their experiences in bringing a drug/alcohol prevention education program to their communities, and I thank them as well.

I also wish to thank my advisory panel for their many helpful suggestions on an earlier draft of this monograph: Dr. Ellen F. Chayet of the Program Resources Center, Rutgers School of Criminal Justice; Sgt. Gary Gomula from Project SPECDA in New York; and Dr. Ruth Rich of the Los Angeles Unified School District. Dr. Jan Chaiken of Abt Associates also offered many helpful ideas for reorganizing this monograph, for which I am grateful.

Finally, I wish to acknowledge the contribution of several colleagues at Education Development Center (EDC): Eva Marx, who directs EDC's planning grant for replicating Project DARE in Massachusetts, for conducting the interviews with personnel trained by Project DARE in Los Angeles and for commenting on my earlier drafts; Avron Spiro and Marc Posner for their assistance in summarizing the research literature on adolescent substance abuse; and Vivian Guilfoy for her helpful reading of my earlier drafts.

William DeJong
April 1987

# Appendix A

## *Project Directors*

Project DARE/Los Angeles, CA

Lt. Rodger Coombs
Los Angeles Police Department
Bureau of Special Investigations
Project DARE
150 North Los Angeles Street
Los Angeles, CA 90012

Phone: (213) 485-4856

Project SPECDA/New York, NY

Deputy Inspector Gerard J. Cottam
New York Police Department
Project SPECDA
1 Police Plaza
New York, New York 10038

Phone: (212) 374-6770

Project DARE/Commonwealth of Virginia

Lt. Wayne Garrett
Narcotics Unit
State Police Headquarters
P.O. Box 27472
Richmond, Virginia 23261

Phone: (804) 323-2059

# Appendix B

## *A Short-Term Evaluation of Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education)*

## Method

### *Research Design*

Students in seventh-grade health classes from four junior high schools in Los Angeles were asked in January 1986 to complete a questionnaire as part of a purported national study on the attitudes and behavior of junior high school students.

Participating schools were selected by school district staff so that: (1) there would be roughly equal numbers of students who did and did not have the full Project DARE curriculum in sixth grade; (2) students would not have been exposed to Project DARE's newly developed junior high school curriculum; (3) students would not have been exposed to other substance abuse prevention curricula being tested in the Los Angeles schools; and (4) the study sample would include a cross-section of the city's ethnic and socio-economic mix.

A total of 1,663 students completed the questionnaire during regular classes. Of those, 714 (42.9%) indicated that they had completed a full semester course of Project DARE; 116 (7.0%) had only 1-3 sessions; and 833 (50.1%) had no DARE classes. From each class in all four schools, questionnaires were randomly selected to reduce the sample size.[1] This selection process resulted in a final sample of 288 DARE students and 310 NO DARE students.[2]

### *Questionnaire Measures*

The cover page for the questionnaire, which students removed after completing, asked them to provide basic background information about themselves: their name, sex, age and birthdate, number of siblings, and the elementary school they attended in sixth grade. Because Project DARE does not keep lists of past enrollees, students were also asked to indicate whether they had DARE during sixth grade for an entire semester, for only 1-3 classes, or not at all. To help disguise the purpose of the questionnaire, students were also asked to indicate whether they had participated in two other fictitious projects, Project SOLO and Project EAGLE.

The main body of the questionnaire first asked students to indicate their level of agreement (1 = Disagree a lot, 2 = Disagree a little, 3 = Agree a little, and 4 = Agree a lot) with each of eight statements related to self-esteem and independent decision-making. Examples:

1. I feel good about myself.
2. When somebody puts me down or makes fun of me, I always feel bad about myself.

3. I usually don't let other kids talk me into doing something I don't want to do.

Our prediction was that students in the DARE group would score significantly higher on an overall self-esteem index formed from these eight items.

The next section of the questionnaire consisted of three open-ended questions designed to assess students' willingness and ability to refuse alcohol or drugs. The first two showed cartoons depicting three children, with two of them putting pressure on the third to (1) take a sip of beer, and (2) try a marijuana cigarette. For both, students were asked to pretend that they were the third child and that the other two were friends from school. They were then to write down what they would say in response to their friends' offer to them.

