



# School Security: Identifying and Addressing Sources of Inequity

# **An In-Depth Bibliography**

Version 2.2

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# STUDENT RIGHTS

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| Article Title/Reference:  | of school-based violence in U.S. high schools: An exploratory study. <i>Journal of School Violence</i> , <i>17</i> (1), 28-45.  Evaluation of the association between school safety strategies and incidents of school-based violence.   |
|---------------------------|--|
| True of Chudry/Aimen      | •  |
|                           | RQ1: Does empirical evidence support the presented theoretical framework for grouping school safety initiatives for the purposes of investigating their association with school-based violence?  |
|                           | RQ2: To what extent to specific types of school safety strategies and parental involvement and community involvement affect the number of violent incidents recorded in U.S. high schools?   |
|                           | Control: minority status, school size, urbanicity, neighborhood crime Explanatory: parental involvement, community involvement, school safety strategies Outcome: violent incidents, disciplinary action for weapon use or possession  |
|                           | Physical: locked grounds, metal detectors, security cameras Interactionist: behavior modification plans, counseling, mentoring, prevention curriculum, recreation/enrichment, promoting community Legal: contraband sweeps, random checks, drug tests, police/guard Preparedness: written crisis plans |
| How is Security Measured? | Frequencies and percentages as reported by principals, assistant principals, or disciplinarians  |
| Data Source:              | 2007-2008 School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS)  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: | Quantitative   |

- Negative association between parental involvement and number of violent acts, number of disciplinary actions for weapons (not firearms/explosives), and number of physical attacks/fights.
- Interactionist strategies are positively associated with weapons use (not firearms/explosives).
- Physical safety strategies are associated with increased violent incidents and physical attacks
- School size and neighborhood crime rate were both positively associated with number of violent incidents recorded

Notes: School administrators and other stakeholders need to be creative in developing approaches to understanding the association between school safety strategies and violence occurring in schools.

| BULLYING/VIOLENCE          | Fisher, B. W., & Tanner-Smith, E. E. (2016). Examining school security measures as moderators of the association between homophobic   |   |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | victimization and school avoidance. <i>Journal of School Violence</i> , 15(2), 234-257. doi:10.1080/15388220.2014.983644  |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Research question: Does the presence of security guards, security cameras, or metal detectors moderate the associations between homophobic victimization and avoidance of specific physical spaces at school? |   |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors                              |
|                            | Measures of school avoidance  | Student control variables               |
|                            | Fear of victimization at school   | Household control variables             |
|                            |   | School control variables                |
|                            |   | Homophobic victimization                |
|                            |   | Visible security measures               |
| Specific Security Measure: | Security guards Security cameras  |   |
|                            | Metal detectors   |   |
| How is Security Measured?  | Homophobic victimization: dichotomous response to, "During the last 6 months, has anyone called you a derogatory or bad name at school having to do with your sexual orientation?"                            |   |
|                            | Presence of security measures: three items for the three variables.   | e separate dichotomous student-reported |
| Data Source:               | Cross-sectional analysis of School Crime Supplement (SCS) to National Victimization Survey (NCVS). Responses from six panels were compiled into single dataset (N=41,229).                                    |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |   |
| D 1: C1 1 1                | C : '11 ' C.  | 1 4 37' 11 '                            |

Results: Schools that used one type of visible security measure, often used another. Visible security measures were associated with high odds of fear of victimization at school or specific avoidance behaviors (only security guards and metal detectors were associated with avoidance behaviors).

There was no evidence to support that visible security measures led to any extra sense of safety for students experiencing homophobic victimization when compared to those who did not.

Notes: It is likely that these results would be applicable to other types of victimization (e.g. race/ethnicity, SES, etc.). That being said, security cameras and metal detectors are not going to be able to necessarily detect or prevent most verbal transgressions/harassment, which is probably why students do not feel safer having these measures in place. In this instance, an increase in SRO's might be more beneficial.

| BULLYING/VIOLENCE          | Fisher, B.W., Mowen, T.J., & Boman IV, J.H. (2018). School security measures and longitudinal trends in adolescents' experiences of  |   |
|----------------------------|--|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | victimization. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 47, 1221-1237.  |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | RQ1: What is the relationship between a school's level of security and adolescents' experiences of victimization?  RQ2: Does a school's level of security relate to victimization between waves differently for black adolescents relative to white adolescents? |   |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors  |
|                            | Victimization (threatened, hurt, something stolen)   | Security measures Perceptions (safety, problem behavior) Bonds with teachers Suspension (in or out) SES School delinquency Neighborhood safety Urbanicity Location Free/reduced lunch School size |
| Specific Security Measure: | Controlled access, metal detectors, closed campus, drug sniffing dogs, dress code, random sweeps, ID badges, security cameras, panic buttons, security guards  |   |
| How is Security Measured?  | Proclivity towards security  |   |
| Data Source:               | Wave 1 and Wave 2 of 2002 Educational Longitudinal Study (ELS:2002)  |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |   |

- Being threatened with harm in Wave 1 was significantly related to the odds of being threatened with harm in Wave 2
- School security measures were significantly associated with higher odds of an adolescent reporting to be threatened with harm.
- Adolescents in schools with 1SD higher proclivity towards school security reported 11.5% increase in logged odds of being threatened with harm.
- Adolescents who perceived greater frequency of disruptions, misbehavior, and teacher bullying, reported significantly higher odds of being threatened with harm at Wave 2.
- Adolescents who reported receiving out of school suspension at Wave 1 reported higher odds of being threatened with harm at Wave 2.
- Hispanic and Asian-American students reported lower odds of being threatened with harm compared to white students
- No significant differences found between Black and White students and threats of harm
  - o Did not change based on proclivity towards school security
- School security measures did not relate to the odds of being in a physical altercation
- Black students reported significantly higher odds of being in physical altercation than white students
  - o Particularly pronounced in schools with lower levels of security; 1SD below the mean showed 24% increased likelihood of a Black student being involved in physical altercation
- Black students were more likely to be stolen from than white students (18%)
  - o Rate increased with increased security

#### Notes:

- School security measures may be more useful for detecting and responding to more objective and visible behaviors such as fighting or stealing, but less useful for instances of victimization that are more subjective.
- Higher levels of security may erode school climate resulting in students feeling less attached to school and more likely to engage in victimizing behaviors.
- ELS data is somewhat outdated at this point

| BULLYING/VIOLENCE          | Hyman, I.A. & Perone, D.C. (1998). The other side of school violence:  Educator policies and practices that may contribute to student   |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | misbehavior. <i>Journal of School Psychology</i> , 36(1), 7-27. doi:10.1016/S0022-4405(97)87007-0   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Presentation of information related to another perspective of school violence in an effort to lead to increased involvement by school psychology practitioners and researchers. |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: | Strip Searches Undercover Agents in Schools Corporal Punishment   |
| How is Security Measured?  | Literature review and survey data   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Mixed   |

- Victims of strip searches indicate that they can result in serious emotional damage including development
  of or increase in oppositional behavior, loss of faith in the administrator who conducted the search, loss of
  interest in academics, depression, hostility, anger, and ruminations about retaliation.
- Undercover agents create the potential for a climate of student paranoia and distrust of school staff leading to a negative impact on the learning atmosphere.
  - May only be justified in extreme situations where there is a strong likelihood of significant arrests for major crimes.
- Most school psychologists who work with students with conduct disorders in schools that allow paddling, will attest to the anger, rage, and desire for revenge that corporal punishment of any type instills in recipients (especially those with an abuse history).
- Preschool and school-aged maltreated children perform at lower levels than control children on measures of ability, academic achievement, and social competency, while also exhibiting more behavior problems, aggression, and poor interpersonal competencies.

Notes: "In their efforts to reduce school violence and student misbehavior, too often schools and school authorities contribute to the potential for violence by sanctioning or ignoring practices that victimize children."

Is this really happening in our schools?!

| BULLYING/VIOLENCE          | Kupchik, A., & Bracy, N. L. (2009). The news media on school crime and violence:  Constructing dangerousness and fueling fear. <i>Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice</i> , 7(2), 136-155.  |  |
|----------------------------|---|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | <ul> <li>Analyze news reports about school crime and violence from The New York Times and USA Today to examine the frequency and content of these reports.</li> <li>Hypotheses: <ol> <li>The frequency of reporting about school crime and violence will increase dramatically after these visible school crime incidents, and this frequency will remain high long after the story has ceased to be news (see Lawrence &amp; Mueller, 2003).</li> <li>News stories on school crime and violence are constructed in a way that exaggerates the risk of victimization that students face in schools (Lawrence &amp; Mueller, 2003).</li> <li>News stories on school crime and violence are constructed in such a way that prioritizes local, impressionistic knowledge rather than abstract data or trends (e.g., speaking to a local sheriff rather than an academic criminologist; Chermak, 1994; Welch, Fenwick &amp; Roberts, 1998).</li> <li>News stories on school crime and violence are constructed in a way that purports the risk of student victimization to be widespread rather than located primarily within areas with high crime rates (Cohen, 2002; Herda-Rapp, 2003).</li> </ol> </li> </ul> |  |
| Variables:                 | News Article Frequency (Number of news articles printed each year in USA Today and The New York Times that contain the terms school crime or school violence.)  Total Crimes at School per 1,000 Students Violent Crimes at School per 1,000 Students Percentage of Parents Who Fear for Their Children's Safety in School  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |  |
| Data Source:               | Articles written about school crime and violence in The New York Times and USA Today from 1990 to 2006 National Center for Education Statistics School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative & qualitative  |  |
| Results:                   |   |  |

#### Abstract

This article examines how the print news media report on the problem of school crime and violence. Based on a sample of news stories from The New York Times and USA Today, it analyzes the characteristics of these reports and how they fuel fears of school crime and violence. The study reveals that print news articles frame school crime as bad or getting worse; that they persistently remind readers about the potential for tragedy at school; that they rely on emotional responses to inform readers, rather than more objective sources of information; and that they describe school violence as being unpredictable while suggesting that schools should be blamed for failing to recognize warning signs of violence. These characteristics of news stories stoke readers' fears by providing a heightened sense of the threat of school violence, without a broader context for understanding how rare it is.

| BULLYING/VIOLENCE          | Mayer, M.J., & Leone, P.E. (1999). A s   | Mayer, M.J., & Leone, P.E. (1999). A structural analysis of school violence and |  |
|----------------------------|--|---|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | disruption: Implications for creating safer schools. Education and the         |   |  |
| Afficie Title/Reference.   | Treatment of Children. 22(3); 333-356.   |   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Researchers argue that SCS is partially out of sync with research/practitioner |   |  |
|                            | community that deals with this issue   | e.  |  |
|                            |  | nool safety and discipline operations, the                                      |  |
|                            | level of order/disorder in a school, a environment.                            | and students' responses to their  |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors  |  |
|                            | School disorder  | "Secure Building"   |  |
|                            | "Individual self-protection" (feelings   | "System of Law" (student knowledge of   |  |
|                            | experienced and actions taken by   | school rules and consequences and   |  |
|                            | students in response to school   | implementation of rules)  |  |
|                            | disorder)  | ,   |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Physical (security guards, locker checks                                       | s, locked doors)  |  |
|                            | Personnel-based (security guards, staff watching halls)                        |   |  |
| How is Security            | Composite variable "Secure Building"   |   |  |
| Measured?                  |  |   |  |
| Data Source:               | 1995 School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey        |   |  |
|                            | 9,954 completed interviews of United S   | States students age 12-19   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |   |  |
| D 1                        |  |   |  |

- With more efforts to run secure premises through physical means and personnel-based interventions, more disorder may be present.
- "Creating an unwelcoming, almost jail-like, heavily scrutinized environment, may foster the violence and disorder school administrators hope to avoid."
- With greater student awareness of school rules and consequences for rule infractions, combined with knowledge of the degree to which school implements its rules, there is less disorder present in the school.
- With greater disorder, students take more self-protective actions, specifically avoiding various parts of the school and living in a state of fear or heightened anxiety.

Notes: "Schools may be better off focusing on communication of school rules and consequences."

An emphasis on individual student responsibility and role in the school is likely transferrable to real-world application and would be useful in building/strengthening school connectedness.

| BULLYING/VIOLENCE  Article Title/Reference:  Type of Study/Aims: | Nickerson, A.B. & Martens, M.P. (2008). School violence: Associations with control, security/enforcement, educational/therapeutic approaches, and demographic factors. <i>School Psychology Review</i> , <i>37</i> (2), 228-243.  Examine the extent that different approaches to school violence prevention |   |
|--|--|---|
|  | and reduction (a) can be differentiated empirically and (b) are associated with school crime and disruption after accounting for demographic variables.  |   |
| Variables:   | Outcomes   | Predictors  |
|  | School crime (violent deaths, rape,<br>attempted rape, physical attack or<br>fight, robbery, possession of<br>weapons, possession or use of<br>alcohol/drugs)<br>Disorder (racial tensions, bullying,<br>verbal abuse of teachers, gang<br>activities)   | Demographics (total enrollment, % reduced-cost lunch, special ed, neighborhood crime) |
| Specific Security Measure:                                       | Characteristics of School Policies Violence Prevention Programs and Practices Disciplinary Actions   |   |
| How is Security Measured?  | dummy coded (yes, no)  |   |
| Data Source:   | School Survey on Crime and Safety  |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |   |
| D 1  | •  |   |

- Exploratory factor loadings yielded: Security/Enforcement, Crisis Plans, Educational/Therapeutic, Control
   The four-factor model fit significantly better than the one-factor model.
- Security/enforcement was significantly associated with school crime and disruption
- All schools reported using one or more security/enforcement strategy
- All but four schools reported using one or more educational/therapeutic strategy
- The predictor variables accounted for 38% of the variance in school crime.
- Larger schools and those with a greater percentage of students receiving special ed reported more school crime and disruption

# Notes:

- School-based interventions may only affect violence in a limited way, underscoring the need for school-community partnerships.
- "Get tough" approaches may have detrimental effects towards school crime and need to be researched further.

| BULLYING/VIOLENCE          | Nickerson, A.B., & Spears, W.H. (2007). Influences on authoritarian and educational/therapeutic approaches to school violence prevention. <i>Journal of</i>   |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | School Violence, 6(4), 3-31.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Examine the prevalence of schools' use of authoritarian and educational/therapeutic violence prevention practices and to examine the extent to which school size, SES, neighborhood crime, location, level, and number of full-time equivalent mental health professionals predicted the use of specific strategies.  |
| Variables:                 | Categorical: enrollment, free/reduced lunch, neighborhood crime, location, school level, number of full-time counselors  Authoritarian: metal detectors, paid law enforcement, removal or transfer, suspension, kept off bus, corporal punishment, detention, loss of privilege Educational/Therapeutic: formal programming, prevention training, behavior modification, counseling/mentoring, training for classroom management, parent training, referral to school counselor |
| Specific Security Measure: | See variables section   |
| How is Security Measured?  | Yes or no   |
| Data Source:               | School Survey of Crime and Safety (SSOCS) Public-use data file (2270 school principals)   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |

- Large, urban schools used both authoritarian and therapeutic approaches, such as security, violence prevention programs, and parent training.
- The most commonly reported authoritarian approaches were loss of privilege, detention, keeping students off the bus, and out of school suspension.
- Rural schools used authoritarian practices, such as corporal punishment and suspension without services, more often than schools in other locations.
- Schools serving low SES students were more likely to use security, random metal detector checks, and corporal punishment, regardless of neighborhood crime levels.
- A greater number of mental health professionals predicted the use of violence prevention programs, student involvement in resolving problems, and parent training.
- The most commonly reported educational/therapeutic approaches were formal programming and counseling referrals

# Notes:

 Measures are needed to assess the frequency in use of practices used by schools to prevent and reduce violence.

Bibliographer's Comments: If 95% of students are referred to counseling, how many are actually following through? What are the consequences if the student does not follow through. Whose responsibility is it after the referral is made? The parents?

| BULLYING/VIOLENCE          | Pollack, W.S., Modzeleski, W., & Rooney, G. (2008). Prior  |
|----------------------------|--|
|                            | knowledge of school-based violence: Information students learn   |
| Article Title/Reference:   | may prevent a targeted attack. Washington, DC: U.S. Secret Service &   |
|                            | U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from:  |
|                            | https://rems.ed.gov/docs/DOE_BystanderStudy.pdf  |
|                            | Safe School Initiative (SSI) completed an in depth study of 37 incidents of  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | targeted school violence (1974-2000). Semi-structured interviews   |
|                            | with bystanders, aimed to prevent targeted school-based attacks by   |
|                            | identifying what might be done to encourage students to share  |
|                            | information that they learn about these attacks.   |
| Variables/Questions:       | 1) What information was known by bystander   |
|                            | 2) What was the relationship between bystander and perp?   |
|                            | 3) Was the bystander alone, or did others know   |
|                            | 4) How did school climate and personal characteristics affect the  |
|                            | bystander's willingness to share information?  |
|                            | 5) What were the relationships between bystander and adults?   |
|                            | 6) In retrospect, how did bystander feel about decision, what advice   |
|                            | would he/she give to others?   |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               | 15 individuals who had prior knowledge of a planned attack and either shared knowledge to avert the attack or attended a school where a shooting occurred. |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative – Exploratory study  |
| Dacultar                   |  |

- 1) Incidents of targeted violence were rarely sudden impulsive acts.
- 2) Most attackers did not threaten targets prior to attack
- 3) No useful or accurate profile of students engaged in targeted school violence.
- 4) Most attackers had limited coping skills, had considered or attempted suicide.
- 5) Many attackers felt bullied, persecuted, injured by others prior to attack
- 6) Most attackers had access to and had used weapons prior to attack.
- 7) Most shooting incidents were stopped by means other than law enforcement
- 8) Other students were generally involved in the attacks.
- 9) Most attackers engaged in some type of concerning behavior prior to attack
- 10) Other people knew about the attacker's idea or plan prior to attack.

Bibliographer's Notes: This study is probably a little outdated now, given what we know about mental health concerns among individuals who carried out plans of actively shooting others in "public settings" (i.e. movie theaters, parks, etc.) But it would be useful to replicate this in shootings that took place outside of schools.

| BULLYING/VIOLENCE          | U.S. Secret Service National Threat Assessment Center. (2018). Enhancing school safety using a threat assessment model: An operational guide to   |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | preventing targeted school violence. Retrieved from: https://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/18_0711_USSS_NTAC-Enhancing-School-Safety-Guide.pdf   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | A guide providing actionable steps that schools can take to develop a comprehensive violence prevention plan and create processes and procedures for conducting threat assessments with a focus on decreasing risk (for student self-harm or harm to others). |
| Variables/Questions:       |   |
| Specific Security Measure: | Threat Assessment   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |

- Step 1: Establish a multidisciplinary threat assessment team with a specifically designated leader, including members from a variety of disciplines, with protocols and procedures, who meet on a regular basis.
- Step 2: Define prohibited and concerning behaviors with a relatively low threshold, keeping in mind that behaviors occur along a continuum.
- Step 3: Create a central reporting mechanism to be used by students, teachers, staff, SROs, and parents so that teams can respond immediately. There should be the option for passing information anonymously, and all reports will be kept confidential and handled appropriately.
- Step 4: Determine the threshold for law enforcement intervention (e.g. involving weapons, threats of violence, physical violence, or concerns about an individual's safety).
- Step 5: Establish assessment procedures which include maintaining documentation, using a community systems approach, examining social media, conducting interviews, reviewing class assignments, searching a student's locker or desk, reviewing records, establishing rapport, and evaluating concerning behaviors within the context of student's age/development.

Investigative Themes Include:

- \* Motives
- \* Inappropriate interests
- \* Stressors
- \* Desperation or despair
- \* Concerned others
- \* Planning
- \* Protective factors

- \* Communications
- \* Weapons access
- \* Emotional and developmental issues
- \* Violence as an option
- \* Capacity to carry out an attack
- \* Consistency
- Step 6: Develop risk management options including individualized management plans, monitoring, resources, communication with law enforcement, addressing safety of potential targets, creating situations less prone to violence, removing or redirecting student's motive, and reducing the effect of stressors.
- Step 7: Create and promote safe school climates by building on a culture of safety, trust, respect and social/emotional support, encouraging positive relationships among teachers/staff and students, breaking down "codes of silence," connecting classmates and the school, and identifying clubs or teams.
- Step 8: Conduct training for all stakeholders (e.g. faculty, staff, administrators, students, parents, law enforcement, and school resource officers).

| Kupchik, A., & Ellis, N. (2007). School discipline and security: Fair for all |  |
|---|--|
| students? Youth and Society, 39, 549-574.                                     |  |
|   |  |
| H1: African American and Latino/a stu   | udents perceive school rules and rule  |
| enforcement as less fair overall, less well-communicated, and less            |  |
| evenly applied than White students, with the most critical perceptions        |  |
| _   <del>_</del>  |  |
| H2: There is an interaction effect between race/ethnicity of student and the  |  |
| school safety strategies employed by schools.                                 |  |
|   | een race/ethnicity of student and  |
|   |  |
| Outcomes  | Predictors   |
| Perceptions of fairness (overall  | Security measures  |
| perception, belief that rules are   | Demographics   |
|   |  |
| •                                       |  |
|   |  |
|   |  |
| punishment  |  |
| Security guards   |  |
|   |  |
| Locker checks   |  |
| Survey data   |  |
| 2001 School Crime Supplement (SCS) to NCVS                                    |  |
| Quantitative  |  |
|   | students? Youth and Society, 39, 54 doi:10.1177/0044118X07301956 H1: African American and Latino/a stu enforcement as less fair overall, les evenly applied than White students among African Americans. H2: There is an interaction effect betw school safety strategies employed left. H3: There is an interaction effect betw sex.  Outcomes  Perceptions of fairness (overall perception, belief that rules are fairly communicated, rules are applied evenly) Student knowledge of school rules Student knowledge of school punishment Security guards Metal detectors Locker checks Survey data 2001 School Crime Supplement (SCS) |

- African American students perceive less fairness and consistency of school rules and their enforcement than do White students.
- Latino/as do not report significantly different perceptions of fairness than White youth.
- Latinos do not report significantly different perceptions of fairness than other youth
- African American males give higher overall ratings of fairness than other students.
- Students are more likely to give positive appraisals of school security if their schools use non-police staff as security guards (including overall fairness, knowledge of punishment).
- Being in a school that performs random locker searches for drugs is associated with positive perceptions of rule fairness, punishments, and knowledge of punishments when enforced by non-police staff.
- Students who participate in extracurricular activities and those with higher GPAs perceive greater fairness relative to other students.
- More advanced students perceive less overall fairness than younger students.
- Private school students give higher ratings than public school students.

Notes: Further research should focus on how particular school safety strategies take shape within schools, how they are applied across groups of students, and how social class in particular shapes the application of school rules across groups of students. Limitations include inability to explain much about students' perceptions of rules and rule enforcement from a statistical perspective, and many independent variables were not statistically significant in the OLS regression.

| DISCIPLINE                 | Perry, B. L., & Morris, E. W. (2014). Suspending progress: Collateral  |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | consequences of exclusionary punishment in public schools. <i>American Sociological Review</i> , 79(6), 1067-1087.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | <ol> <li>Do changes in the frequency of out-of-school suspension over time affect the academic achievement of students who are not suspended?</li> <li>Is the relationship between out-of-school suspension and academic achievement explained by other changes in schools' characteristics?</li> <li>Is the relationship between out-of-school suspension and academic achievement explained by changes in schools' levels of violence and disorganization?</li> </ol>          |
| Variables:                 | Gender Race/ethnicity Socioeconomic status Out-of-school suspension Academic achievement in reading and math   |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               | Data for this analysis were compiled as part of the Kentucky School Discipline Study (KSDS). The database consists of existing, de-identified school records and supplementary data collected routinely from parents in a large, urban public school district in Kentucky. Our sample includes students in grades 6 through 10 (middle and high school) who were enrolled in a district public school over a three-year period beginning in August 2008 and ending in June 2011. |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |
| Results:                   |  |

# **Abstract**

An influential literature in criminology has identified indirect "collateral consequences" of mass imprisonment. We extend this criminological perspective to the context of the U.S. education system, conceptualizing exclusionary discipline practices (i.e., out-of-school suspension) as a manifestation of intensified social control in schools. Similar to patterns of family and community decline associated with mass incarceration, we theorize that exclusionary discipline policies have indirect adverse effects on non-suspended students in punitive schools. Using a large hierarchical and longitudinal dataset consisting of student and school records, we examine the effect of suspension on reading and math achievement. Our findings suggest that higher levels of exclusionary discipline within schools over time generate collateral damage, negatively affecting the academic achievement of nonsuspended students in punitive contexts. This effect is strongest in schools with high levels

of exclusionary discipline and schools with low levels of violence, although the adverse effect of exclusionary discipline is evident in even the most disorganized and hostile school environments. Our results level a strong argument against excessively punitive school policies and suggest the need for alternative means of establishing a disciplined environment through social integration.

| DISCIPLINE / PERCEPTIONS   | Quin, D., & Hemphill, S. A. (2014). Students' experiences of school suspension. <i>Health Promotion Journal of Australia</i> , 25(1), 52-58. |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
| Variables:                 |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
|                            |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
|                            |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
|                            |  |
| Results:                   |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
| Notes:                     |  |

# **Abstract**

Issue addressed: School inclusion and academic attainment are key social determinants of health. Students who have been suspended from school are more likely to disengage from school and consequently not receive the health promoting benefits of social inclusion and academic achievement. This study sought to explore the experiences of students who have been previously suspended (i.e. had experienced school exclusion).

Methods: Seventy-four previously suspended adolescents from five schools in the state of Victoria, Australia, completed a written questionnaire. Students reported their understanding of the process of being suspended; what they did and with whom they spent the day(s) of suspension; and their perceptions of their return to school post-suspension.

Results: While suspended, a minority of suspended students received adult supervision and most suspended students participated in benign leisure activities. Upon return to school, students reported diminished teacher assistance and found that suspension did not help resolve the underlying issues that lead to the suspension.

Conclusions: Removal of a student displaying problem behaviours from the classroom may provide temporary relief to the school community but suspended students report minimal benefits from suspension. Suspension removes the potential pro-social normative influences of school and provides an opportunity to establish antisocial peer networks. Suspended students appear to perceive a stigma upon their return to school, further diminishing an already tenuous school relationship.

So what? School suspension exposes disadvantaged students to several negative social determinants of health. Students displaying problem behaviours would benefit from interventions that maintain the student's relationship with school. Should suspension be necessary, schools could assist by ensuring that suspended students receive appropriate adult supervision and a formal reintegration to school to promote social inclusion and academic attainment, two recognised key determinants of health.

| DISCIPLINE                 | Sweeten, G. (2006). Who will graduate? Disruption of high school education by arrest and court involvement. <i>Justice Quarterly</i> , 23(4), 462-480.   |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | £  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Assess the effect of first-time arrest and court involvement during high school on high school completion.   |
| Variables:                 | Graduated or still in school (final wave) Age (first wave) Arrest (ages 16-17) Court (ages 16-17) Delinquency variety (<16) Delinquency variety (16-17) Below poverty level Sex Race/ethnicity |
| Specific Security Measure: | Family income  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               | National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1997 cohort (NLSY97)   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |
| Results:                   |  |

# **Abstract**

Little research has assessed the effects of juvenile justice involvement during high school on educational outcomes. Using the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1997, this study assesses the effect of first-time arrest and court involvement during high school on educational attainment. In addition, differential effects by structural location are examined. Findings suggest support for the labeling perspective. First-time court appearance during high school increases the chances of dropping out of high school independent of involvement in delinquency. Furthermore, the effect of court appearance is particularly detrimental to less delinquent youths.

| RACIAL DISPARITY /         | Annamma, S., Morrison, D., & Jackson, D. (2014). Disproportionality fills in the |
|----------------------------|--|
| SCHOOL-TO-                 | gaps: Connections between achievement, discipline and special education in the   |
| PRISON PIPELINE            | School-to-Prison Pipeline. <i>Berkeley Review of Education</i> , 5(1), 53-87.    |
| Article Title/Reference:   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
| Variables:                 |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
| Results:                   |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
| Notes:                     |  |

#### **Abstract**

The focus on the achievement gap has overshadowed ways in which school systems constrain student achievement through trends of racial disproportionality in areas such as school discipline, special education assignment, and juvenile justice. Using Critical Race Theory, we reframe these racial disparities as issues of institutionalized racism. First, we examine specific education policies and laws that contribute to racialized populations becoming part of the School-to-Prison Pipeline. Second, using a state-level case study in Colorado, we illustrate through critical race spatial analysis the increasing overrepresentation of students of color as they move through the School-to-Prison Pipeline from public schools to the juvenile justice system. Finally, we discuss suggestions for improving racial equity and reducing the flow of the School-to-Prison Pipeline.

| RACIAL DISPARITY           | Kupchik, A., & Ward, G. (2014). Race, poverty, and exclusionary school                             |
|----------------------------|--|
|                            | security: An empirical analysis of U.S. elementary, middle, and high schools.                      |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice, 12(4), 332-354.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Analysis of school-level variation in school discipline and security in terms of race and poverty. |
| Variables:                 | Region   |
|                            | School characteristics (type, location, demographics, crime)                                       |
|                            | Security measures  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Drug-sniffing dogs   |
|                            | Metal detectors  |
|                            | Police officer   |
|                            | Surveillance cameras   |
| How is Security Measured?  | Dichotomous variables were constructed to indicate use of drug sniffing dogs,                      |
| ·                          | whether students pass through metal detectors, use of surveillance cameras,                        |
|                            | and whether a full-time SRP or police officer is present.  |
| Data Source:               | 2005-2006 School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS)  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |

- Metal detectors and drug-sniffing dogs (exclusionary measures) are more prevalent in schools with more racial/ethnic minority and low SES students
- Inclusionary social control is more common at more advantaged schools
- Metal detectors more common in schools with high numbers of students of color
- In low SES areas exclusionary security measures more prevalent in elementary and middle schools than high schools

# Notes:

- The authors suggest that "teachers and school administrators rely on racist and classist stereotypes of threat in interpreting student behavior."
- Federal school funding may have some influence towards elevating crime control agenda and marginalizing low SES and individuals of color.

| RACIAL DISPARITY           | Losen, D. J. (2018). <i>Disabling punishment:</i> The need for remedies to the        |
|----------------------------|---|
|                            | disparate loss of instruction experienced by black students with disabilities.        |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Retrieved from https://today.law.harvard.edu/wp                                       |
|                            | content/uploads/2018/04/disabling-punishment-reportpdf                                |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | The first state by state estimate of lost instruction due to discipline for Black and |
|                            | White students with disabilities.   |
| Variables:                 | Cumulative days of disciplinary school removal  |
|                            | Instruction loss  |
|                            | Disability status   |
|                            | Race/ethnicity  |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
|                            |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               | Department of Education's annually collected data                                     |
|                            |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |
|                            |   |

- In 2014-15 and 2016-17, Black students lost 77 more days of instruction on average than White students with disabilities.
- Nevada, Nebraska, Ohio, Missouri, and Tennessee are the five states with the largest racial disparity in loss of instruction for students with disabilities in 2015-16
  - Nevada: Black students lost 209 days of instruction per 100 enrolled (153 more than White students)
  - Black students lost more than 107 days per 100 enrolled than their White peers
- Black students lost more instruction than White students in all reporting states but Wyoming and Hawaii (4 states did not report).
- In 2015-16, 20 states were reporting that at least one school district was flagged for racial discipline disparities

#### Notes:

• At least some students with disabilities, especially Black students with disabilities, are punished for behavior that is caused by their disability.

| RACIAL DISPARITY           | Losen, D.J., & Whitaker, A. (2018). Eleven million days lost: Race, discipline,  |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
|                            | and safety at U.S. public schools. A joint report by The Center for Civil Rights |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Remedies of UCLA's Civil Rights Project and The American Civil Liberties         |  |
|                            | Union of Southern California. Retrieved from                                     |  |
|                            | https://www.aclu.org/sites/default/files/field_document/11-million-              |  |
|                            | days_ucla_aclu.pdf   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Descriptive summary of state and national level data demonstrating the impact of |  |
|                            | discipline on educational opportunity as well as highlighting concerns about     |  |
|                            | school climate and misunderstandings regarding school safety.                    |  |
| Variables:                 |  |  |
|                            |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |  |
|                            |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |  |
| Data Source:               | 2015-16 CRDC data from over 96,000 schools                                       |  |
|                            |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |  |
|                            |  |  |

- Nationally, school children lost **11,360,004** days of instruction as a result of out-of-school suspension (66 million hours, or 63,000 school years of lost learning).
- Nationally students lost instruction at a rate of 23 days lost per 100 enrolled.
- Black students lost 66 days of instruction compared to 14 days lost for White students (5x more than White students, and 17x more than Asian-American students).
- North Carolina had the highest rate; 51 days lost per 100 students
  - o Native American students lost 77 days per 100 enrolled
- New Hampshire: Latinx students lost the most instruction (55 days per 100 enrolled)
- Hawaii: Hawaiian/Pacific Islanders lost the most instruction (75 days), and Asian Americans the second most (24 days)
- Black girls lost 1.7 million days of instruction (45 for every 100 enrolled); twice the national average.
- Nationally, the student-counselor-ratio is 444-to-1, not the ASCA's recommended 250-to-1; caseloads are **78% greater** than recommended.

# Author's Recommendations:

- Policymakers should consider days of instruction lost when reviewing discipline policy
- Educators should review disaggregated data at least annually, and schools/districts should report this data
- Inequities should be reviewed when making budget decisions regarding security and school climate
- Parents, educators, advocates, and media personnel should demand more accurate data
- Policymakers should avoid spending money on police in those districts with shortages of teachers, counselors, mental health staff
- Federal government should more strictly enforce CRDC reporting.

Bibliographer's Comments: If students are missing days of instruction that put them behind their classmates, what is being done to catch them up? If nothing, what is to keep these students from being "lost" in class, and ultimately disrupting others and then being disciplined, resulting in more days of instruction missed?

| RACIAL DISPARITY           | Morris, M.W. (2012) Race, gender, and the School to Prison Pipeline: Expanding our discussion to include Black girls. New York: African American Policy Forum. Retrieved               |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | from http://schottfoundation.org/sites/default/files/resources/Morris-Race-Gender-and-the-School-to-Prison-Pipeline.pdf  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Review of relevant literature arguing for the development of gender and race conscious lenses and interventions that address he needs of Black girls in the school to prison pipeline. |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |

- Black girls are generally compared to Black boys as opposed to other girls.
- Black girls are marginalized three-fold: by gender, age, and race/ethnicity
- The pipeline is not as direct for Black females, but these students who are dissuaded from completing high school might still become involved in the criminal justice system
  - These girls might still drop out of school, are at increased risk of teen pregnancy, or becoming financially dependent on males who participate in the "underground economy."
  - o Females are often treated as coconspirators in partner's criminal behavior regardless of involvement
- Poor relationships with mothers, substance use, mental health increase vulnerability

- Dismantle policies that criminalize Black girls for non-criminal behavior (e.g. dress code violations, lack of school ID, using profanity).
- Implement appropriate, culturally-competent, and gender responsive interventions
- Expand the research that investigates how Black girls' identities impact the education system's response to them

| RACIAL DISPARITY           | Morris, M.W., Epstein, R. & Yusuf, A. (2016). Be her resource: A toolkit about school resource officers and girls of color. Retrieved from                       |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | https://www.law.georgetown.edu/poverty-inequality-center/wp-content/uploads/sites/14/2018/05/17_SRO-finalAcc.pdf   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Primary objective was to uncover the perceptions that SROs and girls of color have of each other as they relate to the collective construction of school safety. |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs   |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               | Three focus group sessions with SROs ( $N = 57$ ) and four focus group sessions with girls of color ( $N = 28$ )   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative  |

- SROs described their most important function as ensuring safety and responding to criminal behavior, yet are most often asked by educators to respond to disciplinary matters
- SROs do not receive regular training or other supports specific to interactions with girls of color
- SROs attempt to modify the behavior and appearance of girls of color to conform with mainstream cultural norms, urging them to act more "lady like"
- Racial tensions in local communities appear to affect the dynamics between SROs and girls of color
- Girls of color defined the primary role of SROs as maintaining school safety, and define sense of safety as being founded in communication and positive, respectful relationships with SROs
- African American girls, identify racial bias as a factor in SROs' decision-making process, and perceive that their racial identity negatively impacts how they are treated or responded to by SROs
- Girls of color described SROs as failing to recognize underlying structural factors and familial or community issues that affect their behavior and relationships in school

- Clearly delineate law enforcement roles and responsibilities in formal agreements
- Develop incident protocols and decision-making instruments for SROs
- Collect and review data that can be disaggregated by race and gender
- Implement non-punitive, trauma-informed responses to girls of color
- Develop community resource lists to support diversion and treatment
- Offer specialized training to officers and educators on race and gender issues and children's mental health
- Train educators on the limits in SRO activity and how to effectively handle disciplinary issues without police involvement
- Create opportunities for positive non-enforcement interactions among police, girls of color, and the community

| RACIAL DISPARITY           | National Black Women's Justice Institute. (2018). School culture and discipline |
|----------------------------|---|
|                            | reform in Boston-area primary and secondary schools: Policy recommendations.    |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Retrieved from:   |
|                            | https://docs.wixstatic.com/ugd/0c71ee_771165dfa8bc4af19374610989ab1e4a.pdf      |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | The National Black Women's Justice Institute led focus groups with 100+ girls   |
|                            | of color regarding experiences and needs in school in order to develop a list   |
|                            | of recommendations in an effort to reduce disparity.                            |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security            |   |
| Measured?                  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |

- Develop extensive continuum of alternatives to exclusionary discipline
- Eliminate suspension and expulsion for pre-K to grade 2.
- Use exclusionary discipline only as a last resort
- Co-construct dress code policies with students anchored in principles of dignity and respect
- Created responses to dress code violations that do not negatively impact instruction time
- Review and develop codes of conduct and other related school mandates that include gender/sex equity and student-focused responses to sexual harassment/assault
- Diversify teaching, administrative, and school leadership staff
- Invest in additional school counselors and therapists
- Create and conduct an annual review of school policing agreements ensuring that they reflect the needs of the student body
- School police are required to be receive training specific to children/adolescent mental health and cognitive development
- Create a parent council that aims to engage parents/guardians
- Provide all staff with training in understanding and recognizing signs of behavior linked with physical/mental disability
- Employ trauma-informed and healing-responsive strategies aimed at improving school safety and well-being.

| DISPARITY/ SROs            | Shaver, E. A., & Decker, J. R. (2017). Handcuffing a Third Grader: Interactions between School Resource Officers and Students with Disabilities. <i>Utah Law</i>   |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | Review, 2, 229-282.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Part I provides background about SROs, focusing on their training, definition of their roles and responsibilities, and available studies regarding their interactions with students, including students with disabilities.  Part II reviews the provisions of IDEA that pertain to the use of behavioral interventions to address undesired behavior of students with disabilities.  Part III examines recent cases involving claims brought by students against school districts, local law enforcement agencies, and SROs.  Part IV offers recommendations with regard to the need for a comprehensive training program for SROs, clear delineation of the scope of—and limitations on—the SROs' duties, and strict adherence by both school personnel and the |
|                            | SROs to their respective roles   |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs   |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
| Results:                   |  |
| Notes:                     |  |

| FEAR BY SECURITY           | Bachman, R., Randolph, A, & Brown, B.L. (2010). Predicting perceptions of fear at school and going to and from school for African American and White students:   |                        |
|----------------------------|--|------------------------|
| Article Title/Reference:   | The effects of school security measures. <i>Youth and Society, 43</i> (2), 705-726. doi: 10.1177/0044118X10366674  |                        |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Aims to examine the extent to which previous victimizations, indicators of incivility such as gun and gang presence at school, specific school security measures, and other social and demographic controls affect African American and White students' perceptions of fear of an attack at school and going to and from school. |                        |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors             |
|                            | Levels of fear while at school and while commuting to and from school.   | Previous victimization |
| Specific Security Measure: | Metal detectors Security guards Locked doors Surveillance cameras  |                        |
| How is Security Measured?  | Four dichotomous variables were created to indicate the presence of each measure.  |                        |
| Data Source:               | School Crime Supplement (SCS) of the National Crime Victimization Survey for 2005  |                        |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |                        |

- African American students were not more likely to be fearful while at school compared to their White counterparts.
- There were no differences in perceptions of fear between male and female students after controlling for the other independent variables.
- The presence of metal detectors increased the likelihood of students being fearful across all groups, whereas the presence of guards did so for Whites only.
- Each security measure (except locked doors) was associated with increased probabilities of students perceiving fear.
- When White students perceived rules to be strictly enforced at school, they had a decreased probability of perceiving fear while at school (not significant for AA students).
- For White students, residing in a central city increased fear levels both at school and while commuting while levels of fear for African Americans decreased while they were at school.
- Prior victimization served to increase levels of fear for all students.

