

EXAMINING THE USE OF FULL-TIME POLICE IN SCHOOLS: HOW ROLES AND
TRAINING MAY IMPACT RESPONSES TO MISCONDUCT

by

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ABSTRACT

The use of full-time police in schools has expanded considerably since their first entry in the 1950s. There is also a growing perception that the presence of police officers, coupled with arguably overly-punitive discipline practices, have resulted in negative outcomes for students. Arguably, the inherent role conflict (of enforcer and protector) that is ever-present in policing is further exacerbated in the school environment due to the conflicting cultures of law enforcement and education. The purpose of this study is to thoroughly examine how the roles and training of school-based officers impact their responses to student misconduct. Data was collected via an online survey distributed to a non-probability sample of commissioned law enforcement officers currently working in Texas schools. Follow-up qualitative interviews were also conducted with a sample of officers who completed the online survey. Data collected was used to assess the various roles officers have in the school setting, the training they received to support these roles, and their responses to student misconduct. This examination sheds light on the impact officers are having on school discipline in one state. Findings contribute to the national discussion of the so-called school-to-prison pipeline which refers to how school discipline may lead to formal criminal justice involvement.

I. INTRODUCTION

On November 20, 2013, two sheriff's deputies in Texas were serving as school resource officers at a local high school. They received and responded to a call for a fight between two girls in one of the school hallways. When they responded, the officers reported that a 17-year-old male student was not cooperating and not complying with their directions. One of the officers, in an attempt to gain control of the situation, used a Taser on this male student. Witnesses of the incident stated the male student was not interfering with the officers' duties. When the officer used the Taser, it caused the male student to fall backwards and hit his head. Paramedics were called and the student was flown by helicopter to a nearby hospital. The student incurred injuries that put him in a coma for more than 50 days (McLaughlin, 2014). After coming out of the coma, the young man has since entered a full-time rehabilitation center for brain injuries he sustained during the incident.

Following the incident, the officer's actions were heavily criticized in the media. Multimillion dollar law suits were filed against both the school district and sheriff's department. The county settled with the family for \$775,000, while the case against the school district is still pending (NBC-KXAN, 2014). Additionally, civil rights and other public interest groups called for a ban of the use of Tasers in schools (Pinkerton, 2013). However, a grand-jury declined to issue any indictments following the incident and the sheriff confirmed that the officers acted within department policy and no discipline would be imposed (Plohetski, 2014).

Unfortunately, this incident exemplifies a growing trend of full-time law enforcement officers working in schools who are asked to balance the enforcement ethos of law enforcement and the characteristics of a school environment. As the sheriff, as

well as many law enforcement interest groups, stated following the incident, the officer was acting within policy and in a way that would be legitimate on the street. Typical street patrol officers are faced with an array of unknowns, often without backup nearby, and with a legitimate belief that the use of force is sometimes necessary to control situations. In a school setting, however, some of these standard assumptions under which street officers operate are problematic. Because almost all decisions made by law enforcement officers are influenced by the role they see themselves fulfilling and the training they have received, it is important to undertake a careful analysis of them.

The Present Study

The objective of this dissertation is to better understand the roles and training of officers working in the school environment and how these factors influence officer responses to student misconduct. Specifically, this research is based on self-reported survey data gathered from a non-probability sample of full-time police officers permanently assigned to work in Texas schools. Additionally, from those officers that participated in the online quantitative questionnaire, a sample was solicited to participate in a follow-up qualitative interview. By combining these methodologies, this study aimed to take advantage of the benefits associated with each while addressing the limitations of each method. Three primary research questions guided this research:

1) *What are the predominant roles of commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment and their correlates (sex, age, race, years in law enforcement, grade-level served, geographical area of the campus, and percentage of students receiving free/reduced lunch)?*

2) *What types of training do commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment receive and what factors correlate with specific types of training?*

3) *What are the common responses to student misconduct used by commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment, and how do an officer's role and/or prior training affect their response?*

This dissertation is presented in the following manner. Chapter I (the current chapter) provides a brief overview of the literature associated with this research as well as the need for the research. The topics and issues discussed in Chapter I will be greatly expanded in Chapter II, which provides a comprehensive overview of the literature pertaining to role conflict in policing, the use of police in schools, and the current discipline environment of schools, including the school-to-prison pipeline. Chapter III provides a discussion of the methodology including research questions, the target population and sample, data collection and instrumentation, the conceptualization and operationalization of the variables and measures of this study, and the procedures for conducting this research.

Chapters IV (quantitative) and V (qualitative) presents findings. Univariate, bivariate, and multivariate statistics were conducted as well as a thematic analysis to analyze the data and answer the research questions. Specifically, univariate and bivariate statistics were used to assess the roles of officers in the school environment, including the roles they think they have, the roles they think others in this setting think they have, and who establishes their roles as well as the training that these officers have received. Correlations between roles and training and how officers respond to student misconduct was also assessed using a factorial survey and multivariate analysis. The thematic

analysis of the interview data was used to re-inforce, re-inform, and re-construct the larger issues associated with the use of full-time police in schools. Chapter VI consists of a discussion of the findings, including policy implications and limitations, and Chapter VII offers concluding remarks related to the importance of these findings given the prior literature.

Role Conflict in Policing

Questions concerning the role of police officers in schools must be situated within the larger context of policing; therefore, the literature review in Chapter II first details the role conflict found in policing generally. This includes examining the history of policing, the roles of the police in the community, and how these roles have led to an inherent role conflict in the profession of policing. Specifically, throughout the 1800s, the police were seen as public servants engaged in such social service actions as running soup kitchens and providing a place to stay for the indigent population (Kappeler, Sluder, & Alpert, 1984). However, they were also expected to serve as a social control mechanism for the rich and powerful by using violence and corruption to control the less fortunate (Crank, 2003; Donner, 1992).

It was not until the 1920s that the policing profession shifted to a more professional approach that changed the role of the police to be objective crime fighters for the community rather than part of the political machine of the municipality. This crime fighting role was adopted by and became the dominant identity of policing through much of the 1900s even though the actual activities of police officers was disproportionately categorized as “order maintenance” (meaning resolving interpersonal disputes) rather than crime fighting (Rowe, 2008). The community-oriented policing

movement in the 1990s called for the development of relationships between law enforcement officers and community leaders to solve local problems, including crime (National Institute of Justice, 1992). The shift from crime fighter back to public servant was short lived, however, as the 9/11 terrorist attacks almost overnight pushed the main focus of the police back to crime fighters as they were now expected to perform counter-terrorism and immigration control related activities (Brown, 2007; Murray, 2005).

This history of policing highlights the two main roles of police in the community: crime fighter and public servant (Pollock, 2016). Herbert Packer (1968) began to detail the different roles of the police as he juxtaposed his “crime control model” with the “due process model” of policing. Although the crime control model of policing is analogous to the crime fighter role, Packer’s due process model differs slightly from Pollock’s public servant role of the police. That is, Pollock’s public servant role expanded this idea to include various forms of public service, not just adhering to the law at decision points. A more recent illustration of the conflicting roles of the police is the “warrior versus the guardian” discussion of policing currently underway. The warrior mindset is somewhat analogous to a crime control model where law enforcement officers are soldiers engaged in a battle against criminals. The guardian mindset is to some extent analogous to Packer’s (1968) due process model in that the police are seen as the “protector of citizens and democratic values” as well as Pollock’s public servant model in the sense that officers are in service to the public good (Pollock, 2016; Rahr and Rice, 2015).

The two primary roles of police -- crime fighting and public service -- are, at times, in conflict with one another. Officers must make many decisions in a typical day and, because of the large amount of discretion officers have, there is considerable

variation in how individual police officers view their role and act out the duties associated with these roles. The role conflict described above is perhaps even more pervasive in school-based policing because of the multitude of roles and duties that school-based officers have, the lack of training in many of these areas, and the intersection of two distinct cultures (policing and education). This dissertation will explore the possibility that the role conflict that is inherent to policing generally is further exacerbated in the school environment. Furthermore, this conflict may be a factor in the widely publicized negative outcomes of school discipline (e.g., the school-to-prison pipeline).

The History, Roles, and Training of Law Enforcement in Schools

The literature review in Chapter II then examines the history of the roles of officers working in the school environment and the training they receive to support these roles. Although the full-time use of law enforcement in schools became commonplace in the 1990s, the first occurrence of a law enforcement officer in the school environment on a regular basis was in the 1950s in Flint, Michigan (see generally, Coon & Travis, 2012; Cray & Weiler, 2011; Patterson, 2007; Weiler & Cray, 2011). The goal of this early program was to use full-time law enforcement officers in the school environment to act as a deterrent to prevent crime before it happened. After initial success, school districts in other states followed with similar programs that placed full-time law enforcement officers in the school setting. The presence of law enforcement officers in schools expanded in the early 1960s when a police chief in Florida was credited with titling officers placed in schools as School Resource Officers (SROs) (Coon & Travis, 2012; Weiler & Cray, 2011). Since that time, SRO has been the predominant title for a broad range of officers working in a school setting.

The focus of many of these early programs was predominately safety and security, accomplished through traditional law enforcement tactics such as patrol and investigation. However, in the 1980s, policing in schools was reformed to include an educational component (Rosenbaum, Flewelling, Bailey, Ringwalt, & Wilkinson, 1994). This new role mirrored that of a traditional educator, and was connected with the rapid development of school-based drug prevention programs. These programs emerged in the late 1980s and expanded in the 1990s as a result of the Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act passed in 1986, which provided federal funds through grants to local education agencies (Rosenbaum et al., 1994). These programs often created an increased need for more full-time officers in the school environment to deliver such programs.

By the 1990s, a second spike occurred in the use of full-time law enforcement officers in the school environment. The tragic events at Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado, as well as the general perception that youth violence was “out of control” led to the increased “need” for more full-time law enforcement officers in schools.

The federal government responded to such pressure by increasing funding to support placing law enforcement officers in schools for the purpose of increasing safety (Patterson, 2007; United States Department of Justice, Community Oriented Policing Services, 2014). Specifically, two federal initiatives led to the increased funding to support the implementation of full-time law enforcement officers in schools:

- 1) the initiation of Public Safety Partnership and Community Policing Act (42 USC § 3796dd), and
- 2) the passing of the Safe Schools Act of 1994 (20 USC §5961).

These pieces of legislation and subsequent funding streams drastically increased the number of law enforcement officers working in schools. Since its inception in the 1950s, the use of full-time police officers in schools has steadily increased, however, the development of defined roles and structures aimed at a successful integration of law enforcement and education has not necessarily followed.

The most documented and studied model for integrating full-time law enforcement officers into the school environment is referred to as the triad model. Under this model, officers have three predominant roles: 1) enforcement, 2) education, and 3) mentoring (Kennedy, 2001). Specifically, enforcement refers to crime prevention, law/discipline application, and/or the apprehension of violators; education refers to the officer teaching students, as would a classroom teacher, on a variety of topics related to crime and the law; and, mentoring refers to officers providing assistance to students and their families with law-related issues. Although the triad approach has been the dominant model for implementing full-time law enforcement officers into the educational setting, there is evidence to support that the model is changing to some degree. Specifically, research has suggested there are additional roles full-time law enforcement officers may have in schools. Certainly the role(s) of officers working in schools must be identified and discussed prior to implementation (Kim and Geronimo, 2010).