The third such question asked them to imagine a boy, Bobby, who had just moved to a new neighborhood. He doesn't have any friends and feels very lonely. One of the older boys who lives across the street invites Bobby to a party, which he says will be a good way for Bobby to make new friends. But the boy tells him that he can't come to the party unless he brings some of his father's beer or wine to the party. The students were asked to write down what they would do if they were Bobby.

In response to all three questions, we expected DARE students to reject more often the peers' offers and to use refusal strategies that more effectively removed them from the immediate temptation.

Next, the students reported how many times they had used each of several substances since graduating from sixth grade, including (1) beer, (2) marijuana (grass, pot, joints), (3) cigarettes, (4) wine, (5) speed (uppers, whites), (6) downers (reds), (7) hard liquor (gin, whiskey, vodka, rum, bourbon, etc.), (8) inhalants (glue, paint, white-out), and (9) PCP (angel dust). Students indicated their responses using four-point scales (1 = Never, 2 = Once, 3 = A few times, and 4 = A lot of times). A fictitious substance, "thanatos," was added to the list as a check of students' truthfulness in reporting their use of the other substances. It should be noted that, for those students who had the DARE curriculum during the fall semester of sixth grade, the period of time asked about began a full six months after their completion of DARE. We predicted that DARE students would report significantly less frequent use of alcohol, cigarettes, and drugs.

The last part of the questionnaire asked students to report their level of agreement with each of 18 statements based on the content of the Project DARE curriculum, again using four-point rating scales. Examples:

1. True friends don't push kids into trying drugs or alcohol.

2. It's okay for kids to try marijuana, just to satisfy their curiosity.

3. Any kid who says that drinking alcohol isn't fun is really out of it.
4. Most kids my age use alcohol or drugs like marijuana.
5. Most police officers can be trusted.
6. If someone you like wants you to do something you think is wrong, there is no way you can say no and still be friends.

Three additional items called for students to predict their future use of alcohol, tobacco, and drugs (e.g., "By the time I enter high school, I will probably have tried alcohol at least once").

We expected DARE students to: (1) demonstrate more accurate factual knowledge about alcohol and drugs and less accepting attitudes regarding their use; (2) agree more often that the majority of their peers do not use these substances; (3) express more positive attitudes toward police; and (4) be less likely to predict their own future experimentation with alcohol, tobacco, or drugs.

Additional information was provided by administrators at three of the junior high schools on students' academic grades for the first semester of seventh grade and the language spoken in each child's home.

### Research Procedure

Students completed the questionnaire during one session of their health classes.[3] Before distributing the questionnaires, teachers told the students that they were participating in a "national study on the attitudes and behavior of seventh-graders" and that their responses would be kept confidential.

The teachers first asked the students to fill out the cover page asking for their name and other background information and to remove it from the questionnaire. To dramatize the confidentiality of their responses, the teachers then collected the cover sheets, placed them in a large envelope, and sealed it.[4]

### Data Coding Procedure

For the open-ended questions designed to assess students' willingness and ability to refuse alcohol and drugs, several response categories to describe their answers were developed. Two judges, both with an advanced degree in psychology, coded students' responses. If appropriate, students' responses could be assigned to multiple categories.[5]

### Caveats Concerning the Research Methodology

Before the results of this evaluation are presented, note should be made of several unavoidable weaknesses in this *post hoc* design.

(1) Students were not randomly assigned to receive the full DARE curriculum. The program was not implemented in a way that deliberately excluded certain groups of students, but *a priori* differences between the DARE and NO DARE study samples do exist.

(2) The schools from which the study participants were drawn were not selected at random. This was impossible, given both logistical constraints and the need to guarantee a true cross-section of Los Angeles students.

(3) Because the program does not keep a list of past participants, we had to rely on the students to identify themselves as DARE participants. No independent means of verifying their participation exists.

(4) Without independent means of verification, we must rely on the students' self-report of their substance use.[6]

## Results

### *Preliminary Analyses*

Analyses were conducted to assess the comparability of the DARE and NO DARE groups. Across the two groups, no significant differences were found in (1) the proportions of boys and girls, (2) students' mean age, or (3) average number of siblings.