Notes: Findings suggest that administrators should use caution when implementing coercive methods of control.

It seems fear is linked to community factors as oppose to school factors, implying the need to address community safety.

| FEAR BY SECURITY /         | Gastic, B. (2011). Metal Detectors and Feeling Safe at School. <i>Education</i> |                                       |
|----------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|
| INDIVIDUAL SECURITY        | and Urban Society, 43(4), 486-498. doi: 10.1177/0013124510380717                |                                       |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |                                       |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | R1: What is the relationship between the use of metal detectors and             |                                       |
|                            | students' sense of safety at school?  |                                       |
|                            | R2: Is this potential relationship differe                                      | •                                     |
|                            | H1: Urban students' sense of safety at  | school will be less affected by metal |
|                            | detectors than that of other students   | 3.                                    |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors                            |
|                            | Students' sense of safety   | Metal detectors                       |
|                            | School violence   | School location                       |
|                            | Student delinquency   | Student characteristics               |
| Specific Security Measure: | Metal detectors   |                                       |
| How is Security Measured?  | Survey data   |                                       |
| Data Source:               | AddHealth   |                                       |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |                                       |
|                            |   |                                       |

- Metal detectors are negatively correlated with students' sense of safety at school
  - On average, students at schools with metal detectors felt significantly less safe than students at schools without metal detectors.
- The negative association between metal detectors and urban students' sense of safety is 13% less than what it is for suburban or rural students.

- Because the stigma of metal detectors is diluted by recognition as commonplace, one suggestion is to place metal detectors in all schools; however this is not cost effective.
- Conversations should be held regarding how metal detectors will be used, for what purpose, by whom, etc.

| FEAR BY SECURITY /                 | Phaneuf, S. W. (2006). School security practices: Investigating their   |                                       |
|------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|
| INDIVIDUAL SECURITY                | consequences on student fear, bonding and school climate. (Doctoral   |                                       |
| Article Title/Reference:           | dissertation). Retrieved from the Digital Repository at the University of   |                                       |
|                                    | Maryland. ((301)314-1328.)  |                                       |
| Type of Study/Aims:                | Cross-sectional study   |                                       |
|                                    | H1: The level of student fear is higher   | in schools that use security devices  |
|                                    | than in schools that do not use sec   |                                       |
|                                    | H2: The level of student bonding is lo  | •                                     |
|                                    | devices than in schools that do not   | <del>-</del>                          |
| Variables:                         | Outcomes  | Predictors                            |
|                                    | Student fear  | community poverty                     |
|                                    | Student bonding   | community disorganization             |
|                                    | School climate  | % of teachers who were black          |
|                                    |   | school type                           |
|                                    |   | community gang problems student       |
|                                    |   | enrollment                            |
|                                    |   | security device                       |
| Specific Security Measure:         | "school security device"  |                                       |
| How is Security Measured?          | Dichotomous variable indicating whether a school uses security activities, regardless of type.                              |                                       |
| Data Source:                       | 233 secondary schools; principal, student, and teacher survey data from National Study of Delinquency Prevention in Schools |                                       |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:          | Quantitative  |                                       |
| Desults: Date did not summent sith | an by mathagia but the offert of acquaity of  | leviens was libely mediated by sebent |

Results: Data did not support either hypothesis, but the effect of security devices was likely mediated by school climate.

The use of selected security practices did not influence levels of student fear or bonding, but rather community poverty and disorganization, % of teachers who were black, school type, community gang problems and student enrollment influenced these levels.

Males, middle school students, and minorities experienced higher levels of fear than females, high school students or whites. Females, middle school students, and whites scored higher on social bonding measures than males, high school students and minorities.

Higher levels of fear were reported among those living in areas of greater poverty, disorganization, and community gang problems.

Notes: There was a low response rate from urban area schools with high concentrations of black students indicating a lack of generalizability of the study.

"Millions of dollars are spent each year on security practices in the absence of any strong empirical evidence that these activities actually reduce crime and disorder or make students feel safer while at school."

Future research should include more longitudinal studies.

| FEAR CREATED BY SECURITY          | Reingle Gonzalez, J. M., Jetelina, K. K., & Jennings, W. G. (2016). Structural school safety measures, SROs, and school-related delinquent behavior and  |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| MEASURES Article Title/Reference: | perceptions of safety: A state-of-the-art review. <i>Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies &amp; Management</i> , 39(3), 438-454.  |
|                                   | <b>3</b>   |
| Type of Study/Aims:               | Literature review examining the impact of school safety measures, including SROs and safety personnel, on school-related delinquency and perceived safety.   |
|                                   | The two primary research questions of interest for this meta-review are:   |
|                                   | RQ1. How do structural school safety measures and/or school resource officers (SROs) overall impact school-related delinquent behavior and perceived school safety?                                    |
|                                   | RQ2. How do specific forms of school safety measures (e.g. incorporation of closed circuit cameras only or utilization of SROs) impact school-related delinquent behavior and perceived school safety? |
| Variables:                        | Structural school safety measures  |
| variables.                        | School resource officers (SROs)  |
|                                   | School-related delinquent behavior   |
|                                   | Perceived school safety  |
| Specific Security Measure:        | Metal detectors  |
|                                   | Surveillance (cameras or closed circuit television systems)  |
|                                   | Access control   |
|                                   | SROs and/or security guards  |
|                                   | Other measures (duress alarms and drug-sniffing dogs)  |
| How is Security Measured?         |  |
| Data Source:                      | Only studies that relied on randomized controlled trials and pre-test/post-test  |
|                                   | designs evaluating the impact of at least one school safety measure in reference   |
|                                   | to a control condition were eligible for inclusion.  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:         |  |
| Dogultor                          |  |

• The vast majority of studies on structural school safety measures focus on perceived safety rather than actual safety

## Notes:

Results from this meta-review can provide educational administrators,

superintendents, and school safety policymakers with a synthesis of only the most rigorous and valid studies that evaluate the impact of school safety measures on both actual and perceived school-related delinquency and safety. This information will provide school safety decision makers with a state-of-the-art synthesis of how school safety measures impact school-related delinquency problems and safety, and which measures appear to be most effective for informing the allocation of scarce resources.

| FEAR BY SECURITY           | Schreck, C.J. & Miller, J.M. (2003). Sources of fear of crime at school. <i>Journal</i>  |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | of School Violence, 2, 57-79. doi:10.1300/J202v02n04_04  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Investigates community and school incivilities as well as the impact of school security on student fear, using cross-sectional data. |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors   |
|                            | Worrying about Crime at School   | Student demographics Community disorder school-related variables individual student exposure (presence of weapons, presence of fighting gangs at school) School guardianship Victimization experience attitudinal measures |
| Specific Security Measure: | Metal detectors Security guards Locked doors Visitor sign-in Locker checks Adult supervision of hallways                             |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | survey data  |  |
| Data Source:               | 1993 National Household Education Survey: School Safety and Discipline<br>Component  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |  |
| D14                        |  |  |

- No types of security reduce feelings of worry.
- Public schools are significantly more likely to use any of the security methods.
- Locked doors and drug education programs appeared to **significantly predict** worry; making worry more likely.
- Guardianship (hall monitors, locked doors, and restroom limits) correspond to greater worry about theft and assault.
- The use of some security stratagems is associated with an increased probability that a student will be worried beyond what one might expect given disorder and other important predictors.
- Victimization experience predicts worry about victimization
- Unsafe communities are a significant predictor of worry
- Recommendations for crime prevention:
  - o fewer doors in the building with which students can enter and leave
  - o smaller campus
  - o fewer stairwells
  - o fewer trees and landscaping
  - o principal's office next to the main entrance

#### Notes:

• Incivilities: the presence of physical or social objects in the area which alert people to possible criminal victimization, or violations of community standards indicative of the weakening of community norms and values.

| IMPROVED                   | American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force. (2008). Are   |
|----------------------------|---|
| RESEARCH/DATA              | zero tolerance policies effective in the schools?: An evidentiary review and  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | recommendations. The American Psychologist, 63(9), 852-862.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | A summary of a larger report commissioned by and completed for the American Psychological Association (APA) by the APA Zero Tolerance Task Force. |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
| 3.T .                      |   |

#### **Abstract**

Although there can be no dispute that schools must do all that can be done to ensure the safety of learning environments, controversy has arisen about the use of zero tolerance policies and procedures to achieve those aims. In response to that controversy, and to assess the extent to which current practice benefits students and schools, the American Psychological Association convened a task force to evaluate the evidence and to make appropriate recommendations regarding zero tolerance policies and practices. An extensive review of the literature found that, despite a 20-year history of implementation, there are surprisingly few data that could directly test the assumptions of a zero tolerance approach to school discipline, and the data that are available tend to contradict those assumptions. Moreover, zero tolerance policies may negatively affect the relationship of education with juvenile justice and appear to conflict to some degree with current best knowledge concerning adolescent development. To address the needs of schools for discipline that can maintain school safety while maximizing student opportunity to learn, the report offers recommendations for both reforming zero tolerance where its implementation is necessary and for alternative practice to replace zero tolerance where a more appropriate approach is indicated.

| IMPROVED RESEARCH          | Astor, R. A., Guerra, N., & Van Acker, R. (2010). How can we improve   |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | school safety research? <i>Educational Researcher</i> , 39(1), 69-78.  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Suggestions of new directions for research that can inform policy and practice in terms of preventing school violence. |  |
| Variables:                 |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |  |

- The multiple and different forms of violence should be investigated as they relate to perpetration and victimization among students as well as between student groups and in the context of student-staff relationships.
- Similarities and differences among perspectives in a school may add important insights about the organizational functioning of the school.
- Studies are needed to better understand the relations between gender and school violence perpetration and victimization.
- A deeper theoretical understanding of history, oppression, social hierarchy, and prejudice as variables connected with school safety is needed.
- There is little basic research aimed at understanding public perceptions of the school violence problem, in terms of both severity and causes; there are many school violence myths and stereotypes, often fueled by the international news media and a focus on isolated cases.
- There is an absence of research exploring how school districts, municipalities, counties, or regions implement or support widespread safety programs.
- More studies are needed that focus on identifying model schools that have shown great reductions in school violence rates.

| IMPROVED                   | Borum R., Cornell D. G., Modzeleski W., Jimerson S.   | R. (2010). What can be done about school |
|----------------------------|---|--|
| RESEARCH                   | shootings? A review of the evidence. <i>Educational</i>   | l Researcher, 39(1), 27–37.              |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | An examination of the empirical evidence of school ar of best practice of prevention of school shootings. |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors                               |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |  |
| Data Source:               |   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Literature Review   |  |

- School shootings are extremely rare. It is estimated that any given school in the United States can expect to experience a student homicide about once every 6,000 years (less than 1% of the annual homicides of youth ages 5-18).
- Current efforts to prevent school shootings
  - Gun-Free Schools Act of 1994 requiring states to enact laws requiring the expulsion of students who bring guns to school
  - Zero-tolerance policies severe sanctions for minor offenses in an effort to prevent more serious ones from occurring
  - Persistently Dangerous Schools initiative of NCLB students can choose to switch out of dangerous schools
  - Increased school security measures
  - Profiling the attempt to profile students who might engage in a targeted school-based attack; unfairly labels students
    as dangerous
    - There is no accurate or useful demographic or social profile of school attackers
    - Warning signs
- Threat Assessments (11 Questions for Assessing Threats of Targeted Violence in Schools)
  - O What are the student's motives or goals?
  - o Have there been any communications suggesting ideas or intent to attack?
  - o Has the student shown inappropriate interest in school attacks or attackers, weapons, or incidents of mass violence?
  - O Has the student engaged in attack-related behaviors?
  - o Is the student experiencing hopelessness, desperation, and/or despair?
  - o Does the student see violence as an acceptable, desirable, or the only way to solve problems?
  - o Is the student's conversation and "story" consistent with actions?
  - Are other people concerned about the student's potential for violence?
  - What circumstances might affect the likelihood of an attack?
- PREPaRE Model of School Crisis Prevention and Intervention
  - Preventing and preparing for psychological trauma
  - Reaffirming physical health and perceptions of security and safety
  - Evaluating psychological trauma risk
  - o **Providing interventions**
  - Responding to psychological needs
  - Examining the effectiveness of crisis prevention and intervention
- Schools using the threat assessment approach can resolve student conflicts, identify students in need, reduce misbehavior, and retain students in school

SROs in the schools should be trained in threat assessment, as well as crisis prevention and intervention if they are not already. CIT (Crisis Intervention Training) officers exist in most precincts to assist with mental health issues/concerns, why shouldn't SROs have this training as well?

| IMPROVED RESEARCH          | Cornell, D. G., & Mayer, M. J. (2010). Why do school order and safety |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | matter? Educational Researcher, 39(1), 7-15.                          |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Introductory article of special issue related to safety/school order  |
| Variables:                 | School safety   |
|                            | School disorder   |
|                            | School order  |
| Specific Security Measure: | N/A   |
| How is Security Measured?  | N/A   |
| Data Source:               | Other articles in Educational Researcher                              |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative   |

- School violence involves a variety of problems and challenges as opposed to a single problem with a simple solution.
- School safety is relevant to studies concerning the achievement gap, teacher attrition, dropout, community poverty, cultural disenfranchisement, etc.
- Mental health needs are common among students who engaged in school shootings.
- High-risk youth often exhibit comorbid conditions not adequately addressed by most theoretical/prevention models.
- Life experiences, belief systems, and thought processes drive student behavior.
- Bullying interventions call for more attention to race, disability, and sexual orientation, as well as including family, peer, and school climate.
- School discipline entails not just punishment but rather the development of student self-discipline by way of expectations, autonomy, school climate, and influence of teachers and support skills.
- Schools using positive behavior supports found improved student behavior but still a discrepancy among Black and Latino students.
- School safety research suffers issues of internal validity.

School SAFETY not school SECURITY is largely what should be the focus.

| IMPROVED RESEARCH          | Espelage, D. L. (2014, November). Using NCES surveys to understand school violence and bullying. In <i>Paper Prepared for the Workshop to</i>       |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | Examine Current and Potential Uses of NCES Longitudinal Surveys by the Education Research Community, Washington, DC: National Academy of Education. |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Review of the NCES measures to recommend changes/improvement of current research.   |
| Variables:                 | Bullying/victimization<br>School violence   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               | ELS:2002, HSLS:2009   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |

# Recommendations:

- Follow ECLSK:2011 youth and families into early and late adolescence
  - · Would allow for addition of different types of violence and at-risk behaviors and protective factors that directly/indirectly impact academic success.
  - · There is currently only one item pertaining to bullying/victimization
- Distinguish bullying from student aggression
- Utilize multi-informant data (teachers, parents, schools, community members)
- Tie school security measures to student outcomes more specifically to determine if the increase in security measures has an impact of reducing school violence and promoting school safety.

# Notes:

• Increasing the number of variables addressed, specifically related to bullying and violence could lend to better research/interventions related to prevention.

| IMPROVED RESEARCH          | Mayer, M. J., & Furlong, M. J. (2010). How safe are our schools?.         |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | Educational Researcher, 39(1), 16-26.                                     |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Aims to identify some of the conceptual and methodological challenges     |
|                            | that must be addressed while calling for a plan to improve school         |
|                            | safety.   |
|                            | "What is the connection between school safety statistical reports and the |
|                            | real-life experiences of students in schools?"                            |
| Variables:                 | School disorder   |
|                            | Victimization   |
|                            | Individual and School characteristics                                     |
|                            | Systemic factors  |
|                            | Risk and Protective factors   |
|                            | Contextual variables  |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               | NCVS, SCS, CDC YRBSS, Monitoring Future Study                             |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |

- 21 student deaths per year from 1996-2006: schools are among the safest places for youth.
- There are no standardized methods of collecting and reporting school-based crime incidents nationally, and most data come from anonymous self-report surveys that do not track respondents over time.
- There is no uniform school safety data collection and recording framework and practices vary.
- Data suggests that progress has been made since the 1990s but significant violence, bullying, and related threatening and intimidating behaviors continue in schools.
- School systems seem to pay more attention to instances of extreme violence as opposed to long-term non-life-threatening instances of disruption or violence.
- Exposure to community violence has a negative psychological impact upon students.
- Managing gun access by youth is a national, state, and community level challenge far beyond school level.

# Notes:

Ouestions for future research include:

- 1) What are the standards of risk for harm, and how should they be defined?
- 2) What are acceptable and unacceptable degrees of risk, and how do they mesh with societal commitment to address the risk?
- 3) What should be measured, how should it be measured, and to what does it connect?
- 4) What are the primary research questions and the methodologies to answer them?
- 5) What future structures and approaches will help not only bridge the research-to-practice gap but promote increased effectiveness and synergy across research, policy, and practice?

| IMPROVED                  | Schnabolk, C. (2012, December 1  | ). The evolution of school security. <i>Security</i> |
|---------------------------|--|--|
| RESEARCH                  | Management. Retrieved from:  | https://sm.asisonline.org/Pages/evolution-school-    |
| Article Title/Reference:  | security-0011412.aspx.   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:       | Provides a brief history of the changes in school security measures so as to put |  |
|                           | Sandy Hook shooting in persp   | pective.   |
| Variables:                | Outcomes   | Predictors   |
|                           |  |  |
| Specific Security         |  |  |
| Measure:                  |  |  |
| How is Security           |  |  |
| Measured?                 |  |  |
| Data Source:              |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: |  |  |

- "I have never found a practical solution that can stop a deranged individual from entering a school and slaughtering students and killing himself."
- 1970s:
  - o school security was largely neglected
  - o most public schools focused on preventing night-time vandalism and visual-aid equipment theft
- 1980s:
  - Audio detectors were placed in some schools that alerted police to potential theft, but many were false alarms
  - Most devices focused on protecting the *building* and not the *students*
  - o 1984: Fail-safe electromagnetic locks on exits were used in some schools but were very expensive.
  - o 1986: NYC; an intruder entered a school and killed a student; \$20 million was allocated to locking exits by the district **the next day**
  - o Panic buttons were provided to teachers in some school districts **after** threats against them had been made by their own students
    - Schools had it removed after teachers claimed "big brother" was watching them combined with technical issues and false alarms caused by students pressing the buttons.
- Present day:
  - One of the schools that dismissed panic buttons now has all doors locked at all times with a police officer at the front entrance, students and visitors pass through metal detectors upon entering the building, all visitors must present photo ID which is used to check for criminal record or offender status
  - Sandy Hook: conducted training drills, had panic alarms, access controls, and other measures, but no system is 100% effective.
- Building design:
  - Architects do not account for security and protection when designing schools

- School security has always been *reactive* instead of *proactive*.
- Most guns used in mass killings were obtained legally.

| INTERVENTION               | Bradshaw, C.P., Waasdorp, T.E., & Leaf, P.J. (2012). Effects of school-wide   |
|----------------------------|---|
|                            | positive behavioral interventions and supports on child behavior problems,  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Pediatrics, 130(5), 1136-1145   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Reports intervention effects on child behaviors and adjustment from an effectiveness trial of School-Wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports.   |
| Variables:                 | School-level (mobility, student/teacher ratio, faculty turnover, enrollment) Student-level (special ed status, ethnicity, grade, free/reduced price lunch, gender  Outcome variables (aggressive/disruptive behaviors, prosocial behaviors, emotion regulation) |
| Specific Security Measure: | SWPBIS  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               | Teacher reported data from 37 elementary schools, collected over 4 years  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |

- Children in SWPBIS schools had
  - o lower levels of aggressive and disruptive behaviors
  - o fewer concentration problems
  - o higher levels of positive behaviors
  - o higher levels of emotion regulation
  - o less likelihood of receiving a disciplinary referral
- Children who were in kindergarten with the trial began, fared better in SWPBIS schools on both prosocial behavior and emotion regulation

Bibliographer's Comments: This study speaks to the utility of school-wide approaches to improving emotion regulation and reducing problematic behaviors, which could ultimately reduce the need for physical security measures long-term.

| INTERVENTION               | National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges. (2016). Judicially-led Responses to the School Pathways to the Juvenile Justice System Project: An Overview of the Lessons |
|----------------------------|--|
|                            | Learned. Reno, NV: Author. Retrieved from  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | https://www.ncjfcj.org/sites/default/files/NCJFCJ_School_Pathways_ TAB _Final.pdf  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | School Pathways Project aimed to reform school to court referral practices and   |
|                            | work collaboratively to find effective and safe alternatives to zero tolerance   |
|                            | policies.  |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs   |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
|                            |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
|                            |  |

- There is a lack of reliable data on juvenile justice coming from schools
- Positive changes in stakeholder attitudes and behaviors after the first round of site visits were found
- Judicial leadership varies across sites: an experienced judge who understands sharing project leadership is key
- Choosing the right SROs, officers, and school security guards is critical
  - o Must understand reasons for alternative responses and brain development issues
- MOUs must be developed with specificity to the jurisdiction and should direct law enforcement and schools how to handle disruptive behaviors and how discipline will be enforced
- Training SROs should include training on alternative responses and diversion
- Each jurisdiction presents unique challenges and dynamics that limit effectiveness of one-size-fits-all approaches.

| INTERVENTION               | O'Brennan, L., Furlong, M.J., & Yang, C. (2018). Promoting collaboration  |
|----------------------------|---|
|                            | among education professionals to enhance school safety. In M.J. Mayer & S.R.  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Jimerson (Eds.), School safety and violence prevention: Science, practice, and  |
|                            | policy driving change (Chapter 11). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Examination of an integrated school/community model to enhance school safety and a review of strategies that promote collaboration. |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |

- Delaware school Surveys (2015-16) and Virginia Safe School Surveys provide examples of comprehensive measures readily accessible to school safety items
  - o Gather data related to student, teacher, parent perceptions of school climate, bullying/victimization, student engagement, social-emotional functioning within the school
- Balance-Communication-Connectedness-Support (BCCS) Model:
  - o Balance: prevention and intervention programs in place with emphasis on physical and emotional security
  - Communication: open channels of communication and school-wide violence teams who are trained and prepared
  - Connectedness: all members of school community feel that they belong and relationships are built and fostered
  - Support: Adequate mental health support with resources to maintain evidence-based practice/programs
  - Strong multi-disciplinary teams that include educators, school psychologists, counselors, educational support professionals, principals, students, family members, other stakeholders who regularly review data, identify patterns of student concerns, and develop a plan for improvement
  - o Local school, state, and national level access to information is needed
  - School safety teams are encouraged to identify resources within school, district and communities to allow for collection and interpretation of data
  - Administrators or encouraged to provide increased training on school climate, school connectedness, and safety
  - Student mental health issues should be considered (e.g. trauma exposure in the school context)
- Students, Families, Educators, Administrators, Education Support Professionals (ESPs), Mental Health Professionals have active roles and responsibilities in school safety planning

| INTERVENTION               | O'Malley, M. D., Wolf-Prusan, L., Lima Rodriguez, C., Xiong, R., & Swarts, M. R. (2018). Cultural-competence considerations for contemporary school-based threat assessment. <i>Psychology in the Schools</i> , 1-21, DOI: 10.1002/pits.22197. |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | the Schools, 1-21, DOI: 10.1002/pits.22197.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Systematic review of school-based threat assessment literature   |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Threat Assessment  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               | 24 articles  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |

- Most of the published research on threat-assessment procedures do not consider young people of color (YPOC) or classified learning disabled (CLD) young people.
- Literature does not discuss minority stress, systemic prejudice or discrimination, racial identity, intersectionality
- Family and community-systems variables were not well represented

#### Recommendations:

- Improved procedures and tools:
  - o Self-assessment using multiple data sources to evaluate for disproportionality
  - o Culturally sensitive tools for assessment and intervention
  - o In-service training to improve cultural considerations and sensitivity of personnel

#### Extensions for cultural competence:

- Prework
  - Maintain demographic records for current student body
  - Select culturally congruent personnel for assessment completion
  - o Train personnel and students
  - Identify interpreters or translators
  - Encourage confidentiality
- Step 1. Evaluate Threat
  - Only trained personnel are involved
  - Ensure trusted school adult is present
  - Conduct assessment in quiet, neutral space
  - Describe the process to students in advance
  - Use trauma-informed techniques
  - Consider sources of implicit bias, cultural variations, power imbalances, communication barriers
- Step 2. Decide whether threat is clearly transient or substantive
  - o Consider cultural variables that might impact emotion or description of psychological experience.
- Step 3. Respond to transient threat
  - o Include trained translators as needed
  - o Identify culturally adapted interventions for skill building.
  - o Provide culturally/linguistically appropriate services
  - o Include parents/family members in decision making and consider family in case conceptualization and intervention approach
  - O Utilize student's natural support networks
- Step 4. Decide whether the substantive threat is serious or very serious
- Step 5. Respond to serious substantive threat
  - o Refer to Step 3 Guidance
  - Clarify roles and responsibilities and provide guidance to students and their families
  - o Consider historical experiences and cultural mistrust
- Step 6. Conduct safety evaluations
  - o Provide links to culturally competent mental health clinicians
- Step 7. Implement a safety plan
  - o Involve family

| <ul> <li>Translate to prima</li> </ul> |   |
|--|---|
| <ul> <li>Involve trusted sc</li> </ul> | hool personnel  |
| <ul> <li>Follow-up</li> </ul>          |   |
| <ul> <li>Conduct periodic</li> </ul>   | assessment, and evaluate whether assessment procedures are fair and balanced    |
| MENTAL HEALTH                          | Adams, M. S., Robertson, C. T., Gray-Ray, P., & Ray, M. C. (2003). Labeling and |
|  | delinquency. <i>Adolescence</i> , 38(149), 171-186.                             |
| Article Title/Reference:               |   |
| 1 101010 1 1010, 1101010101001         |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:                    |   |
| Variables:                             |   |
| variables.                             |   |
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|  |   |
| Specific Security                      |   |
| Measure:                               |   |
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| How is Security                        |   |
| Measured?                              |   |
| Data Source:                           |   |
| Bata Source.                           |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:              |   |
| Quantitative/Quantative.               |   |
|  |   |
| Results:                               |   |
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|  |   |
| Notes: <b>Abstract</b>                 |   |
| The present study examine              | ed a procedure for measuring and perceived labeling. An index comprised of six  |

The present study examined a procedure for measuring and perceived labeling. An index comprised of six contrasting descriptive adjectives was used to measure incarcerated youths' perceived negative labeling from the perspective of parents, teachers, and peers. The results

| MENTAL HEALTH              | Barrett, J. G., & Janopaul-Naylor, E. (2016). Description of a collaborative  |
|----------------------------|---|
|                            | community approach to impacting juvenile arrests. Psychological   |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Services, 13(2), 133-139.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | The purpose of this study is to (a) describe the efforts undertaken to meaningfully integrate mental health care for at-risk youth with juvenile policing in a manner that goes beyond current standard of practice and (b) present the initial rates of juvenile arrest and mental health data associated with the Safety Net Collaborative. |
| Variables:                 | Juvenile Arrests per 100,000 Number of Safety Net Collaborative Mental Health Referrals Sex Ethnicity Socioeconomic Language  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Zanguage  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               | Local, national, and county arrest data from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention from 2004 through 2012 Safety Net Collaborative (SNC)'s report of number of mental health referrals to youth involved in the program Electronic health records   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |
| Results:                   |   |

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# Notes:

## Abstract

Although the burden of mental health disorders among youth involved with the juvenile justice system is high, few communities have effectively integrated mental health resources with law enforcement (Myers & Farrell, 2008). The city of Cambridge, Massachusetts has developed the Safety Net Collaborative, which is a multiagency integrated model of preventive services for at-risk youth involving mental health providers, police officers, schools, and the department of youth and families. There are 6,000 youth in the city's public schools under the local police jurisdiction. Youth are referred to this program by schools, courts, and parents. There are approximately 30 active cases each year. Initial outcome measures were tracked, including number of arrests, diversions, and mental health referrals. Rate of decline in arrests was compared pre and post implementation. Community arrests have decreased by more than 50% since implementing this model. Contracting with mental health services has led to an average 94 outpatient mental health provider referral per year. The results show positive trends in arrest rates after implementation of this collaborative model of preventive services. These findings support greater research and utilization of integrated, preventive service models for at-risk youth.

| MENTAL HEALTH /            | Eklund, K., Meyer, L., & Bosworth, K. (2018). Examining the role of school      |
|----------------------------|---|
| SROs                       | resource officers on school safety and crisis response teams. Journal of School |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Violence, 17(2), 139-151.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | RQ1: How do experiences with crisis events vary by school professional?         |
|                            | RQ2: What is the perceived effectiveness of crisis prevention and preparedness  |
|                            | strategies by school professional?  |
|                            | RQ3: How do perceptions of school crisis intervention strategies vary by school |
|                            | professional?   |
| Variables:                 | Type of school professional   |
|                            | Crisis events   |
|                            | Effectiveness of prevention and preparedness strategies                         |
|                            | Effectiveness of intervention strategies  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SRO   |
|                            |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               | School Safety Assessment and Prevention Team Survey administrated to 60         |
|                            | school professionals  |
|                            |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |

- School administrators rated school crisis prevention and preparedness plans as less effective than mental health professionals and SROs.
- Mental health professionals rated peer programs as more effective than school administrators or SROs.
- School administrators rate crisis intervention strategies as less effective than mental health professionals or SROs (not statistically significant)
- SROs reported more involvement with incidents related to.
- Administrators and mental health professionals reported more involvement with serious illness or injury of a student

| a student | - | • |  |
|-----------|---|---|--|
| Notes:    |   |   |  |
|           |   |   |  |
|           |   |   |  |
|           |   |   |  |

| MENTAL HEALTH              | Griffiths, A.J., Diamond, E., Grief Green, J., Kim., Alsip, J., Dwyer, K., Mayer,   |
|----------------------------|---|
|                            | M., & Furlong, M.J. (2019). Understanding the critical links between school   |
| Article Title/Reference:   | safety and mental health: Creating pathways toward wellness. In D. Osher, R.  |
|                            | Jagers, K. Kendziora, M. Mayer & L. Woods (Eds.). Keeping students safe and   |
|                            | helping them thrive: A collaborative handbook for education, safety and justice professionals, families, and communities (Volume 1). New York, N.Y.: Praeger. |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Review Chapter  |
| Variables:                 | Student well-being  |
|                            | Student mental health   |
|                            | Disruptive/violent behaviors  |
|                            | School safety   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |

- Victimized students are more likely to report feeling unsafe at school, characterize school as less supportive, and experience more frequent emotional distress.
- Exposure to bullying is strongly related to decrease in mental health and increased risk for suicide.
- Strong relationships with others might act as protective factor.
- "Healthy children and adolescents in safe schools will be less likely to engage in violent behaviors." Recommendations:
- A multi-tiered system of supports (MTSS) framework for interventions that focus on the whole child (e.g. ecological components)
  - Should include mental health/wellness screening, data-driven decision-making, highly qualified personnel
  - o Must address directly and indirectly involved in violence and victimization

| MENTAL HEALTH              | Gill, C., Gottfredson, D. & Hutzell, K. (2016). Can school policing be   |
|----------------------------|--|
|                            | trauma-informed? Lessons from Seattle. Policing: An International Journal  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | of Police Strategies & Management, 39(3), 551-565.   |
|                            | DOI:10.1108/PIJPSM-02-2016-0020  |
|                            | Case study of Seattle PD's School Emphasis Officer (SEO) Program.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·  |
| Variables:                 | Increasing safety  |
|                            | Connections  |
|                            | Impulse management   |
|                            | Trustworthiness  |
|                            | Transparency   |
|                            | Responsivity   |
| Specific Security Measure: | SEO program  |
| How is Security Measured?  | Semi-structured interviews with SEOs, supervisors, school staff, along with observations of SEOs at work and analysis of program documentation/daily activity logs/trends/themes |
| Data Source:               | SEO Program which takes place in three middle schools and one K-8 school in Seattle.   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative  |

Results: SEOs considered alternatives to physical arrests except in emergencies or violent crimes/felonies. They mitigated effects of neighborhood violence on school students. SEOs promoted connections between school, students, families (home visits and mentoring). SEOs implemented evidence-based programs to address cognitive/MH concerns related to school violence. SEOs were aware of how presence within schools translated to opinions of police outside of school.

Notes: This case study speaks to the importance of placing supportive, patient, youth-oriented, and culturally responsible SEOs in the school. Also of note was the fact that the SEOs were 3 African-American men and 1 Hispanic woman which mirrored the populations of their assigned schools.

| MENTAL            | National Association of School Psychologists. (2013). Research on school security: The |
|-------------------|--|
| HEALTH            | impact of security measures on students. Retrieved from                                |
| Article Title/    | http://www.nasponline.org/assets/Documents/About%20School%20Psychology/Media           |
| Reference:        | %20Resources/NASP_School_Safety_Recommendations_January%202013.pdf                     |
| Type of           | Presentation of research and recommendations regarding school safety                   |
| Study/Aims:       |  |
| Variables:        |  |
| Specific Security | Metal detectors  |
| Measure:          | Security cameras   |
|                   | Security guards  |
| How is Security   |  |
| Measured?         |  |
| Data Source:      |  |
| Quantitative/Qual |  |
| itative:          |  |

- 2009: 68% of students aged 12-18 reported presence of security guards or police officers in schools, 70% reported security cameras, 11% reported metal detectors.
- 2009-2010: 61% of public schools report using one or more security cameras (84% of high schools)
- Stringent security measures are ever-increasing in schools.
- No clear evidence that physical security measures prevent school violence
- Not enough research to determine if metal detectors reduce risk of violent behavior.
- Researchers have expressed concern about the widespread use of security measures given unknown
  effectiveness, and consistent ineffectiveness in protecting students, associated with more incidents of school
  crime, disruption, and school disorder.
- Surveillance cameras may just move misbehavior to non-surveilled locations.
- Schools are safer today than they were 10 years ago
- Post-Columbine research suggests that students believe their schools to be safe and security strategies are unnecessary.
- Security guards and metal detectors reduce students' perceptions of safety and increase worry about crime.
- Restrictive school security measures have potential to harm school learning environments, and may implicitly label students as untrustworthy.

Notes: Recommends focusing on student well-being, learning, and needs/services that lead to safety as opposed to increased school building safety/security measures.

| MONETARY COST                | Baird, P. (2013, January 26). School security measures could cost millions locally. <i>Star News Online</i> . Retrieved from: http://www.starnewsonline.com/article/NC/20130126/News/605026047/WM/. |
|------------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:     |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:          | News article presenting the cost of school security following Sandy Hook in North Carolina.   |
| Variables:                   |   |
| Specific Security Measure:   |   |
| How is Security<br>Measured? |   |
| Data Source:                 |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:    |   |

- New Hanover County: Put deputies in all 25 elementary schools costs \$600,000. Keeping deputies for an entire school year would cost \$1.18million.
- Brunswick County: Spending \$245,000 to have deputies in 9 schools.
- Pender County: School officials are requesting budget increases in order to boost security.

| MONETARY COST  Article Title/Reference: | Brent, B.O., & DeAngelis, K.J. (2013, October 8). Teachers or guards? The cost of school security. <i>School Business Affairs</i> , Retrieved from: http://www.naylornetwork.com/asbnwl/pdf/October_2013_SBA_TeachersOrGuar ds.pdf. |
|---|---|
| Type of Study/Aims:                     | R1: How much do districts spend on school security? R2: How do districts put those resources to use? R3: Does security spending differ among districts?   |
| Variables:                              |   |
| Specific Security Measure:              | Dedicated personnel Monitoring devices Communication systems  |
| How is Security Measured?               |   |
| Data Source:                            | NCES-SSOCS<br>Texas Education Agency  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:               |   |

- Urban districts spend the most per pupil (30% more than suburban and 5x rural)
- Security spending is allocated as follows:
  - o Professional services 31%
  - Support personnel 21%
  - Miscellaneous contracted services 17%
  - General supplies 9%
  - Contracted repair and maintenance 5%
  - o Employee benefits 5%
  - Other professional personnel 4%
  - o Furniture, equipment, software 3%
- Texas schools employed one full-time person for every 700 students, whereas U.S. schools employed one for every 1,000 students.
- Nearly all schools require visitor check-in and lock or monitor doors.
- Most schools close campus during lunch, enforce a strict dress code, and require staff to wear ID badges
- In Texas, poorer districts and those serving larger percentages of disadvantaged students allocate a greater proportion of their resources to security.
- 25% of U.S. principals stated that inadequate funds limited in a major way, their ability to prevent crime.

Notes: Efforts to take stock of the full cost of school security and violence prevention likely understate the total expenditures devoted to these activities. These funds could most certainly be implemented elsewhere, into supplies, activities, interventions, with **known** effectiveness.

| MONETARY COST              | Community Rights Campaign of the Labor/Community Strategy Center & Black Organizing Project. (2014). The new "separate and unequal:" Using  |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | California's local control funding formula to dismantle the school-to-prison pipeline. Retrieved from: http://www.blackorganizingproject.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/08/LCFF-POLICY-BRIEF-FINAL-VERSION-3-20-2014.pdf |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Contribute to the efforts to provide equal educational opportunities for all students and to dismantle the "school to prison pipeline"  |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measures | School police   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |

- Combined enrollment in California State University system: 436,560 vs. 598,600 combined population within California prisons, jails, parolees, on probation.
- School police have not been proven effective at improving school safety
- Having police in schools has produced more students being needlessly criminalized and sent into the juvenile justice system, often for routine, low-level offenses.
- Over-policing damages school climate and academic achievement
- Police involvement in school-based incidents can lead to the escalation of a conflict with significant consequences.
- School-based arrests subject students to serious short-term consequences within the juvenile justice system
- School policing is very expensive
- Over-policing schools weakens overall public safety by damaging community/police relationships, reinforcing the
  pipeline, and diverting resources from serious safety concerns.

#### California:

- A number of school districts have very large school police forces.
- 2009-10: Over 300,000 students were referred to law enforcement in just one school year
- 2009-10: 20,000 students were arrested or given a police ticket and over 90% of these students were youth of color.
- 2011-12: LA Unified had 8,993 arrests and police tickets (highest in the country)
- 2012-13: Support staff ratios:

one counselor: 808 students
 one psychologist: 1,332 students
 one school nurse: 2,723 students
 onc social worker: 14,315 students

• 2013-14: LA Unified budgeted \$91.3 million dollars on school police and security, 73% more than it budgeted for counselors, and more than double what it budgeted for health services and teacher assistants.