The “use of full-time law enforcement officers in the school environment” began with the School Resource Officer (SRO) model. In the SRO model, officers are employed by the local city/county law enforcement agency and “loaned” to the school district or campus (Coon & Travis, 2012). A more modern integration of law enforcement into the educational environment is the use of School-Based Law Enforcement (SBLE) officers,

who are employed by a school district directly. Although these terms are often used synonymously (i.e., SROs and SBLEs), there are some clear differences that are important to note.

SBLE officers are commissioned peace officers just as traditional SROs are; however, an SBLE officer is employed by the school district. Therefore, the major distinction between the two types of officers working in the school environments comes down to organizational structure. In the traditional SRO approach, there is a contract of some sort between the school district or campus and the local police agency to provide daily law enforcement services (beyond responding to calls for service). The contract usually stipulates the number of officers that will be made available to the district and other details of their “loaned” services including what functions they will fulfill for the district. When school is not in session, these officers may return to their normal function under the police department (e.g., patrolling the community) or continue to serve the district in some other capacity. Additionally, SROs typically fall under the police agency’s chain of command, and do not fit into the school district’s organizational structure. That is, they report directly to their senior officer and not a school administrator.

In contrast, SBLE officers are employed by a school district, typically as part of a stand-alone school-based police department. These departments follow the traditional organizational structure of a police department, but are ultimately accountable to the school district superintendent, board of trustees, and/or their designees. Although still a new approach, the use of SBLE officers under a school district police department is becoming more common. For instance, Texas has approximately 180 stand-alone school

district police departments across the state (Texas Commission on Law Enforcement, 2015). Across the country, rural and suburban school districts as well as large urban districts such as Los Angeles Unified School District and Miami-Dade County Schools have adopted their own school-based police departments.

In recognition of the different expectations of SROs/SBLEs when compared to officers working in the community, research has concluded that the success of policing in schools is dependent upon the training received by these officers (Buckley, Gann, & Thurau, 2013; James & McCallion, 2013). However, research has shown that SROs/SBLEs receive little if any training beyond the traditional police academy, or such training is delayed, maybe months or years, after the officer has begun working in a school setting. There is a need to better understand how role perception and training impact an officer's job duties. The role conflict that is inherent to policing more generally is likely further exacerbated by the conflicting and expanding roles SROs/SBLEs have in schools and the lack of specialized training to support these roles.

Ultimately, the presence of law enforcement officers in schools emerged from the crime trends in the late 1980s and early 1990s that showed an increase in involvement by juveniles in crime, especially violent crimes (Cook & Laub, 1998; DiIulio, 1995). Arguably, these trends and public fear resulted in policies, procedures, and strategies that have ultimately made the school environment more punitive. Although well intended, the use of full-time police in schools, coupled with other punitive discipline approaches have potentially resulted in negative outcomes for students. Arguably, the inherent role conflict of policing is further exacerbated in the school environment due to the conflicting cultures of law enforcement and education.

Law Enforcement and the School-to-Prison Pipeline

The literature review in Chapter II details the school-to-prison pipeline (STPP), including evidence of its existence, its impact on students, and how it is currently being addressed. Specific focus is given to how law enforcement officers in the school environment may influence the over-use of legal responses to student misbehavior that is said to contribute to the STPP. The expanding numbers of and expansion of roles for SROs/SBLEs has arguably led to over-reliance by educators on law enforcement and the formal criminal justice system for school problems (Dohrn, 2001; Fowler, Lightsey, Monger, & Aseltine, 2010; Theriot, 2009). Behavior problems that were once the responsibility of educators have arguably now been shifted to the SROs/SBLEs, who often do not have the training needed to address the underlying issues responsible for the misbehavior of students (Dohrn, 2001; Theriot, 2009).

This punitive discipline environment, including the use of SROs/SBLEs and the legal system, is now commonly associated with the school-to-prison pipeline (STPP) trajectory, which refers to the policies and strategies that remove students (e.g., police), especially those most at-risk, from the school setting, placing them into the juvenile justice system. Suspension seems to be correlated with a higher risk of future incarceration (American Civil Liberties Union, 2012; Fowler, 2011; Meiners, 2011; Wald & Losen, 2003). Although this growing trend has been highlighted nationally, much of the research and focus on the STPP has taken place in the state of Texas.

As a result of anecdotes from across the state and statistics that illustrate students being punished by legal means and exclusionary discipline practices for relatively minor misbehavior or offenses, the Texas Legislature ultimately responded by passing Senate

Bill 393 in 2013. This legislation limited the ability of Texas law enforcement officers working in schools to write class C misdemeanor citations and prosecute students for these actions. Class C misdemeanor offenses include mutual combat (i.e., fighting with no serious injury where both students were acting as aggressors), disrupting class (e.g., speaking out of turn, being disrespectful to a student or teacher, using foul language), disrupting transportation (e.g., not obeying instructions from a bus driver/monitor, not sitting in your seat), and minor damage of property. Many of these offenses are usually charged under the broader category of “disorderly conduct”. Prior to SB 393, if a student committed one of these offenses, they would receive a class C citation from an officer working in their school. That student would then have to appear in the municipal court to answer on those charges. The student could be fined up to \$500 if found guilty. If the student or family could not pay the fine, additional fines or more serious punishment would often follow. Although students can be charged with class C misdemeanors outside school, this new legislation applies only to children (between the ages of 10 and 17) who commit misdemeanor offenses on school property.

After SB393 went into effect, officers could not simply issue class C misdemeanor citations to students committing such behaviors. Rather, officers must now use a graduated sanctions approach (if the district has adopted one), or if and when the behavior warrants it, file a class C misdemeanor complaint directly with the local court (if the school has not adopted a graduated-sanctions program). The graduated sanctions program allows students to complete alternative sanctions (e.g., complete community service or receive tutoring) rather than pay court-related costs. If the child fails to adhere to the graduated sanctions, the school may then proceed with filing the class C

misdemeanor complaint with a criminal court. The court then decides whether or not to issue a class C misdemeanor citation with the appropriate subsequent punishment (not the officer). That is, rather than the officer deciding to write the student a ticket, they must file a complaint with the court, which is essentially a request for a citation if the court decides to issue one. Initial data from the Texas Office of the Court Administrator (2014) shows that education code violations (e.g., disruption of class or transportation) handled by issuing a legal citation were down by over 82 percent from 2013 to 2014 and penal code (e.g., fighting) violations were down by almost 14 percent.

The state of Texas is an ideal location for this research study as it has been a leader in the use of full-time law enforcement officers in the school environment for much of the 2000s, as well as the site of the first school-to-prison pipeline research. Although reform efforts are underway in Texas, and around the country to address the various factors that are said to contribute to the pipeline, the use SROs/SBLEs remains a focus in terms of contributing factors to the STPP. Researchers have suggested that the mere presence of these officers creates an environment that is not conducive to education, and inevitably leads to more arrests, ticketing, suspensions, and expulsions, which facilitates this pipeline to prison (Dohrn, 2002; Meiners, 2011). Although the identified relationship is correlational, researchers have suggested the presence of a causal relationship between the increased use of punitive discipline practices and the presence of SROs/SBLEs. These conclusions have generated an overwhelming amount of concern among educators, parents, researchers, and policymakers regarding the use and effectiveness of full-time police in schools (Dohrn, 2002; Kupchik, 2010; Meiners, 2011; Price, 2009; Theriot, 2009).

Statement of the Problem and Conceptual Framework

Although prior literature has highlighted evidence to support the existence of the STPP, it remains unclear what impact SROs/SBLEs have on this phenomenon. That is, prior research fails to examine the law enforcement role without controlling for other variables that could potentially affect the STPP. For example, the roles SROs/SBLEs are given (e.g., enforcement, education, and/or mentor), often by or in conjunction with school administrators, likely impacts their actions (e.g., arrest, educate, and/or counsel) when called to an incident. Additionally, the training SROs/SBLEs receive to support their different roles in the school environment also likely have an impact on how they respond to student misconduct. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to more thoroughly examine how their roles and training impact their responses to student misconduct, which, in turn, may affect the STPP. This examination will not provide findings on the STPP directly; however, examining officer roles, training, and responses to student actions will shed greater light on how officers employ legal versus other responses to student misbehavior, thus affecting the STPP; and, discussion from these findings will include how the pipeline might be effectively addressed (i.e., clarifying roles and providing specialized training for these roles).

Role theory will be used as the guiding framework for this examination. Role theory states that our daily activities are the acting out of socially defined categories (Biddle, 1986; Burt 1982). Therefore, individuals are expected to act in predictable ways that are in line with their socially defined categories. Although theorists differ slightly on the definition and assumptions surrounding the concept of a role, most agree that it is expectations that generate a certain role (Biddle, 1986). These expectations are learned through training and experience, and serve as the guiding mechanism for that role in

society. In an effort to identify specific roles, two common techniques exist: 1) asking subjects to report their own expectations for their roles and 2) asking subjects about other's expectations of their roles (Mead, 1934).

Therefore, in this study, officers currently working in the school environment will be asked to indicate how often they engage in certain actions and how often they believe others working in the school environment think they should engage in the same set of actions (i.e., others' expectations of their roles). The former will be referred to as "actual roles" as these actions are what officers actually do, thus represent the acting out of specifically defined roles. The latter will be referred to as "others' expected roles" in that these are the officers' perceptions of what others in the same environment think they should be doing. Both methods for examining roles will be used in an effort to assess role consensus and role conflict.

Role consensus is the idea that those in the same social system agree on the expectations of specific roles (Kolb, 1964), whereas role conflict is disagreement among individuals (i.e., low consensus) regarding the expectations of a specific role (Biddle, 1986). Examining each of these concepts in terms of what officers actually do and what they believe others think they should do will provide greater insight into how roles and expectations of officers may influence their actual behavior (i.e., how they respond to student misconduct), which is an important piece of the STPP trajectory.

The literature review presented in Chapter II provides a comprehensive review of the literature briefly touched on above. Specifically,

- the role conflict inherent to policing;
- the roles, training, and enhanced conflict for SROs/SBLEs;

- the STPP and how law enforcement officers are said to influence a piece of this trajectory
- crime, victimization, and disorder in schools and the responses to these incidents in the school environment;
- the entry and expansion of SROs/SBLEs;
- a potential explanation for the reasons why school-based officers may be contributing to the STPP relating to their potential conflict; and
- role theory as a theoretical framework for examining the roles, training, and responses to student misconduct of SROs/SBLEs.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review first provides an overview of the role conflict found in policing generally by taking a brief look at the history of policing, the predominant roles of the police in the community, and how role conflict has manifested in the profession of policing. Next, the roles of officers working in the school environment and the training they receive (or do not receive) to support expanding and evolving roles is presented. The STPP is presented and discussed as a potential outcome of this enhanced role conflict that officers experience in the school environment.