On average, however, students in the DARE group reported having a greater number of older siblings: DARE, M = 2.0; NO DARE, M = 1.6, $t(527) = 2.2$, $p < .03$ (two-tailed test, pooled variance estimate). A comparison between the two groups in language spoken in the home showed that the DARE group included a far greater number of students from Spanish-speaking homes, while the NO DARE group included a greater number of students from English-speaking homes and from homes in which other non-English languages are spoken, $X^2(2) = 11.8$, $p < .003$. Finally, students in the DARE group had significantly lower grades in English (but not in math or physical education) during their first semester of seventh grade (1 = F, 5 = A); DARE, M = 3.2; NO DARE, M = 3.5, $t(359) = -2.6$, $p < .009$ (two-tailed test, pooled variance estimate).

While the DARE and NO DARE groups significantly differ from one another in some respects — number of older siblings, language spoken at home, and academic achievement — the contribution of these differences to the pattern of results in reported drug use or to other findings of the study is unclear.

For subsequent analyses to assess the impact of DARE on its students, all *t*-tests were executed as one-tailed tests. This was done based on earlier evaluations of Project DARE by Evaluation Training Institute in Los Angeles that showed very large changes in knowledge and attitudes by students who had the full curriculum.

### *Self-Concept*

Three of the questionnaire items related to students' self-concept were recoded so that, for all eight items, a higher score represents a more positive self-concept. Contrary to prediction, analyses of the individual items show no significant differences between the DARE and NO DARE groups. An overall self-concept index was formed by taking the sum of the eight items (coefficient alpha = .48, N = 714). As expected from the results for the individual items, the two groups did not differ on this index.

### *Refusal Strategies*

A count of the number of words written by the students in response to each open-ended question was recorded (winsorized at 99). No differences between the two experimental groups were found in the average number of words written. Thus, DARE and NO DARE students' responses to the open-ended questions were equally elaborated. Across both conditions, 31 students indicated acceptance of one or more of the offers depicted in the three open-ended questions. On average, students in the DARE group accepted significantly fewer offers: DARE, M = 0.04; NO DARE, M = 0.11; $t(494) = -2.2$, $p < .02$ (one-tailed test, separate variance estimates).

Across the three open-ended questions, a tally was made of the number and percentage of students who used a particular strategy in response to one or more of the questions. There are differences between the two groups, but their overall similarity is striking. In Table 1 are listed the three strategies that were used significantly more often by the DARE students. It should be noted that these strategies either remove the student from the immediate temptation or represent an effort to alter the situation.

### *Knowledge and Attitude Measures*

Fourteen of the knowledge and attitude measures were recoded so that, for all items, a higher score represents a more positive attitude or greater factual knowledge. Analyses for each individual item showed no significant differences between the DARE and NO DARE groups. An overall index was formed by taking the sum of the 18 attitude and knowledge measures (coefficient alpha = .70, N = 714). As expected from the analyses of the individual items, the two groups did not differ significantly in their mean index scores.

An index of students' predictions of their future substance use was also formed by taking the sum of those three items (coefficient alpha = .79, N = 714). Again, no differences between the two experimental groups were found.

## Table 1

### Percentage of Students Using Refusal Strategies Across All Three Open-Ended Questions by Group[a]

| Refusal Strategy | Experimental Group: DARE | Experimental Group: NO DARE | $X^2(1)$[b] | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Says needs to be somewhere else | 16.0% | 5.5% | 16.3 | ◄.001 |
| Suggests alternative activity | 15.6% | 7.7% | 8.3 | ◄.004 |
| Says "goodbye" or otherwise indicates departure | 24.7% | 14.5% | 9.2 | ◄.003 |

[a] Students' responses could be assigned to more than one category.

[b] All chi-squares are corrected for continuity.

### *Substance Use*

Analysis of students' reported use of alcohol, cigarettes, and drugs since graduation from sixth grade shows that the DARE students used these substances less frequently than did the NO DARE students.

An overall substance use index was formed by taking the sum of all nine individual items (coefficient alpha = .79, N = 714). This index showed a significant difference between the DARE and NO DARE groups: DARE, M = 10.4; NO DARE, M = 10.8; $t(511) = 1.7$, $p$ ◄ .05(one-tailed test, separate variance estimates).

Similarly, an alcohol index was formed by taking the sum of the items beer, wine, and hard liquor (coefficient alpha = .77, N = 714). Again, a significant difference between the DARE and NO DARE groups was indicated: DARE, M = 3.8; NO DARE, M = 4.0; $t(541) = 1.8$, $p$ ◄ .05 (one-tailed test, separate variance estimates).