- State regulatory guidance should require districts to account for the impact of police presence in schools, report
  data on the use of law enforcement in handling student behaviors, and encourage the use of alternatives to school
  police.
- Local Control Funding Formula (LCFF) funds are directed to school sites with the highest rates of criminalization and school pushout.
- LCFF funds are not to be used for school police.
- Individual school districts should ensure that their LCFF funds are distributed to schools serving the highest concentrations of low-income students, English learners, and foster youth.
- School districts should convene public conversations involving students, parents/guardians, and other community members around the impact of school policing, and the availability of alternatives.
- LCFF funds should be directed toward increasing school support staff, investing in positive, evidence-based alternatives to school policing, reducing racial disparity, and assessing how other school factors can improve school safety.

| MONETARY COST              | DeAngelis, K.J., Brent, B.O., & Ianni, D. (2011). The hidden cost of school                       |  |
|----------------------------|---|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | security. <i>Journal of Education Finance</i> , <i>36</i> (3), 312-337. doi:10.1353/jef.2011.0004 |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Secondary data analysis of 2008-2009 information.   |  |
|                            | 1) What do districts spend on school security?  |  |
|                            | 2) How do districts put these resources to use – security personnel or                            |  |
|                            | metal detectors?  |  |
|                            | 3) Does security spending differ among districts?   |  |
| Variables:                 | Spending on Security  |  |
|                            | Location (urban, suburban, town, rural)   |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Expenditures: security guards, SROs, sworn law enforcement officers                               |  |
|                            | See Table 5. Page 327 for comprehensive list.   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | ANOVA to assess statistical significance across locale  |  |
| Data Source:               | Texas Education Agency (TEA)  |  |
|                            | NCES School Survey on Crime and Safety  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |  |
|                            |   |  |

Results: Average \$312,030 spent on security across all Texas districts (n = 752); .31% of operating costs.

Districts devoted an average of \$28.49 per pupil on security measures.

Urban districts spent much more than rural districts.

One full-time security person was employed per 700 students, on average.

Notes: The study could not account for the costs incurred by districts in providing violence prevention programs or any time put forth by counselors and administrators.

Bibliographer's Comments: When many teachers purchase their own school supplies, it stands to reason that money could be better spent elsewhere.

| MONETARY COST              | DeAngelis, K.J., & Brent, B.                 | .O. (2012). Books or guards? Charter school security |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | costs. Journal of School Choice, 6, 365-410. |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes                                     | Predictors   |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |  |
| Results:                   |  |  |
| Notes:                     |  |  |

| MONETARY COST             | Hutson, N. (2014, March 26). School security cost caught in budget dispute. |            |
|---------------------------|---|------------|
| Article Title/Reference:  | Newstimes. Retrieved from http://www.newstimes.com/local/article/School-    |            |
|                           | security-cost-caught-in-budget-dispute-5352460.php.                         |            |
| Type of Study/Aims:       | Local news article presenting the budget debate over the cost of SROs.      |            |
| Variables:                | Outcomes  | Predictors |
|                           |   |            |
| Specific Security         | SROs  |            |
| Measure:                  |   |            |
| How is Security           |   |            |
| Measured?                 |   |            |
| Data Source:              |   |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: |   |            |
|                           |   |            |

- Brookfield, CT spent \$235,000 to employ two SROs in 2013, which was paid for by the town through the police department.
  - o The following year it was proposed that the school district would pay.
- The dispute is centered around whether the school district or the town with foot the bill for the budget increase necessary to pay SROs in the schools.

Notes: This speaks to the division of resources that can develop, especially in small towns or districts whose budgets are already stretched.

Who should pay for SROs in the school?

| MONETARY<br>COST / SROs    | May, D. C., Hart, T. A., & Ruddell, R. (2011). School resource officers in financial crisis: Which programs get cut and why. <i>Journal of Police Crisis Negotiations</i> , 11(2), 125-140.  |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | 1  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | <ul> <li>H1: Poor counties (e.g., counties that had lower median household income, higher unemployment rate, or higher percentages of the population were in poverty) would be more likely to reduce funding for SRO programs.</li> <li>H2: Schools with higher rates of law and board violations among students will be less likely to receive funding reductions for SRO programs than their counterpart counties with lower levels of law and board violations.</li> <li>H3: SRO programs at schools with higher proportions of students with IEPs (indicating a higher need for services) would be less likely to receive funding reductions for SRO programs than schools with less need for services.</li> <li>H4: Consistent with the minority threat group hypothesis (Jackson &amp; Boyd, 2005), SRO programs at schools in counties with a lower percentage of White residents would be less likely</li> </ul> |
|                            | <ul> <li>to receive funding reductions than SRO programs in counties with higher proportions of White residents.</li> <li>H5: SRO programs in schools in rural counties would be more likely to receive budget cutbacks than their counterparts in less rural counties.</li> </ul>   |
| Variables:                 | County characteristics:  Percent poverty (all ages & under age 18)  Unemployment rate  County population change  Percentage White  Median household income  Violent crime rate (per 1,000 residents)  Property crime rate (per 1,000 residents)  School characteristics:  Student—Teacher ratio  Time SRO program existed (years)  Students with IEPs  School size (students)  Expenditure per student  Student conduct:  Law violations (rate per 100 students)  Board violations (rate per 100 students)  Rural location (percent rural)   |
| Specific Security Measure: | Rufai location (percent furai)   |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               | Kentucky Center for School Safety (KCSS) U.S. Census Bureau Kentucky Sourcebook for Criminal Justice Statistics National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES)  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
| Results:                   | <u></u>  |
| Notes:                     |  |

| MONETARY COSTS             | Molnar, M. (2013, September 24). District invest in new measures to boost security. <i>Education Week</i> . Retrieved from |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | http://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2013/09/25/05security_ep.h33.html  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | News Article   |
| Variables:                 |  |
|                            |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |

- Schools across the US have invested millions after Sandy Hook.
- Bulletproof whiteboards have entered the market.
- School security involves layers and a more holistic viewpoint.
- Most districts do not assign budget codes associated with security so it is difficult to track spending.
- Schools are usually prompted to invest in security after incidents.
- The market for school security is expected to expand to \$4.9billion in 2017 (81.5% increase)

| MONETARY COSTS            | Porter, C. (2015, May 21). Spending on school security rises. The Wall Street Journal.                     |            |
|---------------------------|--|------------|
| Article Title/Reference:  | Retrieved from: www.wsj.com/articles/spending-on-school-security-rises.                                    |            |
| Type of Study/Aims:       | News article presenting an increase in school spending on security measures following Sandy Hook shooting. |            |
| Variables:                | Outcomes   | Predictors |
|                           |  |            |
| Specific Security         |  |            |
| Measure:                  |  |            |
| How is Security           |  |            |
| Measured?                 |  |            |
| Data Source:              |  |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: |  |            |
|                           |  |            |

- US Dept of Education reports that violent incidents in schools have declined from 74% of public schools reporting violent incidents in 2009-10 to only 15.8% reporting in 2013-14 school year.
- NASP asks for greater emphasis on psychological resources at schools in part to help prevent violence.
- High school crime may hurt student learning; test scores in math and English are lower in schools after fatal shootings
  - More affluent schools have more resources such as counseling services and have coped better to traumatic events.
- It is believed that schools are targets for violence.

#### Notes:

It would be important to see which schools' scores were affected by the shootings, more specifically where they were located, and what counseling resources are available.

| NATIONAL EVENTS            | Addington, L. A. (2003). Students' fear after Columbine: Findings from a   |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | randomized experiment. Journal of Quantitative Criminology, 19(4), 367-387.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Analyze news reports about school crime and violence from The NewYork Times and USA Today to examine the frequency and content of these reports. |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
| Results:                   |  |

## Abstract

On April 20, 1999, the most deadly act of school violence in the United States occurred at Columbine High School. Public perceptions and media accounts suggested that fear of victimization at school greatly increased after Columbine. The actual response is unknown. The 1999 School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey provides a unique opportunity to study Columbine's effect on students' fear. Experimental conditions were approximated by the NCVS sampling design that randomly allocated the 12- to 18-year-old student-respondents to pre- and post-April 20 groups. Contrary to expectations, students were only slightly more fearful after Columbine. An initial explanation for this finding is explored. As little is known about fear following highly publicized incidents of extreme violence such as Columbine and the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, this research provides an essential foundation for further study and theoretical development in this largely-ignored area of fear.

| NATIONAL EVENTS            | Addington, L.A. (2009). Cops and cameras: Public school security as a  |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | policy response to Columbine. <i>American Behavioral Scientist</i> , 52(10), 1426-1445. doi:10.1177/0002764209332556 |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Assessment of policy response to Columbine as well as the current understanding of school security.                  |  |
| Variables:                 |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Limiting access to school building   |  |
|                            | Limiting weapons on campus   |  |
|                            | Increasing surveillance of students  |  |
|                            | Reacting to a crisis or violent incident   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |  |
| Data Source:               | School Crime Supplement Survey   |  |
|                            | Texas survey data  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |  |

- Use of security guards and security cameras were among the most common increases reported.
- Government funding and corporate incentives encouraged the use of SROs and cameras.
- Most current studies measure effectiveness based upon perceptions of school security rather than use of experimental designs or comparable forms of evaluative research.
- General perception of certain security measures is positive and suggests belief that these measures work to prevent crime.
- SROs receive high marks from students and principals, but studies only provide a partial assessment of SROs and do not provide baseline measures to evaluate actual change.
- Security cameras received mixed reviews of perceived effectiveness.
- Little is known about incurred costs of security measures (consequences to school environment and civil liberties).
- Motivation for policy change came from parental fear and demands for increased security, largely protections disproportionate to actual risk.
  - Exaggerated perceptions of risk result in policies that are "draconian and symbolic but often poorly designed laws and technologies of surveillance and exposure to eliminate risks that are difficult to reduce."
- Views of how to deter violence tend to change and become less strict as time after a major event happens, but initial policy decisions are difficult to rescind.
- Alternative strategies to preventing school violence include proactive programs and addressing underlying issues at school.

#### Notes:

Evaluative studies are needed to determine what security measures are truly effective; ability to prevent extreme acts of violence, and effectiveness for more commonly faced forms of violence, as well as consequences. Student rights and privacy concerns should also be addressed.

Effective policies might not embody the most visible changes.

| NATIONAL EVENTS            | Birkland, T.A., & Lawrence, R.G. (2009). Media framing and policy change   |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | after Columbine. <i>American Behavioral Scientist</i> , 52(10), 1405-1425. doi:10.1177/0002764209332555  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Review media and public opinion research generated by Columbine and then review public policy research referencing Columbine and evaluate the "lessons" scholars have drawn from that event. |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security            |  |
| Measured?                  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |

- Event-driven media coverage is driven by profit motive and the professional imperative to tell interesting stories often undermines sober analysis, leading to perceptions of public problems that are oversimplified and distorted.
- Two predominant frames in media coverage linked Columbine to a problem of guns and a problem of pop culture.
- One year after Columbine, research completed by Pew found that "the vast majority of the public believes is it the responsibility of parents to ensure that such tragedies are not repeated"....poor parenting not peer pressure or violence in the media are seen as the primary cause of school shootings like Columbine.
  - Only a small fraction of media coverage focused on poor parenting as the likely cause of the shooting, contrary to the framing of public opinion where this has prevailed.
- Columbine mobilized local schools to implement state laws and federal programs more aggressively than they had before and to mobilize local resources and federal grants to address the school shooting problem.
  - By 2000 nearly all schools had mandatory expulsion for bringing guns and all schools by 2006 had this policy.
  - Stricter discipline
- Policy outcomes were limited and unfocused largely due to bipartisan disagreement in Congress.
- Data linking improved school violence policies to lower incidence of catastrophic violence are hard to find, largely because such events are so rare.
- 2000 and 2001 produced more articles on this subject than any other year following.
  - School safety and security programs are the dominant frame of the scholarly and professional literature.
- State legislators feel that they have to act immediately and worry about the "why" later.
- Columbine opened up the public arena to a wider range of ideas about what could drive students to commit such heinous acts.
- Post-Columbine policy was limited because members of Congress often made claims in the media that were inconsistent with existing law and realistic policy options.
- Violence in schools continues sporadically, but the problem of "school shooting" has been replaced by other national concerns.

Media does little in terms of portraying "big picture" stuff and instead focuses on the most dramatic events. Mental health in the schools should be a #1 priority.

| NATIONAL EVENTS            | Fisher, B. W., Nation, M., Nixon, C. T., & McIlroy, S. (2016).  |  |
|----------------------------|---|--|
|                            | Students' perceptions of safety at school after Sandy Hook.   |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Journal of School Violence, 1-12.   |  |
|                            | doi:10.1080/15388220.2015.113331  | 10   |
|                            | Replication study of Addington (2003), which measured responses to  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Columbine.  |  |
|                            | H1: Student's perceptions of safety at school decreased after Sandy Hook. H2: Any decrease in students' perceptions of safety dissipated over time. |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors   |
|                            | Feelings of safety Observed risk behaviors Personal victimization   | Date of survey completion, relative to Sandy Hook shooting. Sex, race, grade level |
| Specific Security Measure: | Student perception of safety  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | Regression analysis of perception of school safety  |  |
| Data Source:               | Secondary data analysis of school climate survey in southeastern state (about 25% of high school students across 27 school districts).              |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |  |

H1: Students perceived slightly fewer observed risk behaviors at school after Sandy Hook, but the effect size was small enough to imply negligible significance.

H2: Statistically significant but too small of an effect to be considered meaningful.

Overall, highly publicized events may not have a meaningful effect on perceptions of safety or feelings of fear.

Notes: One of the major limitations of this study is the fact that it took place in a region of the United States that is very far from where the actual event took place. Consideration should be made to perform this replication study in Connecticut, or in another northeastern state. Furthermore, very few predictor variables were included combined with the assumption that students were aware of the shooting in the first place.

Bibliographer's Comments: The concept of the study is a good one, but I think it would have been helpful to assess students' knowledge of current events, which was not included in this study.

| NATIONAL EVENTS             | Jones, J. M. (2017, August 17). Parental Fear About School Safety Back to Pre- |
|-----------------------------|--|
|                             | Newtown Level. Retrieved from http://news.gallup.com/poll/216308/parental-     |
| Article Title/Reference:    | fear-school-safety-back-pre-newtown-level.aspx                                 |
|                             |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:         |  |
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| Variables:                  |  |
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| Specific Security Measure:  |  |
| apolitic accounty intenses. |  |
| How is Security Measured?   |  |
| Data Source:                |  |
|                             |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   |  |
|                             |  |
| Results:                    |  |
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|                             |  |
| Notes:                      |  |
| Story Highlights            |  |
|                             |  |

- 24% of U.S. parents fear for children's safety at school
- Had increased to 33% after 2012 Newtown school shooting
- New low of 6% say children have expressed fear

| NATIONAL EVENTS            | Jonson, C. L. (2017). Preventing school shootings: The effectiveness of safety measures. <i>Victims &amp; Offenders</i> , 12(6), 956-973. (Multiple Security Measures) |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | measures: victims & ojjenaers, 12(o), 530 573. (transpie security transpies)   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
|                            |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
| Results:                   |  |
| Notes:                     |  |

#### **Abstract**

The tragedies at Columbine High School, Virginia Tech, and Sandy Hook Elementary School catapulted concern about school shootings into the national spotlight. Calls for something to be done to protect our students, faculty, and staff became a salient concern for school administrators, with many schools hiring armed security officers, restricting access to campus buildings, installing metal detectors, and training individuals how to respond when a shooter enters school grounds. However, many of these security measures were implemented with little to no consultation of the empirical literature. This failure to enact evidence-based responses has had fiscal and latent consequences that are only now being discovered. This essay seeks to fill that void by examining the empirical evidence surrounding common security measures enacted in response to well-publicized school shootings and calling for the use of an evidence-based approach to school safety.

| NATIONAL EVENTS            | Nance, J. P. (2013a). School security considerations after Newtown.     |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | Stanford Law Review, 65, 103-110.                                       |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Presentation of previous research (see Students, Security, and Race) as |
|                            | indications of recommendations related to school security directly      |
|                            | following the Newtown incident.   |
| Variables:                 | Student race  |
|                            | School crime  |
|                            | School disorder   |
|                            | Neighborhood crime  |
|                            | Geographic region   |
|                            | School urbanicity   |
|                            | Student population  |
|                            | Low-performing students   |
| Specific Security Measure: | Metal detectors   |
|                            | Law enforcement officers  |
|                            | Random sweeps   |
|                            | Security cameras  |
|                            | Locked gates  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| D 1.                       |   |

- Low-income and minority students are disproportionately subjected to intense security measures nationwide which may increase with allocation of new funds.
- Strict security measures create a prison-like environment resulting in deteriorated learning climate for students.
- Despite school shootings, schools remain among the safest places for children.
- Alternative programs to promote peaceful resolution of conflict should be implemented.
- The use of strict security measures harms students' interests and sends the message that "we trust privileged white students more, and that those students enjoy heightened privacy rights."
- Even the strongest security measures cannot perfectly defend against violent acts.
- Schools should invest in programs that build community, collective responsibility and trust among students and educators as opposed to those that rely on fear, coercion, and punishment.
- 6 NYC Alternative Public Schools maintain higher than average attendance and graduation rates, lower crime rates, and fewer school suspensions. They utilize the following philosophies:
  - o dignity and respect for all members of school community
  - o strong, compassionate school leadership
  - o open lines of communication between students, educators, school officials
  - o fair rules
  - o placement of responsibility for discipline with school officials rather than law enforcement

Notes: "Our children are watching us. They learn about race and race relations from us. As adults, we must be careful not to promote a vision of social reality that teaches non-White children that they are racially inferior or that teaches White children that they are racially superior."

| NATIONAL EVENTS            | Pittaro, M. L. (2007). School Violence and Social Control Theory: An Evaluation of the Columbine Massacre. <i>Journal of Criminal Justice</i> , 2(1), 1–12. |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
| Notes:                     |   |

#### Abstract

This paper will provide a brief analysis of past, present, and emerging research in reference to school violence, particularly in relation to school shootings, from the criminological perspective of Hirschi's (1969) Social Control Theory. Prior to the 1999 Columbine High School massacre and the most recent Virginia Tech rampage, research probing the etiology of school violence was virtually nonexistent. After Columbine, the nation frantically searched for answers as to how to intervene and prevent such a heinous atrocity from reoccurring in the future. This paper will not discuss the shooting incident at Virginia Tech University (April, 16, 2007) due to the fact that the shootings took place on a college campus, which do not share many of the same characteristics as the typical high school campus environment.

| SCHOOL CLIMATE/            | Kirk, D. S. (2009). Unraveling the contextual effects on student suspension and |
|----------------------------|---|
| NEIGHBORHOOD               | juvenile arrest: The independent and interdependent influences of school,       |
| CLIMATE                    | neighborhood, and family social controls. Criminology, 47(2), 479-520.          |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
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|                            |   |
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|                            |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
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| Notes:                     |   |

## **Abstract**

Scholars of human development argue that a variety of social contexts affect youth development and that the interdependency of these contexts bears on the shape of human lives. However, few studies of contextual effects have attempted to model the effects of school, neighborhood, and family context at the same time, or to explore the relative and interdependent impact of these contexts on youth outcomes. This study provides an examination of the independent and interdependent influences of school, neighborhood, and familial contexts through an analysis of student suspension and juvenile arrest. Findings reveal that school-based and family-based informal social controls additively combine to reduce the likelihood of suspension and arrest. Moreover, for suspension, results support the hypothesis that an interdependent compensatory relation is present between the extent of collective efficacy in schools and in the surrounding neighborhood; school collective efficacy has a controlling influence on the likelihood of suspension that becomes even stronger in the absence of neighborhood collective efficacy. However, for arrest, an accentuating effect of school-based social controls exists rather than a compensatory effect. A lack of neighborhood collective efficacy and a lack of school-based social controls combine to exert a substantial increase in the likelihood of arrest.

| NEIGHBORHOOD              | Steinberg, M. P., Allensworth, E., & Johns  | son, D. W. (2015). What conditions support safety in urban      |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| CLIMATE                   | schools? The influence of school organizational practices on student and teacher reports of safety in   |   |
| Article Title/Reference:  | Chicago. In Losen, D.J. (Ed), Closing   | the school discipline gap: Equitable remedies for excessive     |
|                           | exclusion (pp. 118-131). New York: Teachers College Press.  |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:       | Aims to examine the internal and external conditions associated with students' and teachers' reports of |   |
|                           | safety, specifically the quality of relat   | ionships between school staff, students, and parents.           |
|                           | R1: What are the community characteristic teachers' feelings of safety at school?                       | es that are most strongly and directly related to students' and |
|                           | R2: What are the school conditions that ar  | e strongly related to feelings of safety?                       |
|                           | R3: How are the social-organizational cha   | racteristics of the school associated with school safety?       |
|                           | R4: How are school discipline practices as  | ssociated with school safety?                                   |
|                           | R5: To what degree can strong social-orga   | inizational characteristics mediate neighborhood differences    |
|                           | and insulate students from adverse neighborhood threats to school safety?                               |   |
| Variables:                | Outcomes  | Predictors  |
|                           | School safety   | School leadership   |
|                           | Peer interactions   | Teacher collaboration and support                               |
|                           |   | School-family interactions                                      |
|                           |   | Student-teacher relationships                                   |
|                           |   | School composition  |
|                           |   | Neighborhood Crime  |
|                           |   | SES/Poverty data  |
|                           |   | Achievement   |
|                           |   | Human and Social Resources in the Community                     |
| Specific Security         | Suspension  |   |
| Measure:                  |   |   |
| How is Security           | Rates of suspension based on survey data  |   |
| Measured?                 | -   |   |
| Data Source:              | School and student level data from Chicago Public Schools   |   |
|                           | Surveys from Chicago Consortium on Chicago School Research (CCSR)                                       |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: | Mixed Method  |   |
| Paculte:                  | _   |   |

- Schools in high-poverty, high-crime neighborhoods, with few human and social resources tend to be less safe than schools serving more advantaged students
  - Mediated by the ways school staff interact with each other, with parents, and with students.
- The achievement level of the incoming student population is a far stronger predictor of school safety than the poverty or crime rate of their neighborhoods.
- Peer interactions are less supportive and respectful in schools with greater percentages of students from high poverty, high crime neighborhoods.
- School safety is better than elementary/middle schools than in high schools.
- School structure and student characteristics explain most of the variation in safety across schools.
- Both students and teachers feel safest in schools where teachers view parents as partners in children's education.
- Students feel safer, and feel their peers are more respectful when they have more trusting, supportive relationships with teachers.
- Schools with higher suspension rates have lower levels of safety as reported by students and teachers.
- Neighborhoods with high crime and poverty tend to have fewer human and social resources available to students.
- Students living in high-poverty and high-crime neighborhoods are likely to experience disruption, and exhibit both low academic achievement and more behavioral problems.

#### Notes:

- "It is critical that school personnel engage families in constructive and supportive ways."
- Teachers who know their students well are more aware of emerging problems and understand the people involved, giving them a better opportunity to prevent problems from occurring and keep them from escalating.
- Faculty and staff in low-achieving schools require skills in managing conflict, resources for managing disruption and violence.
- The encouragement of productive dialogue between adults and students is suggested in order to develop a more positive and collaborative school climate.

| NEIGHBORHOOD               | Sykes, B. L., Piquero, A. R., & Gioviano, J. P. (2017). Adolescent Racial |
|----------------------------|---|
| CLIMATE                    | Discrimination and Parental Perceptions of Safety in American             |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Neighborhoods and Schools. <i>Sociological Forum</i> , 32(1), 952-974.    |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
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|                            |   |
|                            |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               | 2011–2012 National Survey of Child Health (NSCH)                          |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
|                            |   |
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|                            |   |

#### Abstract

Recently, a number of violent interracial interactions—between community members and public safety officers—has ignited a national debate about race, inequality, environmental/situational context, and the use of force among police and school resource officers. We investigate how perceptions of neighborhood and school safety are associated with adolescent exposure to racial discrimination. Using data from the National Survey of Child Health (NSCH) 2011–2012, we find that nonwhite youth experience greater levels of racial discrimination than their white counterparts after accounting for difference in exposure to violence and perceptions of neighborhood and school safety. Estimates from propensity score matching models show that differences in ever experiencing discrimination between safe and unsafe schools decline as perceptions of

neighborhood safety increase, except in residential areas that are usually safe. Yet, black and Hispanic adolescents attending safe schools in neighborhoods that are always safe experience similar rates of discrimination as other nonwhite youth living in residential areas that are never safe. The implications for social mobility are discussed.

| PERCEPTIONS / SCHOOL RESOURCE | Myrstol, B. A. (2011). Public perceptions of school resource officer (SRO) programs. Western Criminology Review, 12(3), 20-40. (SROs)  |
|-------------------------------|--|
| OFFICERS                      |  |
| Article Title/Reference:      |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:           | Using data collected as part of a city-wide survey of adult residents in Anchorage, Alaska, this paper addresses this gap in the literature by examining the extent to which demographic, experiential, and attitudinal factors influence people's awareness of, perceived need for, and belief in the effectiveness of SRO programs. In addition, through its use of population survey data, rather than a more limited sample of individuals situated within the school milieu, the study also sheds light on the previously unexamined topic of the general public's views of SRO programs. |
| Variables:                    |  |
| Specific Security Measure:    |  |
| How is Security Measured?     |  |
| Data Source:                  | Anchorage Community Survey, 2009   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:     | Mixed-methods  |
| Results:                      |  |

#### **Abstract**

Prior research examining people's perceptions of SRO programs has focused on the views of four stakeholder groups: school administrators, teachers, parents, and students. Notably, however, no prior studies have assessed the views of the general public, and few have utilized multivariate analyses in order to identify the factors that shape perceptions of SRO initiatives. Using community survey data collected in Anchorage, Alaska this study explores the general public's awareness of, perceived need for, and belief in the effectiveness of SRO programs, and systematically examines factors that predict public support for them within a multivariate framework. Results show that public support for SRO programs is multidimensional and "fuzzy." Implications and suggestions for future research are discussed.

| STUDENT<br>PERCEPTIONS     | Astor, R. A., Meyer, H. A., & Behre, W. J. (1999). Unowned places and times: Maps and interviews about violence in high schools. <i>American Educational Research</i>  |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | Journal, 36(1), 3-42.  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | <ul> <li>R1: Are the areas where violence occurs in high schools, such as hallways, cafeterias, gym locker rooms, and areas external to the school, considered undefined public space by students and teachers?</li> <li>R2: If so, what school spaces and locations would be considered to be owned by the teachers, students, and administrators in the building?</li> <li>R3: Are the walls of the classrooms the physical definition of a teacher's defensible space?</li> <li>R4: Are students also aware of these undefined areas and do they associate them with greater danger?</li> <li>R5: Could students, teachers, administrators, or parents reclaim areas within schools that are unowned as a potential violence reduction strategy?</li> <li>H1: Students, teachers, other staff members, and administrators considered the areas where violence occurred to be undefined public space.</li> </ul> |  |
| Variables:                 |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | Maps, semi-structured interviews and focus groups  |  |
| Data Source:               | 78 Students and 22 teachers in five high schools   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative  |  |

- Of the 166 reported violent events in the five schools, all were in locations where there were students and few or no adults (i.e. classrooms when teachers weren't present
- Specific hallways during transition accounted for 40% of the reported violent events.
- Girls reported 57% of all violent events.
- Most teachers did not believe it was their professional role to secure dangerous locations or intervene to stop violent events in those locations.
- School staff members knew which groups of students were most at risk for being victimized, however staff members were unclear about who was expected to intervene and what procedures they should follow when violence occurred in undefined/unowned school spaces.
- Students were vocal about who the caring teachers were and why they were considered to be caring, although administrators did not offer these teachers formal support.
- Race and class did not intersect with where and when school violence occurred.
- All adults mentioned suspension and expulsion as the most common organizational response to violence.
- Most effective violence intervention described by participants was the physical presence of a teacher who knew the students and was willing to intervene, coupled with a clear consistent administrative policy on violence.

#### Notes:

- Interventions should be designed to increase the role of students, teachers, and other school community members in reclaiming 'unowned' school territories.
- Security systems/interventions are only as effective as the people who are responsible for monitoring them.
- Interventions should be monitored by caring adults

More evidence to support the role of "caring" teachers in schools and the importance of the teacher-student relationship to effective learning/security.

| Article Title/Reference:   | Booren, L. M., & Handy, D. J. (2009). Students' perceptions of the importance of school safety strategies: An introduction to the IPSS survey. <i>Journal of school violence</i> , 8(3), 233-250. DOI: 10.1080/15388220902910672.   |  |
|----------------------------|---|--|
| Type of Study/Aims:        | <ul> <li>Explore and investigate student's perceptions of school safety strategies through the development of a new survey.</li> <li>1) How are the student perceptions about the importance of safety strategies categorized?</li> <li>2) Are there demographic differences among student reports of perceived importance of safety strategies?</li> </ul> |  |
|                            | H1: Students' evaluation of specific strategies would factor into: surveillance, mental health, programs, activities, behavior management, policies/procedures, skill development.  H2: There would be gender and grade level differences.  |  |
| Variables:                 | Factors: Rule Enforcement Education Control and Surveillance Counseling   |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Control and surveillance (Video surveillance, metal detectors, stricter disciplinary procedures, tighter security procedures, personal item searches)   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |  |
| Data Source:               | 182 Students from NW US high school. Previous research guided the development of the IPSS measure.  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |  |
| Desults                    |   |  |

- H1: Factors found were rule enforcement, education, control and surveillance, and counseling.
- H2. No significant gender differences were found. 12<sup>th</sup> graders rated rule enforcement strategies as more important than 9<sup>th</sup> graders and 11<sup>th</sup> graders.

Notes: Results from this study are helpful in terms of creating a basis of other research. It is a good starting point for replication of the survey in other parts of the country, and should be validated against other measures.

| STUDENT PERCEPTIONS        | Bracy, N.L. (2011). Student perceptions of high-security school environments. <i>Youth and Society, 43</i> (1), 365-395. doi:10.1177/0044118X10365082  |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   |  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | R1: How do students perceive their high-security school environments? R2: What do they think about the specific security and discipline measures their schools use? R3: What are their perceptions of punishment in their schools. |  |
| Variables:                 | Perceptions of SRO Schools' discipline policies Punishments Fairness in rule application   |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | SRO interaction with students SRO routines and duties SRO lunchtime, classroom, and in-school suspension activities Causal interactions between school staff and students  |  |
| Data Source:               | Ethnographic data from two mid-Atlantic high security public high schools (Cole and Vista High Schools)  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative  |  |

- Students believe their schools to be safe places and think many of the security strategies their schools use are unnecessary.
- Students express feeling powerless as a result of the manner in which their schools enforce rules and hand down punishments.
- Students express having no opportunity to tell their side of the story when in trouble and they think administrators' minds are already made up.
- Discipline breeds mistrust between students and school officials and negatively influences school climate.
- Some students found rule enforcement to become a distraction from focusing on school work.

## Notes:

Feelings of powerlessness may lead students to become entirely apathetic towards school, lose incentive
to adhere to school norms, and possibly end up dropping out of school altogether; we know that school
dropout is linked to incarceration which speaks to the need to develop strong school-student
connectedness in terms of a prevention strategy.

| Article Title/Reference:  Type of Study/Aims: | Brown, B. (2005). Controlling crime and delinquency in the schools: An exploratory study of student perceptions of school security measures.  Journal of School Violence, 4(4), 105–125.  doi:10.1300/J202v04n04_07  Aims to assess the effectiveness of hard control security strategies. |                   |
|---|--|-------------------|
| Variables:                                    | Outcomes   | Predictors        |
|   | school safety<br>keeping drugs out of schools<br>crime reduction   | Security measures |
| Specific Security Measure:                    | school police officers security officers video surveillance cameras drug sniffing dogs metal detectors translucent backpacks   |                   |
| How is Security Measured?                     | Student perception   |                   |
| Data Source:                                  | survey administered to 230 high school students in Brownsville TX  |                   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                     | Mixed methods  |                   |

- Males were significantly more likely than females to negatively evaluate the school police officers and to oppose the use of metal detectors in schools.
- 60% thought that school police officers do a good job of keeping the schools safe and that drug-sniffing dogs keep drugs out of schools
- Majority of students were opposed to requirement of translucent backpacks.
- Security measures have had little impact on the presence of weapons or drugs in the schools (more than half of students reported seeing other students use drugs or carrying knives, and 10% saw students carry guns).

#### Notes:

- School officials should not rely solely on hard control strategies to curb crime and delinquency in the schools.
- Students should be encouraged to participate in the development and implementation of school security measures

| STUDENT PERCEPTIONS/ SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS  | Brown, B., & Benedict, W. R. (2005). Classroom cops, what do the students think? A case study of student perceptions of school police and security officers conducted in an Hispanic community.  |  |
|--|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | International Journal of Police Science & Management, 7(4), 264-285.   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:  | Cross-sectional exploratory study  Aims to conduct an assessment of juvenile's perceptions of the police in an area where whites are the minority population.  |  |
| Variables:   | Survey Questions: Keep schools safe Treat students fairly Are polite to students Feel safe when see police/security officers Like having police/security officers in school Help control gang activity Help keep drugs out of school                                   |  |
|  | Outcomes: 1) Perception of security/police officers keeping school safe 2) Like having security/police officers in school 3) Keep drugs out of school  Predictors: Year in school Gender Race/ethnicity Language spoken at home Been attacked Victim of theft          |  |
| Specific Security Measure:   | School security officers School police officers  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | Student perception survey – logistic regression of results   |  |
| Data Source/Sample:  | Brownsville, Texas – 91.3% Hispanic population. Survey of 230 students.  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |  |
| fairly, officers are polite to st<br>when they see officers and lik<br>different measures of satisfac<br>crime/drug use in schools per | d security officers were favorable overaudents, and help keep schools safe. More seeing them there. Demographic variation with police. Students who have perceive officers less favorably than stude aid about respecting or appreciating the ace/ethnicity/community. | ost students responded feeling safe riables have conflicting effects on rsonal/firsthand knowledge of the other who do not have this experience. |

| Type of Study/Aims:  RQ1: What are the associations between school security measures and students' relationships with teachers?  RQ2: What are the associations between school security measures and students' relationships with adults in the school?  RQ3: What are the associations between school security measures and students' perceptions of the fairness and consistency of school rules?  Variables:  Relationships with teachers Relationships with adults Fairness and consistency of rules School security measures Control variables  Specific Security Measure:  Security personnel Metal detectors Surveillance cameras  How is Security Measured?  Presence of school security measures Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source:  6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the | PERCEPTIONS –<br>STUDENT   | Fisher, B.W., Gardella, J.H., & Tanner-Smith, E. (2018). Social control in schools: The relationships between school security measures and informal social control mechanisms. <i>Journal of School Violence</i> , DOI: 10.1080/15388220.2018.1503964 |  |  |
|---|----------------------------|---|--|--|
| relationships with teachers?  RQ2: What are the associations between school security measures and students' relationships with adults in the school?  RQ3: What are the associations between school security measures and students' perceptions of the fairness and consistency of school rules?  Variables:  Relationships with teachers Relationships with adults Fairness and consistency of rules School security measures Control variables  Specific Security Measure:  Security personnel Metal detectors Surveillance cameras  How is Security Measured?  Presence of school security measures Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source:  6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the  | Article Title/Reference:   |   |  |  |
| relationships with adults in the school? RQ3: What are the associations between school security measures and students' perceptions of the fairness and consistency of school rules?  Variables: Relationships with teachers Relationships with adults Fairness and consistency of rules School security measures Control variables  Specific Security Measure: Security personnel Metal detectors Surveillance cameras  How is Security Measured? Presence of school security measures Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source:  6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the  | Type of Study/Aims:        |   |  |  |
| Perceptions of the fairness and consistency of school rules?  Relationships with teachers Relationships with adults Fairness and consistency of rules School security measures Control variables  Specific Security Measure:  Security personnel Metal detectors Surveillance cameras  How is Security Measured?  Presence of school security measures Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source:  6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the  |                            |   |  |  |
| Relationships with adults Fairness and consistency of rules School security measures Control variables  Specific Security Measure:  Security personnel Metal detectors Surveillance cameras  How is Security Measured?  Presence of school security measures Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source:  6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the  |                            |   |  |  |
| Fairness and consistency of rules School security measures Control variables  Specific Security Measure: Security personnel Metal detectors Surveillance cameras  How is Security Measured? Presence of school security measures Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source:  6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the  | Variables:                 | Relationships with teachers   |  |  |
| School security measures Control variables  Specific Security Measure:  Security personnel Metal detectors Surveillance cameras  How is Security Measured?  Presence of school security measures Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b) metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source:  6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the   |                            | Relationships with adults   |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure:  Security personnel Metal detectors Surveillance cameras  How is Security Measured?  Presence of school security measures Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source:  6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the  |                            | Fairness and consistency of rules   |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure:  Security personnel Metal detectors Surveillance cameras  How is Security Measured?  Presence of school security measures  Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source:  6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the   |                            | School security measures  |  |  |
| Metal detectors Surveillance cameras  How is Security Measured? Presence of school security measures  Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For  example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b  metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source: 6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the  |                            | Control variables   |  |  |
| How is Security Measured? Presence of school security measures  Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For  example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b  metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source: 6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the  | Specific Security Measure: | Security personnel  |  |  |
| How is Security Measured? Presence of school security measures  Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For  example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b)  metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source: 6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the   | -                          | Metal detectors   |  |  |
| Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For example, does the school have: (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source: 6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the  |                            | Surveillance cameras  |  |  |
| example, does the school have : (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b) metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source: 6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the   | How is Security Measured?  | Presence of school security measures  |  |  |
| metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?  Data Source: 6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the   |                            | Does your school take any measures to make sure students are safe? For  |  |  |
| Data Source: 6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the  |                            | example, does the school have : (a) security guards and/or police officers, (b)   |  |  |
|   |                            | metal detectors, or (c) security cameras?   |  |  |
| National Crima Victimization Survey   | Data Source:               | 6,547 secondary students surveyed as part of School Crime Supplement to the   |  |  |
| National Crime Victimization Survey   |                            | National Crime Victimization Survey   |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: Quantitative  | Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |  |  |

- The presence of security personnel in schools was associated with poorer student relationships with teachers
- Surveillance cameras were the most prevalent school security measure (85%)
- When schools used one security measure, they also tended to use others
- Fairness and consistency of rules was positively correlated with both students' relationships with teachers, and adults in the school
- Students' relationships with teachers were positively correlated with their relationships with adults in the school
- The presence of metal detectors was associated with better perceptions of school rules after adding the control variables.

Notes: Schools might benefit from fostering positive relationships within the school community and establishing rules that are perceived as fair and consistent.

| STUDENT PERCEPTION/        | Garcia, C. A. (2003). School safety technology in America: Current use and  |  |
|----------------------------|---|--|
| INDIVIDUAL SECURITY        | perceived effectiveness. Criminal Justice Policy Review, 14(1), 30-54.  |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Measure the current use of safety technology and its perceived effectiveness in order to ascertain the "security climate" in which millions of children go to school. |  |
| Variables:                 |   |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | School safety administrations (SSAs)  |  |
|                            | Cameras Recording systems   |  |
|                            | Metal detectors DA systems  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | 331 questions (security plans, perceptions of safety, technologies employed, perceived effectiveness, future plans, school district descriptive data)                 |  |
| Data Source:               | national telephone survey completed by National Institute of Justice; 41 SSAs from 15 states  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |  |

- 90% of districts reported the use of security cameras in their schools.
- 88% of districts reported a recording system of some type.
- 55% of districts reported the use of a weapon detection system (WDS).
- 40% of districts reported the use of DA systems (panic buttons)
- 10% of districts reported using scanners/ID cards (ECD) for school access
- 67% of districts believed cameras to be either effective or very effective
- 64% of districts believed recording systems to be effective or very effective
- 45% of districts believed WDS were effective or very effective but these ratings dropped when assessed by crime type.
- 66% of districts plan to acquire or upgrade their camera systems
- 34% plan to purchase ECD
- Complains about cost of security were mentioned throughout the study.
- Little of the technology are placed in areas deemed most vulnerable to disorder behaviors, drug crimes, property crimes, violent crimes.
- There appears to be a disconnect between the perceived effectiveness of certain technologies (ECD) and the number of districts wishing/planning to acquire the technology in the future.