Subsequently, an in-depth look at school crime, victimization, and disorder trends over the last two decades is presented as important contextual information needed to understand the use of full-time police in schools and the current state of school discipline. There will be a discussion of the use of zero-tolerance policies and the wide-scale introduction of SROs/SBLEs as the predominant mechanisms to address the crime problem in schools. The entry and expansion of SROs/SBLEs in schools is next discussed at length. Information relevant to a potential connection between the increased use of SROs/SBLEs and the increased use of legal and exclusionary responses to student misconduct is presented.

Role Conflict in Policing

In order to identify the existence and sources of role conflict in law enforcement, and more specifically in school-based law enforcement, it is necessary to take a brief look at the history of policing. Initially, and throughout the 1800s, policing encompassed social service actions such as running soup kitchens and providing a place to stay for the indigent population. (Kappeler, Sluder, & Alpert, 1984). However, simultaneously, they

were also expected to serve as a social control mechanism. They were often seen and expected to be the force for those that held power, often using violence and engaging in corruption targeted at immigrants and the poor (Crank, 2003; Donner, 1992). In the 1920s policing experienced a shift in philosophy toward a more “professional” approach. The shift was the result of the negative image of police as enforcers for the rich and powerful, rather than objective law enforcers for the community. The move toward professionalism resulted in the emphasis on a crime fighter role, while deemphasizing the public servant role in the community (Crank & Caldero, 2000/2005).

The focus on crime fighting as the main role of police carried through much of the 1900s. “Broken windows” policing emerged in the 1980s and sought to address small disorder issues before they became larger crime problems by delivering punitive sanctions for even trivial offenses. This proactive and punitive approach to crime continued through the 1980s and into the 1990s as police became the main agents responsible for carrying out the “war on drugs”.

However, the public servant role of the police reemerged in the late 1990s and into the early-2000s with the community-oriented policing movement (Pollock, 2016). Generally, this movement called for the development of relationships between law enforcement officers and community leaders to solve local problems (National Institute of Justice, 1992). Law enforcement officers were expected to clean up neighborhoods, meet regularly with citizens to discuss community issues, and organize youth programs as ways of addressing crime and other social issues. The general feeling among law enforcement officers at this time was that they were trading in the crime fighter role to become glorified social workers (Pollock, 2016). The shift from crime fighter back to

public servant was short-lived however. The 9/11 terrorist attacks almost overnight shifted the main focus of the police back to crime fighters as they were now expected to perform counter-terrorism and immigration control related activities (Brown, 2007; Murray, 2005). Although some aspects of community-oriented policing remain today, the crime fighter role has been the predominant one for policing since 9/11. Many have argued that the police are becoming “militarized” as police departments are acquiring military equipment, such as assault rifles and flash grenades, and using military tactics as they fight crime and engage the citizenry (Balko, 2013a; Balko 2013b). More recently, there has been another cyclical shift. “Guardian” policing as opposed to “warrior policing” has emerged in national conversations on policing in the wake of the Black Lives Matter movement and the Ferguson report (Pollock, Helfgott, Atherley & Vinson, 2016).

The Predominant Roles of the Police

It is clear that throughout the history of policing, aspects of both a crime fighter role as well as a public service role have been present. Herbert Packer (1968) began to detail the different roles of the police as he juxtaposed the “crime control model” with the “due process model” of policing. Specifically, the crime control model sees police as soldiers in the war against crime, and criminals are the enemy (e.g., us against them). The most important function of the police under this model is to quickly and effectively suppress crime by all means necessary. This model is analogous to what others have termed a crime fighter role (Pollock, 2016).

Packer contrasted the crime control model with the due process model of policing where all citizens are thought to deserve the protection of the police and the rights

provided by the Constitution. Pollock (2016) distinguished Packer's due process model from one she called a "public servant role". The original due process model recognized that police officers must adhere to the law with attention paid to due process protections at every step in the process, whereas the public servant role of the police is more service-oriented with an expanded role. That is, a public servant role presumes that criminals are not so different from us, police should serve everyone (including those that are not as supportive of them) with civility and legality, and the police actually have limited ability to influence crime rates (in either direction) as it is a complex social phenomenon. The police therefore are not just crime fighters in this model, but rather keepers of peace and service providers for all citizens (Pollock, 2016).

A more contemporary illustration of these conflicting roles has been centered on the idea of the "warrior versus the guardian" mindset of policing. The warrior mindset is somewhat analogous to a crime control model where law enforcement officers are soldiers engaged in a battle against criminals (Pollock, 2016; Rahr and Rice, 2015). The warrior mindset was first used to refer to the attitude and tenacity that officers must have to overcome potential life-threatening situations that are inherent to police work (Stoughton, 2015). This mindset is instilled in officers from the day they start the academy and throughout their careers (Stoughton, 2015; Van Brocklin, 2015). They are socialized through training to be suspicious of citizens, wary of danger, and ready to respond to a threat with little or no notice. It is made clear to officers that their primary objective is to go home each and every night, despite the dangerous communities and citizens they will interact with. They are, in a sense, trained to be suspicious of the

general public, which causes them to be vigilant, cautious, and alert at all times (Stoughton, 2015).

Proponents of this mindset believe that having such attitudes is critical to officer safety, and many believe that the idea of the “warrior” started with all of the best intentions (Stoughton, 2015; Van Brocklin, 2015). However, opponents acknowledge that the adoption of such a mindset has had unintended consequences such as unnecessary violence and poor police-community relations (Stoughton, 2015; Van Brocklin, 2015). Rather than the warrior mindset only taking over in the most dangerous of situations, it is present in every aspect of policing. Officers therefore treat every citizen and every encounter as a potential threat to their safety (Stoughton, 2015). They are conditioned through training and socialization to expect the worst in every encounter with the community; however, despite recent horrific attacks on police, such as the killing of five officers in Dallas and three in Baton Rouge, police encounters very rarely include violence (Van Brocklin, 2015). For instance, it has been estimated that approximately 90 percent of police work is service related, while only 10 percent is actual crime fighting (Van Brocklin, 2015).

In contrast to the warrior mindset is that of the guardian. The guardian mindset is to some extent analogous to Packer’s (1968) due process model in that the police are seen as the “protector of citizens and democratic values” and Pollock’s public servant role since it emphasizes service rather than being in conflict with the citizenry. The guardian mindset includes interacting with community members in fair, respectful, and considerate ways until they give cause to treat them otherwise (Pollock, 2016; Rahr and Rice, 2015; Stoughton, 2015). In police-citizen interactions, qualities such as communication,

cooperation, and legitimacy are thought to be more often desirable than command, compliance, and authority. Officers working under a guardian mindset are likely to have many more non-enforcement contacts with citizens and utilize de-escalation techniques to resolve confrontational situations in an effort to establish meaningful relationships with citizens (Stoughton, 2015).

Proponents of the guardian mindset argue that having such a mindset actually makes law enforcement officers safer (Stoughton, 2015). For instance, having a warrior mindset may make law enforcement officers less safe because it creates situations of avoidable violence, and any time there is violence, an officer is less safe. That is, an aggressive approach to a citizen encounter where it is not warranted can create tension and actually escalate the interaction and make the situation more dangerous for that officer. Additionally, having a warrior mindset can lead to tension and distrust on behalf of the citizens, which can lead to a lack of cooperation that ultimately makes policing more dangerous (Van Brocklin, 2015). In other words, the warrior mindset creates a barrier to the actions inherent to good community policing, while the guardian approach emphasizes good community relations with a recognition that sometimes force must be used (Rahr and Rice, 2015).

The Manifestation of Role Conflict

It is clear that both Packer's (1968) juxtaposition of the crime control and due process models, and the more contemporary debate over the "warrior versus the guardian" mindset illustrate the conflicting roles of law enforcement officers. These conflicting roles are combined with a great deal of discretion on the part of individual officers. Discretion is the authority officers have to choose between two or more courses

of behavior (Pollock, 2016). Discretion allows officers to make decisions based on how they view their roles and duties (i.e., responsibilities attached to a specific role). There are many decisions that an officer must make in a typical day (some minor and some major) and there is likely considerable variation in how individual police officers view their role and act out the duties associated with these roles.

Contradictory missions (e.g. public service and crime fighting) lead to contradictory roles (public servant, crime fighter) that can make decision making difficult in certain situations. For example, an officer is called to a local grocery store for a mother who was caught shoplifting diapers and baby formula. Does the officer write the mother a class C ticket (theft under \$50), arrest her for theft, or help her find social service resources (e.g., welfare program, job skills training, addiction treatment) so that she can care for her children? Or some combination of these three responses? Similarly, an officer pulls a man over who is drifting from lane to lane on the interstate. The officer approaches the vehicle to find out that it is a young man driving to see his sick mother after working three overnight shifts just so he could afford to make the drive. Does the officer write a ticket for the man's poor driving or help him find a hotel room for the night? Or both? These situations, among others, illustrate the multitude of decisions that officers must make, which often center on their contradictory roles of public servant and crime fighter.

The role conflict that is present in policing generally is perhaps even more pervasive in school-based policing considering the multitude of roles that school-based officers have. It is possible that this enhanced role conflict may be responsible for some

of the negative outcomes (e.g., the school-to-prison pipeline) that are being attributed to the use of police in schools.

Role Conflict for SROs/SBLEs

An abundance of research has focused on highlighting and assessing implementation models, including the roles, and the duties of SROs/SBLEs (Clark, 2011; Coon & Travis, 2012; Finn, Shively, McDevitt, Lassiter, & Rich, 2005; Kennedy, 2001; McDaniel, 2001). The most documented and studied model for integrating law enforcement officers into the school environment is referred to as the triad model. Under this model, officers have three predominant roles: 1) enforcement, 2) education, and 3) mentoring (Kennedy, 2001).

In this model, enforcement refers to crime prevention, law/discipline application, and/or the apprehension of violators. These activities are typically achieved through the patrolling of school grounds, the investigation of complaints and incidents, addressing students who engage in misconduct, and generally ensuring that the school day goes uninterrupted without safety concerns (Lawrence, 2007). Research has found, not surprisingly, that, of all their roles, SROs/SBLEs typically take on the role of a traditional law enforcement officer most often (Coon & Travis, 2012). It has been reported that upwards of 60 percent of an officer's time is dedicated to traditional law enforcement activities while working in the schools (McDaniel, 2001).

The education role typically refers to the SRO/SBLE teaching students, as would a classroom teacher, on a variety of topics related to crime and the law. It has been well documented that SROs/SBLEs often give presentations on certain topics or teach a full class that focuses on a host of criminal justice related issues (Weiler & Cray, 2011).

Specifically, Coon and Travis (2012, p.99) reported that 41.6 percent of officers reported teaching Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE), 26.6 percent reported teaching alcohol awareness education, and 28 percent reported teaching some form of crime prevention. As is evident by these statistics, Kennedy (2001) noted that it is an officer's responsibility to utilize teachable moments in the school environment in order to promote safety.