A drug index was formed by taking the sum of the items marijuana, speed, downers, inhalants, and PCP (coefficient alpha = .56, N = 714). No difference on this index was found: DARE, M = 5.4; NO DARE, M = 5.5; $t < 1$ (one-tailed test, separate variance estimates).

Looking at individual items, DARE students reported significantly less use of cigarettes and hard liquor, as shown in Table 2. For all other items, differences were not statistically significant.

## Table 2

## Mean Scores for Reported Use of Cigarettes and Hard Liquor by Experimental Group

| | Experimental Group | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Substance | DARE | NO DARE | t | df | p |
| Cigarettes | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 567 | <.02 |
| Hard Liquor | 1.1 | 1.2 | 2.7 | 520 | <.004 |

For reported use, 1 = Never, and 4 = A lot of times. Calculations utilized separate variance estimates. The number of degrees of freedom varies due to missing data. One-tailed tests of significance were executed.

For legally available substances — beer, cigarettes, wine, and hard liquor — a differentiation was made between students who had experimented once with each substance and those who reported more frequent use since graduating from sixth grade. DARE students who had drunk beer were significantly more likely to have done so only once compared to their NO DARE counterparts: DARE, 71.4%; NO DARE, 53.9%; $X^2(1) = 4.0$, $p < .05$ (corrected for continuity). Similar results for cigarettes, wine, and hard liquor failed to reach significance.

### *Sex Differences*

For each of the several indices formed, two-way analyses of variance were calculated to test for interactions between the variables of experimental

group (DARE versus NO DARE) and (1) students' gender and (2) language spoken at home. Significant interactions were found involving students' gender, as shown in Table 3. Boys in the DARE group showed less substance use than those who had not had the DARE curriculum, but for girls, few differences between the DARE and NO DARE groups were found. For the knowledge/attitude index, boys who had DARE evidenced more positive scores, whereas girls who had DARE evidenced somewhat more negative scores.

## Table 3

## Mean Composite Index Scores by Experimental Group and Sex

| | Boys | | Girls | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Index | DARE | NO DARE | DARE | NO DARE | F | df | p |
| Overall Substance Use* | 10.3 | 11.3 | 10.5 | 10.4 | 4.8 | 1,562 | <.04 |
| Knowledge/ Attitudes + | 60.4 | 58.4 | 58.8 | 61.0 | 10.6 | 1,492 | <.001 |

*Low scores indicate lower amount of substance use.

+ Low scores indicate less positive attitude or factual knowledge.

Overall, these results strongly suggest that the Project DARE police officers are succeeding in teaching their students how to resist peer pressure to experiment with substances and to apply those lessons in their lives. It should be noted, however, that subjects in this study were only in seventh grade, at an age when the pressure to experiment with alcohol, tobacco, and drugs is not yet in full force. At this young age, the vast majority of students, whether they have had the full DARE curriculum or not, reported no substance use. Clearly, a longitudinal evaluation of Project DARE is needed to assess its impact on students as they reach high school.

## Endnotes

1. For one school, information on students' grades and language spoken in the home was not provided. For the other three schools, where such data were missing only sporadically, students for whom it was missing were not included in the random selection.
2. Data were coded and entered for the 116 students reporting having only 1-3 DARE sessions, but their results are not reported here. It should be noted, however, that all reliability calculations (e.g., coefficient alpha) were calculated with ratings for those students reporting 1-3 DARE sessions included (total N = 714).
3. Parents were informed in advance that the questionnaire would be administered and were given an opportunity to object to their child's participation.
4. With both the cover sheet and the main questionnaire identified by the same four-digit number, we were later able to match students' names with the questionnaires and were thereby able to add school-provided information on grades and language spoken at home.
5. After coding the first 50 questionnaires, the judges compared the categories they had checked off. Only two discrepancies were found, which were resolved. After that point, these categories were assigned by only one judge, each responsible for half of the questionnaires.
6. As noted before, a fictitious substance, "thanatos," was added to the list as a check on students' truthfulness. As it turns out, out of 598 students in the final sample, only three reported ever using thanatos. This finding does suggest that these data are not marred by misrepresentative overreporting of substance use. The extent of deliberate underreporting is unknown, but our efforts to stress the confidentiality of students' questionnaires should have minimized that potential problem.



. U S GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE 1987 - 2 0 2 - 0 5 2 7 5 1 9 5