#### Recommendations:

- Carefully assess the actual threat to the school in regards to weapons and then develop a system that addresses that particular need.
- School administrators must:
  - o Identify the major security concerns on a school by school basis
  - Identify locations in each school most vulnerable to those concerns
  - o Identify the technologies that could have a measurable impact
  - Consider the legal ramifications associated with the use of this technology
  - Develop proper support functions performed by school personnel that would bolster the performance of the designated technology.
- It is not good policy to continue to expand and invest resources into programs that are <u>untested</u>.
- School funding resources should be funneled into programs and policies aimed at the regeneration of the school community.
- The federal government should:
  - Invest in the development of next-generation technologies
  - Fund future studies focusing on usage and effectiveness of school safety technologies
  - Direct major effort toward the dissemination of research findings and develop a framework to enhance communication and information sharing between safety experts, administrators and school boards.

| PERCEPTIONS – STUDENT Article Title/Reference: | Johnson, S. L., Bottiani, J., Waasdorp, T. E., & Bradshaw, C. P. (2018). Surveillance or safekeeping? How school security officer and camera presence influence students' perceptions of safety, equity, and support. <i>Journal of Adolescent Health</i> , 63(6), 732-738. |
|--|---|
| Type of Study/Aims:                            | This study examines the association between observed security measures in secondary schools and students' perceptions of safety equity and support.   |
| Variables:                                     | Outcomes: school safety, school equity, school support Predictors: officer presence, inside cameras, outside cameras Covariates: gender, race/ethnicity, grade, community disadvantage index  |
| Specific Security Measure:                     | officer presence, inside cameras, outside cameras   |
| How is Security Measured?                      | School Assessment for Environmental Typology  |
| Data Source:                                   | School climate surveys from 98 middle and high schools in Maryland (54,350 students)  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                      | Quantitative  |

- Greater use of security cameras inside the school was related to lower perceptions of safety, equity, and support
- A moderate level of security camera use outside the school was related to higher student perceptions of support.
- Security officer presence was associated with higher perceptions of safety.
- For Black students, cameras were associated with elevated perceptions of safety and support relative to White students
- At the student-level, females and younger students perceived school to be less supportive.
- The higher the community disadvantage index and percentage of minority students in the school were associated with lower perceived school support and lower perceived school safety
- Disparities in perceived school equitable treatment were not sensitive to differences in number of security cameras or presence of officers

Notes: Outside cameras and security may be perceived by students as gatekeeping whereas inside cameras may elicit feelings that students are potential perpetrators who need to be surveilled.

| STUDENT PERCEPTIONS        | Kitsantis, A., Ware, H.W., & Martinez-Arias, R. (2004). Students'  |   |  |  |
|----------------------------|--|---|--|--|
|                            | perceptions of school safety: Effects by community, school   |   |  |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | environment, and substance use variables. <i>The Journal of Early</i>  |   |  |  |
|                            | Adolescence, 24, 412-430. doi: 10.   | Adolescence, 24, 412-430. doi: 10.1177/0272431604268712 |  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Sought to examine relations among known variables important to school safety.  |   |  |  |
|                            | H1: Student's perceptions of community safety and relative school safety   |   |  |  |
|                            |  | ns of school environment variables.                     |  |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors  |  |  |
|                            | Student perceptions of school safety   | Relative School Safety                                  |  |  |
|                            | Student perceptions of substance use   | Fairness of discipline code                             |  |  |
|                            |  | School climate  |  |  |
|                            |  | School safety actions                                   |  |  |
|                            |  | Community safety  |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | "School safety actions"  |   |  |  |
|                            | Guards, metal detectors, visitors' passes, restroom restrictions, school   |   |  |  |
|                            | locks, locker checks, hall passes, teacher supervision in hallways   |   |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | 8 item measure (School Safety Actions) - higher score indicates a more strict course of action by the school to maintain safety. |   |  |  |
| Data Source:               | 3092 6th, 7th, and 8th grade students as part of the School Safety and   |   |  |  |
|                            | Discipline Component of the National Household Education Survey  |   |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |   |  |  |
|                            |  |   |  |  |

- The strongest predictors of student perceptions of safety and substance use in school were perceived safety in the school relative to their neighborhood, community safety, and school climate (31% of the variance)
- Actions taken by the school to enhance school safety were the weakest predictor of student perceptions of school safety and substance use.

# Recommendations:

- 1. Discipline codes characterized by student knowledge of the school rules, student perception that the code is fair, student belief in the consistency of punishment for code violation and in strict enforcement of the rules, and student knowledge of the kind of punishment that will follow rule violation.
- 2. School climates, in which students are challenged, enjoy school, see teachers maintain good discipline in the classroom, sense mutual respect between students and teachers, and see the principal and assistant principal maintain good discipline.

## Notes:

Adolescents might link academic expectations at school to perceptions of school safety.

It is important for schools and communities to work together to maintain safe school environments given the relationship between community safety and perceived school safety.

| PERCEPTIONS -              | McNulty, C. P., & Roseboro, D. L. (2009). "I'm not really that bad": Alternative  |
|----------------------------|---|
| STUDENT                    | school students, stigma, and identity politics. Equity and Excellence in  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Education, 42(4), 412–427. https://doi.org/10.1080/10665680903266520  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | The findings described here are part of a larger study designed to explore how young adolescents who have been placed at an alternative school for disruptive and delinquent children perceive their schooling experiences. |
| Variables:                 |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative   |
| Results:                   |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |

#### **Abstract**

Public schools in the United States are predicated upon some common, albeit contested, understanding of a "normal" child. Such an identity comes with corresponding rules of behavior. In this study, we use identity politics as the primary lens through which to interpret the experiences of students at an alternative middle and high school. Through ethnographic field observational data and student interviews over a four-month period, we examine student narratives to inform the theoretical framework of this research. We conclude that the alternative school in this case study is a stigmatized space for students with spoiled identities (Goffman, 1963). We offer implications for alternative schools in general and suggest that their design, by definition, can reinforce the stigmatized identity and its corresponding "deviant" behavior.

| STUDENT PERCEPTIONS                                  | Perumean-Chaney, S.E. & Sutton, L.M. (2013). Students and perceived                                      |                                |  |
|--|--|--------------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:                             | school safety: The impact of school security measures. <i>American</i>                                   |                                |  |
|  | Journal of Criminal Justice, 38, 570-588.  |                                |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:                                  | H1: Security guards and campus patrol will enhance the student's   |                                |  |
|  | perception of their safety at school.  H2: The other visible security measures will diminish the student |                                |  |
|  |  |                                |  |
|  | perception of their safety at school.  |                                |  |
|  | H3: The combination of multiple visible  | ± •                            |  |
| compound the negative environmental cues; A larger r |  |                                |  |
|  | physical security measures employed by a school will diminish the  |                                |  |
|  | students' perception of their safety at school.  |                                |  |
| Variables:   | Outcomes   | Predictors                     |  |
|  | Student's perception of school safety  | Physical security measures     |  |
|  |  | Non-physical security measures |  |
|  |  | Individual characteristics     |  |
|  |  | School characteristics         |  |
| Specific Security Measure:                           | Metal detectors  |                                |  |
| -  | Security guards, campus patrols  |                                |  |
|  | Visible security measures (video cameras, bars, locked doors)  |                                |  |
|  | Non-physical measures (Hall-passes, visitor sign in, parking regulations,                                |                                |  |
|  | dress codes)   |                                |  |
| How is Security Measured?                            | School-level survey data obtained from School Administrator Questionnaire                                |                                |  |
|  | Presence vs. Absence (dichotomous variables)   |                                |  |
| Data Source:   | National Longitudinal Study of Adoles  |                                |  |
|  | 13,386 adolescent students nested within 130 schools   |                                |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                            | Quantitative   |                                |  |
| Results:   |  |                                |  |

- Metal detectors and the number of visible security measures (at least 2) employed in school were associated with a decrease in reports of students feeling safe.
- Non-physical security measures had no effect on students' perceptions of safety.
- Security guards, video cameras, bars/locked doors had no effect on students' perceptions of safety.
- White male students with higher GPAs who reported feeling safe in their neighborhood also reported feeling safe in their school.
- Students who experienced prior victimizations, had larger class sizes, and attended schools with disorder problems were more likely to report not feeling safe at school.
- Older students felt safer than younger students

Notes: School climate variable was not able to be constructed from AddHealth data, nor was a direct measure of fear.

Fear of crime and perceived risk are conceptually different and should be accounted for in additional research.

| STUDENT PERCEPTIONS        | Portillos, E. L., González, J. C., & Peguero, A. A. (2012). Crime control  |                   |
|----------------------------|--|-------------------|
| Article Title/Reference:   | strategies in school: Chicanas'/os' perceptions and criminalization. <i>The Urban Review</i> , 44(2), 171-188.                       |                   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | How do Chicanas/os and school officials perceive and experience security techniques as part of a broader process of criminalization. |                   |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors        |
|                            | perceptions  | security measures |
| Specific Security Measure: | zero tolerance policies partnerships with law enforcement security cameras additional security                                       |                   |
| How is Security Measured?  | semi-structured interviews and observations  |                   |
| Data Source:               | LaVictoria High School   |                   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative  |                   |

- Some students find the new techniques to be invasive and hostile, while others find them to be providing a sense of security.
- Teachers and administrators generally find value in the new approaches.

#### Recommendations:

- 1. Administrators should recognize the possibility of criminalization in their efforts to securing school safety.
- 2. Alternative policies could utilize restorative practices, allowing student to make amends to those they harmed without criminalizing them in the process.
- 3. Schools should function and look like educational institutions rather than quasi-prisons.
- 4. Keep cameras and security guards but remove the resource officer, instead schools should build mentoring programs where they bring in community leaders who could develop relationships with troubled youth and potentially reduce criminal and bad behavior.
- 5. If school resource officers are removed from school, all police officers could be trained to exercise the community policing approach experienced and appreciated by students and to focus on developing and sustaining relationships in the community, in turn improving the effectiveness of police in preventing and deterring crime in impoverished communities.

## Notes:

- There are no universal Chicana/o experiences, but complex and multi-layered experiences in racialized spaces where some students are discriminated against based upon ethnicity/race, class, gender, language, and citizenship, while others experience no discrimination.
- Students can be marginalized
  - o directly through what is said to them that makes them feel inferior
  - o indirectly through what is done throughout the school
  - o due to how schools operate in ways that do not integrate or respect the knowledge bases, experiences, and culture of Latina/o youth into the learning environment
- Multifaceted programs are needed to address school problems, including gangs, in order to ensure the academic and economic success for a growing Chicana/o youth population

| PERCEPTIONS –<br>STUDENT   | Sander, J. B., Sharkey, J. D., Olivarri, R., Tanigawa, D. A., & Mauseth, T. (2010). A qualitative study of juvenile offenders, student engagement, and  |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | interpersonal relationships: Implications for research directions and preventionist approaches. <i>Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation</i> , 20(4), 288–315. https://doi.org/10.1080/10474412.2010.522878 |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative   |
| Results:                   |   |
| Matan                      |   |

# **Abstract**

Background factors that correlate with juvenile delinquency are consistent across the interdisciplinary literature base. Yet, information about the process of how risks relate to outcomes, especially within school settings, is limited. Researchers used qualitative methods to examine school and interpersonal experiences from the perspective of juvenile offenders and their families. Sixteen families were recruited from juvenile probation facilities in 2 different geographic regions. Consensual Qualitative Research methods yielded consistent themes, including the central role of advocacy to obtain appropriate school services, the importance of flexibility in discipline policies, classroom experiences that shaped outcomes, and the importance of nonjudgmental social support for the adolescents and their parents. The findings and recommendations for school consultants are presented from a preventionist standpoint, and self-determination theory is discussed in relation to future juvenile delinquency research.

| STUDENT PERCEPTIONS / SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS | Theriot, M.T., & Orme, J.G. (2016). School resource officers and students' feelings of safety at school. <i>Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice</i> . 14(2), 130-146. DOI: 10.1177/1541204014564472 |  |  |
|--|---|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:                       |   |  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:                            | Investigate the effect of interacting with SROs on students' feelings of safety at school.  |  |  |
| Variables:                                     | Outcomes  | Predictors   |  |
|  | Students' perception of safety  | Demographic characteristics<br>School violence<br>Feelings about SRO at school |  |
|  |   | # of interactions with SRO   |  |
| Specific Security Measure:                     | SROs  |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?                      | 10-item scale to measure students' attitudes about SROs   |  |  |
| Data Source:                                   | Students at 7 middle and 5 high schools (2015 students in SE US) were tasked with completing a comprehensive 60-question survey about SRO program.  |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                      | Quantitative  |  |  |
|  | 1) latent class analysis models   |  |  |
|  | 2) logistic/multivariate regression   |  |  |

Results: Students were classified into *Safe Students* and *Unsafe Students*. *Safe students* generally feel safe in school hallways, cafeteria, bathrooms, classrooms, and to and from school, while *Unsafe students* generally feel unsafe in these areas.

Feeling unsafe was associated with experiencing higher rates of school violence, less positive attitudes about SROs and lower levels of school connectedness.

Overall, there was no significant relationship between interactions with SROs and school safety, BUT there was a significant relationship between **positive** attitudes towards SROs and better feelings of safety.

Notes: The study noted that many students also had minimal to no interactions with SROs. This might speak to the importance of SROs being more involved with students on a regular basis. Increased positive interactions/relationships with students might foster reduced school violence and increased feelings of safety in schools.

| PERCEPTIONS –              | Allen, Q., & White-Smith, K. A. (2014). "Just as bad as prisons": The challenge |
|----------------------------|---|
| SCHOOL                     | of dismantling the school-to-prison pipeline through teacher and community      |
| PERSONNEL                  | education. Equity & Excellence in Education, 47(4), 445-460.                    |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
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|                            |   |
| Notes:                     |   |

## **Abstract**

Drawing upon the authors' experiences working in schools as teachers, teacher educators, researchers, and community members, this study utilizes a Critical Race Theory of education in examining the school-to-prison pipeline for black male students. In doing so, the authors highlight the particular role educators play in the school-to-prison pipeline, focusing particularly on how dispositions toward black males influence educator practices. Recommendations and future directions are provided on how education preparation programs can play a critical role in the transformation of black male schooling.

| Benigni, M. D. (2004). When cops go to school. <i>Principal Leadership</i> , 4(5), 43-  |
|---|
| 47.   |
|   |
| An editorial piece supporting the utility of the COPS SRO program. Author is a former special education teacher, vice principal and mayor of the City of Meriden, CT. |
|   |
| SROs  |
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|   |

- SRO programs decrease the demand on local patrol officers and detectives to respond to incidents at the high school.
- SRO duties include:
  - · Responding to calls throughout the city when involving students
  - · Assist administrators in matters relating to school criminal activity
  - · Take appropriate action against unauthorized personnel on school property
  - · Attend school events
  - · Maintain visibility
  - · Serve as instructional resource on law enforcement topics
  - · Participate in conferences
  - · Take appropriate legal action when necessary
  - Provide feedback to police departments so officers better understand the concerns and fears of local youth

Bibliographer's Notes: This article is lacking in formal data to support points.

| PERCEPTIONS – SCHOOL PERSONNEL Article Title/Reference: | Cuellar, M.J., Elswick, S.E., & Theriot, M.T. (2017). An investigation of school social worker perceptions toward school security personnel. <i>School Social Work Journal</i> , <i>41</i> (2), 41-60.   |
|---|--|
| Type of Study/Aims:                                     | RQ1: Do school social workers perceive school security personnel as helpful in carrying out various professional tasks?  RQ2: Do data from this sample support construct validity of items designed to operationalize school social worker's perception of the helpfulness of school security personnel?  RQ3: What factors influence school social worker's collaboration, satisfaction, and perception that their school security personnel are helpful?   |
| Variables:  | <ul> <li>Demographic information about school social worker</li> <li>School security personnel characteristics (Type of school security personnel, whether visibly armed, time social worker spent with school security personnel, observable overlap of duties)</li> <li>Satisfaction with school security personnel</li> <li>Perceived helpfulness of school security personnel</li> <li>How can communication between school social workers and school security personnel be improved?</li> </ul> |
| Specific Security Measure:                              | School security personnel  |
| How is Security Measured?                               |  |
| Data Source:  | Convenience sample of school social workers in Tennessee via anonymous survey $(N = 67)$ .   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                               | Mixed method   |
| Results:  |  |

- School security personnel were influential in performance of creating positive school climate, improving students' feelings of safety, and improving students' feelings of connectedness.
- 8.2% of social workers believed school security personnel made it somewhat difficult for them to create positive school climate.
- Practitioners who spend more time at their school tend to spend more time with school security personnel, and perceive them as more effective in their duties
- Time spent with school security personnel predicted higher satisfaction with their work within the school
- School social workers that employ SROs were more satisfied with their school security personnel than those in schools that did not employ an SRO
- 25% mentioned a need to inform school security personnel about what school social workers do
- 32% mentioned the need for more collaboration in meetings

#### Notes:

- Steps need to be taken to improve communication and collaboration between school social workers and school security personnel
- Roles need to be clearly defined
- Social workers may not spend enough time with their security personnel to effectively collaborate to provide services for students
- Replication of this study should be considered with larger, more diverse samples

| PERCEPTIONS –              | Cuellar, M.J., Elswick, S.E., & Theriot, M.T. (2018). School social workers' perceptions  |  |
|----------------------------|---|--|
| SCHOOL                     | of school safety and security in today's schools: A survey of practitioners across the  |  |
| PERSONNEL                  | United States. Journal of School Violence, 17(3), 271-283.  |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | An exploratory study of school social workers' perceptions regarding the effectiveness  |  |
|                            | of school safety strategies.  |  |
| Variables:                 | School-level: urbanicity, school size, percentage minority students, percentage low SES, education level  |  |
|                            | Effectiveness of school safety strategies (authoritarian and educational/therapeutic)   |  |
|                            | Please provide any comments you may have on school safety in your schools.  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Authoritarian (metal detectors, emergency alert system, locked/monitored gates, fencing, visitor restrictions, dress code, surveillance cameras, police/law enforcement, searches, drug screenings, clear backpacks, zero-tolerance policy)  Educational (counseling, anonymous student reporting, student mentoring, conflict resolution, peer-mediation, communication or connectedness programs) |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | Dichotomous   |  |
| Data Source:               | 229 school social workers across the U.S. Cross-sectional data were collected in the fall of 2016 through anonymous electronic survey. Decrepit   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Mixed method  |  |

- Most widely used authoritarian strategies were
  - o Restricted school access (97.8%)
  - o Surveillance cameras (85.6%)
  - o Zero-tolerance policies (61.5%)
  - o SROs (57.5%)
- Metal detectors were the least used authoritarian strategy (4.8%), followed by drug screens (12.2%) and nonsworn police officers (27.9%).
- Most common educational/therapeutic strategies were
  - o Counseling (97.8%)
  - Connectedness programs (74%)
  - Student mentoring (55.9%)
- Peer mediation and conflict resolution were least-used (32.3% and 41%)
- Emergency alert systems, restricted visitor access, and surveillance cameras were perceived as effective
- Educational strategies were favored by school social workers
- Zero-tolerance policies, clear backpacks, dress codes, metal detectors, and fencing were viewed as ineffective.
- Parents, not just students, pose a threat to school safety (e.g. furious, involved in Court proceedings, orders of protection)
- "Student/staff relationship is the only factor that makes any significant impact."
- Mental health services need to be increased, especially in rural communities.
- School personnel need to balance the need for safety with students' rights.

#### Notes:

- Authoritarian strategies might have a detrimental effect on already disadvantaged students
- Administrators and policymakers must consistently evaluate their needs to determine costs appropriate for securing schools
- Suggests that educational processes that promote student relationships and improve staff-student communication might be most effective

| PERCEPTIONS –              | DeMitchell, T. A., & Cobb, C. D. (2003). Policy responses to violence in our |
|----------------------------|--|
| SCHOOL                     | schools: An exploration of security as a fundamental value. BYU Educ. & LJ,  |
| PERSONNEL                  | 459-484.   |
| Article Title/Reference:   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
| Variables:                 |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
|                            |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
| Results:                   |  |
|                            |  |
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| Notes:                     |  |

This exploratory study was designed to elicit data on the perceptions of a representative sample of New England school superintendents regarding policies that reflect the value of security. Literature on educational policy formation provided the theoretical base for the study. The study focused on whether security is emerging as a distinct fundamental value in educational policy making. Superintendents were asked to make choices between various fundamental values, much as they currently do in any policy environment where resources are not abundant.

| PERCEPTIONS - SCHOOL       | Servoss, T.J. (2012). School security, perceptions of safety, and student   |  |  |
|----------------------------|---|--|--|
| PERSONNEL                  | misbehavior: A multi-level examination. University at Buffalo:  |  |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | SUNY doctoral dissertation.   |  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Secondary data analysis   |  |  |
|                            | R1: What are the school and student characteristics of high-security  |  |  |
|                            | schools versus low security schools?  |  |  |
|                            | R2: What is the relationship between school security and parent and   |  |  |
|                            | student perceptions of safety a   |  |  |
|                            |   | n school security and parent and student |  |
|                            |   | sting for the students' history of prior |  |
|                            | victimization, as well as student characteristics and school  |  |  |
|                            | characteristics?  |  |  |
|                            | R3: What is the relationship between school security and misbehavior? R3A: do the relationships between school security and student |  |  |
|                            | misbehavior remain when adjusting for other variables?  |  |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors                               |  |
| variables.                 | Perception of safety  | School security                          |  |
|                            | Student misbehavior   | Prior victimization                      |  |
|                            | Student iniscent viol   | Student demographics                     |  |
|                            |   | School characteristics                   |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Control access  | Clear book bags                          |  |
|                            | Metal detectors   | IDs                                      |  |
|                            | Close campus for lunch  | Security cameras                         |  |
|                            | Dog sniffs  | Emergency alarm or call button           |  |
|                            | Random sweeps   | Police                                   |  |
|                            | Strict dress code   |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | School Security, School Safety, and Misbehavior measures from the surveys   |  |  |
| Data Source:               | 10,577 10th grade students from 504 public schools from the ELS:2002  |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |  |  |
| Daculter                   | 1   |  |  |

- Increased school security was associated with lower perceptions of school safety by both students and their parents.
- Security was negatively associated with student self-reports of their misbehavior but was found to have a statistically significant relationship to teacher ratings of students' misbehavior.
- African-American and Hispanic/Latino students are rated as having higher levels of disruptive and attendance-related misbehavior by teachers in schools with increased levels of security.
- High security schools tend to serve student populations that are otherwise at risk for negative school outcomes.
- Size of student enrollment is negatively associated with both student and parent perceptions of safety.

## Notes:

- Students often respond with misbehavior when treated unfairly or disrespectfully by teachers or administration.
- High security environments provide opportunity for student-teacher conflicts based on perceived abuse of power and unfairness.
- The money spent on security is not justified given that more productive resources could be implemented.

| PERCEPTIONS –             | Servoss, T.J. (2017). School security and student misbehavior: A multi-level examination.                                      |                         |  |  |
|---------------------------|--|-------------------------|--|--|
| SCHOOLPERSONNEL           | Youth and Society, 49(6), 755-778.   |                         |  |  |
| Article Title/Reference:  |  |                         |  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:       | R1: What are the characteristics of students served in high-security schools relative to those served in low security schools? |                         |  |  |
|                           | R2: How does school security relate to stude   | nt mishehavior?         |  |  |
|                           | R3: Do the relationships between security and race/ethnicity?  |                         |  |  |
| Variables:                | Outcomes   | Predictors              |  |  |
|                           | Student misbehavior (fighting, disruptive  | High security school    |  |  |
|                           | behaviors, absenteeism, truancy,   | Low security school     |  |  |
|                           | tardiness)   | School characteristics  |  |  |
|                           |  | Student characteristics |  |  |
| Specific Security         | Controlled access to the building  |                         |  |  |
| Measure:                  | Metal detectors  |                         |  |  |
|                           | Dog sniffs   |                         |  |  |
|                           | Contraband sweeps  | Contraband sweeps       |  |  |
|                           | Drug testing   |                         |  |  |
|                           | Clear book bags  |                         |  |  |
|                           | Student IDs  |                         |  |  |
|                           | Panic button   |                         |  |  |
|                           | Security cameras   |                         |  |  |
|                           | SROs/Law enforcement   |                         |  |  |
| How is Security Measured? | Overall security score in response to 21 yes/no questions about school security practices                                      |                         |  |  |
| Data Source:              | Educational Longitudinal Survey; 10,577 Grade 10 students from 504 public schools  |                         |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: | Quantitative   |                         |  |  |

- Students in high-security schools (compared to low-security schools)
  - · significantly higher degrees of academic risk
  - · significantly lower math and reading achievement scores
  - · are 11.78 times more likely to be African American than White
  - · are 1.56 times more likely to be Hispanic/Latino than White
  - are 1.67 times more likely to come from a home where both parents failed to complete HS
- When adjusting for all other variables, security was negatively related to self-reported misbehavior
- There was no significant difference between AA or H/L and White students in self-reported misbehavior.
- Students reported more misbehavior in larger schools
- Neighborhood crime, urbanicity, and % free lunch were not significantly related to student misbehavior.
- Teacher ratings of disruptive behavior for AA students were significantly greater compared to White peers, after accounting for school security level.
  - · AA students were rated as even more disruptive than White peers in schools w/ higher security.
- Teachers' ratings of AA students' attendance problems were significantly higher than white peers.
- High security schools tend to serve populations that are otherwise at risk for negative school outcomes.
- Females were rated as less disruptive and as having fewer academic problems than males.
- Quality of student-teacher relationships is negatively related to misbehavior.

Notes: If the quality of the student-teacher relationships is related to misbehavior, teachers rate AA students as more disruptive and as exhibiting higher rates of misbehavior in high-security schools, AND students in high-security schools are almost 12 times more likely to be AA, it would seem that **teacher characteristics** should be more closely examined. Most studies, including this one fail to include the race/ethnicity of the teachers in the schools. Since it is suggested that school climate and school engagement predict academic success, building relationships and engaging students seems paramount to security measures.

| PERCEPTIONS –                          | Time, V., & Payne, B. K. (2008). School violence prevention measures: School  |
|--|---|
| SCHOOL                                 | officials' attitudes about various strategies. Journal of Criminal  |
| PERSONNEL                              | Justice, 36(4), 301-306.  |
| Article Title/Reference:               |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:                    | <ol> <li>What are the characteristics of school officials' perceptions about violence prevention strategies?</li> <li>Do these perceptions relate to the school officials' demographic characteristics?</li> <li>Do the school officials' experiences with seizure of contraband and</li> </ol> |
|  | perceptions about the usefulness of strategies relate to demographics?  |
| Variables:  Specific Security Measure: |   |
| Specific Security Weasure.             |   |
| How is Security Measured?              |   |
| Data Source:                           |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:              | Quantitative  |
| Results:                               |   |

#### **Abstract**

Concern about school violence has been escalating in recent years. A variety of strategies are used in efforts to prevent violence in schools. These remedies can be classified as legal, interactionist, and physical remedies. Legal remedies refer to laws, like the reasonable suspicion to search strategy that allows school officials to search and seize contraband. Interactionist remedies refer to practices that encourage students and other school officials to communicate more openly with school officials about possible cases of violence. Physical remedies refer to strategies that involve altering the school environment in an effort to prevent violence. This study considered the way that 138 school officials from the Commonwealth of Virginia defined the usefulness of these strategies. Attention was also given to whether certain factors contribute to the officials' assessments of the efficacy of each prevention strategy. Results of the study showed that the interactionist, and then legal remedies are believed to be the most useful, while physical remedies are perceived as the least useful strategies. The study uncovered differences of opinion based on racial lines. As an example, more Blacks than Whites were more likely to describe metal detectors as a very useful strategy. Implications of the study are provided.

| METAL DETECTORS  Article Title/Reference: | Hankin, A., Hertz, M., & Simon, T. (2011). Impacts of metal detector use in schools: Insights from 15 years of research. <i>Journal of School Health</i> , 81(2), 100-106. |                 |
|---|--|-----------------|
| Type of Study/Aims:                       | Extensive literature search to review the impacts of metal detectors on school violence and perceptions about school violence.   |                 |
| Variables:                                | Outcomes   | Predictors      |
|   | School violence  | Metal detectors |
| Specific Security Measure:                | Metal detectors  |                 |
| How is Security Measured?                 |  |                 |
| Data Source:                              | 7 studies including self-report surveys, local and national level data   |                 |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                 | Review   |                 |

- "Mixed, complex, and sometimes contradictory picture of the impact of metal detector use in schools."
- Lack of pre-post study design and the reliance upon self-report data make it impossible to determine if the data reflect actual differences in things like students carrying weapons.
- Students and staff may respond to metal detectors in unpredictable ways; is associated with lower levels of student's perceptions of security in school and higher levels of school disorder.
- There is insufficient evidence to draw a conclusion about the potential beneficial effect of metal detector use on student and staff behavior or perception.

## Notes:

• Metal detector programs are expensive, and funds spent on metal detectors would not be available for other programs and strategies that have been shown to be effective at reducing youth risk for violence and promoting pro-social behaviors.

| POLICE / SCHOOL            | American Civil Liberties Union. (2017). Bullies in Blue: The Origins and       |
|----------------------------|--|
| RESOURCE                   | Consequences of School Policing [White paper]. Retrieved October 7, 2017,      |
| OFFICERS                   | from https://www.aclu.org/report/bullies-blue-origins-and-consequences-school- |
| Article Title/Reference:   | policing   |
|                            | A detailed report focused upon the history of school policing and the adverse  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | impact on Black and Latinx communities.  |
|                            |  |
| Variables:                 | School police  |
|                            | Student rights   |
|                            | School climate   |
| Specific Security Measure: | Police/SROs  |
|                            |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |

- Black and Latinx students are viewed as either delinquent or potentially delinquent.
- "Broken windows" policing strategy aims to crack down on petty crimes, believed to prevent more serious crimes from occurring; shaped zero-tolerance policies in schools.
- Struggling students are "pushed out" via policies and school police in an effort to maintain test scores
- Positive school climates can mitigate risk.
- The gap between research and practice is "socially unjust"
- Police in schools continue to engage in traditional law enforcement tactics that have serious consequences for students.

# **ACLU Recommendations:**

- End the routine of policing schools.
- Commit to the objective of providing equal educational opportunities and positive school climate for all students in all schools.
- End the practice of arrests and referral to law enforcement for common adolescent behaviors.
- Hold police to the same standards in schools as applied elsewhere in our communities.
- Invest in supportive resources (mental health, crisis intervention, restorative justice, mediation).
- Enact policies that create specific protocols for when and how police should interact with students in schools.
- Police should reform policies and training for responding to youth, including, but not limited to when responding in schools.
- Collect, review, and provide the public with quality data on police activity in schools.

| POLICE                     | Blad, E. (2017, January 24). Impact of school 1                          | police. Many unanswered        |
|----------------------------|--|--------------------------------|
| Article Title/Reference:   | questions. Education Week. Retrieved from:                               |                                |
|                            | http://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2017/0 many-unanswered-questions.html. | 1/25/impact-of-school-police-  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Status update on where the current research state police in schools.     | ands in terms of the impact of |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors                     |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs   |                                |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |                                |
| Data Source:               |  |                                |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |                                |

- Body of research is limited and reports conflicting conclusions.
- "The lack of information on school police mirrors a larger lack of data on law enforcement in general."
- It may be a few more years before the findings of the 2014 National Institute of Justice's Comprehensive School Safety Initiative is published.
- In Connecticut researchers are tracking four years of data following a pilot group of 12 schools to determine if training school staff about the role of school-based police can lead to more consistent discipline and reduce discriminatory impact.
- In Arizona researchers are testing enhanced school resource officer training to include school environment, student discipline and childhood trauma.

Bibliographer's comments:

The Arizona research appears to be the first of its kind; considering the impacts of environment and childhood trauma or home characteristics in terms of their effects on behavior at school is certainly important.

| Coon, J. K., & Travis III, L. F. (2012). The role of police in public schools: A                    |
|---|
| comparison of principal and police reports of activities in schools. <i>Police</i>                  |
| Practice and Research, 13(1), 15-30.  |
| Comparison study of principals and police officials perceptions of police involvement in schools.   |
| Type of activity  |
| Law enforcement activities  |
| Advise/mentor staff   |
| Advise/mentor groups  |
| Advise/mentor students or families  |
| Presence at school events   |
| Police/SRO  |
| Police agencies were included if they were identified by the school as being primarily relied upon. |
| U.S. Department of Education Common Core of Data.   |
| Survey of school principals and corresponding police departments (1000 schools).                    |
| Quantitative  |
|   |

- Principals generally perceived lower levels of police involvement in schools than law-enforcement administrators.
- The most common police activities in and around schools involved patrol and other forms of law enforcement.

#### Notes:

Problems are likely to occur when expectations and concerns are not openly/regularly discussed.

Bibliographer's comments: Authors suggest that officers often adapt to school settings when specific roles and functions are not formally discussed. How does this 'adaptation' contribute to school climate? Is there just a continuation of existing concerns, specifically disparity in the forms of punishment, arrest, negative consequences? Or does this depend on the particular officer in this position?

| POLICE                     | Cusack, M. (2009). Policing matters: Addressing the controversial issue of   |
|----------------------------|--|
|                            | policing through education for reconciliation. <i>International Review of</i>  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Education, 55(2-3), 251-267.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | This paper examines the commonly-held teacher perception of policing as a controversial issue and the reasons why these perceptions exist. It takes into consideration the opinion that it is time for schools to begin work on policing, and investigates the implications for practice in Ireland. |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Police   |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               | Semi-structured interviews with 28 teachers and 4 police officers  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative  |

- Positive relationships are paramount in addressing controversial issues between teachers, students, and police.
- The ability of schools to effectively implement and sustain equitable education processes is largely dependent upon **societal** changes.

Bibliographer's Comments: This article is specific to political and religious unrest in Ireland. Although the concept of integrating police and education is applicable to the current climate in the United States.

| POLICE                    | Jackson, A. (2002). Police-school resource of   | ficers' and students' perception of the |  |
|---------------------------|---|---|--|
| A                         | police and offending. <i>Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies</i> &  |   |  |
| Article Title/Reference:  | Management, 25, 631-650.  |   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:       | To determine the impact of students' interactions with SROs.  |   |  |
|                           | <ul><li>H1: Interaction with SROs will not have a significant impact on students' perception of the police in general.</li><li>H2: Interaction with SROs will not have a significant impact in shaping students' perception of offending.</li></ul> |   |  |
|                           |   |   |  |
|                           | H3: Interaction with SROs will not have a signific being identified.  | eant impact on students' perceptions of |  |
| Variables:                | Outcomes  | Predictors                              |  |
|                           | Students' perception of police in general   | Interaction with SROs                   |  |
|                           | Students' perception of offending   |   |  |
|                           | Students' perception of being identified  |   |  |
| Specific Security         | SROs  |   |  |
| Measure:                  |   |   |  |
| How is Security           | Survey instruments designed for schools that utilized SROs on a daily basis.  |   |  |
| Measured?                 | Surveys were administered in the fall and again in the spring.  |   |  |
| Data Source:              | 271 students from four schools in Southeastern Missouri   |   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: | Quantitative  |   |  |
|                           |   |   |  |

- Overall there is no significant relationship between SROs and students' perception of police or offending.
- Females viewed offenses as being more serious than males.
- Students who had been in trouble with the law were more likely to perceive that it was acceptable to sell drugs, hurt someone, and fight in school and felt that they would not be identified if they committed delinquent acts on school grounds, but were more likely to perceive police/SROs negatively.
- Control school students felt that they were more likely to be identified if they participated in delinquent behavior
- SROs are effective for detecting and preventing assaults
- Increased time and interactions with students yielded a positive perception of SROs, although not at a statistically significant level.

#### Notes:

- Researchers recommend that school administrators allot financial resources for counseling, student-faculty crime prevention programs or delinquency awareness programs instead of SROs.
- "The SRO of the school was assigned as a representative to administer the survey. After examination of the responses, both quantitative and qualitative, the results were so glaring that the author was skeptical of their validity."

Bibliographer's Comments: Given that last point, it is strongly suggested that this study be replicated **without** using the SRO as a representative. In fact, given social desirability and other biases, it would be recommended that SROs be kept away from the data collection altogether.

| POLICE                     | McKenna, J. M., & Pollock, J. M. (2014). Law enforcement officers in schools:   |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | An analysis of ethical issues. Criminal Justice Ethics, 33(3), 163-184.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Ethical analysis of the presence of police in schools in an effort to understand the unique challenges of combining law enforcement and the school environment. |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: | Police  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |

#### Notes:

- Training and socialization of police leads to perspectives and problem-solving approaches that are different from a mentor or educator.
- Any analysis of the "right thing to do" must being with a consideration of the duties of an officer in schools.
  - What appear to be the relevant considerations?
  - What kinds of weight or significance do these considerations have?
  - o What would be the best justified responses given the relevant considerations?
  - o What are the issues of utility, duty, or needs?
  - What are the individual characteristics of the student?
- Formal legal sanctions create the school-to-prison pipeline and are more detrimental to students than informal intervention.
- Officers and school administrators should work together on a daily basis to pursue a safe environment where students can focus on academics.
- Training programs should incorporate working with juveniles as well as alternatives to arrest.
- Ethics and education code training should be required.
- The SRO model should be transformed into a school-based police department model which operates within the district as opposed to an external chief.
- The "right" officers need to be working in the schools.

# Directions for future research:

- What situations result in officers being pressured by administrators to take action against a student?
- How do officers handle criminal incidents that arise from relatively minor misbehaviors, like teasing or bullying?
- How do zero-tolerance policies and other initiatives that limit discretion impacting the school-to-prison pipeline?

| POLICE                     | Na, C., & Gottfredson, D. C. (2013). Police officers in schools:             |                                      |  |
|----------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | Effects on school crime and the processing of offending behaviors.           |                                      |  |
| Afficie Tiffe/Reference.   | Justice Quarterly, 30(4), 619-650.   |                                      |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Longitudinal Study   |                                      |  |
|                            | R1: Does adding police to schools reduce                                     | ce crime?                            |  |
|                            | R2: Does adding police to schools increbehaviors?                            | ease formal processing of offending  |  |
|                            | R3: Does adding police to schools incre                                      | ease the use of harsh discipline and |  |
|                            | exclusionary practices?  | -                                    |  |
|                            | R4: Does adding police to schools have                                       | a disproportionate effect on         |  |
|                            | minority and special education students?                                     |                                      |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors                           |  |
|                            | Principal reports # of school crimes   | Police presence                      |  |
|                            | % of school crimes reported to police  | Increase of police presence          |  |
|                            | % of offenses where student was  | Control variables                    |  |
|                            | removed, transferred, suspended  |                                      |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs   |                                      |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | Presence was indicated by principal reporting at least one full-time officer |                                      |  |
|                            | present at least once a week during  | the school year.                     |  |
| Data Source:               | School Survey on Crime and Safety  |                                      |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |                                      |  |
| D14                        |  |                                      |  |

- As schools increase their use of police, they record more crimes involving weapon and drugs and report a higher percentage of their non-serious violent crimes to law enforcement.
- 2007-2008 school year: 21.1% of nation's schools reported at least one full-time police officer stationed in the school at least once a week.
  - o 76% were involved in maintaining school discipline.
  - o 77.5% were involved in mentoring students
  - o 45.8% were involved in teaching students
  - o 62% were involved in training for teachers
- The percentage of schools recording at least one crime is higher in schools with at least one full-time SRO or other law enforcement officer
  - O Is associated with more than double rate of referrals to law enforcement for simple assault without a weapon (most common student crimes)
  - O Harsher response to crime was more likely in these schools
- School-level analysis did not indicate a pattern of disproportionate impact of police use on socially or educationally disadvantaged populations.