Finally, the mentoring role refers to SROs/SBLEs providing assistance to students and their families with law-related issues. This advice is typically in the form of guidance on behavior and discipline issues as well as a number of other topics that relate to crime, violence, and safety (Weiler & Cray, 2011). Just greater than 86 percent of officers working in middle and high schools reported they provided some guidance or mentored students/families on these types of issues (Coon & Travis, 2012, p. 122). Kennedy (2001) noted the importance of this role by concluding that an effective officer in the school environment must be willing to counsel and/or mentor students.

Research has suggested law enforcement officers are acquiring additional roles in schools. Prior research has shown that officer's perceptions of their roles parallel the triad model to an extent; however, there were additional roles reported that did not fit into this triad model (McKenna, Martinez-Prather, Bowman, 2014). One additional role described by officers was that of a surrogate parent, which involves providing emotional support and material items, such as clothing and school supplies for students. Another role officers described was that of social worker. Generally, this role encompassed actions and duties that aimed at providing a higher quality of life for the student. Overall, the majority of officers reported acting in a number of different roles simultaneously, but

some believed that their role in schools should be restricted to only that of a law enforcement officer (McKenna et al., 2014). However, this study was conducted with a small sample of officers (i.e., 26) that were employed by school district police departments (i.e., SBLEs), and should be replicated with a larger and more representative sample in future research.

The Extent of Specialized Training for SROs/SBLEs

Traditional police academies typically do not provide any type of specialized training in school-based law enforcement (Clark, 2011); however, it has been clearly documented that officers working in the school environment deal with different types of situations and are asked to serve in a variety of roles that often differ from more generalized policing in the traditional community (Brown, 2006; McKenna & Pollock, 2014). Further, Clark (2011) noted that the training an officer receives in a standard police academy is not enough to prepare them to work in a school.

Due to the differences and expectations of officers working in the school environment compared to officers working in the community, research has concluded that the success of officers who are assigned full-time in schools is dependent upon specialized training (Buckley et al., 2013; James & McCallion, 2013). For instance, Brown (2006) concluded that officers working in the school environment likely need some degree of training in working with youth and the field of education in general. Additionally, research and practical experience have highlighted topics such as juvenile law, alternatives to arrest, classroom teaching techniques, cultural diversity, mental health/child psychology, substance abuse, and counseling techniques as necessary for officers working in schools (Finn et al., 2005; International Association of Chiefs of

Police, 2011). It is likely that specialized training in areas such as these, and others, will promote appropriate responses to student misconduct. Despite the clear need and potential benefits of specialized training for these officers, research has indicated that many schools and/or communities provide very little (if any) specialized training that prepares officers for their roles in the school (Finn et al., 2005). Further, the training should match the roles and expectations that have been established by police and school administrators as these are likely to vary between districts, and perhaps, even campuses within the same districts.

Although research in the area of school policing has suggested the need for and effectiveness of potential specialized training (Brown, 2006; Buckley et al., 2013; James & McCallion, 2013), no systematic assessments of the prevalence and or effectiveness of these specialized programs have been conducted and, indeed, perhaps no such training exists. However, some federal programs did exist in the early 2000s as part of the COPS office grants (Girouard, 2001), and some still exist today, such as the training programs that are provided by the National Association of School Resource Officers and National Center for Mental Health and Juvenile Justice. However, to the author's knowledge, no empirical assessments have been conducted on the effectiveness of these programs.

Additionally, some states have created and implemented their own training programs for officers working in the school environment (Finn et al., 2005); however, like the federal training programs, no systematic evaluation has been conducted to the researcher's knowledge. Evidently, no state requires that an officer complete a mandatory training program prior to or while working in a school setting (Thurau & Wald, 2009-10).

The failure to provide necessary training is further complicated by the lack of district budgets to support such training and the lack of available time away from the school needed to complete training. This often leads to officers receiving what has been called “on-the-job training” (Finn et al., 2005). This is where officers learn from other more seasoned officers and/or by essentially making mistakes and seeing what seems to work. Additionally, officers must have the desire to seek out additional training, which is often, at least in part, related to how they view their role in the school environment. For example, if officers view their role as law enforcement officer only, they may not see a need for additional specialized training. However, if officers acknowledge the complexity of their task and the various roles they will likely take on in the school setting, they may be more likely to seek out specialized training beyond their basic peace officer training needed for peace officer certification (Thurau & Wald, 2009-2010).

The Educational Environment as an Enhancer of Police Role Conflict

Research has suggested that the role(s) of officers working in schools must be identified and analyzed (Kim and Geronimo, 2010). It is vital that the individual officers, as well as the school staff, including the administrators, clearly understand what role officers should or will have in the school setting (Clark, 2011; Finn et al., 2005). Defining officer roles in the school is particularly important in terms of how they react to violations of criminal statutes versus non-criminal, code-of-conduct violations. It should be clearly stated if, when, and how officers should address code of conduct violations that do not rise to the level of a criminal offense (Clark, 2011). This is further complicated by state education codes that often require action by school staff (and perhaps the assigned officer) for certain behaviors that may not always be criminal. Whatever roles and duties

are agreed upon, these should be documented as well as reviewed and updated regularly (Finn et al., 2005).

This documentation is particularly important considering that the roles of an SRO or SBLE are often established collaboratively between police and school administrators (McKenna et al., 2014) and can vary greatly depending on the philosophy of the school district (Clark, 2011). Although likely a necessary component to the successful integration of police and education, this collaboration can potentially enhance role conflict for officers (Elias, 2013; McKenna & Pollock, 2014). Officers may be placed in situations that are not typical for traditional law enforcement, resulting in a law enforcement response (e.g., arrest) to an incident that could be handled by an education or mentoring reaction. This potential conflict can, in part, be attributed to the subculture of law enforcement. Specifically, McKenna and Pollock (2014) noted that role conflict emerges when the law enforcement subculture (crime fighter or law enforcer) conflicts with the educational and mentoring goals of a school setting. Therefore, it is likely necessary to provide specialized training to officers working in the school environment because they will be placed in certain roles and have certain expectations placed on them for dealing with students that are not always in line with traditional law enforcement training and socialization.

The School-to-Prison Pipeline

Role conflict in school-based policing stems from the multitude of roles that these officers have, which are often in conflict with one another, the lack of training to support preferred roles, and the inconsistent cultures of law enforcement and education. Some have argued that the expansion of officer roles in schools has resulted in an over-reliance

by educators on law enforcement to resolve student misbehavior (Dohrn, 2001; Fowler et al., 2010; Theriot, 2009). It is thought that behavior problems, once the responsibility of teachers and school administrators, have now been shifted to the law enforcement officers working in the school, who often do not have the training needed to address the underlying issues responsible for the misbehavior of students or the inclination to do so (Dohrn, 2001; Theriot, 2009). Rather than spending time trying to address the student's behavior, teachers and administrators are quick to call the law enforcement officer to handle such behavior via the courts (Dohrn, 2001). The unintended consequences of this practice have been more students getting arrested, ticketed, or having their behavior addressed through the court system or in exclusionary ways (e.g., suspension or expulsion). These responses have been associated with further immersion in the justice system (Carmichael, Whitten, & Voloudakis, 2005; Edmiston, 2012; Fabelo et al., 2011; Fowler et al., 2010; Fowler et al., 2007; Morgan, Salomon, Plotkin, & Cohen, 2014; Rimer, 2004; Thevenot, 2010).

The overreliance on law enforcement officers in the school setting, including the use of legal responses to student misconduct, and increased use of expulsion and out-of-school suspension have ultimately led to the development of what has been called the “school-to-prison pipeline” (American Civil Liberties Union, 2012; Fowler, 2011; Meiners, 2011; Wald & Losen, 2003). The American Civil Liberties Union (2008, p. 1) defines this trend as “the policies and practices that push school children, especially the most at-risk children, out of classrooms and into the juvenile and/or criminal justice systems.” This trajectory involves formalizing punitive responses (e.g. criminal charges)

to traditional student misbehaviors within the school, which in the past were handled informally and/or internally by school staff.

Qualitative Evidence

There is an abundance of evidence that the use of exclusionary discipline practices (e.g., expulsion, suspension, or placement in an alternative educational setting) and legal responses (e.g., arrest or ticket) for minor student misbehavior has increased (Carmichael et al., 2005; Fabelo et al., 2011; Fowler et al., 2010; Fowler et al., 2007; Morgan et al., 2014; Wolf, 2013). However, much of it is anecdotal or qualitative in nature, and often delivered through mainstream media. For example, in 2005, a kindergarten student threw a temper tantrum for the second time in a week. The school principal called the law enforcement officer for the district to address the student's behavior. The officer responded and placed the five-year-old in handcuffs. She was escorted out of the school where she was placed in the back of a patrol car for several hours (Price, 2009).

In another instance, a 14-year old high school student in Ohio was arrested for refusing to change her clothing, which was deemed inappropriate for school. Specifically, the student arrived to campus wearing a low-cut shirt and an unbuttoned sweater over it. The young lady was provided with another shirt by school administrators and asked to change as she was in clear violation of the school's dress code policy. She refused to change, and her mother was called to bring another set of clothes for the teen to change into. She continued to refuse, and the law enforcement officer for the campus was called to handle the situation. The officer handcuffed the student, placed her in a patrol car, and took her to the juvenile detention center. She was charged with a criminal offense and

placed in a holding cell for several hours prior to being released (Rimer, 2004).

Additionally, Rimer (2004) noted a 12-year-old who was detained in an adult detention facility for making terroristic threats that encompassed telling peers in the lunch line that he would “get them” if they took the last of the potatoes.

Special needs students (e.g., those with emotional disorders, physical handicaps, learning impediments, and/or socialization issues) have also experienced severe punishments for what many would label minor acts of misbehavior. For instance, in Pennsylvania, an eight-year-old boy was formally charged with disorderly conduct for urinating on the floor and telling his teacher that “kids rule” (Rimer, 2004). Additionally, police were called three times because of the disruptive behavior of a 9-year old girl with attention deficient disorder (ADD) attending a school in Jefferson Parish Louisiana (Ruble, 2015). In the same school system, a 15-year old boy was arrested and charged with battery for throwing Skittles© candy at another student on the bus home. He was pulled out of class the next day and handcuffed before being led out of the school by police. That particular school district had 700 school-based arrests in the 2011-2012 school year. Some of the arrests were students with special needs (Ruble, 2015).

There are many more instances that generate the growing concern with law enforcement responses to school discipline problems and the STPP.

For instance:

- A 13-year old student in Florida was arrested for repeatedly “passing gas” and turning off other students’ computers. He was charged with disturbing a school function (Armani, 2011).

- A 12-year old girl was arrested in a Texas school for spraying herself with perfume because other students were telling her that she “smelled”. She was charged with disrupting class (McGreal, 2012).
- Although not charged with a crime, a 13-year old boy in Albuquerque, New Mexico was arrested for burping in gym class, as it was labeled by school administrators as a class disruption (Associated Press, 2011).
- Two students in Houston were arrested for pouring milk on one another during a “break-up” (McGreal, 2012).
- A 12-year old middle school student in Forest Hills, New York was arrested for writing on her desk “Lex was here 2/1/2010”. She was handcuffed and escorted out of school in front of her peers and teachers (Chen, 2010).
- An 11-year old was arrested, held in jail, and charged with a felony for bringing a plastic butter knife to school with his lunch (Education Reporter, 2009).