# Notes:

- Limitation: addition of police officers to a school may be confounded by installation of other security measures.
- Although more weapons/drugs/crimes are reported, this is not an indication of an actual increase in these items in schools.
- More rigorous research is recommended.

| POLICE                     | Wiley, S. A., Slocum, L. A., & Esbensen, F. A. (2013). The unintended consequences of being stopped or arrested: An exploration of the labeling |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | mechanisms through which police contact leads to subsequent delinquency. <i>Criminology</i> , 51(4), 927-966.                                   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
|                            |   |

# Notes:

#### **Abstract**

Much debate has taken place regarding the merits of aggressive policing strategies such as "stop, question, and frisk." Labeling theory suggests that police contact may actually increase delinquency because youth who are stopped or arrested are excluded from conventional opportunities, adopt a deviant identity, and spend time with delinquent peers. But, few studies have examined the mechanisms through which police contact potentially enhances offending. The current study uses four waves of longitudinal data collected from middle-school students (N= 2,127) in seven cities to examine the deviance amplification process. Outcomes are compared for youth with no police contact, those who were stopped by police, and those who were arrested. We use propensity score matching to control for preexisting differences among the three groups. Our findings indicate that compared with those with no contact, youth who are stopped or arrested report higher levels of future delinquency and that social bonds, deviant identity formation, and delinquent peers partially mediate the relationship between police contact and later offending. These findings suggest that programs targeted at reducing the negative consequences of police contact (i.e., poor academic achievement, deviant identity formation, and delinquent peer associations) might reduce the occurrence of secondary deviance.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | Barnes, L. M. (2016). Keeping the Peace and Controlling Crime: What School     |
|----------------------------|--|
| OFFICERS                   | Resource Officers want School Personnel to Know. The Clearing House: A         |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas, 89(6), 197-201.           |
|                            | To examine the social process of the police-school partnership through the     |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | completion of in-person interviews with SROs.                                  |
| Variables:                 | (1) What are the most important aspects of the program?                        |
|                            | (2) What are the most problematic aspects of the program?                      |
|                            | (3) What are some examples of the work that officers do during the school day? |
| Specific Security Measure: | School Resource Officers (SRO)   |
| How is Security Measured?  | Existence of SRO in the school   |
| Data Source:               | 25 randomly selected public secondary schools                                  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative  |

• 12 interviews were completed (7 from grades 9-12, 5 from grades 6-8)

# Using SRO appropriately

- "Nobody knows what to use us for, where to put us, or how to fit us into the school system."
- "stand in the lobby and walk the halls"
- Conflicts between SRO and school administration regarding authority on school security matters
- "some school administrators don't understand or would prefer not to recognize what the SRO program is really about. Principals sometimes just see us as a monitor for the restroom."
- Officers participate in obligations outside of their sets of responsibility while also being requested to help with discipline issues; teachers were not handling discipline.
- School staff "attempt to utilize us as a response to all issues" (i.e. watch restrooms for smokers, monitor gum chewing and hat wearing, ensure appropriate behavior in the classroom)
- Officers feel they invest too much time and energy managing school infractions, "we are doing what the educators ought to be—controlling the students in the classroom," although technically they are not authorize do to so.
- Officers expressed that their role extended from law-related counseling to supportive student counseling. Relationship with students
- Much of the school day is spent interacting with students in an effort to build positive relationships
- Presence in school created a positive image of law enforcement when school personnel and parents had already created a negative image (i.e. teaching students to fear police)
- SROs feel that the program provides students with another responsible adult in which to confide and trust leading to ability to reason with students when school personnel cannot

# In schools and communities

- Students let SROs know about what is happening in their neighborhoods resulting in departments getting involved.
- It is believed that criminal cases outside of school could be solved from information gathered by an SRO.
- Quick response time is a key benefit of the program

Overall, SROs reported that having a uniformed officer stationed on campus created a safer environment necessary for learning, the police uniform and authority were viewed as deterrents to disorder and criminal activity, less conflict from students and parents, and a general increase in feelings of school safety and security.

Bibliographer's Notes: Given the extremely small sample size, this study needs to be replicated in order to measure consistency of results across states.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE                 | Brady, K. P., Balmer, S., & Phenix, D. (2007). School—Police   |   |
|---------------------------------|--|---|
| OFFICERS                        | Partnership Effectiveness in Urban Schools: An Analysis of New   |   |
| Article Title/Reference:        | York City's Impact Schools Initiative. <i>Education and Urban Society</i> , 39(4), 455-478. DOI:10.1177/0013124507302396.  |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:             | Examination of NYC's Impact Schools Initiative which increased police presence at most dangerous schools.  |   |
| Variables:                      | Outcomes   | Predictors  |
|                                 | <ol> <li>Seriously dangerous or violent behavior</li> <li>Chronically disruptive behavior</li> <li>Minor infractions and disorderly behavior</li> </ol>                | Demographic data (enrollment, race/ethnicity, ESL, special education, student poverty, older than average age for grade, below grade level in reading/math)  Student academic performance School environmental indicators (overcrowding, police incidents, student suspensions) |
| Specific Security Measure:      | Increased police presence  |   |
| How is Security Measured?       | Implementation of city-wide initiative.  |   |
| Data Source:                    | Annual school report cards for 2002-2003 NYC public high schools (one year before Impact School Initiative) and 2004-2005 (one and a half years after implementation). |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:       | Quantitative   |   |
| Results: Students in impact sch | ools exhibited reduced rate in number of   | of students taking SAT, decrease in   |

Results: Students in impact schools exhibited reduced rate in number of students taking SAT, decrease in major crime, significant increase in noncriminal police incidents.

Overall, impact schools are larger, experience higher levels of overcrowding, deliver more student suspensions, have lower student attendance rates, exhibit larger minority student populations, and receive less NYC funding for direct student services.

Notes: Part of the problem with this initiative seems to be at the institutional level in that increased police presence is not going to address the issues of overcrowding and lack of funding for students.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | Brown, B. (2006). Understanding and assessing school police officers: A conceptual and methodological comment. <i>Journal of Criminal Justice</i> ,                                |
|-----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:    | <i>34</i> (6), 591-604.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:         | Overview of the development of school police officers, outline of issues to be considered, discussion of methodological issues pertaining to assessment of school police officers. |
| Variables:                  |  |
| Specific Security Measure:  | School police officers (SPOs)  |
| How is Security Measured?   |  |
| Data Source:                | Meta-analysis  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   |  |

#### Notes:

- School police programs are being developed outside of the United States.
- SPOs are hybrids of educational, correctional, and law enforcement officials.
  - o Enforce school policies
  - o Duties of security personnel
  - O Take part in delinquency reduction programs (i.e. D.A.R.E.)
  - O Act as security analysts and trainers
- There are no standard indicators for describing school violence
- Many school crimes do not get reported
- (1975) increases in the number of police are positively associated with the number of arrests for minor crimes.
- "The presence of officers in schools could lead to an increase in the rate of reported juvenile crime thereby creating the illusion that school violence has increased."
- SPOs may face greater temptation to fabricate/manipulate reports due to increased threat of lawsuits and PR problems.
- Student drug use and weapon carrying are more frequently reported to legal authorities than alcohol/tobacco use and fighting, therefore, analysis of "official" data will likely skew the picture of crime on school grounds.
- Surveys used to assess SPOs should include the way services are delivered, sources of dissatisfaction, and areas for improvement.
- Researchers should use a combination of official crime data and survey data to assess effectiveness of SPOs.
- Poverty and community attributes affect school crime rates.
- Perception of danger negatively impacts student performance, attendance, and confidence.

If SPOs are going to continue to be placed in schools, they should be required to engage in CIT (Crisis Intervention Team) or other mental health/basic behavior management/counseling skills training so that disruptions in school can be addressed outside of the legal system

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | Cray, M., & Weiler, S. C. (2011). Policy to practice: A look at national and state implementation of school resource officer programs. <i>The Clearing House: A Journal of</i>  |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:    | Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas, 84(4), 164-170.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:         | <ol> <li>The following research questions framed the focus of this study:</li> <li>What are the patterns for SROs in public schools?</li> <li>What school district documents are in place to guide the SRO and administrators?</li> <li>Do school district documents addressing the role of the SRO in schools provide these officers with "the tools necessary to ensure a safe school environment?</li> </ol> |
| Variables:                  | School level (primary, middle, high) Urbanicity (rural, town, suburban, city) Enrollment size Disruptive student activities (deaths, hate crimes, gang-based activities) Disruptive actions School interventions  |
| Specific Security Measure:  | SROs  |
| How is Security Measured?   | <ol> <li>Does the school district have SROs assigned to any of its schools?</li> <li>If so, does the school district have an MOU or policy reference related to the role of the SRO in schools?</li> <li>If so, may we have a copy of the document?</li> </ol>  |
| Data Source:                | National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES 2009) were used to identify the national patterns related to school safety issues and the SRO program (83,000 schools). Contacts with a stratified random sample of the 178 Colorado public school districts, based on school district type and student population.  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   | Quantitative  |

# **National Context**

- 2000-2008: 33-43 annual deaths
- Hate crimes = 4%
- Gang-related activity = 16%
- Gang activity = 20%
- Bullying is prevalent and pervasive
- Schools use an array of behavioral management techniques and disciplinary actions implemented by staff and faculty
- Lack of/inadequate training in classroom management = 43%
- Lack of/inadequate alternative placements for disruptive students = 64%
- Three patterns of school and law enforcement agencies
  - o Sworn law enforcement officers visit the school
  - Security guards on site
  - o School-based SRO (35%); greatest assignments in high schools

# **SROs in Colorado**

- 44.7% of school districts use SROs
- 12/30 districts **do not** have an MOU or policy reference related to role of SRO
- 50% reported no training was provided to school administrators related to the implementation of SRO program

Notes: If Colorado data reflects national pattern, 40% of school districts with SROs do not have a document in place to address the role of the officer.

Author recommendations: responsibilities, roles, decision-making processes, and communication should be clearly articulated and understood by SRO and school administrators through the use of an MOU or policy manual.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS   | Devlin, D. N. (2015). The Role of Police Officers in Schools:  |   |
|----------------------------|--|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | cle Title/Reference:  Effects on the Recording and Reporting of Crime (Unpublished   |   |
| Article Title/Reference.   | master's thesis). University of Maryland, Colle  |   |
|                            | Purpose: examine whether SRO role approach   |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | school crimes to law enforcement differen  |   |
|                            | H1: SRO presence will be associated with high  | ner rate of recorded non-serious and      |
|                            | property crime.  | d h.: -hfdd                               |
|                            | H2: The association between police presence a  |   |
|                            | property crimes will be strongest in schools in which SROs use the law enforcement only approach.  |   |
|                            | H3: SRO presence will be associated with a higher likelihood of being in the high  |   |
|                            | reporting group for non-serious and property crimes reported to police.  |   |
|                            | H4: The association between police presence a  |   |
|                            | reporting group for non-serious and prope  |   |
|                            | which use the law enforcement only appro   | oach.                                     |
|                            | H5: SRO presence will be associated with a hi  | gher rate of serious violent, weapon, and |
|                            | drug crimes recorded.  |   |
|                            | H6: The association between police presence a  |   |
|                            | and drug crimes will be the same for SRO schools regardless of which role approach   |   |
|                            | is used.   |   |
|                            | H7: SRO presence will be associated with a higher likelihood of being in the high reporting group for serious violent, weapon, and drug crimes reported to law |   |
|                            | enforcement.   |   |
|                            | H8: The association between police presence and a higher likelihood of being in the high   |   |
|                            | reporting group for serious violent, weapon and drug crimes will be the same for SRO   |   |
|                            | schools regardless of approach.  | C   |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors                                |
|                            | Crimes (non-serious violent crimes, property   | Roles of SROs in schools                  |
|                            | crimes, serious-violent, weapon/drugs)   | SRO variables (presence, prevention       |
|                            | Reporting of crimes to law enforcement   | curriculums)                              |
|                            |  | Additional security measures              |
|                            |  | School crime                              |
|                            |  | Community context<br>Location             |
|                            |  | School characteristics (SES,              |
|                            |  | race/ethnicity, attendance,               |
|                            |  | student/teacher ratio, enrollment)        |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs   | ,   |
|                            | Metal detectors  |   |
|                            | Random metal detector checks   |   |
|                            | Random dog sniffs  |   |
|                            | Clear book bag requirements  |   |
|                            | Security cameras   |   |
| Harris Carrite Manage 49   | Photo ID  Magn gammariagns   |   |
| How is Security Measured?  | Mean comparisons   |   |
| Data Source:               | Regression analysis Secondary longitudinal analysis of School Sur  | vey on Crime an Safety (SSOCS) for three  |
| Data Source.               | consecutive school years, 2003-2008 and  |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   | 1,0 00100101                              |
|                            | SROs and schools with mixed approach SROs re   |   |

Results: Schools with law enforcement SROs and schools with mixed approach SROs reported more crimes (all three types), and were of lower SES than schools without SROs. More schools without police had prevention curriculum than those with police. Schools with police had 48% higher rate of non-serious, 70% higher rate of property and 70% higher rate of serious/weapon/drug crimes than schools without SROs.

Notes: The author mentions that because the evidence does not suggest that SROs reduce crime in schools, money used to support these programs might be better spent on evidence-based programs and policies, such as those that target risk-factors for crime.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | Fisher, B. W., & Hennessy, E. A. (2016). School resource officers and             |                  |
|----------------------------|---|------------------|
| <b>OFFICERS</b>            | exclusionary discipline in US high schools: a systematic review and               |                  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | meta-analysis. Adolescent Research Review, 1(3), 217-233.                         |                  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | A systematic literature review and meta-analysis of existing primary research.    |                  |
|                            | R1: What is the association between the schools and schools' rates of exclusions. | 1                |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors       |
|                            | Exclusionary discipline rates (out-of   | SRO presence     |
|                            | school suspensions, expulsions,   | School variables |
|                            | arrests, reported crimes)   |                  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs  |                  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |                  |
| Data Source:               | 7 reports   |                  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | meta-analysis   |                  |

- The presence of SROs in high schools was associated with higher rates of exclusionary discipline in one model (pre-post design).
- A second model indicated no statistically significant relationship between SRO presence and rates of exclusionary discipline (school comparison design).

# Recommendations:

- Further research is needed to examine the causal relationships between SRO presence and exclusionary discipline.
- The relationship between SROs and exclusionary discipline needs to be examined in the context of adolescents' race and schools' racial composition.
- Roles of SROs should align with strategies for fostering positive adolescent development.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | Gill, C., Gottfredson, D., & Hutzell, K. (September 22, 2015). Process evaluation of Seattle's School Emphasis Officer Program: Report prepared for the City of |
|-----------------------------|---|
|                             | Seattle Office of City Auditor, George Mason University Center for Evidence-  |
| Article Title/Reference:    | Based Crime Policy. Retrieved from:   |
|                             | https://www.seattle.gov/Documents/Departments/CityAuditor/  |
|                             | auditreports/SEOFinalReport100615.pdf   |
| Type of Study/Aims:         | Evaluation of Seattle PD's School Emphasis Officer (SEO) Program, specifically:   |
|                             | 1. Clarify anticipated outcome and implementation standards with program leaders.   |
|                             | 2. Development and assessment measures for outcomes and standards.  |
|                             | 3. Collection and analysis of implementation data (program manuals and daily logs)  |
| Variables:                  |   |
| Specific Security Measure:  | SROs  |
| How is Security Measured?   |   |
| Data Source:                |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   |   |

- The SEO Program
  - o Police officers are assigned to four public middle schools in Seattle
  - o Schools are selected for truancy, suspension, and discipline issues and location within Seattle Youth Violence Prevention Initiative (SYVPI) network areas.
  - o Officer activities include school support; safety and security; education; SYVPI referral and follow-up; and law enforcement. Law enforcement activities are minimal.
  - o Most activities involve prevention and intervention with at-risk students.
- Program Strengths
  - Potential for integration with services.
    - Police officers can fall back on a network of services rather than defaulting to law enforcement responses
  - Potential to improve police-community relations.
    - The SEOs build trust among school students, which could help to change perceptions of the police in school and the wider community.
  - o Non-law enforcement focus.
    - SEOs minimize their involvement in the disciplinary process and do not arrest students.
- Program Challenges
  - Relationship between the SEOs, SPD, SYVPI and the schools is not fully defined.
  - Lacking a logic model and outcome measures and cannot be evaluated for effectiveness.
  - Lacking a formal structure and is driven by individual personalities and relationships.

#### Recommendations:

- Clarify the program and the link between SEOs and SYVPI.
  - o Develop a program manual that lays out clear expectations for operations and stakeholders.
  - Clarify and document the relationship between the SEOs and SYVPI
  - o Focus on relationship building with at-risk youth and the wider school community.
- Develop a systematic performance and outcome measurement and evaluation plan for the SEO program and participating schools.
  - Clearly articulate the program goals, structure, activities, and outcomes in the program manual and a logic model.
  - o Align data sources with proposed program outcomes and SYVPI outcomes,
  - o Facilitate appropriate data sharing.
  - o Develop a long-term evaluation plan.
- If the SEO program is effective, take steps to ensure its sustainability.
  - o Articulate the program goals and training requirements.
  - o Ensure that memoranda of understanding are developed with each individual school.
- Systematize the process for identifying new schools.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | James, R. K., Logan, J., & Davis, S. A. (2011). Including School Resource Officers in school-based crisis intervention: |                                  |
|-----------------------------|---|----------------------------------|
| Article Title/Reference:    | Strengthening student support. <i>School Psychology International</i> , 32(2), 210-224. DOI: 10.1177/0143034311400828   |                                  |
| Type of Study/Aims:         | Introduce an expanded role for SROs training.   | - CIT (Crisis Intervention Team) |
| Variables:                  | Outcomes  | Predictors                       |
| Specific Security Measure:  | SROs  |                                  |
| How is Security Measured?   | Qualitative case example  |                                  |
| Data Source:                | Case examples from Montgomery County Maryland PD  |                                  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   | Qualitative   |                                  |
| Decultor                    |   |                                  |

# CIT trained officers

- 1. Demonstrate improved attitudes, more empathy/patience, more sensitivity to mental health needs, less social distancing from individuals suffering from depression, substance abuse, and schizophrenia.
- 2. More accurately identify individuals in need of psychiatric care.
- **3.** Report fewer injuries and arrests during crisis situations.

# When SROs are engaged more heavily in teaching and counseling students, fewer incidents of school violence and criminal behavior are reported.

Notes: The CIT model trains police officers to verbally diffuse and de-escalate situations without the use of physical force; especially useful with those struggling with mental illness or emotional disturbance.

Definitely seems a worthwhile security measure.

| SCHOOL<br>RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | James, N., & McCallion, G. (2013). School resource officers: Law enforcement officers in schools. Prepared for the Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from: https://fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R43126.pdf  |            |
|--------------------------------|---|------------|
| Article Title/Reference:       | 1 2 21  |            |
| Type of Study/Aims:            | A report prepared for the members of Congress responsible for grant funding of SRO programs, following the shooting at Sandy Hook.  |            |
|                                | <ol> <li>Does the current level of school violence warrant congressional efforts to expand the number of SROs in schools across the country?</li> <li>Is funding for a wide-scale expansion of SRO programs financially sustainable?</li> <li>Would additional SROs result in more children being placed in the criminal justice system?</li> </ol> |            |
| Variables:                     | Outcomes  | Predictors |
| Specific Security Measure:     | SROs  | ,          |
| How is Security Measured?      |   |            |
| Data Source:                   | Bureau of Justice Statistics  |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:      |   |            |

- Schools are generally safe places for children
  - Middle schools, city schools, and schools with a higher proportion of low-income students have higher rates of reported violent incidents
- Although law enforcement agencies receive grant monies to hire new officers, they are responsible for retaining those officers after grant money runs out which could prove a significant financial burden to smaller forces.
- Children in schools with SROs might be more likely to be arrested for low-level offenses, might be deterred from committing assaults on campus or bringing guns to school.
- Schools with SROs may be more likely to report non-serious violent crimes to the police.
- Successful SRO Programs are known to develop comprehensive school safety plans with clear goals, and where the SROs engage in problem-solving policing rather than just responding to incidents as they occur.
- Data suggests that the decline in violent victimizations experienced by children in school, might be part of an overall decline in crime against juveniles and NOT the result of more SROs working in schools.

#### Notes:

- CDC defines positive school climate as, "characterized by caring and supportive interpersonal relationships; opportunities to participate in school activities and decision-making; and shared positive norms, goals, and values."
- School connectedness is defined as "the belief by students that adults and peers in the school care about their learning as well as about them as individuals."

Given that there is not only limited but inconclusive research as to the effectiveness of SROs, more attention should be paid to the negative ramifications of school suspensions and zero-tolerance policies on school climate and connectedness.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | Johnson, I. M. (1999). School violence: The effectiveness of a school resource officer program in a southern city. <i>Journal of Criminal Justice</i> , 27(2), 173-192. |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:    |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:         |   |
| Variables:                  |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
| Specific Security Measure:  |   |
| How is Security Measured?   |   |
| Data Source:                |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   |   |
| Results:                    |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
| Notes:                      |   |

#### Abstract

The safety of America's school children is constantly being threatened by violence, drugs, alcohol, gangrelated activities, and other social ills. It is becoming increasingly difficult for school administrators across the United States to provide youth with a safe learning environment. With the nation's youth becoming increasingly exposed to violence in schools, it is important for school officials, community leaders, and community service workers to acknowledge and address school disciplinary problems. The School Resource Officer Program has been developed to help school officials cope with the growing incidence of school violence and to make the school environment safe and conducive to enriched learning. This study was designed to evaluate a School Resource Officer Program in a southern city and its impact on school violence and school disciplinary problems. The data revealed that the placement of police officers in city schools has a positive effect on school violence and disciplinary infractions. The total number of intermediate and major offenses in high schools and middle schools decreased from 3,267 in 1994–95 (before the School Resource Officers were permanently assigned to city schools) to 2,710 in 1995–96 (after the School Resource Officers were permanently assigned to city schools).

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | LaFosse, R., & Eckes, S. E. (2017). Legal matters: Recent controversies involving school resource officers. <i>Principal Leadership</i> , 58-59. |
|-----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:    |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:         |  |
| Variables:                  |  |
| Specific Security Measure:  |  |
| How is Security Measured?   |  |
| Data Source:                |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   |  |
| Results:                    |  |
| Notes:                      |  |

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | Lambert, R. D., & McGinty, D. (2002). Law enforcement officers in schools: setting priorities. <i>Journal of Educational Administration</i> , 40(3), 257-273. |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:    | setting priorities. Journal of Educational Hammistration, 40(3), 237-273.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:         |   |
| Variables:                  |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
| Specific Security Measure:  |   |
| How is Security Measured?   |   |
| Data Source:                |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   |   |
| Results:                    |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
| Notes:                      |   |

#### Abstract

Increasingly, law enforcement officers are being assigned to US schools as part of the "School Resource Officer" (SRO) program. The SRO's role is defined as that of a law enforcement officer, a counselor on law-related matters, and a classroom teacher of law-related education. This study is a survey conducted to determine what personal characteristics, skills, and job tasks were deemed to be important for an SRO from the perspectives of principals, law enforcement administrators, and SROs themselves. A 64-item Likert-scale questionnaire was administered to 161 principals, 159 SROs, and 57 law enforcement administrators in North Carolina. A series of one-way ANOVAs indicated revealed many significant differences in the importance ratings given to the various items by these three stakeholder groups, suggesting that job expectations for the SRO need to be clarified, and that the SRO role needs to be more clearly defined.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | May, D. C., Barranco, R., Stokes, E., Robertson, A. A., & Haynes, S. H. (2018).   |
|----------------------------|---|
| OFFICERS                   | Do school resource officers really refer juveniles to the juvenile justice system   |
| Article Title/Reference:   | for less serious offenses?. Criminal Justice Policy Review, 29(1), 89-105.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Research Question 1: Do law enforcement officers assigned to school buildings (hereafter referred to as SROs) refer youths to the justice system who would not have been referred by their law enforcement counterparts working in the community outside of the school? |
|                            | Research Question 2: Do SROs arrest youths for less serious offenses than their counterparts who are working in the community outside of the school?  |
|                            | Research Question 3: Are the arrests made by SROs more similar to the arrests made by their counterparts outside of schools or are they more similar to arrests that occur in schools without an assigned SRO?  |
| Variables:                 |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               | Youth Information Delivery System (YIDS)  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
| Notes:                     |   |
| Abstract                   |   |

#### **Abstract**

In this article, we use 3 years of youth court data from a southeastern state to examine whether referrals that originated from school resource officers (SROs) involve greater proportions of less serious offenses than referrals from other sources. Referrals from SROs during the 3-year period were similar to referrals by law enforcement outside of school for status and serious offenses. SROs were less likely than law enforcement officers outside of school to refer juveniles for minor offenses during the 3-year period. Our findings suggest that schools, not solely police in schools, make a large contribution to the number of juveniles referred to the juvenile justice system for less serious offenses. Implications for policy and future research are also discussed.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | May, D.C., Fessel, S.D., & Means, S. (2004). Predictors of principals' perceptions of school resource officer effectiveness in Kentucky.   |                                   |
|-----------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|
| Article Title/Reference:    | American Journal of Criminal Justice, 29, 75-93. doi:10.1007/BF02885705  |                                   |
| Type of Study/Aims:         | R1: Do school administrators in Kentucky feel that SROs increase school safety at their school?  R2: What demographic and contextual attributes are most important in predicting whether principals view SROs as effective in a multivariate model?  R3: What theoretical evidence available to explain the effectiveness of other law enforcement/school partnerships can be used to predict perceptions of principals regarding SRO effectiveness? |                                   |
| Variables:                  | Outcomes  Perceptions of impact on school safety   | Predictors Control variables SROs |
| Specific Security Measure:  | SROs   |                                   |
| How is Security Measured?   | Closed ended questions about duties of SROs and perceptions of school safety, open-ended questions asking principals to provide their opinions about the problems with schools and the SRO program, and several closed-ended questions asking opinions about the prevalence and incidence of factors affecting school safety.  |                                   |
| Data Source:                | Survey of 128 principals in Kentucky   |                                   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   | Quantitative   |                                   |

- Principals perceived that SRO programs had the greatest impact on fighting.
- Almost half of the principals stated that marijuana problems and theft had decreased since the SRO programs were implemented.
- Most principals feel that the SROs are important components of their school's safety plan.
- 87.5% felt that the SRO assigned to their school was effective.
- Over half of the principals stated there were no negative aspects to the SRO program while 14.9% felt that the SRO gave an appearance that their school was unsafe.
- None of the control variables in the model had a statistically significant impact on the school administrators' perceptions of SRO effectiveness.
- Traits of an effective SRO included good communication and good rapport with administrators.

Notes: The optimal SRO/school administrator relationship is one where the SROs, principals, and law enforcement supervisors meet regularly to discuss any problems or improvements that are necessary to insure open lines of communication and maximum cooperation and effectiveness between SROs, principals, and teachers.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | McDevitt, J., & Paniello, J. (2005). National assessment of the school    |             |
|----------------------------|---|-------------|
| OFFICERS                   | resource officer programs: Survey of students in three large new SRO      |             |
| Article Title/Reference:   | programs. National Institute of Justice final report. Retrieved March     |             |
|                            | 22, 2012 from http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED486271.pdf.                   |             |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | R1: What factors in an SRO program affect students' comfort level for     |             |
|                            | reporting crimes?   |             |
|                            | R2: What factors in an SRO program affect student's perception of safety? |             |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors  |
|                            | Comfort Level   | SRO Program |
|                            | Perception of Safety  |             |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs  |             |
| How is Security Measured?  | Survey data   |             |
| Data Source:               | surveys of 907 students in four school districts                          |             |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |             |

- There is a statistically significant relationship between the number of student and SRO conversations and comfort reporting crimes
  - SRO reputation may affect student comfort level; students who have met or spoken with SRO may be "spreading the word" about whether other students should approach them.
- There is a statistically significant relationship between a positive opinion of the SRO and feeling comfortable reporting a crime (more than 2.5x more likely to feel comfortable)
- Students' perception of safety also has a significant relationship with feeling comfortable reporting crimes (2.5x more likely than other students)
- 92% of students who have a positive opinion of the SRO also report feeling safe at school.
- Neighborhood crime and feeling safe at school have an inverse relationship; Lower level of perceived crime in one's neighborhood, the safer that student feels at school.
- Students who have experienced some type of victimization feel less safe than students who have not.

# Notes:

Creating a positive opinion of the SRO among the student body is important and potentially the most easily modified variable.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | Merkwae, A. (2015). Schooling the police: Race, disability, and the conduct of school resource officers. <i>Michigan Journal of Race &amp; Law</i> , 21, 147-181. |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:    |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:         |   |
| Variables:                  |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
| Specific Security Measure:  |   |
| How is Security Measured?   |   |
| Data Source:                |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   |   |
| Results:                    |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
| Notes:                      |   |

Part I of this Note describes the trend of exclusionary discipline practices and arrests in schools, which contribute to the school-to-prison pipe- line and disproportionately affect students of color and students with disabilities. Part II examines the history of stationing police officers in schools, highlights the ambiguity in the roles and discretionary power of School Resource Officers (SROs), and concludes that SROs' discretion plays a role in the criminalization of students of color and students with disabilities. Finally, Part III argues that the IDEA requirements for school officials apply to the conduct of SROs, and SROs should be obligated to accommodate for students' disabilities during all interactions with students at school.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | Rosiak, J. (2014). Governing your SRO program: We're all part of the safety team. <i>The Journal of School Safety, Winter 2014</i> , 28-31. |                                 |
|----------------------------|---|---------------------------------|
| OFFICERS                   | _ team. The Journal of Scho   | 001 Sajety, Winter 2014, 28-31. |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |                                 |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |                                 |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors                      |
|                            |   |                                 |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs  |                                 |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |                                 |
| Data Source:               |   |                                 |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |                                 |
|                            |   |                                 |
| Results:                   | ·   |                                 |
|                            |   |                                 |
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|                            |   |                                 |
| Bibliographer's Comments:  |   |                                 |
| Biolographer 3 Comments.   |   |                                 |
|                            |   |                                 |
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|                            |   |                                 |

| SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS Article Title/Reference: | Rosiak, J. (2015). How SROs can divert students from the justice system.<br>COPS E-Newsletter. 8(5). Retrieved from:<br>http://cops.usdoj.gov/html/dispatch/05-2015/sros_and_students.asp. |            |
|---|--|------------|
| Type of Study/Aims:                               | Presents strategies to divert students from the criminal justice system  |            |
| Variables:  | Outcomes   | Predictors |
|   |  |            |
| Specific Security Measure:                        | SROs   |            |
| How is Security Measured?                         |  |            |
| Data Source:                                      |  |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                         |  |            |

- Current school-based law enforcement:
  - o Appreciates adolescent brain development
  - o Is aware of the importance of the impact of mental illness and trauma on youth
  - o Has a clearer understanding of the relationship between SRO and school discipline
- School/law enforcement/community partners can ask four questions to help SROs divert students from the justice system:
  - o Has your school and law enforcement community defined the roles the SRO will play?
  - Was there a thorough process to choose the SRO?
  - o Are the SROs well trained?
  - Does the school have strong and clear policies related to supportive school discipline and diversion?
- SRO's role should be:
  - Educator
  - Counselor/mentor
  - Law enforcement problem solver
- A good SRO's motto should be, "I don't want to arrest a student unless I *really* have to. I want to get that student help" and should be respectful of culturally diverse youth and families.
- Training should include:
  - Crisis management
  - o Juvenile law
  - Adolescent development
  - o Positive school discipline
  - Mental health crisis intervention
  - Working with local cultural diversity
  - o Implicit bias
  - De-escalation techniques

# Bibliographer's Comments:

These suggestions are wonderful, but who is going to enforce them and what is the penalty for non-compliance. Can these be federally mandated?

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | Rosiak, J. (2016a). Action steps to strengthen your school-law enforcement   |            |
|----------------------------|--|------------|
| OFFICERS                   | partnership. The Journal of School Safety, Winter 2016, Retrieved from:  |            |
| Article Title/Reference:   | http://www.mydigitalpublication.com/publication/?i=281058&p=&pn=#{"is sue_id":281058,"page":0}                       |            |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Outlines steps that SRO programs can take to clarify their roles while building stronger relationships with schools. |            |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors |
|                            |  |            |
| Specific Security          | SRO Programs   |            |
| Measure:                   |  |            |
| How is Security            |  |            |
| Measured?                  |  |            |
| Data Source:               |  |            |
| Quantitative/ Qualitative: |  |            |

#### Notes:

- SROs should identify the safety problems in the school-community and look at relevant data, specifically trends on "school exclusion"
- Understand that an SRO is an educator, informal counselor/mentor and law enforcer
- Law enforcement and school administration should complement each other and this is done by developing and/or refining the Memorandum of Understanding (MOU)
- Choose the right SRO
- Train the SRO and school staff
- Engage the community (health, mental health, juvenile justice, social service agencies, etc. in conducting resource mapping to identify potential student needs and available resources.
- Emphasize Communication, Consistency, and Commitment
- Use case studies to strengthen strategies
- Commit to action by constructing SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, and Timebound) action plans.

| Notes: |  |  |  |
|--------|--|--|--|
|        |  |  |  |
|        |  |  |  |
|        |  |  |  |

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | Rosiak, J. (2016b). Forging a school-police relationship to decrease student |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| OFFICERS                   | arrests. Police Chief Magazine, September, 59-63, Retrieved from:            |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | http://www.policechiefmagazine.org/forging-a-school-police-relationship-to-  |  |
|                            | decrease-student-arrests/  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Discusses the SRO Program in Bridgeport C                                    | CT, one of the highest crime cities in |
|                            | the country.   |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors                             |
|                            |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs   |  |
|                            | Security guards  |  |
|                            | Security cameras   |  |
|                            | Heavy-duty doors   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |  |
| Data Source:               |  | _                                      |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |  |

- School-police partnerships are beneficial to students when:
  - The roles of SROs, security guards, and school administrators are defined in a Memorandum of Agreement (MOA).
  - A thorough process is used to choose SROs and security guards
  - o SROs and security guards are well-trained in how to divert youth from the justice system
  - o Clear policies are established on supportive school discipline and diversion
- School security staff is trained by and reports to local police
- SROs are not responsible for student discipline or enforcement of school rules
- SROs respond to what the student needs to change his/her behavior while holding the student accountable
- SROs carry out an educator role by ensuring students understand the laws and dangers surrounding contemporary issues
- SROs and security guards also provide a "counselor-mentor" role and develop relationships with students, building trust, and legitimacy leaving them in a better position to prevent problems before they occur.
- Working with the same students every day allows for getting to the root causes of problems and dealing with them appropriately
- Diversion Training includes:
  - o Crisis Intervention Team (CIT) training
  - National Incident Management System (NIMS) training
  - o "verbal-judo" de-escalation training
  - o Lockdown procedures, emergency evacuations, first aid, AED
  - Prevention of cyberbullying, sexting, social media, report writing, cultural awareness, identifying suspicious activities trainings
- There's an extensive shadowing period for new officers
- "Arrests (and suspensions) at school are down because the staff, along with the SROs, know how to intervene in other ways, and students respond well to security officers because the officers are better trained." (80% decrease)
- Police department reports shorter response times to incidents and monetary costs are down.

Notes: This article sheds much needed light on the potential benefits of SROs in the schools, but emphasizes that all of the community players need to be on board. An emphasis on prevention as opposed to reaction, and diversion from the justice system while still providing appropriate consequences through community resources/services, shows great potential for use in other districts.

Maybe a bit more work upfront but well worth it.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | Ryan, J. B., Katsiyannis, A., Counts, J. M., & Shelnut, J. C. (2018). The Growing  |
|----------------------------|--|
| OFFICERS                   | Concerns Regarding School Resource Officers. Intervention in School and  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Clinic, 53(3), 188-192.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | This column addresses several critical issues related to the use of law enforcement in schools, including SROs being used to manage student misbehavior, inadvertently promoting the school-to-prison pipeline, lack of training, and lack of policies regulating roles and responsibilities, as well as recommendations for best practices. |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
| Results:                   |  |
| Notes:                     |  |

#### Notes:

# **Abstract**

There have been an increasing number of incidents in which school resource officers (SRO) have been used to manage student disciplinary issues with disastrous results. Court cases brought by parents and advocacy groups claim SROs have traumatized and injured students. This article addresses several critical issues concerning SROs being used to manage student misbehavior, lack of training, lack of policies regulating roles and responsibilities, and inadvertently promoting a school-to-prison pipeline. The authors provide recommendations and best practices for future use.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS Article Title/Reference: | Sneed, T. (2015, January 30). School resource officers: safety priority or part of the problem? <i>U.S. News and World Report</i> . Retrieved from www.usnews.com/news/articles/2015/01/30/are-school-resource-officers-part-of-the-school-to-prison-pipeline. |  |
|---|--|--|
| Type of Study/Aims:                               | News article arguing that police in schools needlessly push students into the justice system unless it is done correctly.  |  |
| Variables:  | Outcomes Predictors  |  |
|   |  |  |
| Specific Security                                 | SROs   |  |
| Measure:  |  |  |
| How is Security                                   |  |  |
| Measured?   |  |  |
| Data Source:                                      |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                         |  |  |

- Lack of training and clear standards for SROs result in children being punished unnecessarily and harshly for classroom misbehavior.
- "The fear of drugs and the fear of gangs in some places, as well as Columbine, all led to the decision that more police should be in the schools." Lisa Thurau Executive Director of Strategies for Youth.
- Being suspended or expelled made a student nearly three times more likely to interact with the juvenile justice system within the next year.
- "Kids from suburban White America they don't get arrested for cursing out a teacher, throwing a book...these are the things they go to a counselor for."
- Disparity between Black and White student suspensions is higher in schools with increased security measures.
- An officer should not be placed in a school without clearly established guidelines about the disciplinary role.
- Officers need to be trained in child development and special-needs child development.

# Notes:

Evidence of the racial disparity here only strengthens the question of **who** is teaching our children and whether it can be addressed.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | Stinson, P. M., & Watkins, A. M. (2014). The nature of crime by        |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| OFFICERS                   | school resource officers: Implications for SRO programs. Sage          |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Open Access. 4(1), 1-10.   |  |
|                            | Exploratory study examining the nature of instances where an SRO was   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | arrested for one or more criminal offenses and it was reported in the  |  |
|                            | news.  |  |
| Variables:                 | Arrested officer characteristics                                       |  |
|                            | Nature of criminal charges   |  |
|                            | Victim characteristics   |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | N/A  |  |
| Data Source:               | Part of on-going study of police crime.                                |  |
|                            | Data were collected in real-time from January 1, 2005 through December |  |
|                            | 31, 2011 using 48 search terms in Google News and Google Alerts.       |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |  |

- 52 arrests were recorded across the 7-year study span.
- 62% of SRO arrests were male officers arrested for sex-related crimes against teenage girls at the school in which they were patrolling.
- Other crimes were drug/alcohol/violence related or profit motivated.