Although many of the cases brought to the attention of the mainstream media highlight the punitive and overuse of arrest, there are also other punishments used by police that have been deemed excessive:

- In Connecticut, a 17-year old high school student was pushed to the floor and tasered five times because he was talking back to a food service worker (Michalewicz, 2011).
- A 6-year old boy was charged with sexual battery after touching another student’s leg during a game of tag (CBS, 2012).

- A teenager in Dallas was ticketed \$637.00 for the use of foul language in the classroom (Dallas Morning News, 2011).
- In San Mateo, California, a 7-year old special education student was sprayed with pepper spray after he refused to comply with school staff and police requests to stop climbing on the furniture (Lee, 2011).

Collectively, these anecdotal accounts of punitive discipline and overreliance on law enforcement officers in the educational environment provide evidence to support the overuse of formal legal response. Research has since aimed at quantifying these trends in an effort to understand its parameters and prevalence.

Quantitative Evidence

In addition to these anecdotal and media accounts of the growing use of punitive law enforcement sanctions, attempts have been made by researchers, government entities, and advocacy groups to quantify the use of punitive discipline in schools. The attempts to understand the prevalence of punishments include looking at both legal punishments (arrests and ticketing), as well as exclusionary approaches such as suspensions and expulsion, which seem to be correlated with future contact with the justice system.

Arrest and ticketing. The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) recorded approximately 181,000 arrests occurring on school or college/university property between the years 2000 and 2004 (Noonan & Vavra, 2007). Of these incidents, 74.5 percent of the arrestees were between the ages of 13 and 18, indicating a high likelihood that they were enrolled in a primary or secondary school. The most common reason recorded for making an arrest was simple assault or a drug-related offense (52.2 percent of the total number of arrests). Although the report did not run separate analyses for K-12

schools and college/university campuses, one can assume, based on the ages provided, that much of these data reflect issues on K-12 schools.

Other researchers have found that school districts are more likely than in the past to use the legal system in response to relatively minor offenses. For instance, one study concluded that students are far more likely to be arrested today in school than just a generation ago, and the majority of arrests are for nonviolent offenses. In a majority of the arrest cases analyzed, students were simply being disruptive during the school day, and were subsequently arrested for such behavior (Southern Poverty Law Center, 2013). This increase in arrests for relatively minor offenses can be found in local jurisdictions throughout the country as well. Specifically, in Ohio County schools, the number of arrests increased by 500 in just a two-year period (Rimer, 2004). This increase in the number of arrests per school year occurred without a significant change in student enrollment.

In Miami-Dade County schools, there were over 2,300 juvenile arrests in 2001, which is approximately three times as many as there were in 1999. Further, sixty percent of these arrests were for simple assault or disorderly conduct and did not involve any weapons (Rimer, 2004). Rimer (2004) noted that these arrest categories (i.e., simple assault and disorderly conduct) often give an officer vast discretion. In Chicago Public schools, the fourth largest school district in the country, 3.2 percent of middle and high school students were arrested during each of the 2006-2007, 2007-2008, and 2009-2010 school years for incidents that occurred while at school (Stevens et al., 2015). Collectively, these statistics illustrate the use of arrest as a mechanism for responding to student behavior.

The majority of arrests in schools are for non-violent crimes that do not involve weapons. Specifically, Fowler et al. (2010) reported that only approximately 20 percent of the arrests that occurred during the 2006-2007 school year in Texas schools were for violence, and in most cases, the weapon used was an individual's fists. Of the 739 arrests made in Delaware public schools in the 2010-2011 school year, 91 percent were misdemeanor offenses (Wolf, 2013). In Florida's Broward County Public Schools, 71 percent of arrests in the 2011-2012 school year were for misdemeanor offenses. Similarly, 70 percent of all arrests in New York City School were for misdemeanor offenses in the 2012-2013 school year. The conclusion that emerges from these reports is that schools are arresting students at a high rate, often for behaviors and offenses that are relatively minor.

Prior research has also found the use of legal tickets to be a common occurrence in schools as well. For example, nationally, one study estimated that more than a quarter million students were ticketed for misdemeanor offenses in 2010 (Flannery, 2015). The Los Angeles Unified School District Police Department issued over 10,000 tickets in 2011, 43 percent of which were to students 14 years or younger. These tickets were issued for daytime curfew violations, fighting, and minor drug possession. In the first six months of 2012 an estimated 4,000 tickets were issued. A majority of these tickets were issued for disturbing the peace and simple possession of marijuana (Ferriss, 2012). The slight decrease in ticketing is likely the result of reform efforts in that district that will be discussed later.

In 2010, it was estimated that in Texas, over 275,000 non-traffic related tickets were issued to juveniles each year, most of which are issued at schools (Fowler et al.,

2010). According to a *Texas Tribune* article, Dallas Independent School District issued 92 tickets to 10-year olds in the 2006-2007 school year (Thevenot, 2010). The author also noted that most of these tickets were for disorderly conduct or classroom disruption. Fowler (2011) reported that students in Texas and around the nation are increasingly receiving tickets for minor misbehavior and/or being sent to the formal justice system where they receive a criminal record and other legal punishments. The receipt of a ticket at school has a greater impact on poor families because it is likely that they will not be able to pay the citation. This inability to pay the ticket either prolongs the current interaction with the legal system or creates additional interactions with the justice system.

The use of arrests and ticketing have shown to disproportionately impact minorities, especially African-Americans, and those students with special education status. In regards to ticketing, Fowler et al. (2010) found that African-American students were disproportionately ticketed in 11 out of the 15 Texas school districts that provided data for the study. A similar conclusion was also found for students with special education status.

African-American students and those with special education status also seem to be disproportionately arrested. A United States Department of Education study, that involved schools from across the nation, concluded that over 70 percent of students arrested at school were either African-American or Hispanic (Southern Poverty Law Center, 2013). In 10 of the 17 Texas school districts that disaggregated data by race, African-American students were overrepresented (Fowler et al., 2010). Further, Fowler (2011) reported that a school's decision to categorize a student's behavior as criminal disproportionately involves African American and special needs students.

For instance, African Americans represent 16 percent of the U.S. student enrollment, whereas students with disabilities or special needs make up 12 percent of student enrollment. Yet, 27 percent of those referred to law enforcement are African American, and 31 percent of those referred to law enforcement experience arrest for school-related offenses. Similarly, 25 percent of those who are referred to law enforcement and arrested are students with disabilities (United States Department of Education Office for Civil Rights, 2014). In addition, the behaviors for which minorities and disabled students are punished (often very harshly) are typically less serious than those of white students and non-disabled students who receive similar punishment.

Wald and Losen (2003) reported that the failure to provide appropriate interventions likely contributes to delinquency and other problem behaviors. It is important to note that several researchers have concluded that although the increased use of ticketing and arrest are apparent, data are not collected in many school districts or jurisdictions; therefore, a full examination or understanding of this practice is not possible, especially as it relates to the claim that punishment is disproportional for minority and special needs children (Edmiston, 2012; Fowler et al., 2010).

Suspension and expulsion. Research has also established the link between the number of suspensions and expulsions and later involvement in the criminal justice system (Fabelo et al., 2011; Flannery, 2015; Fowler et al., 2007; Flower et al., 2010; Morgan et al., 2014; Rausch & Skiba, 2004; Stucki, 2013). The use of exclusionary discipline practices such as out-of-school suspensions and expulsion are seen as a longer path to the justice system, as opposed to arrest and ticketing which have a direct path.

For instance, in a Texas-based study that contained just fewer than one million students, Fabelo et al. (2011) found that nearly 55 percent of students in the sample received in-school suspension (this ranged from one period to several days) and just over 30 percent experienced out-of-school suspension (which averaged two days) between seventh and twelfth grade. Even more troubling is that the researchers determined that only three percent of the suspensions and expulsions were mandated by state law. Similarly, research conducted by Texas Appleseed, a public advocacy group that aims to promote social and economic justice, showed that only 29 percent of expulsions in the 2008-2009 school year in Texas were mandated by state law. These statistics show that a large portion of these disciplinary actions that remove students from the classroom are discretionary in nature.

Many studies have reached similar conclusions in that suspensions are often given in response to relatively minor incidents such as disrupting class or disrupting transportation (e.g., disorderly conduct on a district school bus). A 2004 study conducted by the Center for Evaluation and Education Policy in Indiana concluded that over 95 percent of suspensions in Indiana were for minor incidents that did not involve drugs or weapons (Rausch & Skiba, 2004). Similarly, 81 percent of all suspensions in New York City Schools in the 2012-2013 school year were for minor infractions (Stucki, 2013).

These use of suspension and expulsion as responses to student misconduct are removing students from the classroom, which some researchers have suggested is becoming an extended path to involvement in the justice system (Fowler et al., 2007). Fabelo et al. (2011) echoed this sentiment, noting that a student who was suspended or expelled is approximately three times more likely to be in contact with the juvenile

justice system the following year. A report, *The School Discipline Consensus Report*, by the Council of State Government's Justice Center affirmed this process as a national problem (Morgan et al., 2014). The report found that millions of students across the nation are being suspended and expelled for minor offenses, which greatly increases the chances of them interacting with the juvenile and/or criminal justice system (Morgan et al., 2014). Of all potential risk factors that are associated with future involvement in the justice system, the strongest predictor has been a history of discipline referrals at school (Carmichael et al., 2005).

Similar to the trends of arrest and ticketing, minorities and special needs students also appear to be suspended and expelled at a disproportionate rate. African-American students accounted for more than two-thirds of all suspensions in the 2011-2012 school year in Florida's Broward County Public Schools, the sixth largest school district in the country. However, African-American students only made up approximately 40 percent of the student body. Further, of the 82,000 suspensions, 85 percent were for minor infractions such as the use of profanity or the disruption of class (Stucki, 2013). According to a national study conducted by researchers at UCLA, approximately 24 percent of African-American students in secondary schools were suspended at least once in the 2009-2010 school year. This compares to just seven percent of white students (Stucki, 2013).

Similarly, Fabelo et al. (2011) found that while controlling for other relevant factors, African-American students had a 32 percent higher likelihood for discretionary discipline action when compared to white and Hispanic students. The vast majority (83 percent) of African-American students had at least one discretionary suspension or

expulsion. The researchers concluded that the greatest disparity was in expulsions for non-violent offenses that were more subjective in nature. The findings of Fowler et al. (2010) mirrored these findings in that African-American students were significantly overrepresented in discretionary in-school suspensions and out-of-school suspensions. Further, Flower et al. (2010) concluded that a school's decision to categorize a student's behavior as a criminal offense disproportionately involved African-American students, even when rates of misbehavior are controlled between various racial/ethnic categories.

Similarly, just below 75 percent of students in the sample that were categorized as special education had been suspended or expelled between their seventh and twelfth grade school years (Fabelo et al., 2011). Fowler et al. (2010) found that in almost a third of Texas school districts, special education students were overrepresented in terms of both in-school and out-of-school suspensions. Specifically, in the 2008-2009 school year, special education students made up approximately 10 percent of the student body, yet they accounted for 21 percent of the expulsions.

Although it is clear that there has been an increase in the use of both legal means (i.e., arrest and ticketing) and exclusionary discipline (i.e., suspension and expulsion), a clear understanding as to why this increase is occurring is lacking. Some researchers have suggested that this increase is the result of simply adding more SBLEs/SROs to the school environment. It is important to take a step back and consider how the use of police became so commonplace in the school environment. This discussion will first begin with an examination of school crime, victimization, and disorder over the past decade and a half, which arguably has led to the increased number of police in schools.

School Crime, Victimization, and Disorder

A range of negative behaviors can impact the teaching and learning environment in schools. Some of these behaviors amount to a criminal offense, whereas others do not, but the behaviors may be against the Student Code of Conduct because of the disruption they cause. It is important to distinguish among these different types of negative incidents. According to Tappan (2001), a *criminal offense* is defined as “an intentional act or omission in violation of the criminal law, committed without justification or defense and sanctioned by the state as a felony or misdemeanor” (p. 100). For juveniles, the term *delinquency* is often used to encompass the crimes they commit as well as other immoral acts, but, legally, it refers only to those acts that would be a crime if committed by an adult. There are also *status offenses* that are illegal for juveniles only because of their age (e.g., possession or consumption of alcohol and running away). On the other hand, “school disorder” refers to acts of incivility either perpetrated by students while in the school, or experienced by students or teachers while at school (Gottfredson, Gottfredson, Payne, & Gottfredson, 2005). These acts are usually outlined in the Student Code of Conduct, which serves as the overarching contract between students and the school. Therefore, although schools experience crime, victimization, and acts of disorder, it is important to differentiate these types of incidents.

In the late 1980s, overall juvenile crime began to dramatically increase, and by the 1990s there was widespread fear of the “young criminal” (Cook & Laub, 1998; DiIulio, 1995). These young criminals, who were often believed to be raised by criminal and drug-addicted parents, were labeled by a few notable researchers and policymakers as “superpredators” (DiIulio, 1995). They were thought to be capable of committing serious violent crimes at much higher rates (when compared to both juveniles in the past

and adult rates) and the official crime statistics appeared to confirm this belief. Specifically, overall crime rates for the juvenile population were on the rise, and grave acts of violence committed by youth were regularly publicized in mainstream media (DiIulio, 1995). These criminals were young and showed little remorse for their behavior.

This spike in juvenile crime can be examined using Uniform Crime Report (UCR) data, as these data serve as the most comprehensive measure of crime at the local, state, and national level in the United States (Black, 1980). Specifically, the UCR encompasses all crimes *known* to police, and is further separated into 1) *Crime Report data* and 2) *Arrest data*. Crime report data includes basic information about the crime report itself, such as the legal crime that was reported and the location of that crime. The arrest data on the other hand includes information pertaining to the demographics of persons arrested, such as crime charged, and the age and gender of the arrestee. Collectively, these files allow one to examine crime with the ability to disaggregate data based on certain demographic parameters. Therefore, using the arrest data file, one can examine juvenile crime in the 1980s and 1990s in an effort to assess trends, especially as it relates to violent crimes.

In 1984, the number of juvenile homicide offenders was just under 1,000. By 1994, this number had increased drastically to more than 2,500 juvenile homicide offenders (Fox, 1996). Additionally, the percentage of homicides involving juveniles increased from 10 percent of all homicides in 1965 to 15 percent in 1994 (Cook & Laub, 1998). Arrest rates for juveniles also increased during this time. Between 1989 and 1994, UCR data indicates that juveniles, age 13-18, were disproportionately arrested when compared to adults (Bernard, 1999). Specifically, juveniles made up 8 percent of the

United States population, yet they accounted for 20 percent of individuals who were arrested for crimes (Bernard, 1999). Arrest rates for juveniles (age 13 to 17) involved in violent crimes (i.e., murder and non-negligent manslaughter, rape, robbery, and aggravated assault) increased from 2 per 1,000 in 1965 to 8 per 1,000 in 1994 (Cook & Laub, 1998). Further, the arrest rate for *serious* violent crime, including murder, rape, robbery, and aggravated assault, increased 46 percent for individuals between the ages of 13 and 18 between 1989 and 1994. This increase can be compared to a 12 percent increase for adults over this same period of time (Fox, 1996). The arrest rate for homicides increased from 0.5 per 1,000 in 1965 to 2.2 per 1,000 in 1995 (Cook & Laub, 1998).

Although concern was directed to the safety of the general community and streets, schools became a likely extension of this concern because it is where many of these juveniles spent much of their day. However, at this time, there was little, if any, data collected regarding crime or victimization occurring in schools. As a result, in the 1990s, the public, news media, and government agencies began to collect, analyze, and monitor data related to school crime, victimization, and disorder in an effort to further assess these growing concerns.

School Crime

The concept of “school crime” is broad and encompasses a variety of behaviors that range from disorderly conduct and drug offenses, to the most serious incidents such as mass shooting events in places like Columbine High School and Sandy Hook Elementary. Like all crime, the less serious is substantially more common but garners little public attention. Conversely, the most serious and atypical events dominate the

public discourse and 24-hour news cycle. Though statistics show incidents of school crime and violence have remained relatively stable over the last decade or so, and schools are actually extremely safe places, considerable attention and resources are still allocated to school safety (Robers et al., 2014).

Broad indicators of school crime show a slight decrease in most respects over the last decade and a half. According to the *Indicators of School Crime and Safety* reports¹, during the 1999-2000 school year, 86 percent of public schools reported that at least one crime incident had occurred at school. This amounts to a total of 2.3 million crimes and a rate of 46 crimes per 1,000 students (see Figure 1; DeVoe et al., 2005). In the 2003-2004 school year, the overall percentage of schools that reported at least one crime incident had occurred increased to 89 percent; however, the total number of crimes was slightly lower at an estimated 2.1 million. The rate per 1,000 students remained the same (Dinkes, Cataldi, Kena, & Baum, 2006).

The percentage of public schools that reported at least one crime incident at school as well as the raw number of total crimes continued to fluctuate slightly in the 2005-2006 school year; however, the rate remained stable. Eighty-six percent of public schools reported at least one crime incident, which amounted to an estimated 2.2 million crimes (Dinkes, Cataldi, & Lin-Kelly, 2007). In the 2007-2008 school year, the total number of crimes began to decrease. Although 85 percent of public schools still reported at least one crime incident during the 2007-2008 school year, the total number of crimes occurring in schools across the United States decreased to 2.0 million. This figure

¹ This report also presents information and data collected by the School Survey on Crime and Safety which has been conducted during the 1999-2000, 2003-2004, 2005-2006, 2007-2008, and 2009-2010 school years.

translates to a rate of 43 crimes per 1,000 students (Robers, Zhang, & Truman, 2010).

This decline continued into the 2009-2010 school year, where 1.9 million crimes were reported as occurring on school property throughout the United States. This translates to a rate of 40 crimes per 1,000 students (Robers et al., 2014).

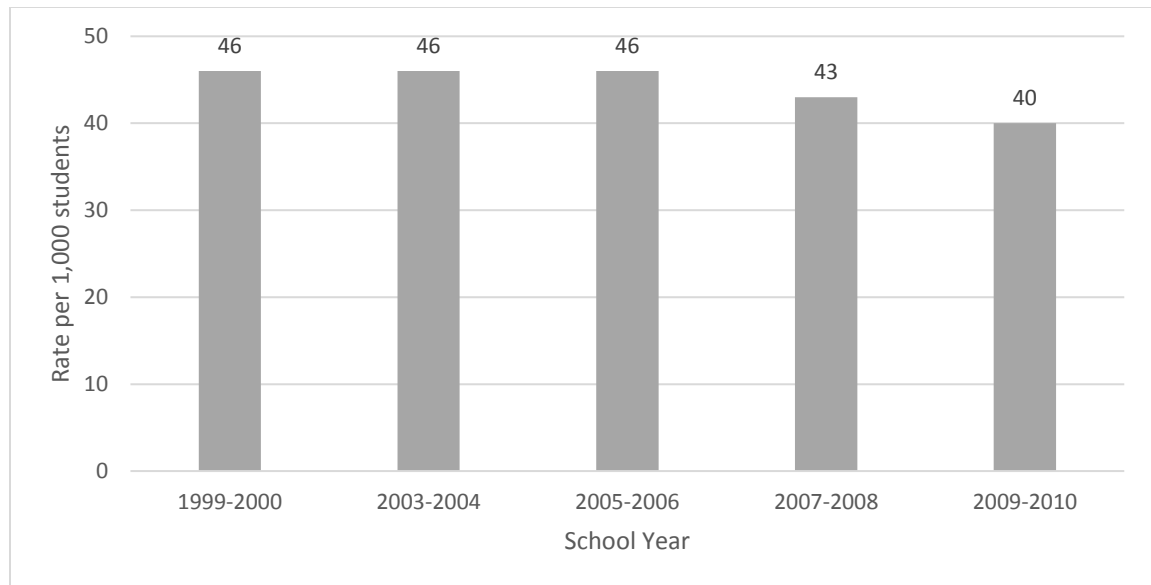


Figure 1. Total Crime Rate per 1,000 Students in Schools: 1999-2010

Source: Robers, S., Kemp, J., Rathbun, A., and Morgan, R. (2014). *Indicators of school crime and safety: 2013*.

This trend of slight annual decreases is also apparent in broad indicators of violent crimes occurring on school property. For instance, in the 1999-2000 school year, 71 percent of public schools reported one or more violent criminal incidents, with 20 percent recording one or more *serious violent*² incidents and 51 percent reporting at least one *less serious violent*³ incident (see Figure 2; DeVoe et al., 2005). The overall percentage

² Serious violent incidents include rape, sexual battery other than rape, physical attacks or fights with a weapon, threats of physical attack with a weapon, and robbery with or without a weapon.

³ Less serious violent incidents include physical attack or fight without a weapon, theft or larceny, or vandalism.

of schools reporting violent incidents increased in the 2005-2006 school year, with 78 percent of public schools reporting one or more violent criminal incidents (see Figure 2). Of these schools reporting violent incidents, 17 percent reported one or more serious violent incidents and 61 percent reported at least one less serious violent incident (Dinkes et al., 2007).

In the 2007-2008 school year, 75 percent of public schools reported one or more violent criminal incidents, with 17 percent recording one or more serious violent incidents and 58 percent reporting at least one less serious violent incident (see Figure 2; Dinkes, Kemp, & Baum, 2009). Although minimal, this decrease continued in the 2009-2010 school year with 74 percent of public schools reporting one or more violent criminal incidents. Of these schools, 16 percent reported one or more serious violent incidents and 57 percent reported at least one less serious violent incident (Robers et al., 2014). In the most recent report covering the 2013-2014 school year, 65 percent of public schools reported one or more violent criminal incidents, with 13 percent recording one or more serious violent incidents and 47 percent reporting at least one less serious violent incident (Zhang, Musu-Gillette, & Oudekerk, 2016).