Notes: An informatory study supporting the importance and necessity of training among SROs about proper boundaries, sexual harassment, etc. Solace can be find in the very small number of reported crimes, however it is unknown the number of incidents that took place without resulting in an arrest.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | Sullivan, W. J., & Hausman, C. S. (2017). Kentucky high schools with SROs and   |
|----------------------------|---|
| OFFICERS                   | without: An examination of criminal violation rates. Journal of School  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Leadership, 27(6), 884-910.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Examine criminal violations rates in Kentucky high schools with and without school resource officers and if differences exist are they statistically significant?   |
|                            | Specifically, this study focuses on the following research question: Are there differences in criminal violation rates between Kentucky high schools that have a full-time SRO and Kentucky high schools that do not have an SRO? |
| Variables:                 |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |

#### Notes:

# **Abstract**

School violence has become a focal point, sparked by violent mass killings throughout the nation. One of the most substantial efforts for improving school safety and security is the utilization of specially trained police, titled school resource officers (SROs). Regardless of the importance of maintaining safe schools and an environment that is conducive to learning, relatively little research has been conducted examining the effectiveness of these programs and the variables that may influence those findings (Raymond, 2010). This research uses two studies focused on the association of SROs and reported criminal violation rates at Kentucky high schools. Findings indicate no statistically significant differences in reported criminal violation rates between high school populations without SROs and those with full-time SROs. Implications of these findings are discussed in addition to how SRO presence may affect the frequency and accuracy of reported criminal violations.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | Theriot, M.T. (2009). School resource officers and the criminalization of student behavior. <i>Journal of Criminal Justice</i> ,  |  |
|-----------------------------|---|--|
| Article Title/Reference:    | 37(3), 280-287. DOI: 10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2009.04.008   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:         | Hypothesized that schools with an SRO would have more arrests and more arrests for disorderly conduct and assault than schools without SROs.  Compared arrests in middle and high schools with SROs in the same |  |
|                             | district, to those without for  | •  |
| Variables:                  | Outcomes  | Predictors   |
| Specific Security Measure:  | Total arrest rate Alcohol/public intoxication Assault charges Disorderly conduct charges Drug-related charges Other charges Weapons charges SROs  | SRO at school % economic disadvantage Interaction between SRO and %ED Enrollment % ethnic minority |
| How is Security Measured?   | Arrests and other charges   |  |
| Data Source:                | About 29,000 students across 28 schools (14 MS, 12 HS, and 2 alternative schools) in SE United States (13 with SRO, 15 without)  School years assessed were 2003-2006   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   | Quantitative Quantitative   |  |

Results: Schools with SROs had more poverty, larger percentage minority students, more arrests, and most commonly charged for disorderly conduct. At schools without SRO, most common charges were drugs.

Without controlling for poverty, the presence of SRO gives 197.7% increase in chance of arrest per 100 students. When poverty is added to the model, presence of SRO is no longer significant, with just a 3.98% increase. Interaction between SRO and poverty is not significant. Assault charges are more likely in schools with greater poverty.

SROs dramatically increase rate of arrests with disorderly conduct charges with and without controlling for poverty.

Notes: The author mentioned that disorderly conduct is the most subjective, situational, and circumstantial of charges in this study and suggested a change in the way SROS approach situations. This notion supports the introduction to CIT trainings and potentially stricter vetting of SROs in the hope of reducing arrests and introduction to the criminal justice system. However, because a major contributing factor here was poverty, there are bigger problems at play than just student misconduct.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS Article Title/Reference: | Theriot, M.T. (2011). School resource officers in middle grades school communities. <i>Middle School Journal</i> , 42(4), 56-64.                     |            |
|---|--|------------|
| Type of Study/Aims:                               | Review of research and examination of the challenges and opportunities associated with SROs in middle school grades, while offering recommendations. |            |
| Variables:  | Outcomes   | Predictors |
| Specific Security Measure:                        | SROs   |            |
| How is Security Measured?                         |  |            |
| Data Source:                                      | Meta-analysis of available research in the field.  |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                         | Qualitative  |            |

Results: Most studies emphasize the importance of establishing and consistently enforcing "fair rules," creating open lines of communication, providing students with opportunity for input into policy and school rules, and encouraging school attachment.

"When an SRO approaches a disruptive student, an arrest should be the least preferred outcome and should occur only with the agreement of a teacher and school principal."

SROs should be a visible presence in school locations of high student misconduct while also being perceived as available and approachable.

SROs who seek recreational or program opportunities with students are more likely to connect and help students develop more positive attitudes towards SROs.

Notes: Seemed to reiterate other available information. Speaks to the importance of the relationship between SROs and students and the necessity of specific trainings to foster this type of interaction.

| STUDENT PERCEPTIONS /      | Theriot, M.T., & Orme, J.G. (2016). School resource officers and   |                                    |  |
|----------------------------|--|------------------------------------|--|
| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | students' feelings of safety at school. Youth Violence and Juvenile  |                                    |  |
| OFFICERS                   | Justice. 14(2), 130-146. DOI: 10.1177/1541204014564472   |                                    |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   |  |                                    |  |
|                            | Investigate the effect of interacting  | with SROs on students' feelings of |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | safety at school.  |                                    |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors                         |  |
|                            | Students' perception of safety   | Demographic characteristics        |  |
|                            |  | School violence                    |  |
|                            |  | Feelings about SRO at school       |  |
|                            |  | # of interactions with SRO         |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs   |                                    |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | 10-item scale to measure students' attitudes about SROs  |                                    |  |
| Data Source:               | Students at 7 middle and 5 high schools (2015 students in SE US) were tasked with completing a comprehensive 60-question survey about SRO program. |                                    |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |                                    |  |
|                            | 1) latent class analysis models  |                                    |  |
|                            | 2) logistic/multivariate regression  |                                    |  |
| D 1, C, 1 , 1 'C' 1        |  |                                    |  |

Results: Students were classified into *Safe Students* and *Unsafe Students*. *Safe students* generally feel safe in school hallways, cafeteria, bathrooms, classrooms, and to and from school, while *Unsafe students* generally feel unsafe in these areas.

Feeling unsafe was associated with experiencing higher rates of school violence, less positive attitudes about SROs and lower levels of school connectedness.

Overall, there was no significant relationship between interactions with SROs and school safety, BUT there was a significant relationship between **positive** attitudes towards SROs and better feelings of safety.

Notes: The study noted that many students also had minimal to no interactions with SROs. This might speak to the importance of SROs being more involved with students on a regular basis. Increased positive interactions/relationships with students might foster reduced school violence and increased feelings of safety in schools.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | Thurau, L. H., & Wald, J. (2009). Controlling partners: When law enforcement  |
|----------------------------|---|
| OFFICERS                   | meets discipline in public schools. NYL Sch. L. Rev., 54, 977-1020.   |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | This article explores the evolving role of the police officer in school, and attempts to identify several "models" that are currently being used in school districts in Massachusetts. It is intended to probe deeper than has been done in the past into the ways in which police and school officials attempt to bridge the divide between nurturing the academic and social development of pupils and preventing crime, enforcing laws, and keeping the peace. |
| Variables:                 |   |
|                            |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
| Notes:                     |   |
|                            |   |

| SCHOOL RESOURCE<br>OFFICERS | Weiler, S. C., & Cray, M. (2011). Police at school: A brief history and current status of school resource officers. <i>The Clearing House: A Journal of</i> |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:    | Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas, 84(4), 160-163.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:         |   |
| Variables:                  |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
| Specific Security Measure:  |   |
| How is Security Measured?   |   |
| Data Source:                |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   |   |
| Results:                    |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
|                             |   |
| Notes:                      |   |

The school resource officer (SRO) program began in the United States in the early to mid-1950s, however, the program did not gain prominence until the 1990s in response to various school shootings. According to national data, SROs can be found in 35 percent of school across America, regardless of level (elementary, middle, or high school), urbanicity (rural, town, suburban, or city), or enrollment size. However, there is currently a dearth of meaningful research addressing the role and effectiveness of SROs. This article reviews what is known concerning SROs in an effort to establish a foundation for future research centered on the effectiveness of SROs in ensuring students attend safe learning environments.

| SCHOOL RESOURCE            | Wolf, K. C. (2014). Arrest decision making by school resource officers. <i>Youth</i> |
|----------------------------|--|
| OFFICERS                   | Violence and Juvenile Justice, 12(2), 137-151.                                       |
| Article Title/Reference:   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
| Variables:                 |  |
|                            |  |
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|                            |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| specific security Measure. |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
|                            |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
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| Results:                   |  |
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| Notes:                     |  |

Over the past two decades, school resource officers (SROs) have become an increasingly common fixture on the American educational landscape. Despite their prominence in schools, significant investigation into their arrest-making behavior has not occurred. This article uses responses to a statewide survey of SROs in Delaware to explore SRO arrest decision making. Guided by Black's general theory of arrest, it analyzes the effect of the school context on SROs' arrest decisions. The SROs' survey responses indicate that the factors highlighted by Black as influential to arrest decisions remain prominent in SRO arrest decision making, but the school context influences their arrest decisions in a variety of critical ways.

| SCHOOL UNIFORMS                                    | Brunsma, D. L., & Rockquemore, K. A. (1998). Effects of student uniforms            |                                |  |
|--|---|--------------------------------|--|
| On attendance, behavior problems, substance use, a |   | substance use, and academic    |  |
| Article Title/Reference:                           | achievement. The Journal of Educa   | tional Research, 92(1), 53-62. |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:                                | Secondary data analysis to assess the fo  | ollowing:                      |  |
|  | H1: Student uniforms decrease substance   | ce use.                        |  |
|  | H2: Student uniforms decrease behavio   | ral problems.                  |  |
|  | H3: Student uniforms increase attendan  | ce.                            |  |
|  | H4: Student uniforms increase academi   | c achievement.                 |  |
| Variables:   | Outcomes  | Predictors                     |  |
|  | Substance use   | Gender                         |  |
|  | Behavioral problems   | Ethnicity                      |  |
|  | Attendance  | SES                            |  |
|  | Academic achievement  | School Type                    |  |
|  | School Location   |                                |  |
|  |   | Attitude                       |  |
|  |   | Student uniforms               |  |
| Specific Security Measure:                         | Mandatory uniform policies  |                                |  |
| How is Security Measured?                          | Secondary data  |                                |  |
|  | Regression analysis and T-tests of significance                                     |                                |  |
| Data Source:                                       | National Educational Longitudinal Study (NELS:88) – 10 <sup>th</sup> grade students |                                |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                          | Quantitative  |                                |  |

- Student uniforms have no direct effect on substance use, behavioral problems, attendance.
- Student uniforms have a negative effect on academic achievement.
- Students who wore uniforms and had high prosocial attitudes had worse behavior problems than all other students.

Notes: It is suggested that it is not the uniforms which are likely to have any direct effect but rather the additional school reforms and changes that may be simultaneously put into place.

| SCHOOL UNIFORMS            | Wilde, M. (2016, May 19). Do uniforms make schools better? Great   |
|----------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | Schools. Retrieved from: http://greatschools.org/find-a-school/defining-your-ideal/121-school-uniforms.gs?page=all |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Article on a parenting website   |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | School Uniforms  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |

# Notes:

- Pros include: preventing gangs, encouraging discipline, helping with peer pressure, identify intruders, diminish SES barriers, increase belonging, improve attendance.
- Cons include: violates right of expression, "band-aid" for school violence issues, possible target for bullies from other schools, financial burden for poor families, additional expense for parents who already pay taxes, difficult to enforce in public schools.
- About ¼ of all elementary schools require uniforms, while only ⅓ of middle and high schools do, this is largely because it is much more difficult to implement uniforms due to resistance from older students.
- Researchers in Nevada looked into school discipline and local police records and compared them to the prior year's data before school uniforms were implemented, discipline referrals were down 1%, there were 63% fewer police log reports, and graffiti, fights, and gang-related activity were reduced.

| SCHOOL UNIFORMS            | Yeung, R. (2009). Are school uniforms a good fit? Results from the      |                            |
|----------------------------|---|----------------------------|
| Article Title/Reference:   | ECLS-K and the NELS. Educational Policy, 23(6), 847-874.                |                            |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Is there a relationship between school uniforms and achievement scores? |                            |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes Predictors   |                            |
|                            | Student achievement   | School uniforms            |
|                            |   | Student characteristics    |
|                            |   | Previous year's test score |
| Specific Security Measure: | School uniforms   |                            |
| How is Security Measured?  | Survey data   |                            |
| Data Source:               | ECLS-K  |                            |
|                            | NELS:88   |                            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |                            |

- There are no significant effects of school uniforms on performance on second grade reading and mathematics examinations, as well as on 10th-grade reading, mathematics, science, and history examinations.
- SES is positively associated with achievement

| MULTIPLE SECURITY<br>MEASURES | Addington, L.A. (2014). Surveillance and security approaches across public school levels. In G.W. Muschert, S. Henry, N.L. Bracy, & A.A.  |            |
|-------------------------------|---|------------|
| Article Title/Reference:      | Peguero (Eds.). Responding to School Violence: Confronting the Columbine Effect (pp. 71-88). Boulder, C.O.: Lynne Reiner Publishers, Inc. |            |
| Type of Study/Aims:           |   |            |
| Variables:                    | Outcomes  | Predictors |
| Specific Security Measure:    |   |            |
| How is Security Measured?     |   |            |
| Data Source:                  |   |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:     |   |            |
| Results:                      |   |            |
| •                             |   |            |

| MULTIPLE SECURITY          | Cheurprakobkit, S., & Bartsch, R.A. (2005). Security measures on school               |                                     |  |
|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | crime in Texas middle and high schools. <i>Educational Research</i> , 47(2), 235-250. |                                     |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Examined the effectiveness of activities on school crime:                             |                                     |  |
|                            | 1) what activities the school was   | s doing to combat crime             |  |
|                            | 2) cooperation with outside sour  | rces                                |  |
|                            | 3) principals' comments on wha  | t helps and hurts school efforts to |  |
|                            | alleviate school crimes   |                                     |  |
| Variables:                 |   |                                     |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Closed campus   | Formal staff training               |  |
|                            | Random Checks/Sweeps for drugs  | Community service                   |  |
|                            | Drug education programs   | Individual Mentoring                |  |
|                            | Rewards for attendance  | Character Ed. programs              |  |
|                            | Group instruction Student Court activity  |                                     |  |
|                            | Intrasport activities Criminal Justice Courses  |                                     |  |
|                            | Police/guards   | Metal detectors                     |  |
|                            | Family management strategy  | School uniforms                     |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | Survey data   |                                     |  |
| Data Source:               | 215 principals of middle and high school students in Texas                            |                                     |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |                                     |  |

- School uniform policy was least popular measure.
- School uniforms, intra-sport activities and rewards for attendance were related to less drug crime.
- Closed campus was related with less interpersonal crime
- Criminal justice courses correlated with more drug crime
- Metal detectors are correlated with more interpersonal crime.

# Recommendations:

- School administrators should realize that punishment is ineffective in solving school crime and violence, and should focus more on activities that foster norms against violence, aggression and bullying
- Schools should make sure that the group instruction and character education programs include interactive techniques that allow students to practice skills.
- Teaching only facts may not be the answer; more resources should be placed into improving the environment conducive to student learning, especially relationships between teachers and students and among students.
- There is no clear solution in helping decrease school crime, therefore it may be wise to push in several different directions at once (e.g. improved education, better teacher-student relationships, and more cooperation with parents).
- More strategic planning and efforts are needed to get both parents and police actively involved in combating school crime.

Notes: Integrate school programs with other efforts to combat school crime and violence.

| MULTIPLE SECRUITY<br>MEASURES | Crawford, C., & Burns, R. (2015). Preventing school violence: Assessing armed guardians, school policy, and context. <i>Policing: An International Journal of</i> |  |  |
|-------------------------------|---|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:      | Police Strategies & Management, 38(4), 631-647.   |  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:           | The purpose of this paper is to assess the impact of protective measures, policies, and school/neighborhood characteristics on school violence.                   |  |  |
| Variables:                    | School type:  |  |  |
|                               | Elementary schools  |  |  |
|                               | Middle schools  |  |  |
|                               | High schools  |  |  |
|                               | Combined grade levels   |  |  |
|                               | Dependent variables (school violence)   |  |  |
|                               | Serious violence  |  |  |
|                               | Threatened attack with weapon   |  |  |
|                               | Attack with weapon  |  |  |
|                               | • Gun possession  |  |  |
|                               | Independent variables   |  |  |
|                               | Law enforcement security measures   |  |  |
|                               | School security measures  |  |  |
|                               | School characteristics  |  |  |
|                               | Number of gang crimes   |  |  |
|                               | Daily/weekly reports of bullying  |  |  |
|                               | Daily/weekly reports of racial tension  |  |  |
|                               | More than 50% of students feel school is important  |  |  |
|                               | • School in high-crime area   |  |  |
|                               | <ul> <li>School located in city</li> </ul>  |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure:    | Law enforcement security measures   |  |  |
| Specific Security Weasure.    | Number of school resource officers  |  |  |
|                               | Number of security guards   |  |  |
|                               | Guards in uniform   |  |  |
|                               | Armed security  |  |  |
|                               |   |  |  |
|                               | <ul><li>Security armed with OC spray</li><li>Security armed with Taser</li></ul>  |  |  |
|                               | School security measures  |  |  |
|                               | Teachers trained in safety by security personnel  |  |  |
|                               | Access controlled doors   |  |  |
|                               |   |  |  |
|                               | <ul> <li>Use of security cameras</li> <li>Use of metal detectors</li> </ul>   |  |  |
|                               |   |  |  |
|                               | School has written plan for shooting incident     School has bothing for reporting trouble  |  |  |
| How is Counity Massace 19     | School has hotline for reporting trouble  |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?     |   |  |  |
| Data Source:                  | School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS) collected in 2006 by the NCES on  |  |  |
|                               | behalf of the US Department of Education  |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:     |   |  |  |
| Results:                      |   |  |  |

| Notes:  |  |
|---|--|
| MULTIPLE SECRUITY MEASURES Article Title/Reference: | Crawford, C., & Burns, R. (2016). Reducing school violence: Considering school characteristics and the impacts of law enforcement, school security, and environmental factors. <i>Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies</i> &  |
|   | Management, 39(3), 455-477.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:                                 | Assess relationships between various school protective measures, school characteristics, and different types of school violence, giving specific consideration to whether the various steps taken to confront school violence are more effective in particular types of schools (predominantly minority and predominantly white), and evaluating the effects of community-related factors on the different levels of violence between the two types of schools.  |
| Variables:  | Serious violence:  • The number of school reported incidents of rape, sexual battery, robbery, or aggravated assault Physical attacks and fights:  |
|   | Composite measure of unarmed assaults  |
|   | Gun or knife possessions:  • Bringing a weapon to school (gun possessions were rare events)  Threats and attacks with weapons:   |
|   | <ul> <li>Either carrying out an assault with a weapon or demonstrating a serious<br/>intent to do so</li> <li>Law enforcement security measures</li> </ul>   |
|   | School security measures School characteristics  |
| Specific Security Measure:                          | <ul> <li>Number of school resource officers</li> <li>Number of security guards</li> <li>Guards in uniform</li> <li>Armed security</li> <li>Security armed with OC spray</li> <li>Security armed with Taser</li> <li>School security measures</li> <li>Teachers trained in safety by security personnel</li> <li>Access controlled doors</li> <li>Use of security cameras</li> <li>Use of metal detectors</li> <li>School has written plan for shooting incident</li> <li>School has hotline for reporting trouble</li> </ul> |
| How is Security Measured?                           | • •  |
| Data Source:  | SSOCS collected in 2006 by the NCES on behalf of the USA Department of Education   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                           |  |
| Results:  | <u> </u>   |

| Notes: |  |  |
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| MULTIPLE SECURITY          | Department of Criminal Justice, Virginia. (2015). The 2014 Virginia School    |  |
|----------------------------|---|--|
| MEASURES                   | Safety Audit Survey Results. Retrieved from:                                  |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | https://www.dcjs.virginia.gov/sites/dcjs.virginia.gov/files/publications/law- |  |
|                            | enforcement/2014-virginia-school-safety-survey-results.pdf                    |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | School safety audit report for Virginia public schools                        |  |
| Variables:                 |   |  |
|                            |   |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |  |
|                            | Front entrance controlled access  |  |
|                            | Security cameras  |  |
|                            | Safety patrols conducted by staff   |  |
|                            | Classroom doors can be locked from inside/outside                             |  |
|                            | Safety/security personnel   |  |
|                            |   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | Dichotomous questions as part of survey                                       |  |
| Data Source:               | 1,972 schools   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |  |

- 97% of schools reported practicing some portion of their Crisis Management Plan, and 25% activated it.
- 66% of schools reported that school admins meet with local law enforcement regularly
- 882 schools reported conducting a total of 3,569 threat assessments during 2013-2014.
- 86% of schools reported that all exterior entrances are kept locked during school hours.
- 39% of schools reported that they have safety/security personnel working full-time.
  - Of these schools, 81% use SROs
- 91% of schools report having two-way communication between the school office and all other areas of the building.
- 59% of schools state that school administrators are able to communicate with law enforcement via radio
- 77% of schools report that first responders have access to school during lockdown.
- 79% of schools conduct background checks on volunteers.
- Middle schools had more than twice the rate of suspensions for aggression against others (72/1000 students)
- High schools had a much higher rate of alcohol, tobacco, and other drug infractions (17/1000)
- Middle and high schools had many more short-term suspensions of less than 10 days (100/1000).
- Black students were suspended at a higher rate than any other group in all school levels.

Bibliographer's Comments: School suspension should not be the go to punishment for aggression against others. Perhaps meetings with the school counselor to work on anger management or productive coping strategies would be a better use of time and resources as opposed to causing a student to lag behind his classmates for missing materials and instruction time.

| MULTIPLE SECURITY          | Finn, J.D., & Servoss, T.J. (2014). Misbehavior, suspensions, and security measures in high                                  |   |  |
|----------------------------|--|---|--|
| A .: 1 F.: 1 P. C          | school: Racial/ethnic and gender differences. Journal of Applied Research on Children:                                       |   |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | Informing Policy for Children at Risk, 5(2), Article 11.   |   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | R1: What types of high schools have the most invasive security measures?   |   |  |
|                            | R2: What types of schools suspend greater or fewer percentages of students? How high are the percentages?                    |   |  |
|                            | R3: Are particular gender and racial/ethnic groups more prone to being suspended than others? How large are the disparities? |   |  |
|                            |  |   |  |
|                            | R3a: Are differential suspensions as misbehavior?  | dministered in proportion to the degree of students'  |  |
|                            | R4: What types of schools have large   | ger or smaller race or gender disparities or security measures?                               |  |
|                            | In what types of schools are the   | e race and gender differences even greater than would be                                      |  |
|                            | predicted based on student behavior?   |   |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes   | Predictors  |  |
|                            | In-school Suspensions  | School characteristics  |  |
|                            | Out-of-school Suspensions  | School size   |  |
|                            |  | Student gender  |  |
|                            |  | Student race  |  |
|                            |  | Security measures   |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Metal detectors at the school entrance   |   |  |
|                            | Random metal detector checks on s  | tudents   |  |
|                            | Drug testing   |   |  |
|                            | Random sweeps for contraband   |   |  |
|                            | Security cameras   |   |  |
|                            | Police/security guards during school hours Random dog sniffs for drugs   |   |  |
|                            |  |   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  | 7/20 measures were selected from the ELS:2002 Administrator Questionnaire related to security |  |
| ·                          | measures used in the school.   |   |  |
| Data Source:               | 10 <sup>th</sup> grade students from ELS:2002 national survey  |   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |   |  |
| D 1.                       | •  |   |  |

- In-school suspensions may provide a time/place to address behavior problems or potential out-of-school suspensions.
- Out-of-school suspensions were more frequent among schools in higher-crime neighborhoods
  - o These schools also had higher security
- African-American and Hispanic/Latino students were suspended at higher rates than non-Hispanic white students
- Males are more likely to be suspended than females
- High degrees of school security were associated with increased suspension rates and increased black-white disparities
  - o Most black students were enrolled in high security schools
- Black males were suspended at higher rates as school size increased.
- About 50% of public schools used random dog sniffs to check for drugs or had police or security officers during the day
- About 1/3 of schools had security cameras
- About 25% of schools performed random checks for contraband
- Invasive security measures were more common in high security schools
  - o 75% had police presence or used dog sniffs
  - o 2/3 had security cameras
  - o 50% performed sweeps for contraband
  - o 1/3 required drug testing

# Recommendations:

- Educators should avoid the use of out-of-school suspensions for students who do not misbehave continually or pose a threat.
- Schools should clearly explain to students, parents, and teachers, the reasons for security measures and disciplinary actions to be taken.
- Schools should monitor in-school and out-of-school suspensions as they occur and data should be reviewed for disparities.
- Discipline practices should be clear, proportional to student misbehavior and administered fairly.
- Educators should take advantage of small school benefits such as improved student behavior and fewer suspensions of black males.

Notes: Parents would have to give consent for their child to be drug tested. It just seems that school is not the appropriate place for that to occur.

| Finn, J. D., & Servoss, T. J. (2015). Security measures and discipline in American |  |  |
|--|--|--|
| high schools. In Losen, D.J. (Ed), Closing the school discipline gap:              |  |  |
| Equitable remedies for excessive exclusion (pp. 44-58). New York: Teachers         |  |  |
| College Press.   |  |  |
| Study examined the relationships among misbehavior, suspensions, and security      |  |  |
| measures among 10 <sup>th</sup> graders.   |  |  |
| 1) Are invasive security measures being implemented for reasons unrelated          |  |  |
| to misbehavior or to scho  | ol safety?   |  |
| <ol><li>What conditions are related</li></ol>                                      | ed to high suspension rates and/or high  |  |
| racial/ethnic/gender inequ   | alities in suspensions?  |  |
| Outcomes   | Predictors   |  |
| Suspension rates   | School characteristics   |  |
| Student misbehavior  | Background characteristics   |  |
| Metal detectors at school entrance   |  |  |
| Random metal detector checks on  | students   |  |
| Drug testing   |  |  |
| Random sweeps for contraband   |  |  |
| Security cameras Police or security guards on site during school hours             |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| Measures were selected from the ELS:2002 administrator questionnaire and used      |  |  |
| to create a "security environment" score.  |  |  |
| ELS:2002   |  |  |
| Quantitative   |  |  |
|  | high schools. In Losen, D.J. (I Equitable remedies for excess College Press.  Study examined the relationships measures among 10 <sup>th</sup> graders.  1) Are invasive security measures are invasive security measures are invasive security measures are related racial/ethnic/gender inequivalent outcomes  Suspension rates Student misbehavior  Metal detectors at school entrancer Random metal detector checks on Drug testing Random sweeps for contraband Security cameras Police or security guards on site de Random "dog sniffs" to check for Measures were selected from the stocreate a "security environment ELS:2002 |  |

- Higher security schools, compared to lower security schools:
  - Were larger
  - Had a higher proportion of Black students
  - o Had a higher percentage of students on free lunch
  - o Had higher percentages of students suspended
- 90% of schools in high-crime neighborhoods had high levels of security
- A high degree of school security is associated with increased suspension rates, generally.
- A high degree of school security is associated with increased Black-White disparities in the total number of suspensions. Moreover, most Black students are enrolled in schools with a high degree of security.
- African American students and Hispanic/Latino students are suspended at higher rates than non-Hispanic Whites, even beyond what would be predicted from different levels of misbehavior.
- Out-of-school suspensions are more frequent at schools in higher crime neighborhoods, where students might experience an environment not conducive to positive educational or social outcomes.

### Recommendations:

- Out-of-school suspensions should be used as a measure of last resort for students who misbehave regularly or who are a threat to people or property.
- High-security environments should be implemented only as a last resort, given the potential for harm that
  exceeds the real benefits.
- More research is needed to understand the full impact of security measures in schools.
- Schools should be required to explain clearly to students, parents, and teachers, the reason for their security measures and for disciplinary actions taken.
- Disciplinary actions should be administered fairly and proportionally to student misbehavior; exclusionary discipline being a measure of last resort.

# Notes:

| MULTIPLE SECURITY          | Gardella, J. H., Tanner-Smith, E. E., & Fisher, B. W. (2016). Academic |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| MEASURES                   | consequences of multiple victimization and the role of school security |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | measures. American Journal of Community Psychology, 58(1-2), 36-46.    |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |  |
| Variables:                 |  |  |
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|                            |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |  |
| Results:                   |  |  |
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| Notes:                     |  |  |

### Notes:

### **Abstract**

Adolescents who experience multiple victimization (i.e., victimization on a regular basis) are at greater risk for having negative academic outcomes including lower achievement and poorer attendance than those who do not experience such victimization. Yet, the role of school contexts in this relationship remains unclear. Nevertheless, school-based efforts to reduce victimization often focus on altering contexts without sufficient evidence of associations with improved student outcomes. School security measures constitute one such suite of contextual interventions aimed at reducing victimization. This study tested a moderated mediation model in which the relationship between multiple victimization and academic performance is mediated by absenteeism, and the relationship between multiple victimization and absenteeism is moderated by the presence of school security measures. Participants were 5930 (49.6% female and 79.51% White) 12- to 18-yearold adolescents from a national sample collected through the 2011 School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey. Results of path analysis models indicated that the relationship between multiple victimization and academic performance was partially mediated by absenteeism, and that both metal detectors and security guards moderated the relationship between multiple victimization and absenteeism. Additional analyses revealed the utility of considering subpopulations of victims characterized by specific facets of their contexts. Implications for practitioners and researchers are discussed.

| MULTIPLE SECRUITY          | Hope, A. (2015). Governmentality and the 'selling' of school surveillance |
|----------------------------|---|
| MEASURES                   | devices. The Sociological Review, 63(4), 840-857.                         |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
|                            |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
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| Notes:                     |   |

In late modernity there has been a massive growth in 'new' surveillance devices situated within schools. This paper explores the reasons behind this proliferation, considering the role of key protagonists and the promises made regarding these technologies. It is suggested that there is strong connection between notions of neoliberal governmentality (Foucault, 2008; Gane, 2012) and arguments relating to increased security, improved efficiency, the desirability of techno-surveillance devices and desensitization to pervasive monitoring. In particular, it is maintained that the devolution of state power, the marketization of education, increased responsibilization and the nature of observation in the viewer society all help to explain the emergence of 'surveillance schools'. It is concluded that failure to recognize these new dynamics may result in schools quietly, subtly becoming experimental labs and then junkyards for our surveillance futures.

| MULTIPLE SECRUITY               | Jennings, W. G., Khey, D. N., Maskaly, J., & Donner, C. M. (2011). Evaluating    |
|---------------------------------|--|
| MEASURES                        | the relationship between law enforcement and school security measures and        |
|                                 | violent crime in schools. Journal of Police Crisis Negotiations, 11(2), 109-124. |
| <b>Article Title/Reference:</b> |  |
|                                 |  |
|                                 |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:             |  |
| Variables:                      |  |
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| Specific Security               |  |
| Measure:                        |  |
|                                 |  |
| How is Security                 |  |
| Measured?                       |  |
| Data Source:                    |  |
|                                 |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:       |  |
| Results:                        |  |
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| Notes:                          |  |

School crime is a vital concern, not only for students and faculty, but for administrators, policy makers, criminal justice personnel, and concerned citizens. Efforts to reduce crime and violence at schools have led many schools to adopt preventative strategies aimed at reducing actual crime and fear of crime. These measures include partnering with local police departments and implementing school resource officers, installing video cameras and closed circuit television systems, utilizing weapon-detection systems (e.g., metal detectors), and blocking/restricting access to school facilities with entry-control devices (e.g., electronic key cards). Recognizing these efforts and the limitations of prior research investigating school crime and safety measures, the current study examined the relationship between law enforcement (public or private) and school security measures on the incidence of violence and serious violence in schools using a nationally representative sample. Several key findings emerged. In particular, employing student resource officers and dealing with problems of bullying, racial tensions, student disrespect, and gangs appear promising in mitigating problems on high school campuses across the United States.

| MULTIPLE SECRUITY MEASURES | Maskaly, J., Donner, C. M., Lanterman, J., & Jennings, W. G. (2011). On the       |  |  |
|----------------------------|---|--|--|
|                            | association between SROs, private security guards, use-of-force capabilities, and |  |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | violent crime in schools. Journal of Police Crisis Negotiations, 11(2), 159-176.  |  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |  |  |
| Variables:                 |   |  |  |
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| Specific Security Measure: |   |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |  |  |
| Data Source:               |   |  |  |
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| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |  |  |
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| Results:                   |   |  |  |
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| Notes:                     |   |  |  |

Although school crime and the use of security measures to combat school crime has been the focus of a number of prior empirical studies, there is substantially less information known about the relationship between school resource officers (SROs) and private security guards in schools and school crime. Using data from the 2006 School Survey on Crime and Safety, this study investigates the relationships among school characteristics and school crime with a particular focus on their differential effects across schools that utilize varying types of security personnel (e.g., no security, SROs only, or private security guards only) and use-of-force capabilities (e.g., oleoresin-capsicum spray/pepper spray, Tasers, and firearms). Results from a series of negative binomial regression models indicate that there is a considerable degree of variability in the effect of school characteristics on school crime across schools that utilize SROs only versus private security guards only. Additional results suggest that mid-level force capabilities are positively associated with school crime. Study limitations and implications are also discussed.

| MULTIPLE SECRUITY          | Mowen, T. J. (2014). Punishment in school: The role of school security          |
|----------------------------|---|
| MEASURES                   | measures. International Journal of Education Policy and Leadership, 9(2), 1-12. |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
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| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
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# Notes:

# Abstract

Although investigation of school security measures and their relationships to various outcomes including school crime rates (Gottfredson, 2001), perpetuation of social inequality (Ferguson, 2001; Nolan, 2011; Welch & Payne, 2010), and the impact on childhood experiences has seen significant growth within the last 20 years (Newman, 2004; Kupchik, 2010), few studies have sought to explore the impacts of these measures on suspension rates. Using data from the Educational Longitudinal Study (2002), I explore the relationship between security measures and in-school, out-of-school, and overall suspension rates. Results indicate schools with a security officer experience higher rates of in-school suspensions but have no difference in rates of out-of-school or overall suspensions compared to schools without a security officer. No other measure of security was related to higher suspension rates. As prior literature suggests, schools with greater proportions of black students experienced significantly higher rates of all suspension types. Finally, different types of parental involvement correlated with both higher and lower suspension rates.

| MULTIPLE SECURITY               | Schwartz, H. L., Ramchand, R., Barnes-Proby, D., Grant, S., Jackson, B. A.,                            |                                     |  |
|---------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|--|
|                                 | Leuschner, K. J., Matsuda, M., & Saunders, J. (2016). The Role of Technology in                        |                                     |  |
| Article Title/Reference:        | Improving K–12 School Safety. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation. Retrieved                            |                                     |  |
|                                 | from: http://www.rand.org/pubs/research_reports?RR1488.html  |                                     |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:             | R1: What does violence in schools look like; what are the problems we need to solve                    |                                     |  |
|                                 | R2: What are the categories of school safety te  | chnologies and is there evidence of |  |
|                                 | their effectiveness? R3: What do experts think are the most important improvements that can be made to |                                     |  |
|                                 |  |                                     |  |
|                                 | technologies to address the most severe an   | d most frequent forms of school     |  |
|                                 | violence?  |                                     |  |
| Variables:                      | Outcomes   | Predictors                          |  |
|                                 |  |                                     |  |
| Specific Security Measure:      | IDs  |                                     |  |
|                                 | Video surveillance   |                                     |  |
|                                 | School-site alarm and protection systems   |                                     |  |
|                                 | Metal detectors  |                                     |  |
|                                 | X-ray machines Anonymous tip lines   |                                     |  |
|                                 |  |                                     |  |
|                                 | Tracking systems   |                                     |  |
|                                 | Mapping schools and bus routes   |                                     |  |
|                                 | Violence prediction technology<br>Social media monitoring  |                                     |  |
|                                 |  |                                     |  |
| How is Security Measured?       |  |                                     |  |
|                                 |  |                                     |  |
|                                 |  |                                     |  |
|                                 |  |                                     |  |
|                                 | Case studies   |                                     |  |
| Data Source:                    | National Crime Victimization Survey—School Crime Supplement  |                                     |  |
|                                 | School Environmental Safety Incident Report  |                                     |  |
|                                 | School Survey on Crime and Safety  |                                     |  |
| YRBS Youth Risk Behavior Survey |  |                                     |  |
|                                 | AddHealth Educational Longitudinal Study   |                                     |  |
|                                 |  |                                     |  |
|                                 | Schools and Staffing Survey  |                                     |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:       | Mixed Method   |                                     |  |
|                                 |  |                                     |  |
|                                 |  |                                     |  |

- 2009-2010 school year: 74% of public schools recorded at least one incident of violence
- School climate affects the likelihood of violence occurring in a school.
- Violence is more common in places with the least adult supervision (hallways, bathrooms, stairwells).
- Males, Hispanic and/or Black students are more likely to be victims.
- Substance abuse, mental health symptoms, belief in violence, school misbehavior, and prior exposure to violence are other important contributors to school violence.

# Recommendations:

- Invest in communication strategies, comprehensive school safety plans, improved tip-lines, improved upkeep of technology
- Schools need better information on what works
- Technology developers should test their technology solutions in real-world settings
- Schools should develop an all-hazards safety plan.
- Examine the underlying psychological and social problems that lead to school violence.
- Make sure that the technology being considered will integrate with the school's current system.
- Identify school's needs, budget, and community values before selecting a technology

| MULTIPLE SECURITY              | Servoss, T. J., & Finn, J. D   | Servoss, T. J., & Finn, J. D. (2014). School Security: For Whom and With What Results?.  |    |
|--------------------------------|--|--|----|
| Article Title/Reference:       | Leadership and Policy  | Leadership and Policy in Schools, 13(1), 61-92.  |    |
| Type of Study/Aims:            | schools have opted for<br>R2: How is school security<br>overall suspension rat | R1: What types of high schools have adopted more extensive security measures and which schools have opted for less security? R2: How is school security related to engagement-related school outcomes, specifically overall suspension rates, dropout rate, and the percentage of graduates who attend a two-or four-year college? |    |
| Variables: Outcomes Predictors |  | Predictors   |    |
|                                | school suspension<br>school dropout rates<br>college attendance                | school security race/ethnicity SES neighborhood crime school indiscipline urbanicity geographic region   |    |
| Specific Security Measure:     | dress code<br>clear book bags<br>security cameras<br>dog sniffs                | student IDs security officer<br>metal detectors<br>random sweeps for contraband drug testing   | rs |
| How is Security Measured?      | Composite score summarize measures   | Composite score summarizing overall security environment based upon 10 security measures   |    |
| Data Source:                   | 500 public schools particip<br>CRDC<br>CCD                                     |  |    |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:      | Quantitative   | Quantitative   |    |

- Security was positively associated with school suspension rates but had no relationship to dropout or college attendance rates.
- 28% of schools had four or more security measures
- dog sniffs and security guards were the most common security measures (used in 50% of schools)
- Metal detectors were among the least common security measure
- All 10 security measures were more common in schools with over 25% black students than in low-minority schools.
- Schools in the West and Northeast had less security than did schools in the Midwest while schools in the South had the most
- Rural schools implemented significantly less security than did urban schools, but suburban schools were not significantly different from urban schools.
- Large schools had the highest security levels.
- Security in high-crime neighborhoods was substantially higher than that in low-crime neighborhoods.
- There is no consistent relationship between security levels and indiscipline.
- The percentage of black students was the strongest correlate of security levels of all variables studied.
- High schools in the West and South had higher suspension rates than did schools in the Northeast or Midwest
- School urbanicity was not related to suspension rates but was related to dropout rates and college attendance; rural and suburban schools has lower average dropout rates than did urban schools.
- Schools with lower SES student populations had higher suspension rates, higher dropout rates, and lower rates of college attendance.
- The average percentage of students suspended in moderate-high crime neighborhoods was higher than that in low-crime neighborhoods.
- There were statistically significant correlations between Black and Hispanic students with suspension and dropout rates.
- There was a lack of association of suspensions with dropout and college attendance applied to all schools regardless of racial/ethnic composition or size.

### Notes:

- Alternatives to high level security includes:
  - 1. Programs designed to modify students' behavior and re-engage them in school (i.e. PBIS)
  - 2. Restorative justice initiatives in which students talk with the victims of their misbehavior and are given guidance from justice professionals and educators in the school setting.
  - 3. Attempts to create a positive school environment in which teachers and principals are supportive rather than adversarial and discipline is seen as a result of the interplay of student behavior and school responses.
- The policies and practices of schools that serve Hispanic/Latino students, and the processes that accompany them, need further study.

| MULTIPLE SECRUITY MEASURES | Shelton, A. J., Owens, E. W., & Song, H. (2009). An examination of public school safety measures across geographic settings. <i>Journal of School</i> |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | Health, 79(1), 24-29.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
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# Notes:

### **Abstract**

BACKGROUND: Violence at a school can have a negative impact on the health of students, teachers, administrators, and others associated with the school and surrounding community. The use of weapons in school buildings or on school grounds accounts for the majority of violent deaths, particularly among males. This national trend suggests the need for a more concerted effort to improve safety and prevent violence. This article reports the use of 13 safety measures in US public schools in 4 geographic regions (Northeast, Midwest, South, and West) and 3 community settings (urban, suburban, and rural).

METHODS: Data representing 16,000 schools reported in the Educational Longitudinal Survey of 2002-2004 were analyzed. Data were self-reported by school administrators.

RESULTS: Of the various safety measures assessed, fire alarms and extinguishers were consistently reported regardless of the geographic region or community setting of the school. Other than measures for fire safety, schools throughout the country routinely used exterior light and student lockers as safety measures. There was a significant difference by geographic region and community setting in the use of safety measures that required specific personnel, namely a security guard and an adult to direct a guest to sign in.

CONCLUSION: Recognizing the patterns of violence at public high schools, administrators working with students, other school personnel, and community partners may consider more combinations of the safety measures within their institutions together with local resources and services to improve safety and reduce violence.

| MULTIPLE SECURITY  Article Title/Reference: | Steinka-Fry, K.T., Fisher, B.W., & Tanner-Smith, E.E. (2016). Visible school security measures across diverse middle and high school settings: Typologies and predictors. <i>Journal of Applied Security Research</i> , 11(4), 422-436. DOI: 10.1080/19361610.2016.1210482 |   |
|---|--|---|
| Type of Study/Aims:                         | Secondary Data Analysis  1) Identify and describe the prevalence of visible school security measures 2) Explore what characteristics of students, schools, and environments predict these utilization patterns   |   |
| Variables:                                  | Outcomes   | Predictors  |
|   | Security class (minimum, medium, heavy, invasive authority, omnipresent tracking)  | Student characteristics School structural features School policies/climate External environment |
| Specific Security Measure:                  | Controlled building access Metal detectors Contraband sweeps Badges or photo id Security cameras Security personnel  |   |
| How is Security<br>Measured?                | Dichotomous indicators of visible security measures included in both surveys  Secondary data did not indicate how security measures were used.   |   |
| Data Source:                                | Restricted-use School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS)  Student-level data from School Crime Supplement (SCS) to National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS)  |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                   | Quantitative   |   |
| Paculte:                                    | 1  |   |

- Almost all schools use more than one security measure simultaneously, with most using three or more.
- Higher rates of low-income or African-American students were associated with heavy security class.
- Urbanicity and region of U.S. predicted security class. Students who reported belonging to minimum security schools had lower levels of perceived safety.

Notes: Provides a good glimpse as to the commonly used security measures.

| MULTIPLE SECRUITY<br>MEASURES | Tanner-Smith, E. E., Fisher, B. W., Addington, L. A., & Gardella, J. H. (2018).  Adding security, but subtracting safety? Exploring schools' use of multiple |
|-------------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:      | visible security measures. American Journal of Criminal Justice, 43(1), 102-   |
|                               | 119.   |
| Type of Study/Aims:           |  |
| Variables:                    |  |
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| Specific Security Measure:    |  |
| How is Security Measured?     |  |
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| Results:                      |  |
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| Notes:                        |  |

In response to continued concerns over crime and violence, schools are increasingly employing visible security measures such as cameras, metal detectors, and security personnel. These security measures are not mutually exclusive, but few studies have considered the relationship between the use of multiple forms of security and youth's exposure to drugs, fighting, property crime, and firearms at school. To address this issue, we analyzed nationally representative school administrator-reported data from the School Survey on Crime & Safety, using a quasi-experimental design with propensity scores to adjust for potential confounding factors. The results indicated that utilization of multiple security measures reduced the likelihood of exposure to property crime in high schools, but most other security utilization patterns were associated with poorer school safety outcomes. Our findings provide guidance to policymakers in considering whether to use – or expand – visible school security measures in schools.

| MULTIPLE                   | Tanner-Smith, E. E., & Fisher, B. W. (2016). Visible school security measures   |   |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| SECURITY                   | and student academic performance, attendance, and postsecondary   |   |
| Article Title/Reference:   | aspirations. Journal of youth and adolescence, 45(1), 195-210.  |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | R1: Are different utilization patterns of visible security measures in U.S. middle and high schools associated with adolescents' academic outcomes?  R2: Do school context characteristics or adolescent demographic characteristics moderate the relationship between security utilization patterns and academic outcomes? |   |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors                                  |
|                            | Grades  | % Scoring Below 15 <sup>th</sup> Percentile |
|                            | Truancy   | % Daily Attendance                          |
|                            | Post-secondary Aspirations  | Visible Security Utilization Pattern        |
|                            |   | School/Student Context Moderators           |
| Specific Security Measure: | Visible Security Utilization Pattern  |   |
| How is Security            | Index of possible combinations of security personnel, security cameras, and   |   |
| Measured?                  | metal detectors used in schools (Presence or absence )  |   |
| Data Source:               | 12-18 year old students as part of the School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey and School Survey on Crime and Safety   |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |   |

- Adolescents attending schools with only security personnel reported:
  - o Significantly lower grades than those attending schools using no security measures.
  - Significantly higher truancy than those attending schools using no security measures or those only using cameras.
  - Significantly higher odds of postsecondary aspirations relative to those attending schools with no security measures.
- Adolescents in schools using cameras and security personnel also reported significantly higher odds of
  postsecondary aspirations relative to those attending schools with no security measures
- Adolescents in schools using security personnel, security cameras, and metal detectors reported significantly higher odds of postsecondary aspirations relative to those attending schools with no security measures, or cameras and metal detectors.
- Schools using all three types of security measures
  - o Fared worse in terms of academic performance relative to schools using all other security utilization patterns.
  - o Reported significantly lower attendance rates than schools using no security measures, only cameras, only security personnel, or cameras and security personnel.
- Student Context Variables did not moderate the effects of visible security utilization patterns on academic outcomes.
- The combined use of surveillance cameras, metal detectors, and security personnel was associated with lower student attendance and lower postsecondary aspirations, particularly in schools with higher proportions of low SES students.
- There was no evidence that visible security measures had consistent beneficial effects on adolescents' academic outcomes.

| SCHOOL CLIMATE  Article Title/Reference: | Benbenishty, R., Astor, R. A., Roziner, I., & Wrabel, S. L. (2016). Testing the causal links between school climate, school violence, and school academic performance a cross-lagged panel autoregressive model. <i>Educational Researcher</i> , 45(3), 197-206. |   |
|--|--|---|
| Afficie Title/Reference.                 |  |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:                      | H1: Reductions in school violence and climate improvement would lead to schools' overall improved academic performance.  |   |
| Variables:                               | Outcomes   | Predictors  |
|  | Academic performance   | School enrollment demographics School climate School adult support School participation School violence |
| Specific Security Measure:               |  |   |
| How is Security Measured?                |  |   |
| Data Source:                             | California Healthy Kids Survey 3 Wave Analysis   |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                | Quantitative (Cross-lagged panel analysis)   |   |

- There was no statistically significant evidence to support H1 at the middle school level.
- In high school, there is evidence for small negative effects of violence and climate at one point in time on academic performance at later waves.
- Violence on school grounds and school climate are strongly associated with each other at any given period
  of time.

# Notes:

- School climate and anti-bullying efforts should especially target school staff, helping them identify their own attitudes and responses to students and provide opportunities to identify how their perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors have a positive or negative impact on students' behaviors and academic performance.
- Improved academic performance leads to improvements in climate and school violence and strengthens the recommendation that climate, violence, and academics should be examined together in school accountability systems.

| SCHOOL CLIMATE             | Brand, S., Felner, R., Shim, M., Seitsinger, A., & Dumas, T. (2003). Middle school improvement and reform: Development and validation of a school-level assessment of climate, cultural pluralism, and school safety. <i>Journal of educational psychology</i> , 95(3), 570-588.  |   |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Aimed to develop a reliable and stable measure of student's experiences of whole school climate for middle and junior high school students, and to examine these dimensions identified for students' academic, behavioral, and socioemotional adaptation.  Study 1: pilot work and exploratory analyses to develop a measure of school climate.  Study 2: used measure in larger samples of schools and students to replicate Study 1 and assess consistency of climate perceptions across schools  Study 3: validation data on the utility of the measures for understanding the effects of school-level climate on students  H1: To the degree to which students reflect more positive views and experiences of the school environment is reflected in the subscales of the ISC-S  H2: Specific climate dimensions will be more consistently and significantly associated with particularly relevant domains of student adjustment. |   |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  Academic adjustment (achievement, GPA, potential, expectations, efficacy)  Behavioral adjustment (Classroom behavior, delinquency, drug attitudes, substance use)  Socioemotional Adjustment (self-esteem, depression, anxiety)   | Predictors  School climate (Disciplinary harshness, negative peer interactions, positive peer interactions, structure and clarity of rules and expectations, student commitment to achievement, teacher support, instructional innovation, student participation in decision making, support for cultural pluralism, safety problems) |
| Specific Security Measure: | Disciplinary Harshness Structure and Clarity of Rules and Expectations Safety Problems  |   |
| How is Security Measured?  | School Climate measure: 50-item instrument assessing 10 dimensions (Inventory of School Climate - Student)  |   |
| Data Source:               | Project on High Performance Learning Communities (2,000+ schools across 25 states)  |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |   |

- Student Commitment to Academic Achievement had a significant and positive relationship with reading scores, and found to be significantly related to higher GPA
- In schools that students rated as having fewer safety problems, students reported higher self-and teacher expectations, academic aspirations, and efficacy.
- Higher student self-expectations and academic aspirations were related consistently with higher mean levels of Support for Cultural Pluralism.
- Higher levels of Negative Peer Interactions are related significantly with higher levels of Delinquency.
- Higher levels of smoking, drinking, and drug use, and more favorable attitudes towards these activities were found in schools
  that students rated as lower in Teacher Support, Student Commitment to Achievement and Instructional Innovation, and higher
  in Safety Problems.
- Higher levels of self-esteem and lower levels of depression were found in schools in which students reported higher levels of Teacher Support, Structure, Student Commitment to Achievement, Positive Peer Interactions, and Instructional Innovation, as well as lower Safety Problems.
- Schools that were rated by minority students as having higher levels of Support for Cultural Pluralism were ones in which minority students exhibited significantly higher levels of adjustment.
- Differential relationships between climate and adjustment measures that were found in one cohort of students did not emerge as significant across all three cohorts.
- There were significant and strong associations between the climate ratings of boys and girls, White and minority students, and students from low and high SES households.

Notes: Students' achievement and adjustment outcomes are more likely to improve when school improvement efforts bring about comprehensive change in multiple dimensions of social climate, rather than focusing on piecemeal change in single elements of the school environment.

| SCHOOL CLIMATE             | Chen, G. (2008). Communities, students, schools, and school crime: A confirmatory study of crime in US high schools. <i>Urban Education</i> , 43(3), 301- |
|----------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:   | 318.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
| Notes:                     |   |

# Notes:

# **Abstract**

This study investigates how community characteristics, student background, school climate, and zero-tolerance policies interact to affect school crime. The study articulates and fits a school crime model to 712 high schools participating in the 2000 School Survey on Crime and Safety, confirming that school location and student socioeconomic status have moderate effects on school crime. Much of the contextual effects are mediated via school climate. School climate reflected by school size, student mobility, and student misbehavior affect school safety in profound and predicted ways. Larger size and schools with higher student transience and misbehavior predict higher levels of criminal incidents. School security program is correlated with lower school crime; however, the effect is small and nonsignificant. Tough on crime policy is associated with higher level of school crime, controlling for community and school variables. Consequently, a positive school climate in combination with necessary security control is recommended to improve school safety and reduce school crimes.

| SCHOOL CLIMATE             | Welsh, W.N. (2001). Effects of student and school factors on five   |                                       |
|----------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|
| Article Title/Reference:   | measures of school disorder. Justice Quarterly, 18(4), 911-947.     |                                       |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | R1: Do schools vary significantly on the five measures of disorder? |                                       |
|                            | R2: To what degree do student and bet                               | ween-school factors explain           |
|                            | variance in different measures in so                                | chool disorder?                       |
|                            | R3: To what degree do specific individ                              | lual-and school-level factors predict |
|                            | different measures of school disord                                 | ler?                                  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors                            |
|                            | School disorder (victimization,                                     | School climate                        |
|                            | safety, avoidance, offending,                                       | Individual student characteristics    |
|                            | misconduct) derived from general                                    |                                       |
|                            | student Misconduct scale  |                                       |
|                            | developed from ESB survey   |                                       |
|                            | items   |                                       |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |                                       |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |                                       |
| Data Source:               | 4640 middle school students in Philadelphia                         |                                       |
|                            | Effective School Battery (ESB)                                      |                                       |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |                                       |
| D 1                        |   |                                       |

- Fairness of Rules and Respect for Students yielded strongest effects on lowered Offending.
- Older students, non-white students, and males reported higher levels of Offending
- Respect for Students and Fairness of Rules significantly predicted lower Misconduct.
- Respect for Students, Planning and Action, Fairness of Rules, and Clarity of Rules significantly predicted Victimization.
- Females reported lower levels of Victimization than males.
- Clarity of Rules had the strongest effect on reducing Avoidance.
- Respect for Students, Student Influence, Clarity of Rules, and Planning and Action significantly predicted Safety.
- More positive peer associations are linked to involvement in conventional activities and the reduced likelihood of committing deviant acts.

Notes: "Control theory suggests that those who are well integrated and attached to basic institutions of socialization such as the school are less likely to deviate from conventional norms, and are more likely to obey school rules and avoid punishment."

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE | Archer, D. N. (2009). Introduction: Challenging the school-to-prison pipeline. <i>New York Law School Law Review</i> , <i>54</i> , 867-872. |
|------------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:     |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:          |   |
| Variables:                   |   |
| Specific Security Measure:   |   |
| How is Security Measured?    |   |
| Data Source:                 |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:    |   |
| Results:                     |   |
| Notes:                       |   |

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Arellano-Jackson, J. (2015). But what can we do? How juvenile defenders can       |
|----------------------------|---|
| PIPELINE                   | disrupt the School to-Prison Pipeline. Seattle Journal for Social Justice, 13(3), |
| Article Title/Reference:   | 751-797.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
| Notes:                     |   |

This article begins by exploring the background behind The School-to- Prison Pipeline. This includes an examination of the data underlying the problem and identifying the populations that suffer most because of exclusionary discipline policies. Four school practices are then presented as potential causes of The School-to-Prison Pipeline: (1) zero tolerance discipline policies; (2) increased law enforcement presence in schools; (3) placement of disruptive students in alternative schools; and (4) racial profiling of minority students with disabilities. In light of these causes, recommendations contained in this article are organized to effect change within and outside the juvenile justice system.

| SCHOOL TO                 | Blad, E., & Harwin, A. (2017, January 24). Black students more likely to be |            |
|---------------------------|---|------------|
| PRISON                    | arrested at school. Education Week. Retrieved from                          |            |
| PIPELINE                  | http://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2017/01/25/black-students-more-likely-to- |            |
| Article Title/Reference:  | be-arrested.html.   |            |
| Type of Study/Aims:       | Analysis of federal data  |            |
| Variables:                | Outcomes  | Predictors |
|                           |   |            |
| Specific Security         |   |            |
| Measure:                  |   |            |
| How is Security           |   |            |
| Measured?                 |   |            |
| Data Source:              |   |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: |   |            |
|                           |   |            |

- Nationwide, black male students are three times more likely to be arrested at school than their white male peers.
- Among 90,000 public schools, 29% reported at least one law-enforcement officer in 2013-14.
- Federal data do not report or adequately show the actual interactions between school police and students.
- Federal data does not show what schools are losing out on by spending on police as opposed to other student-support measures.
- 2013-14 civil rights data found that **1.6 million students**, largely black or Hispanic, attended schools with police but no school counselors.
- Data argues not for **more** police in schools but for those police officers to be **properly trained.**

# Bibliographer's Comments:

Students may not receive any counseling or mental health services outside of the school settings, especially in those that are low income or rural communities. Therefore, it is necessary to be sure that schools are adequately staffed with counselors and psychologists. This would likely sublimate the need for law enforcement in the first place.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON PIPELINE Article Title/Reference:               | Cook, T. D., & Hirschfield, P. J. (2008) Development Program in Chicago: Eff the juvenile justice system from the lat high school years. <i>American Education</i> 45(1), 38-67.   | ects on involvement with e elementary through the   |
|--|--|---|
| Type of Study/Aims:  | <ol> <li>Semi-replication study</li> <li>Describe how SDP affected criminal justice involvement during 5<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> grade that Cook et al (2000) examined, using official criminal justice records instead of self-report.</li> <li>Test original claim that SDP reduced juvenile delinquency</li> </ol> |   |
| Variables:   | Outcomes  Juvenile Justice Delinquency (station adjustments, arrests, court petitions, detention, incarceration, ever-involved, severity index)  | Predictors  Pretest Delinquency Measures   (individual-level pretest everinvolved, school-level pre-test   % arrested or station adjusted, school-level pretest acting out)  Individual Background Data (race, gender, family composition, parents' work status, academic achievement |
| Specific Security Measure:                                       | School Development Program   |   |
| How is Security Measured?  | Juvenile Delinquency Outcomes  |   |
| Data Source:   | <ul> <li>1406 students (African-American and Hispanic students only) from 20 schools almost identical to Cook et al (2000).</li> <li>Longitudinal sample and restricted to those who stayed in elementary school for at least three years, grades 5-8.</li> </ul>  |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |   |
| for any of the delinquency of<br>High school delinquency effects | : "No SDP effect is evident"  School Development Program seems to m  |   |

| SCHOOL TO PRISON          | Cramer, E. D., Gonzalez, L., & Pellegrini-Lafont, C. (2014). From classmates to  |  |
|---------------------------|--|--|
| PIPELINE                  | inmates: An integrated approach to break the School-to-Prison Pipeline. Equity & |  |
|                           | Excellence in Education, 47(4), 461–475.   |  |
|                           | https://doi.org/10.1080/10665684.2014.958962                                     |  |
| Article Title/Reference:  |  |  |
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| Type of Study/Aims:       |  |  |
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| Variables:                |  |  |
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| Specific Security         |  |  |
| Measure:                  |  |  |
| How is Committee          |  |  |
| How is Security Measured? |  |  |
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| Data Source:              |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: |  |  |
| Quantitative/Quantative:  |  |  |
| Results:                  |  |  |
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| Notes:                    |  |  |

This article explores the connection between dropping out of school and being incarcerated, particularly for youth, including students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds, students from poverty, and students with disabilities, who have been shown to be at higher risk for both. This article seeks to shift focus away from a deficit-based perspective and instead creates an integrated learning model that incorporates culturally responsive teaching with an integrated services model in order to promote access, equity, and culturally supported experiences for children. If students are supported and successful in school, then dropout and incarceration should decrease and the pipeline from school to prison can be broken.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON PIPELINE  Article Title/Reference: | Fabelo, T., Thompson, M.D., Plotkin, M., Carmichael, D., Marchbanks III, M.P., & Booth, E.A. (2011). Breaking schools' rules: A statewide study of how school discipline relates to students' success and juvenile justice involvement. Council of State Governments Justice Center and The Public Policy Research Institute, Texas A&M University. Accessed September 25, 2013 at: <a href="http://www.youthlaw.org/fileadmin/ncyl/youthlaw/litigation/bryan/Appendix-G-Breaking Schools Rules Report.pdf">http://www.youthlaw.org/fileadmin/ncyl/youthlaw/litigation/bryan/Appendix-G-Breaking Schools Rules Report.pdf</a> |                         |
|---|---|-------------------------|
| Type of Study/Aims:                                 | The report describes the results of analysis of millions of school and juvenile justice records in Texas aimed to improve policymakers' understanding of who is suspended and expelled from public secondary schools, and the impact.   |                         |
| Variables:  | Outcome Variable:   | Predictor Variable:     |
|   | Suspension Expulsion Academic performance   | Student characteristics |
| Specific Security Measure:                          |   |                         |
| How is Security Measured?                           |   |                         |
| Data Source:  | Individual school records and school campus data for 7 <sup>th</sup> grade students 2000-2002. State juvenile justice database.   |                         |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                           | Quantitative  |                         |
| D14   | •   |                         |

- 6/10 public school students were suspended/expelled at least once between 7<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grade school years.
- AA students and those with particular educational disabilities were disproportionately likely to be removed from the classroom for disciplinary reasons.
- Students who were suspended/expelled were more likely to be held back a grade or to drop out than students not involved in the disciplinary system.
- When a student was suspended or expelled, his/her likelihood of being involved in the juvenile justice system the subsequent year increased significantly.
- Suspension and expulsion rates among schools varied significantly

### Notes:

If teachers and other school staff had a better understanding of behavior, specifically with those who are educationally disabled in some way, there would likely be a reduction in disciplinary action: speaks to the importance of mental health training for all faculty.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE | Feierman, J., Levick, M., & Mody, A. (2009). The school-to-prison pipeline and back: Obstacles and remedies for the re-enrollment of adjudicated youth. |
|------------------------------|---|
| Article Title/Reference:     | New York Law School Law Review, 54, 1115–1129.  |
| Type of Study/Aims:          |   |
| Variables:                   |   |
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| Specific Security Measure:   |   |
| How is Security Measured?    |   |
| Data Source:                 |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:    |   |
| Results:                     |   |
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| Notes:                       |   |

In this article, we consider the disturbing reluctance of schools to allow delinquent youth to continue their education and the high dropout rates for youth returning from juvenile justice placements. We discuss the strengths and weaknesses of current litigation strategies, with a focus on the importance of strengthening the due process protections available to delinquent youth returning to school. Given the limitations to litigation fully addressing the problem, we then highlight some policy recommendations, including amendments to the No Child Left Behind Act that could promote the integration of youth from juvenile justice placements back into school. Finally, we feature a few promising state models that specifically address the transition from juvenile facilities to schools.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON PIPELINE Article Title/Reference: | Hirschfield, P. J. (2018). The role of scl<br>system inequality. <i>The Future o</i>  |            |
|--|---|------------|
| Type of Study/Aims:                                | Examination of micro- and macro-level processes affecting student interaction with juvenile justice system and discussion of potential reforms that could reduce influence of schools on disproportionate minority contact (DMC). |            |
| Variables:   | Outcomes  | Predictors |
| Specific Security Measure:                         |   |            |
| How is Security Measured?                          |   |            |
| Data Source:                                       |   |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                          |   |            |

- Schools likely contribute to differences in offending by providing less engaging, therapeutic, and supportive environments to students of color.
- Although school-based restorative justice practices and PBIS frameworks have been proven effective, if
  these programs are more accessible to white students, or high SES schools, the racial disparity in schools
  will likely be exacerbated.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE | Hirschfield, P. J. (2008). Preparing for prison? The criminalization of school discipline in the USA. <i>Theoretical Criminology</i> , <i>12</i> (1), 79-101. DOI:   |            |
|------------------------------|--|------------|
| Article Title/Reference:     | 10.1177/1362480607085795   |            |
| Type of Study/Aims:          | A presentation of the author's model of school criminalization positing that economic troubles, unemployment and incarceration of disadvantaged minorities, and fiscal crises in public education has shifted disciplinary policies/practices/perceptions with/of poor students of color to promote punishment and the creation of a criminal justice "track." |            |
| Variables:                   | Outcomes   | Predictors |
| Specific Security Measure:   | School punishment Video cameras SROs Metal detectors   |            |
| How is Security Measured?    | Presentation of available research.  |            |
| Data Source:                 | Meta-analysis of current research  |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:    | Qualitative  |            |

School punishment is becoming more formal with the adoption of zero-tolerance policies, and introduction of searches, video cameras, and metal detectors.

Hyper-segregated schools are more likely to place city police officers or school district police departments in school (these are the most criminalized.) This influx of law enforcement in the school appears to erode the traditional disciplinary role of the teacher and/or other faculty.

De-industrialization combined with middle class citizens moving to the suburbs leaves concentration of unskilled inner-city minority groups with little access to employment or education opportunities.

There is a perpetuation of the belief that troublesome students are future criminals or prisoners.

Notes: More support for the institutional deficits that might be foundationally responsible for increased school violence/crime and the need for security measures in the first place.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE     | Hirschfield, P. (2009). Another way out: The impact of juvenile arrests on high school dropout. <i>Sociology of Education</i> , 82(4), 368-393.  |  |
|----------------------------------|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:         |  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:              | Quasi-experimental analysis.  1) Is arrest an important predictor of dropout?  2) Does this relationship reflect the impact of arrest on dropout as opposed to being the result of unobserved individual characteristics?        |  |
| Variables: See Table 1. in paper | Outcomes   | Predictors   |
| for more details                 |  | Gender   |
| for more details                 | Dropout in 2002  |  |
|                                  | Dropout before year 3  | Race   |
|                                  | Dropout before year 2  | Age  |
|                                  |  | No natural parent at home  |
|                                  |  | Repeated grades  |
|                                  |  | Achievement  |
|                                  |  | Educational expectations   |
|                                  |  | Absences   |
|                                  |  | Spring arrest  |
|                                  |  | Behavioral Measures  |
|                                  |  | Contextual Factors   |
| Specific Security Measure:       |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?        |  |  |
| Data Source:                     | Comer's School Development Program schools in Chicago – 4,844 students participated in at least one survey on attitudes and behavior, who provided valid records re: to juvenile justice system and no prior arrests (1992-1997) |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:        | Quantitative   |  |
|                                  | 9 <sup>th</sup> 10 <sup>th</sup> grade – 6-8 times more ikely to drop out in 9 <sup>th</sup> or 10 <sup>th</sup> gr  | likely than non-arrested students ever to rade.                                  |
|                                  |  | in schools, especially if these schools are likely to have higher dropout rates? |

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE | Hirschfield, P. J., & Celinska, K. (2011). Beyond fear: Sociological perspectives on the criminalization of school discipline. <i>Sociology</i> |  |
|------------------------------|---|--|
| Article Title/Reference:     | Compass, 5(1), 1-12.  |  |
| Town of Charles Advances     | Review of the sociological literature pertaining to school criminalization:   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:          | <ol> <li>Discuss conceptualization</li> <li>Review claims and evidence</li> </ol>   |  |
|                              | <ul><li>3. Offer explanations</li><li>4. Make recommendations for future research</li></ul>   |  |
| Variables:                   |   |  |
| Specific Security Measure:   |   |  |
| How is Security Measured?    | Review of relevant research   |  |
| Data Source:                 | Relevant research   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:    | Qualitative   |  |

Results: Criminalization is a social and political response to fears of school crime which are projections of broader social anxieties ("crumbling industrial economy and mass incarceration"). This ultimately leads to depriving school of tax dollars that could be used to modernize facilities, hire more qualified teachers and improve school climate AND expanding the criminal justice system and promoting school criminalization.

Recommendation: The long-term impact of criminalization can be measured by comparing adult employment, incarceration, and relevant social attitudes across differentially criminalized cohorts of students, or by revisiting schools that were similarly examined prior to criminalization.

Notes: Similar to other Hirschfield articles, this reinforces the concept of student crime as a presentation of broader social/political/economical issues.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON PIPELINE Article Title/Reference: | Justice, B. (2018). Schools, prisons, and pipelines: Fixing the toxic relationship between public education and criminal justice. <i>Choice</i> , June 2018, 1169-1176. |
|--|---|
| Type of Study/Aims:                                | A brief review of the literature pertaining to the school to prison pipeline, specifically how it came to be, support for the current framework, and limitations.       |
| Variables:   |   |
| Specific Security Measure:                         |   |
| How is Security Measured?                          |   |
| Data Source:                                       |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                          |   |

- School-to-prison pipeline: cumulative impact of increasingly unforgiving, punitive measures designed to push children out of school, into the juvenile justice system and ultimately prison.
- Disproportionately harsh punishments for black children
- "Rather than creating good citizens, public schools are systematically and disproportionately creating criminals" (Hirschfield, 2018).
- Starting in 1950s, anxiety over growing youth began and was exacerbated by urban racial crisis and crime wave: continued into 60s and 70s with racial integration and upswing of school "safety" approaches such as suspension, expulsion, redirection to juvenile detention centers and the perpetuation of the perception that "black youth were out of control."
- 80s and 90s school discipline increased in punitive practices and in 1990s the federal government effected zerotolerance policies (e.g. drugs) and encouraged public schools to do the same
- Between 1970s and 2010 over 750 per 100,000 are incarcerated with devastating consequences for families, communities, and particularly African American men.
- The pipeline has many components:
  - O School Failure: concentrated risk for drop out or being "pushed out"
  - Office Referrals: Black students are more likely to be referred
  - Special Education: disproportional office referral and suspension
  - O School Climate: negative climate has detrimental effects on students and increase risk
  - O Suspension and Expulsion: driver of the pipeline for **all** students and puts children on a path towards future negative behavior
  - Contact with Police in School: direct relationship between students of color and police in schools
  - o Juvenile Justice: youth of color are more likely to have their case formally processed
- Current institutional practice that is incentivized to push out children who most rely on school as a place to learn (p. 1173).
- Limitations to the pipeline metaphor
  - Suggests one-way relationship
  - o Schools sit within a larger system of social inequality and racial injustice
  - o Agency and resistence of children, families and communities are overlooked
- Alternative frameworks
  - Prison-to-Community Toxic Spill: imprisonment has serious negative effects on individuals, families, and communities. How does this impact the behavior of children coming into school. Public schools can act as healing spaces.
  - The Broken Social Contract: African Americans still face wide array of social and economic inequalities. The STPP is just a link in a much larger chain of social injustice in need of a culture shift.
  - A Curriculum Theory of Justice: Schools and Prisons as educational institutions as opposed to schools versus prisons → "schools, prisons, police stops, hospital visits, housing, transportation, military service, all working collinearly as pipelines towards healthy democratic living."

| SCHOOL TO                 | Justice Policy Institute. (2011). Education under arrest: The case against police in schools.      |            |  |
|---------------------------|--|------------|--|
| PRISON                    | Retrieved from:  |            |  |
| PIPELINE                  | http://www.justicepolicy.org/uploads/justicepolicy/documents/educationunderarrest_execu            |            |  |
| Article Title/Reference:  | tivesummary.pdf  |            |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:       | Justice Policy Institute is dedicated to reducing the use of incarceration and the justice system. |            |  |
|                           |  |            |  |
| Variables:                | Outcomes   | Predictors |  |
|                           |  |            |  |
| Specific Security         | SROs   |            |  |
| Measure:                  |  |            |  |
| How is Security           |  |            |  |
| Measured?                 |  |            |  |
| Data Source:              |  |            |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: |  |            |  |
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- "Law enforcement in schools is not the best nor most cost-effective way to achieve safety and productive learning environment...youth pay the price of becoming involved in the juvenile justice system and subsequent negative effects."
- Students may not understand that SROs are law enforcement and may self-incriminate unknowingly.
- Maintaining safe schools is best accomplished by using both structure and support (rules that are strictly and fairly enforced, and adults who are supporting, caring, and willing to help).
- Having SROs in schools has led to youth being arrested for disruptive rather than dangerous behavior.
- SROs send youth into the justice system which also likely results in suspension or expulsion from school.
  - Suspensions create a sense of alienation from school and can be linked to increased likelihood of dropout.
  - · Dropping out of school is associated with incarceration.
- Students of color or with disabilities are most likely to be affected by harsh disciplinary policies from SROs and zero-tolerance policies.
- Youth in schools are engaged during the day which prevents them from participating in illegal behaviors
- The cost of one SROs salary is enough to hire one teacher and pay 20% of the salary of a second teacher.

### Recommendations:

- Reduce class sizes
- Provide support and training to staff regarding behavior management
- Build quality relationships between students and staff
- Hire more counselors
- Identify students with disabilities or mental health problems early and provide appropriate education
- Design schools for safety
- Invest in evidence-based initiatives.
  - o Positive-Behavioral Intervention and Supports
  - Social and Emotional Learning
  - o Behavioral Monitoring and Reinforcement Program
- Peaceable schools use conflict resolution
- Restorative justice programs aid in prevention of repeat offending
- Remove law enforcement from schools
- Invest in education, prevention, and intervention strategies that work.
- Provide training and evaluation

### Notes:

Given that the US has an extremely high rate of incarceration, I would agree with removing law enforcement from our schools. This would hopefully reduce the feelings that police/arrests/juvenile justice is a part of normalcy in our schools.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Mallett, C. A. (2016). The School-to-Prison Pipeline: A critical review of the |
|----------------------------|--|
| PIPELINE                   | punitive paradigm shift. Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal, 33(1), 15-  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | 24. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10560-015-0397-1                                  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
| Variables:                 |  |
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| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| Specific Security Weasure. |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
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| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
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| Results:                   |  |
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| Notes:                     |  |

#### Abstract

This paper reviews evidence of the school-to-prison pipeline, a confluence of two child- and adolescent caring systems—schools and juvenile courts—that simultaneously shifted over the past generation from rehabilitative to punitive paradigms. While there was crossover impact between these systems, the movements were both independent and inter-dependent. In the school systems, and particularly those that are overburdened and underfinanced, many students have been increasingly suspended and expelled due to criminalizing both typical adolescent developmental behaviors as well as low-level type misdemeanors: acting out in class, truancy, fighting, and other similar offenses. The increased use of zero tolerance policies and police (safety resource officers) in the schools has exponentially increased arrests and referrals to the juvenile courts. While impacting many, unfortunately, these changes disproportionately affect vulnerable children, adolescents, and their families. Thus, millions of young people have become encapsulated in harmful punitive systems. Very few of these young people are actually appropriately involved, in that they do not pose safety risks to their schools or communities. Thus, the school-to-prison pipeline does not improve school or community safety.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | McGrew, K. (2016). The dangers of pipeline thinking: How the School-To-      |
|----------------------------|--|
| PIPELINE                   | Prison Pipeline metaphor squeezes out complexity. Educational Theory, 66(3), |
| Article Title/Reference:   | 341–367. https://doi.org/10.1111/edth.12173                                  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
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| Variables:                 |  |
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| Consider Management        |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
| Results:                   |  |
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| Notes:                     |  |

In this essay Ken McGrew critically examines the school-to-prison pipeline metaphor and associated literature. The origins and influence of the metaphor are compared with the origins and influence of the competing prison industrial complex concept. Specific weaknesses in the pipeline literature are examined. These problems are described as resulting, in part, from the influence that the pipeline metaphor has on the thinking of those who follow it. McGrew argues that addressing the weaknesses in the literature, abandoning the metaphor, and adopting a more complex theoretical orientation grounded in critical scholarship, will enable educational scholars to better capture the relational nature of the social phenomena being described while simultaneously making their work more useful to emerging movements for social justice.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Miguel, C., & Gargano, J. (2017). Moving beyond retribution: Alternatives to            |  |  |
|----------------------------|---|--|--|
| PIPELINE                   | punishment in a society dominated by the School-to-Prison Pipeline. <i>Humanities</i> , |  |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | 6(15), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.3390/h6020015   |  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |  |  |
| Variables:                 |   |  |  |
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| Specific Security Measure: |   |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |  |  |
| Data Source:               |   |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |  |  |
| Results:                   |   |  |  |
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#### **Abstract**

There is a growing national trend in which children and adolescents are funneled out of the public school system and into the juvenile and criminal justice systems—where students are treated as criminals in the schools themselves and are expected to fall into this pattern rather than even attempt to seek opportunities to fulfill the ever elusive "American Dream". There is a blatant injustice happening in our schools, places that ironically should be considered safe havens, places for knowledge, and means of escape for children who have already been failed by the system and sequestered to under-resourced, overcrowded, and oversurveilled inner cities. Focusing on the damage the public education system has caused and the ways in which policies and practices have effectively made the school-to-prison pipeline a likely trajectory for many Black and Latinx students, we hope to convey the urgency of this crisis and expose the ways in which our youth are stifled, repeatedly, by this form of systematic injustice. We will describe models of restorative justice practices—both within and beyond the classroom—and hope to convey how no matter how well intentioned, they are not adequate solutions to a phenomenon tied to neoliberal ideologies. Thus, we ultimately aim to exemplify how a feminist approach to education would radically restructure the system as we know it, truly creating a path out of this crisis.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Mizel, M. L., Miles, J. N. V., Pedersen, E. R., Tucker, J. S., Ewing, B. A., &     |
|----------------------------|--|
| PIPELINE                   | D'Amico, E. J. (2016). To educate or to incarcerate: Factors in disproportionality |
| Article Title/Reference:   | in school discipline. Children and Youth Services Review, 70, 102–111.             |
|                            | https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2016.09.009                                   |
|                            |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
| Variables:                 |  |
| variables.                 |  |
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| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| 77                         |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
| Qualitativo, Qualitativo.  |  |
| Results:                   |  |
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|                            |  |
| Notes:                     |  |

The school-to-prison pipeline describes the process by which school suspension/expulsion may push adolescents into the justice system disproportionately based on race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and gender. The current study moves the field forward by analyzing a survey of a diverse sample of 2539 students in 10th to 12th grade in Southern California to examine how demographic, individual, and family factors contribute to disparities in office referral and suspension/expulsion. African Americans, boys, and students whose parents had less education were more likely to be suspended/expelled. Higher levels of student academic preparation for class, hours spent on homework, and academic aspiration were associated with less school discipline. Findings suggest that helping students engage in school may be protective against disproportionate school discipline.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Nance, J. P. (2016). Students, police, and the School-to-Prison Pipeline. |
|----------------------------|---|
| PIPELINE                   | Washington University Law Review, 93(4), 919–987.                         |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
| Notage                     |   |

## **Abstract**

Since the terrible shootings at Sandy Hook Elementary School in Newtown, Connecticut, lawmakers and school officials continue to deliberate over new laws and policies to keep students safe, including putting more police officers in schools. Yet these decision makers have not given enough attention to the potential negative consequences that such laws and policies may have, such as creating a pathway from school to prison for many students. Traditionally, only educators, not law enforcement, handled certain lower-level offenses that students committed, such as fighting or making threats without using a weapon. Drawing on recent restricted data from the US Department of Education, this Article presents an original empirical analysis revealing that a police officer's regular presence at a school is predictive of greater odds that school officials refer students to law enforcement for committing various offenses, including these lower-level offenses. This trend holds true even after controlling for: (1) state statutes that require schools to report certain incidents to law enforcement; (2) general levels of criminal activity and disorder that occur at schools; (3) neighborhood crime; and (4) other demographic variables. The consequences of involving students in the criminal justice system are severe, especially for students of color, and may negatively affect the trajectory of students' lives. Therefore, lawmakers and school officials should consider alternative methods to create safer learning environments.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON PIPELINE Article Title/Reference: | Noguera, P.A. (2003). Schools, prisons, and social implications of punishment: Rethinking disciplinary practices. <i>Theory and Practice</i> , 42:4; 341-350.  |  |  |
|--|--|--|--|
| Type of Study/Aims:                                | Aims to discuss why minorities, males, and low achieving students are overrepresented in terms of those students who are suspended and/or expelled from school, while presenting an alternative approach to discipline that supports education.  "Why is it that the drive for order and safety has resulted in the neediest and most disadvantaged students being the ones most likely to be punished?" |  |  |
| Variables:   | Outcomes   | Predictors   |  |
| Specific Security Measure:                         | Zero-tolerance policies lead   | Zero-tolerance policies leading to suspension/expulsion  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  Data Source:            | 150 students (15 et 10 partie  | 150 students (15 at 10 martisinating schools) made up of 5 high 5 madium and 5                 |  |
| Data Source.                                       | low achievers  | 150 students (15 at 10 participating schools) made up of 5 high, 5 medium, and 5 low achievers |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                          | Mixed method   |  |  |

- Children who are behind academically/unable to perform at grade-level expectations are often those students that act out or misbehave, likely out of frustration or embarrassment.
  - O This is true for students who are "different"
- "The adoption of zero-tolerance policies related to discipline and order by school districts across the US has contributed to a significant increase in the number of children who are being suspended and expelled from school."
- Students are expected to relinquish a certain degree of individual freedom in exchange for receiving the benefits of education students largely conform to adult authority.
- Once students know that "rewards of education" are not available to them, students have little incentive to comply with school rules.
  - These students are likely to be labeled defiant, maladjusted, and difficult to deal with; more likely to internalize these labels and act out in ways that match expectations.
  - Schools that service large numbers of these children generally behave more like prisons than schools, and utilize a higher number of security measures
- Schools aim to "sort children based on measures of academic ability," socialize children by teaching them values and norms to maintain social order and civility, by operating as institutions of social control.
- Schools that suspend large numbers or small numbers frequently become preoccupied with discipline and control and forget about the conditions that influence teaching and learning.
- Students routinely report that teachers have low expectations and allow them to do minimal work.
- Some high achieving students' grades were linked to behavior and not skill level.
- Two schools with lowest suspension rates offered challenging courses and caring, supportive teachers.