The percentage of public schools that reported gang activity decreased from 20.4 percent in 2010 to 17.5 percent in 2011 (see Figure 3). In the 2009-2010 school year, only 16 percent of public schools reported gang activity. When students, ages 12-18, were asked about gang activity at school, 12.4 percent reported that gangs were present at their school in 2013. A higher percentage of students in urban areas, when compared to those in rural areas, reported a gang presence (18 percent and 7 percent respectively) in

2013. The presence of weapons has also decreased on school campuses.

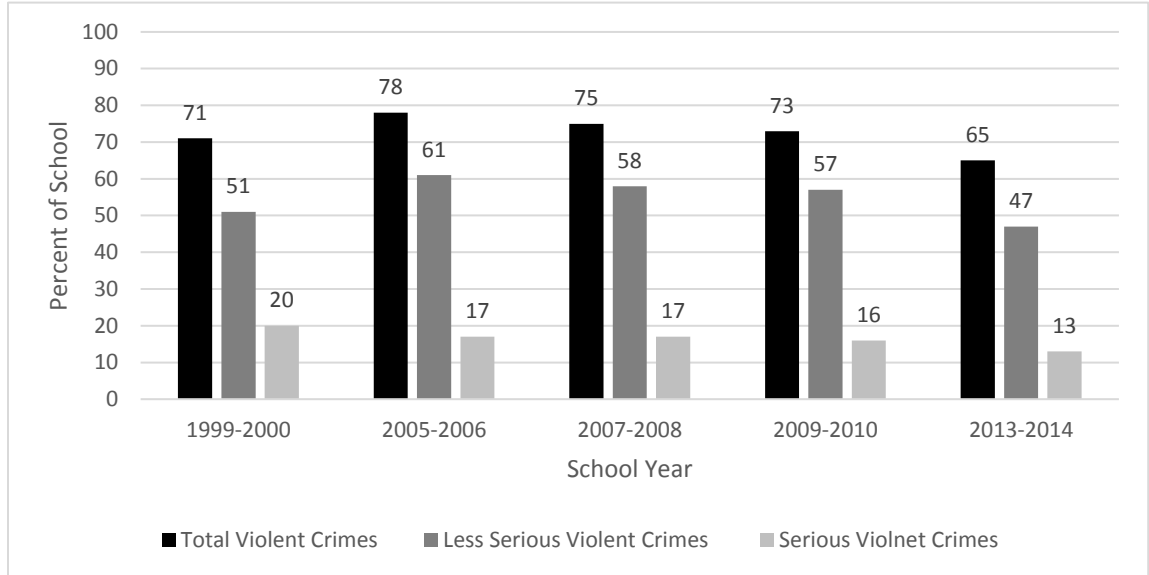


Figure 2. Percentage of Schools Reporting Total, Less Serious, and Serious Violent Crimes: 1999-2014

Source: Robers, S., Kemp, J., Rathbun, A., and Morgan, R. (2014). *Indicators of school crime and safety: 2013*.

Specifically, from 1993 to 2013, the percentage of students in grades 9-12 who reported carrying a weapon to school at least one day in the last 30 days, decreased from 22.1 to 17.9 percent (see Figure 3). In all reporting years (1993-2013), a higher percentage of male students, when compared to female students, reported they had carried a weapon on school property. Perhaps the most common crime incident on school campuses is fighting and/or simple assault. The percentage of students in grades 9-12 who reported being in a physical fight on school property in the last 12 months decreased between 1993 and 2013 from 16.2 to 8.1 percent (see Figure 3; Robers et al., 2014).

Like the presence of gangs and weapons, drugs and alcohol also show a decline. Specifically, 22.1 percent of students in grades 9-12 reported that illegal drugs were offered, sold, or given to them on school property in 2013, which is down from 32.1 percent in 1995 and 25.6 percent in 2011 (see Figure 3). In every reporting year (1993-

2013), males have always reported a higher percentage of drug availability when compared to females. When considering the use of certain drugs, approximately 23 percent of high school students reported using marijuana at least one time in the past 30 days, which is higher than the percentage reported in 1993 (18 percent). Of this 23 percent, six percent reported using marijuana on school property. The use of alcohol by high school students decreased from 1993 to 2013. Specifically, high school students who reported having at least one drink of alcohol during the previous 30 days decreased from 48 to 35 percent. The percentage who consumed alcohol in 2013 was also lower than those that had reported they consumed alcohol in 2011 (39 percent). Of the 35 percent of students who reporting drinking alcohol in 2013, 5.1 percent reported drinking alcohol on school property, which has remained relatively consistent since 1993 (see Figure 3; Robers et al., 2014).

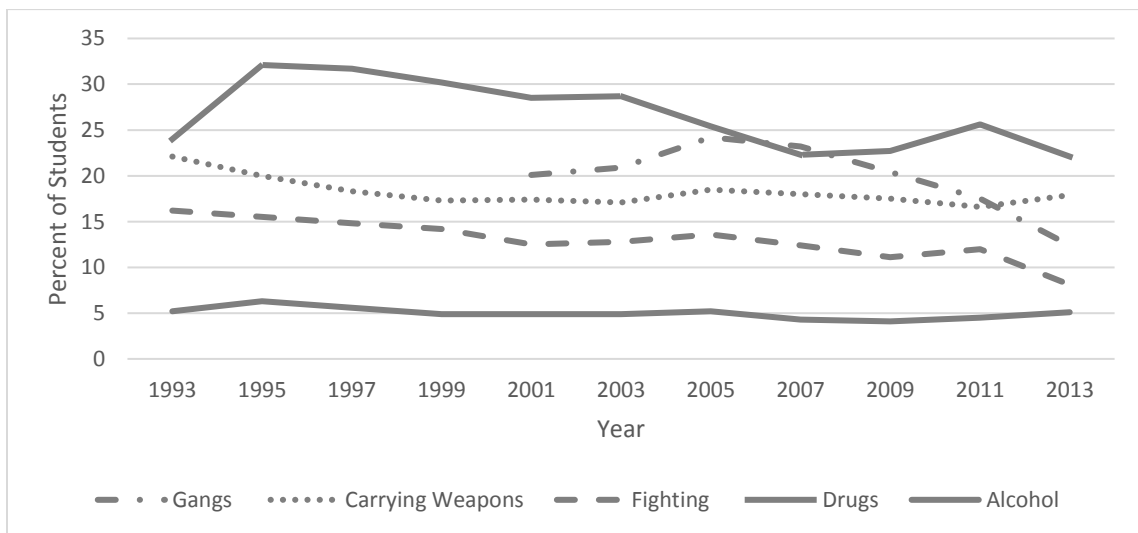


Figure 3. Gangs, Weapons, Fighting, Drugs, and Alcohol in Schools: 1993-2013

Source: Robers, S., Kemp, J., Rathbun, A., and Morgan, R. (2014). *Indicators of school crime and safety: 2013*.

Major school crime incidents. As noted, although minor crimes are more frequent, it is the major school crime incidents (specifically active or mass shooter events) that

dominate the media. Additionally, these major incidents are often anecdotally used by the general public to assess the extent of school crime and the safety measures in place. As a result, the extent, frequency, and details of these major school crime events are often discussed when addressing the state of school safety. These high profile incidents of violence and active threats to students and staff often serve as the impetus for changing safety policies and procedures.

On April, 20, 1999, in the suburban town of Littleton, Colorado two students entered Columbine High School armed with high-powered firearms and other explosive devices. The two gunmen killed 12 students and a teacher, and injured 21 others before killing themselves (Hong, Cho, Allen-Meares, & Espelage, 2001). The frightening aspect of this incident is that they had planned a much larger display of violence that was intended to kill everyone inside the school. Immediately following the incident, the media, parents and school officials looked for answers as to why the event occurred. Media speculation and reports attempted to link the incident to terrorism, bullying, school climate, messages of violence imbedded in music and video games, and the lack of parental supervision (Frymer, 2009). In response to this event, policy makers, government officials and the general public focused their attention on issues of school violence and the necessary prevention efforts.

In the days, months and years that followed Columbine, several plots and conspiracies were uncovered that involved student attacks on schools. Many of these incidents specifically cited Columbine as the inspiration to attempt such actions. The term “doing a Columbine” was commonly used to reference threats to a school’s safety (Fox, 2009). Several researchers have examined the motivations behind these large-scale

violent acts concluding that they are often done as a means of protest (Hong, Cho, & Lee, 2010; Larkin, 2009). Students who have endured years of bullying, social exclusion and humiliation find it necessary to retaliate against those they feel are responsible. In response to the tragedy at Columbine, politicians, school leaders, the media, and community members called for increased educational programs related to drugs and alcohol (Farrell, Meyer, Kung, & Sullivan, 2001), increased targeted hardening in schools (Ballard & Brady, 2007), and more police to work permanently in schools (Coon & Travis, 2012).

Since the tragic events at Columbine High School, a number of other active shooter events have occurred in U.S. schools. In 2014, the Federal Bureau of Investigation released a report titled *A Study of Active Shooter Incidents in the United States Between 2000 and 2013* which collectively analyzed all active shooter events, including those that occurred in schools during this time (Blair & Schweit, 2014). In this report, an active shooter event is defined as “an individual [or group of individuals] actively engaged in killing or attempting to kill people in a confined and populated area”. In total, the FBI identified 160 active shooter events spanning the years 2000-2013 that met this definition (Blair & Schweit, 2014). These incidents were identified using official police records and other open source information. The FBI report identified an average of 11.4 active shooter events occurring each year, with an increasing trend from 2000 to 2013 (an average of 6.4 events in the first seven years and an average of 16.4 events in the last seven years).

The FBI further disaggregates these active shooter events by location, including K-12 schools. In total, the FBI identified 27 (16.9 percent of the 160 total events) active

shooter events that occurred at a K-12 school between 2000 and 2013 (Blair & Schweit, 2014). Of these 27 events, 14 occurred in a high school, 6 occurred in a middle school, 4 occurred in an elementary school, and 1 occurred at a school including grades pre-K through 12th grade. These 27 events resulted in 57 individuals being killed, and 60 individuals being wounded. When compared to the locations of other active shooter events (e.g., malls, hospitals, places of worship) these death and injury numbers are among the highest. From 2000 to 2006, the number of active shooter events occurring at a K-12 school appeared to steadily increase. Specifically, the number of events increased from zero in the year 2000 to a high of six in 2006 (see Figure 4). During this time, there was an average of two active shooter events occurring at a K-12 school each year. The number of active shooter events occurring in K-12 schools has remained relatively constant with an average of 1.86 events occurring from 2007 to 2013. The report concludes that active shooter events in general have steadily increased from 2000 to 2013, which also appears to be true in schools, but to a lesser extent.