- Students adhere to somewhat of a self-fulfilling prophecy, whereby they are labeled and treated as underachieving with a limited future ahead of them, therefore they put forth little effort and tend to act out in the classroom.
- The underlying factors that lead to misbehavior are often unexplored and ignored, while punishment and further removal from school continues leading to further disconnect and potentially more misbehavior.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE | O'Neill, L. & McGloin, J.M. (2007). Considering the efficacy of situational crime prevention in schools. <i>Journal of Criminal Justice</i> , |                                   |
|------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| Article Title/Reference:     | 35(5), 511-523. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2007.07.004   |                                   |
| Type of Study/Aims:          | Cross-sectional study aimed at investigating the relationship between school-level SCP strategies and school crime.                           |                                   |
| Variables:                   | Outcomes  | Predictors                        |
|                              | Violent crime   | Crime prevention techniques       |
|                              | Property crime  | employed by schools               |
|                              |   | Teacher/student ratio             |
|                              |   | # of classroom changes per day    |
|                              |   | Control variables (# of students, |
|                              |   | % free lunch, % minority,         |
|                              |   | gender, urbanicity,               |
|                              |   | neighborhood crime)               |
| Specific Security Measure:   | Situational Crime Prevention (SCP)  |                                   |
|                              | Controlled access   |                                   |
|                              | Close campus for lunch  |                                   |
|                              | Transparent book bags   |                                   |
|                              | ID badges   |                                   |
|                              | metal detectors   |                                   |
|                              | Random searches   |                                   |
|                              | Security cameras  |                                   |
|                              | School uniforms   |                                   |
| How is Security Measured?    | Dichotomous variables from the survey   |                                   |
| Data Source:                 | Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR):  |                                   |
|                              | 2000 Survey on Crime and Safety   |                                   |
|                              | 2,270 surveys completed   |                                   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:    | Quantitative  |                                   |
| Dogultar                     | <u> </u>  |                                   |

- Most SCP techniques did not have a relationship with school crime.
- Schools that had locked doors were likely to report less property crime
- Schools in which students stayed on campus for lunch were likely to report more property crime
- For every number of classroom changes reported, the expected count of property crime increased by a factor of 1.09
- Smaller schools and schools with younger populations were associated with lower levels of property crime
- High neighborhood crime is associated with higher amounts of property crime at school

## Notes:

• Principals tend to over-report the use of crime prevention tactics within schools and underreport the amount of crime.

Bibliographer's Comments: There should be less worry about making a school look good and more care towards ensuring the safety and productivity of the learning environment that a school is supposed to be.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Owens, E. G. (2017). Testing the School-to-Prison Pipeline. <i>Journal of Policy</i> |
|----------------------------|--|
| PIPELINE                   | Analysis and Management, 36(1), 11–37. https://doi.org/10.1002/pam.21954             |
| Article Title/Reference:   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
| Variables:                 |  |
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| Specific Security Massyma  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
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| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
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| Results:                   |  |
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| Notes:                     |  |

The School-to-Prison Pipeline is a social phenomenon where students become formally involved with the criminal justice system as a result of school policies that use law enforcement, rather than discipline, to address behavioral problems. A potentially important part of the School-to-Prison Pipeline is the use of sworn School Resource Officers (SROs), but there is little research on the causal effect of hiring these officers on school crime or arrests. Using credibly exogenous variation in the use of SROs generated by federal hiring grants specifically to place law enforcement in schools, I find evidence that law enforcement agencies learn about more crimes in schools upon receipt of a grant, and are more likely to make arrests for those crimes. This primarily affects children under the age of 15. However, I also find evidence that SROs increase school safety, and help law enforcement agencies make arrests for drug crimes occurring on and off school grounds.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON PIPELINE Article Title/Reference: | Petrosino, A., Guckenburg, S., & Fronius, T. (2012). 'Policing schools' strategies: A review of the evaluation evidence. <i>Journal of MultiDisciplinary Evaluation</i> , 8(17), 80-101.  |                                     |
|--|---|-------------------------------------|
| Type of Study/Aims:                                | Review paper identifying assessments of the effectiveness of non-educational policing strategies and programs in schools. Included studies reported school-based strategies with "heavy" police involvement regarding school crime or disorder. |                                     |
| Variables:   | Outcomes  | Predictors                          |
|  | Crime Rates   | SROs                                |
|  | Perceptions of police   | SPPPs                               |
|  | Juvenile delinquency rates  | COPS                                |
|  | Victimization   | CLOP                                |
|  | School disorder/Student offending   | NYC Initiative                      |
|  | Student disputes  | Economic disadvantage               |
|  | Arrests   |                                     |
|  | Suspensions/Expulsions  |                                     |
|  | Educational issues  |                                     |
| Specific Security                                  | SROs  |                                     |
| Measure:   | School-police partnership programs (SPPPs)  |                                     |
|  | Safe-Corridor (police patrolling of known increased crime   | area during commute to-from school) |
|  | Mentorship program with gang members (COPS)   |                                     |
|  | Parent training classes   |                                     |
|  | Cape Breton Community Liaison Officer Program (CLOP)  |                                     |
|  | NYC Police Impact Schools Initiative  |                                     |
| How is Security                                    | Survey data   |                                     |
| Measured?  |   |                                     |
| Data Source:                                       | Experimental or quasi-experimental designs available through December 2009. K-12 schools in the US, Canada, and UK  |                                     |
| Quantitative/                                      | Systematic review of Quantitative research  |                                     |
| Qualitative:                                       |   |                                     |
| D14  |   |                                     |

- 1968: SROs: No difference among groups in examining attitudes towards police or delinquency, but treatment group gained a better understand of the role of law enforcement.
- 1979: Treatment group had more positive perception of law enforcement and gained better understanding of police and developed rapport with SROs; no indication on effect on delinquency rates.
- 1996: Safe-Corridor had no statistically significant effect on student safety, but more students walked home and engaged in afterschool activities, although there was an increase in victimization at the school.
- 2002: Mixed results regarding COPS program
- 2003: Positive results of police-school partnership to solve student disputes, but could be attributed to other interventions put in place simultaneously.
- 2004: Safer School Partnership in UK led to decreased bullying and substance use with positive perceptions of police but not statistically significant when compared to non SSP schools. SSP students were more respectful of police.
- 2005: Follow-up to SSP program in UK. No significant or positive impact of SSP on youth offending, but truancy rates decreased significantly in all SSP schools.
- 2006: CLOP: perceived outcomes from police, school administration, teachers, and students were largely positive, but survey data did not indicate significant impact on student safety or promotion of positive social behaviors.
- 2007: NYC Police Impact Schools Initiative: Police noncriminal activity and suspensions increased at targeted schools, but slight decreases in major crimes were indicated.
- 2008: SRO program: placement of SRO has little or no significant impact on the levels of crime or negative behavior in school, could be due to reduced levels of student bonding with officers.
- 2009: SRO program: increased arrests in schools with SROs, however when economic disadvantage was accounted for in prediction of arrest, there was no statistically significant difference between treatment and comparison schools

Notes: Most of the reports lacked experimental rigor.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE | Rocque, M., & Snellings, Q. (2017). The new disciplinology: Research, theory, and remaining puzzles on the School-to-Prison Pipeline. <i>Journal of Criminal</i> |
|------------------------------|--|
| I II ELINE                   | Justice, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2017.05.002   |
| Article Title/Reference:     |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:          |  |
| Variables:                   |  |
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| Specific Security            |  |
| Measure:                     |  |
| How is Security Measured?    |  |
| Data Source:                 |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:    |  |
| Results:                     |  |
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| Notes:                       |  |

Background: The school-to-prison pipeline is a relatively recent phenomenon identified by researchers as a link between negative school outcomes, such as discipline, and involvement in the justice system.

Purpose: To critically examine the school-to-prison pipeline, focusing on race and discipline, as an extension of the "risk society" that has emerged in the last twenty to thirty years. Research, theory, and remaining puzzles with respect to the school-to-prison pipeline are examined.

Results: Changes in education and penal policy have converged to increase the chances that students who do not succeed in school become enmeshed in the criminal justice system. The causal link between the two systems is less clear, but a focus on risk is present in both arenas. However, disparities—particularly racial disparities, much like those found in the criminal justice system—persist in school discipline that have yet to be adequately explained.

Conclusions: Further research is needed to understand and explain the relationship between school and penal policies, educational outcomes and involvement with the criminal justice system. Irrespective of whether the link is causal, the disparities that exist and increasing numbers of those impacted by exclusionary discipline coupled with negative educational outcomes suggest a new approach should be explored.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Ruiz, R. R. (2017). School-to-Prison Pipeline: An evaluation of zero tolerance |
|----------------------------|--|
| PIPELINE                   | policies and their alternatives. <i>Houston Law Review</i> , 54, 803-837.      |
| Article Title/Reference:   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
| Variables:                 |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
| Results:                   |  |
| Notes:                     |  |

Although our country's education system historically focused on rehabilitative measures, concerns about school violence led to an increased use of punitive measures during the 1990s. Reliance on harsh penalties has grown over time, leading to the strengthening of the school-to-prison pipeline: a nationwide phenomenon that criminalizes student misbehaviors and then uses punitive consequences that tend to push children into the prison systems. Zero tolerance policies-regulations that require specific punishments for outlined student misbehaviors, many times without accounting for the unique circumstances of an incident-are one of the school-to-prison pipeline's main contributors. This Comment reviews the development of zero tolerance policies and evaluates their effectiveness. After concluding that due process requirements will not adequately safeguard children from these regulations, this Comment examines a range of alternatives, including joint efforts between key stakeholders, legislative reforms, and restorative justice practices. The conclusion of this Comment proposes alternative measures that can be used in lieu of zero tolerance policies, which are more effective in securing safe school environments and deterring students from future misconduct.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE | Skiba, R. J., Arredondo, M. I., & Williams, N. T. (2014). More than a metaphor: The contribution of exclusionary discipline to a School-to-Prison Pipeline. Equity & Excellence in Education, 47(4), 546–564. https://doi.org/10.1080/10665684.2014.958965 |
|------------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:     |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:          |  |
| Variables:                   |  |
| Specific Security Measure:   |  |
| How is Security Measured?    |  |
| Data Source:                 |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:    |  |
| Results:                     |  |

# Abstract

The term and construct "school-to-prison" pipeline has been widely used by advocates, researchers, and policymakers to describe the relationship between school disciplinary practices and increased risk of juvenile justice contact. It has been unclear whether the construct is a useful heuristic or a descriptor of empirically validated relationships that establish school disciplinary practices as a risk factor for negative developmental outcomes, including juvenile justice involvement. In this article, we examine the literature surrounding one facet of the pipeline, school exclusion as a disciplinary option, and propose a model for tracing possible pathways of effect from school suspension and expulsion to the ultimate contact point of juvenile justice involvement. Available multivariate analyses suggest that regardless of demographic, achievement, or system status, out-of-school suspension and expulsion are in and of themselves risk factors for a range of negative developmental outcomes. Recommendations are offered to assist schools in replacing disciplinary exclusion with a range of alternatives whose goal is to preserve both school order and provide all students with educational opportunities.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE | Teske, Hon. Steven C. (December 12, 2012). Testimony before the Senate Subcommittee on the Constitution, Civil Rights, and Human Rights |            |
|------------------------------|---|------------|
| Article Title/Reference:     | Subcommittee hearing on "Ending the School to Prison Pipeline."   |            |
| Type of Study/Aims:          |   |            |
| Variables:                   | Outcomes  | Predictors |
|                              |   |            |
| Specific Security Measure:   | zero tolerance  |            |
| How is Security Measured?    |   |            |
| Data Source:                 |   |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:    |   |            |
|                              |   |            |

- Introduced a protocol in 2004 in Clayton County Georgia to reduce arrests, and develop alternatives to suspension and arrests, including assessment and treatment of chronically disruptive students.
- First agreement prohibited the filing of certain misdemeanor offenses
- Second agreement created multidisciplinary panel to assess the needs of disruptive students and treat them through system of care that connected all of the community providers.
- School Referral Reduction Protocol
  - Resulted in reduction of school-to-court referrals by 83%
  - School disruption decreased by 73%
  - Number of youth of color referred to court decreased by 43%
  - o Graduation rates increased 24%
  - Reduced probation caseloads from 150 to 25 per officer
  - o 70% decrease of number of kids in jail

### Recommendations:

- Amend No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act to encourage schools to seek alternatives when dealing with disruptive students other than referring them to the juvenile justics system.
- Amend the NCLB Act and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) to provide for Title I
  funding to develop alternatives to out-of-school suspensions, expulsions, and referrals to juvenile court,
  including training for law enforcement and school administrators on best practices for handling schoolrelated offenses.
- Amend NCLB Act and IDEA to mandate collaboration between schools, law enforcement, juvenile
  justice, prosecutors, and other relevant stakeholders to reduce the unnecessary referral of students to the
  juvenile justice system while simultaneously developing programs to improve retention, safety, and
  graduation rates.
- Reconsider the 1994 Gun Free Schools Act only as it relates to the automatic, one-year suspension of
  elementary age and some younger middle school students to allow local school districts to exempt those
  students where the evidence is clear and convincing that the student had no intent to use a weapon in an
  assault or to cause physical injury.
- Reauthorize Juvenile Justice Delinquency Prevention Act (JJDPA) and incentivize the reinvestment of detention dollars into effective community-based programs similar to the programs in Ohio, Illinois, Texas to include school and justice system programs to reduce school arrests.
- Strengthen the disproportionate minority contact core protection of the JJDPA to expressly require efforts, initiatives, and programs similar to Clayton County's model to reduce and eliminate racial and ethnic disparities in the referral of students to the juvenile court.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON PIPELINE  | Toldson, I. A. (2011). Breaking Barriers 2: Plotting the Path Away from Juvenile Detention                     |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
|                            | and toward Academic Success for School-age African American males. Washington,                                 |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   | D.C.: Congressional Black Caucus Foundation, Inc. Retrieved from:  |  |
|                            | www.cbcfinc.org/oUploadedFiles/BreakingBarriers2.pdf   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | 1) Develop strategies to reduce exclusionary disciplinary practices impeding black males.                      |  |
|                            | 2) Establish culturally relevant priorities for school-based, social skills training programs for black males. |  |
|                            | 3) Establish priorities and best practices to control gang-related activity in schools.                        |  |
|                            | 4) Explore the academic potential of black males in juvenile detention centers to reintegrate                  |  |
|                            | former youth detainees into mainstream schools.  |  |
|                            | 5. Examine youth experiences of school-age black males who sell drugs in order to promote                      |  |
|                            | higher participation in schools and reduce involvement in juvenile justice system.                             |  |
| Variables:                 |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |  |
| Data Source:               | 1) 4,164 black, white, Hispanic males (Monitoring the Future: A Continuing Study of American Youth)            |  |
|                            | 2) 6,490 black, Latino, and white males (Health Behavior in School-age Children Survey)                        |  |
|                            | 3) 12,532 students (National Crime Victimization Survey: School Crime Supplement)                              |  |
|                            | 4) 1,576 adolescents detained at a juvenile detention center   |  |
|                            | 5) 5,525 adolescent males (National Survey on Drug Use and Health)   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative   |  |

## Study 1:

- Black males receiving less disciplinary referrals had higher grades, more positive attitudes about school, more school engagement, lower levels of delinquency at school and less truancy.
  - · Outside of school, these males exhibited less hopelessness, more positive self-worth, less thrill-seeking behaviors, less aggression and delinquency, and more parental involvement.
- Among black, white, and Hispanic males, disengagement was the strongest predictor of disciplinary referrals.
  - · Disciplinary referrals are more associated with negative attitudes and dispositions about school than delinquency at school

### Study 2:

- Good academic performance was associated with fewer experiences with bullying, fighting, weapons use, and an overall feeling that the school is safe.
- Black male students were more likely than white students to feel unsafe in their neighborhood and have difficulty trusting and relying upon neighbors (lower achieving students felt more unsafe than high achieving students)

#### Study 3:

- Students in schools that had less problems with gang activity a) perceived the school as fair and the rules clear, b) felt that peers and adults are available to talk about problems, c) felt that teachers are caring, respectful and avoid putting students down, d) had access to classrooms that were free from distraction from misbehaving students and/or teachers disciplining students, and e) increased academic performance.
- Black students were generally less likely to perceive support in their school environment and more likely to experience unfairness from teachers
- Metal detectors, security guards, and student badges were associated with greater odds that gangs were present at school Study 4:
- High levels of self-esteem, future orientation, and family and community involvement, and low levels of depression, childhood trauma, and delinquent activity were associated with higher levels of academic potential for black male juvenile detainees.
- Family interaction and community activity improved grades for black youth detainees but not among white youth. Study 5:
- Youth were less likely to sell drugs when they a) had fewer drug users in their social circle, b) had parents who strongly disapproved, c) demonstrated a positive regard for school and better academic functioning, and d) were less involved in fighting or delinquent behaviors

- Counseling and mental health services at school would likely mitigate disciplinary referrals.
- Students learn best when they perceive their classmates to be supportive, accepting and agreeable; therefore facilitating these types of environments would likely lead to academic success.
- Mentoring and career counseling aid in the development of realistic career goals while also improving academic potential.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE | Welch, K., & Payne, A. (2010). Racial threat and punitive school discipline. <i>Social Problems</i> , 57(1), 25–48. doi:10.1525/sp.2010.57.1.25 |   |  |
|------------------------------|---|---|--|
| Article Title/Reference:     |   |   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:          | The first to test racial threat hypothe   | sis.                                    |  |
|                              | Schools with a higher proportion of   |   |  |
|                              |   | rols, such as detention and suspension. |  |
|                              | H2: more likely to implement zero to  | *                                       |  |
|                              | H3: more likely to use extreme punitive controls, such as expulsion and calling the police.   |   |  |
|                              | H4: less likely to use mild controls, such as parent-teacher conferences and sending students to the counselor                                  |   |  |
|                              | H5: less likely to implement restitutive practices, such as community service.  |   |  |
| Variables:                   | Outcomes  | Predictors                              |  |
|                              | Punitive disciplinary response  | Percent black students (racial          |  |
|                              | Zero tolerance  | threat)                                 |  |
|                              | Extreme punitive disciplinary   | Control variables                       |  |
|                              | response  |   |  |
|                              | Mild disciplinary response  |   |  |
|                              | Restitutive disciplinary response   |   |  |
| Specific Security Measure:   | Punishment  |   |  |
| How is Security Measured?    | Survey data   |   |  |
| Data Source:                 | 294 public schools as part of the National Study of Delinquency Prevention in Schools: Principal, Student, Teacher questionnaires.              |   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:    | Quantitative  |   |  |
| Decultor                     |   |   |  |

- Schools with a larger percentage of black students are:
  - o more likely to use punitive disciplinary responses
  - o more likely to implement extremely punitive discipline and zero tolerance policies
  - less likely to facilitate practices such as restitution and community service in response to misbehavior
  - o if there is less delinquency and drug use, extremely harsh discipline is more often implemented

## Notes:

Further investigation into the teachers working in these schools is warranted. It speaks to the potential mismatch of teacher and student cultural/social identities.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Wolf, K. C. (2013). Booking students: An analysis of school arrests and court |
|----------------------------|---|
| PIPELINE                   | outcomes. Northwestern Journal of Law & Social Policy, 9(1), 58-87.           |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |   |
| Variables:                 |   |
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| Specific Security Measure: |   |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |
| Data Source:               |   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |   |
| Results:                   |   |
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| Notes:                     |   |

#### **Abstract**

The fate of school discipline and security in America is at a crucial turning point. While the "school-to-prison pipeline" has recently received an increased amount of attention from policy makers interested in improving public education, the recent shooting at Sandy Hook Elementary School in Connecticut led to renewed calls for the heightened security measures that helped give rise to the pipeline. This article provides clear evidence that heightened disciplinary and security measures in schools are faulty policy responses, as they have adverse impacts on the students they intend to protect and siphon resources away from policies that more effectively ensure student safety and success. More specifically, the article analyzes a unique statewide database that contains all school arrests that occurred during a recent school year in Delaware, including individual-level variables such as age, race, gender, offense, adjudication result, and disposition result. The analysis reveals three troubling trends that have important policy implications. First, the use of arrests in response to student misbehavior has resulted in a great number of students being arrested for minor misbehaviors. Second, a highly disproportionate rate of black students faced arrests for their behavior in school, and female students seemed to experience differential treatment. Third, the juvenile justice system is forced to devote its scarce resources to processing a high volume of minor school arrests, a plurality of which lead to diversionary services that could have been offered directly through schools in a much more efficient manner.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Barnes, A.A. (2018). School to prison pipeline unmasked: Review of how the |
|----------------------------|--|
| PIPELINE – LONG-           | school to prison pipeline reinforces disproportionality in mass            |
| TERM OUTCOMES              | incarceration. Retrieved from CUNY Academic Works.                         |
| Article Title/Reference:   | https://academicworks.cuny.edu/gc_etds/2628                                |
| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
| Variables:                 |  |
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| Specific Security Measure: |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |
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Strict law and order policies, due to the War on Drugs, enacted in the 1970's have led to the mass incarceration that continues to plague communities of color. Simultaneously, zero tolerance policies in the nation's schools have helped to fuel the mass incarceration of people of color by ensuring that students of color are disproportionately disciplined via suspended or expelled, criminalized, and eventually funneled into prison. This paper analyzes how the School to Prison Pipeline reinforces the disproportionate incarceration of people of color by targeting students of color. It identifies the rise and implementation of zero tolerance policies in the nation's schools. Moreover, it explains how the use of propaganda was used to justify the deliberate targeting and criminalization of people of color, while simultaneously garnering funds and encouraging popular support for discriminatory practices when targeting poor communities of color. Additionally, it goes on to analyze how zero-tolerance policies have negatively impacted students of color. It explains an analysis of how zero tolerance policies, which was enacted to develop a more conducive learning environment, has instead, served as a conduit for students of color to be funneled into the criminal justice system; therefore, reinforcing the disproportionate incarceration of students of color. And lastly, it offers possible solutions such as restorative justice programs in schools or alternative vocational programs to help alleviate the discriminatory policies that funnel students of color onto a one-way path toward prison.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE – LONG-<br>TERM OUTCOMES | Bernburg, J. G., & Krohn, M. D. (2003). Labeling, life chances, and adult crime: The direct and indirect effects of official intervention in adolescence on crime in early adulthood. <i>Criminology</i> , 41(4), 1287-1318. |
|---|--|
| Article Title/Reference:                              |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:                                   |  |
| Variables:  |  |
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| Specific Security Measure:                            |  |
| How is Security Measured?                             |  |
| Data Source:  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                             |  |
| Results:  |  |
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| Notes:  |  |

Scholars have recently revitalized labeling theory as a developmental theory of structural disadvantage. According to this approach, official intervention increases the probability of involvement in subsequent delinquency and deviance because intervention triggers exclusionary processes that have negative consequences for conventional opportunities. The theory predicts that official intervention in adolescence increases involvement in crime in early adulthood due to the negative effect of intervention on educational attainment and employment. Using panel data on urban males that span early adolescence through early adulthood, we find considerable support for this revised labeling approach. Official intervention in youth has a significant, positive effect on crime in early adulthood, and this effect is partly mediated by life chances such as educational achievement and employment.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON            | Kupchik, A., & Catlaw, T. J. (2015). Discipline and participation: The long-term   |
|-----------------------------|--|
| PIPELINE – LONG-            | effects of suspension and school security on the political and civic engagement of |
| TERM OUTCOMES               | youth. Youth & Society, 47(1), 95-124.   |
| Article Title/Reference:    |  |
|                             |  |
|                             |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:         |  |
| Type of Study/Times.        |  |
| Variables:                  |  |
| variables.                  |  |
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| Specific Security Measure:  |  |
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| Data Source:                |  |
| Data Source.                |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:   |  |
| Quantitative/Quantative:    |  |
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| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE – LONG-<br>TERM OUTCOMES | Kupchik, A., & Monahan, T. (2006). The new American school: Preparation for post-industrial discipline. <i>British Journal of Sociology of Education</i> , 27(5), 617-631. |
|---|--|
| Article Title/Reference:                              |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:                                   |  |
| Variables:  |  |
| Specific Security Measure:                            |  |
| How is Security Measured?                             |  |
| Data Source:  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                             |  |
| Results:  |  |
| Notes:  |  |

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Liberman, A. M., Kirk, D. S., & Kim, K. (2014). Labeling effects of first juvenile |
|----------------------------|--|
| PIPELINE – LONG-           | arrests: Secondary deviance and secondary sanctioning. Criminology, 52(3), 345-    |
| TERM OUTCOMES              | 370.   |
| Article Title/Reference:   |  |
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| Type of Study/Aims:        |  |
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| Notes:                     |  |

A growing literature suggests that juvenile arrests perpetuate offending and increase the likelihood of future arrests. The effect on subsequent arrests is generally regarded as a product of the perpetuation of criminal offending. However, increased rearrest also may reflect differential law enforcement behavior. Using longitudinal data from the Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighborhoods (PHDCN) together with official arrest records, the current study estimates the effects of first arrests on both reoffending and rearrest. Propensity score methods were used to control differences between arrestees and nonarrestees and to minimize selection bias. Among 1,249 PHDCN youths, 58 individuals were first arrested during the study period; 43 of these arrestees were successfully matched to 126 control cases that were equivalent on a broad set of individual, family, peer, and neighborhood factors. We find that first arrests increased the likelihood of both subsequent offending and subsequent arrest, through separate processes. The effects on rearrest are substantially greater and are largely independent of the effects on reoffending, which suggests that labels trigger "secondary sanctioning" processes distinct from secondary deviance processes. Attempts to ameliorate deleterious labeling effects should include efforts to dampen their escalating punitive effects on societal responses.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON           | Lochner, L., & Moretti, E. (2004). The effect of education on crime: Evidence     |   |  |
|----------------------------|---|---|--|
| PIPELINE – LONG-           | from prison inmates, arrest, and self-reports. American Economic Review, 94(1),   |   |  |
| TERM OUTCOMES              | 155–189. https://doi.org/10.1257/000282804322970751                               |   |  |
| Article Title/Reference:   |   |   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Section I briefly discusses the channels through which education may affect       |   |  |
|                            | subsequent crime, arrests, and incarceration                                      |   |  |
|                            | Section II reports estimates of the impact of schooling on incarceration rates    |   |  |
|                            | (Census data)   |   |  |
|                            | Section III reports estimates of the impact of schooling on arrest rates (UCR     |   |  |
|                            | data)   |   |  |
|                            | Section IV uses NLSY data on self-reported crime and on incarceration to check    |   |  |
|                            | the robustness of UCR and Census-based estimates                                  |   |  |
|                            | Section V calculates the social savings from crime reduction associated with high |   |  |
|                            | school graduation   |   |  |
|                            | Section VI concludes  |   |  |
| Variables:                 | Age   | Year                                    |  |
|                            | State of birth  | State of residence                      |  |
|                            | Cohort of birth   | Race                                    |  |
|                            | Family background   | Ability                                 |  |
|                            | Local unemployment rates  | Adult crime (arrests and incarceration) |  |
|                            | Educational attainment  | Compulsory schooling ages               |  |
|                            | Number of policemen   | Police expenditures                     |  |
|                            | Per capita police expenditures  | Type of crime                           |  |
|                            | Victim costs per crime  | Property loss per crime                 |  |
|                            | Incarceration cost per crime  | Total cost per crime                    |  |
| Specific Security Measure: |   |   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |   |   |  |
| Data Source:               | • U.S. Census   |   |  |
|                            | FBI Uniform Crime Reports (UCR)   |   |  |
|                            | National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY)                                      |   |  |
|                            | U.S. Department of Justice  |   |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Quantitative  |   |  |
| Results:                   |   |   |  |

### **Abstract**

We estimate the effect of education on participation in criminal activity using changes in state compulsory schooling laws over time to account for the endogeneity of schooling decisions. Using Census and FBI data, we find that schooling significantly reduces the probability of incarceration and arrest. NLSY data indicate that our results are caused by changes in criminal behavior and not differences in the probability of arrest or incarceration conditional on crime. We estimate that the social savings from crime reduction associated with high school graduation (for men) is about 14–26 percent of the private return.

| SCHOOL TO PRISON<br>PIPELINE – LONG- | Wolf, K. C., & Kupchik, A. (2017). School suspensions and adverse experiences in adulthood. <i>Justice Quarterly</i> , <i>34</i> (3), 407-430.  |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| TERM OUTCOMES                        |   |
| Article Title/Reference:             |   |
| Type of Study/Aims:                  | Examination of the long-term outcomes of school suspension (e.g. victims of crime, depression or anxiety, drug use, involved in criminal activity, incarceration).                          |
| Variables:                           | Primary predictor variable: "ever suspended"  |
|                                      | Student-level Independent variables: demographics, previous drug use, parents' education level, education, delinquency  |
|                                      | School-level Independent variables: security measures, punishment, school type, class size, proportion non-white students   |
|                                      | Dependent variables: any victimization, depression or anxiety, any drug use, any crime, incarceration   |
| Specific Security Measure:           | Officer, Metal Detector, Surveillance Cameras, Anti-Gang Rules  |
| How is Security Measured?            | Presence of security or police during school hours, students walking through metal detectors to enter school building, whether the school has video cameras, certain gang colors prohibited |
| Data Source:                         | National Longitudinal Survey of Adolescent to Adult Health (Add Health)   |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:            | Quantitative  |
| Results                              |   |

- Suspension relates to significantly greater likelihood of victimization, criminal activity, and being incarcerated.
  - o Black students significantly more likely than white students
- Suspension relates to increased risk for anxiety, depression, and/or drug use.
- Officer presence relates to lower odds of victimization, drug use, or crime (contradicts other research)

- Exclusionary discipline has negative outcomes immediately and in adulthood.
- Limitations: analysis does not account for early childhood/developmental experiences that might account for negative outcomes.

| STUDENT RIGHTS            | Beger, R.R. (2002). Expansion of police power in public schools and the vanishing                                 |               |
|---------------------------|---|---------------|
| Article Title/Reference:  | rights of students. Social Justice, 29(1-2), 119-130.   |               |
| Type of Study/Aims:       | Examines law enforcement expansion in schools and the reduction of 4 <sup>th</sup> Amendment rights for students. |               |
| Variables:                | Outcomes  | Predictors    |
|                           | Rights limitations  | School police |
| Specific Security         | School police/security officers   |               |
| Measure:                  | Searches  |               |
|                           | Dog sniffs  |               |
| How is Security           |   |               |
| Measured?                 |   |               |
| Data Source:              |   |               |
| Quantitative/Qualitative: | Review  |               |
| 3.7                       |   |               |

- Courts are granting police and school officials more authority to conduct searches of students.
- Influx of police in public schools has shifted discipline and maintaining order away from teachers
- State lawmakers have dramatically increased penalties for crimes committed on school property
- "The personal indignity of forcing students to submit to a suspicionless canine search is something no adult would tolerate."
- Undercover sting operations create a climate of distrust and put innocent students at risk.
- Public school children can be searched *without* probable cause and then tried as an adult with the evidence from that search.

## Bibliographer's Comments:

Although this article is a little dated, it speaks to the increase in mistrust and dislike for police officers by adults, specifically people of color. Children and adolescents are not only impressionable but their worldviews are developed during this time in their lives. It is no wonder that individuals, likely those from high security schools, develop negative associations with police.

| STUDENT RIGHTS             | Bracy, N. L. (2010). Circumventing the law: \$  | Students' rights in schools with |  |
|----------------------------|---|----------------------------------|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | police. Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice, 26(3), 294-315.   |                                  |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Uses ethnographic methodology to examine how students' rights are negotiated in public high schools with full-time police presence.   |                                  |  |
|                            | Competing hypotheses:   |                                  |  |
|                            | <ul><li>H1: Schools operate as part of the larger American carceral state and that students' rights are trumped by security and punishment agendas.</li><li>H2: Schools are overly sensitive to students' rights primarily from fear of legal retribution, and that school discipline is hampered by hesitancy.</li></ul> |                                  |  |
|                            |   |                                  |  |
| Variables:                 | Outcomes  | Predictors                       |  |
|                            | student rights  | SRO                              |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | SROs  |                                  |  |
| How is Security Measured?  | observations of interactions with students throughout school day and various situations; documented routines and duties and how SROs described their missions at the school, interviews with staff, students, and teachers focusing on disciplinary and safety policies   |                                  |  |
| Data Source:               | two mid-Atlantic public high schools; ethnographic data from 2006-07 school year.   |                                  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative   |                                  |  |

- Student rights were not ignored, but addressed in a very calculated manner, likely not in the way the law intended.
- Schools and SROs proceed in ways that are usually legal but that evade some of the legal protections afforded to youth in schools.
  - The security-obsessed climate of public schools legitimizes student searches, based on unrelated, non-criminal rule violations.
  - O School administrators can question a student without advising him/her of his/her rights whereas school police cannot, in this study, SROs were present for questioning.
    - What students say in in the presence of a police officer can have more significant consequences than what is said to just a school official
  - Students regard their SRO as no different from a school administrator.
  - Information is shared between the school and justice system via the SRO and could result in the school and SRO teaming up against a student

- The boundary between the school and justice system blurs, and students are constantly surveilled as if they are dangerous criminals with little regard for their privacy rights.
- These practices are likely to exacerbate the school-to-prison pipeline.

| Article Title/Reference: Type of Study/Aims: | Original empirical analysis. H1: Low-income students an   |            |
|--|---|------------|
| Type of Study/Aims:                          |   |            |
|  | Original empirical analysis. H1: Low-income students and minority students are subjected to intense surveillance methods more often than other students after accounting for other predictors.  |            |
| Variables:                                   | Outcomes  | Predictors |
|  | strict security practices  Student demographics (% minority, % reduced/free lunch, % special ed, % low test scores, % low English proficiency Neighborhood crime School location School urbanicity School type Principals' perception of school crime School disorder |            |
| Specific Security Measure:                   | Metal detectors Random student checks Random sweeps for contraband Controlled access to school grounds during school hours Security cameras Security guards or other security personnel   |            |
| How is Security Measured?                    | Principals' yes or no responses to a series of questions related to use of specific security measures.  |            |
| Data Source:                                 | Restricted data from US Dept of Education's 2009-2010 School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS). 910 middle schools, 950 high schools, 110 combined schools   |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:                    | Quantitative  |            |

- The odds of using a combination of strict security practices increases as does the % minority students, after accounting for all other predictors.
- Odds of security practices were greater in schools with larger student populations.
- Schools in the South maintain a strong disciplinary approach in schools.
- Urban schools were more likely to use a combination of security practices.
- Parents more involved in efforts to create safe schools imposed combination of metal detectors, guards, and random sweeps in schools.
- The number of thefts in schools was negatively related to the combination of metal detectors and security guards.
- Low-income students and minority students are much more likely to experience intense security conditions in their schools.

- Strict security measures may exacerbate the underlying problems by creating barriers of adversity and mistrust between students and educators.
- "The primary mission of schools that serve low-income and minority students may "not [be] to educate, but ensure 'custody and control."
- Students on a "dead-end" educational path typically cause more problems, but schools often focus on maintaining order and discipline instead of meeting students where they are at or helping to discover alternative path. (Career/vocational counseling could be beneficial here)
- "it is the quality of relationships between staff and students and between staff and parents that most strongly defines safe schools."
- Recommendations:
  - O Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS)
  - o Restorative justice
  - O Improving strength and quality of classroom activities
  - o Creation of smaller schools
  - School initiatives to promote and develop emotional and social stability
  - O Cease providing grants and funding to schools for strict security measures
  - O Fund more research to study the harmful effects of strict security measures on students
  - O Dept. of Education's Office of Civil Rights should play a more active role in addressing the disproportionate use of strict security measures on minority students
- Schools that portray trust and belonging are those that encourage learning and make a real difference in the lives of their students.

| STUDENT RIGHTS             | Nance, J. P. (2014). School Surveillance and the Fourth Amendment.                   |  |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| Article Title/Reference:   | Wisconsin Law Review, 79, 80-137   |  |
| Type of Study/Aims:        | Presentation of recent empirical data regarding security and low-                    |  |
|                            | income/minority students. Proposes new framework for school                          |  |
|                            | surveillance and suspicionless search practices under the 4 <sup>th</sup> amendment. |  |
| Variables:                 |  |  |
|                            |  |  |
| Specific Security Measure: | Strict security measures   |  |
|                            | Searches   |  |
| How is Security Measured?  |  |  |
| Data Source:               |  |  |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  |  |  |

- Any student's expectation of privacy is violated when a school creates a prison-like environment in schools.
- 4<sup>th</sup> Amendment currently offers students almost no protection from random, suspicionless searches designed to deter school crime.
- According to the court, a warrant and probable cause do not suit the "informality of the student-teacher relationship."
  - "Conducting random, suspicionless searches promotes an environment that is antithetical to learning or
    does not promote the educational interests of the students"...and "strict security measures should only be
    used when they promote the educational interests of the students rather than as a first response to
    address school crime and disorder."
  - A modified 4th Amendment framework safeguards all student's rights in schools while acting as a key component to addressing the school-to-prison pipeline and creating quality educational experiences that most White students already receive.

Notes: "Students tend to follow rules when they believe those rules are fair and evenly applied."

This is likely true for all human beings.

| STUDENT RIGHTS / SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS Article Title/Reference: | Theriot, M.T., & Cuellar, M.J. (2016). School resource officers and students' rights. <i>Contemporary Justice Review</i> , 19(3), 363-379. DOI: 10.1080/10282580.2016.1181978          |            |
|--|--|------------|
| Type of Study/Aims:  | Review of students' rights, relevant literature on relationship between SROs and students, recommendations for creating positive and respectful connections between SROs and students. |            |
| Variables:   | Outcomes   | Predictors |
| Specific Security Measure:   | Violence prevention programs<br>SROs   |            |
| How is Security Measured?  | Review of available research.  |            |
| Data Source:   | Relevant literature  |            |
| Quantitative/Qualitative:  | Qualitative  |            |

Results: SROs who are aggressive or overly authoritative are likely to foster negative reactions, damage school climate, and create more anxiety and disorder among students.

SROs play an integral role in the "school-to-prison pipeline" in that they refer students to juvenile courts and this is happening more frequently. Deploying SROs in schools with high rates of minority students may inadvertently result in targeting these populations and increased arrest rates of those groups.

It is recommended that school personnel should play integral role in selection of SROs and training. This includes specific guidelines and documentation as to how disruptive students should be handled (i.e. handling disciplinary issues differently than criminal behaviors in order to reduce law enforcement intervention).

The following recommendations are suggested:

- 1. Extensive training for SROs and school administrators (including rights, development, positive behavioral interventions, cultural competence, peer mediation, etc.)
- 2. Formal documents should be created to address/divide roles and responsibilities
- 3. Frequent opportunities for communication between SROs and school officials
- 4. A commitment to protect students' rights
- 5. Respectful, positive, nonthreatening interactions among students, SROs, teachers, and school staff.

Notes: The presentation of students' rights and cultural competence are mentioned here and these concepts are not largely considered in other articles.

This literature speaks to benefit of a standardized set of principles that must be put forth in terms of SRO programs. At this point, there must be enough research to speak to what works and what does not in order to make educated decisions regarding universal necessities/requirements for programs, especially in public schools.