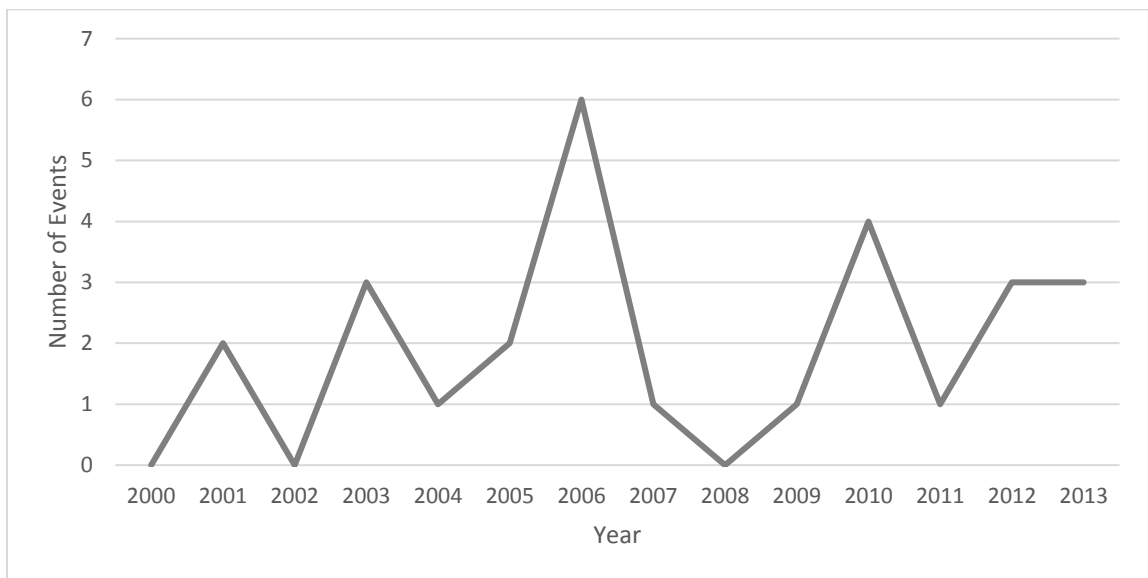


Figure 4. Active Shooter Events Occurring in K-12 Schools from 2000 to 2013

Source: Blair, J. P., & Schweit, K. W. (2014). *A Study of Active Shooter Incidents, 2000 – 2013*.

The most recent active shooter event in a K-12 school environment that received large-scale national attention occurred in Newton, Connecticut on the morning of December 14, 2012. A 20-year old local resident made his way to Sandy Hook Elementary School (SHES) in Newtown, Connecticut heavily armed. Upon his arrival, he began to shoot his way through the main entrance of the school using a rifle. He then proceeded down the school hallway entering two classrooms where he killed 24 more individuals (20 students and 4 staff). The shooter then took his own life. The investigation into this incident led politicians, activist groups, and educators to call for reform regarding gun access, mental health services, and violence in the media (Sendensky, 2012). These tragedies are just a few examples that illustrate how high profile incidents of violence serve as the impetus for evaluation and change of policies and strategies related to school safety. It is clear from the responses to these disturbing events that policymakers, school officials, and the general public believe that school crime and violence are important social issues. This has resulted in substantial efforts and resources being put into controlling school crime and violence.

School Victimization

Data capturing self-reported victimizations that occurred at school have been available in the *Indicators of School Crime and Safety* reports since 1992 and are currently available up until 2014. Victimization rates for students aged 12-18 peaked in 1993. Specifically, students between the ages of 12 and 18 were victims in approximately 4.7 million crimes at school in 1993 (Robers et al., 2014). These individuals were the victims of approximately 2.2 million violent crimes and 2.5 million thefts at school. These figures translate to overall victimization rate of 193 per 1,000

students (102 per 1,000 for thefts and 91 per 1,000 for violent incidents) at school (see Figure 5). Victimization rates for this population peaked in 1993, were relatively consistent from 1992 through 1994, and then began to steadily decline for this population (Kaufman et al. 1998).

In 1997, students between the ages of 12 and 18 were victims in approximately 3.6 million crimes at school. Of these crimes, 1.6 million of them were violent crimes and 2.0 million were theft victimizations. These figures translate to an overall victimization rate of 136 per 1,000 students (74 per 1,000 for thefts and 62 per 1,000 for violent incidents) at school (see Figure 5). This decreasing trend of victimization at school continued into the 2000s (Robers et al., 2014). In 2005, students ages 12-18 were the victims of an estimated 1.7 million victimizations at school, with approximately 802,600 of those being violent crimes and 875,900 being thefts. These figures translate to overall victimization rates of 63 per 1,000 students (33 per 1,000 for thefts and 30 per 1,000 for violent incidents) at school (see Figure 5; Robers et al., 2014). These figures continued to decrease in 2010 as victimization rates for this population reached an all-time low. Students ages 12-18 were the victims of approximately 892,000 crimes at school. Of these crimes, 422,300 of them were violent crimes and 469,800 of them were theft victimizations. These figures translate to overall victimization rates of 35 per 1,000 students (18 per 1,000 for thefts and 17 per 1,000 for violent incidents) at school (see Figure 5; Robers et al., 2014).

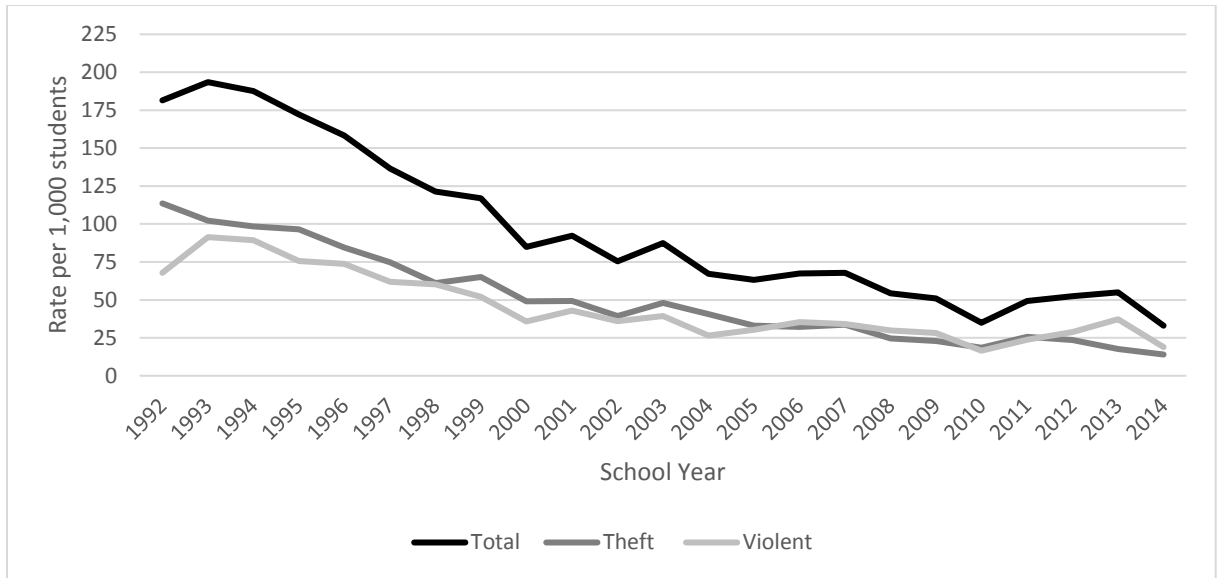


Figure 5. Total, Theft, and Violent Victimization Rates per 1,000 Students in School: 1992-2014
 Source: Robers, S., Kemp, J., Rathbun, A., and Morgan, R. (2014). *Indicators of school crime and safety: 2013*.

Victimization rates increased slightly from 2011-2013, before showing a decrease in 2014. In the most recent *Indicators of School Crime and Safety Report*, it was reported that students ages 12-18 were the victims of approximately 850,100 crimes at school. These figures translate to overall victimization rates of 33 per 1,000 students (14 per 1,000 for thefts and 19 per 1,000 for violent incidents) at school (see Figure 5; Robers et al., 2014).

Overall, at-school victimization rates for students ages 12-18 have decreased 70 percent from 181 victimizations per 1,000 students in 1992 to 33 victimizations per 1,000 students in 2014. Further, theft victimizations at school have declined from 114 per 1,000 students to 14 per 1,000, and the rate of violent victimization at school declined from 68 victimizations per 1,000 students in 1992 to 19 per 1,000 in 2014. Overall, these victimization trends depict a much sharper decline in school incidents when compared to “official” school crime statistics.

School Disorder

Acts of disorder are disturbing to the environment and likely against the school code of conduct, yet do not amount to a crime. Information on these types of incidents is also collected as part of the *Indicators of School Crime and Safety* reports. For example, nine percent of public schools reported student acts of disrespect toward teachers occurred on at least a weekly basis during the 2009-2010 school year (Robers et al., 2014). This is in comparison to the 11 percent of public schools that reported such acts during the 2007-2008 school year. Further, three percent of public schools reported widespread disorder in classrooms on at least a weekly basis during the 2009-2010 school year, which is a slight decrease from the four percent that reported such during the 2007-2008 school year. During the 2011-2012 school year, 38 percent of teachers strongly agreed that student misbehavior in the classroom interfered with their teaching. This percentage has increased slightly from the 2007-2008 school year where 34 percent of teachers strongly agreed that student misbehavior in the classroom interfered with their teaching.

Perhaps the most discussed and studied school disorder problem is that of bullying. Prior research indicates that prevalence rates of bullying behavior range from 10 to 50 percent depending on how bullying is conceptualized and operationalized (Atria, Strohmeier, & Spiel, 2007; Cook, Williams, Guerra, Kim, & Sadek, 2010). According to the most recent *Indicators of School Crime and Safety* report, in the 2009-2010 school year, 23 percent of public schools reported that bullying among students occurred at least weekly. Further, in 2013, approximately 22 percent of students between the ages of 12 and 18 reported being bullied at school. An estimated 14 percent reported that they were

made fun of, called names, or insulted; 13 percent reported being the subject of rumors; and 6 percent reported that they were physically bullied. In 2013, a higher percentage of females, when compared to males, reported being bullied at school (24 versus 19 percent). Additionally, 7 percent of students between the ages of 12 and 18 reported being cyber-bullied at any time during the school year. Like traditional bullying, a higher percentage of female students, when compared to male students, reported being victims of cyberbullying in 2013 (Robers et al., 2014). The overall percentage of students who reported being bullied was lower in 2013 than any other reporting year (2005-2013). Williams and Guerra (2007) stated that verbal bullying was the most common type, followed by physical bullying and cyberbullying, respectively. Physical and cyberbullying are more common in middle school, while verbal bullying was common throughout middle and high school.

Despite decreased victimization, public attention to school crime and safety appears to be increasing. Although some of this attention may be driven by the media's coverage of mass shooter incidents occurring at schools, much of it can be attributed to the impact that any crime and violence in the school environment has on students.

The Impact of Crime, Victimization, and Disorder on Students

Crime, victimization, and disorder incidents occurring in the school setting are a major concern because of the impact they have on the overall teaching and learning environment as well as normal child development (Fitzpatrick, 1999). Although it is beyond the scope of this study to assess academic performance and normal child development, this underlying concern serves as the impetus for the implementation of many school safety initiatives. While it is the goal of educators and school administrators

to have all students leave their classrooms, schools, and districts academically prepared, an often forgotten and necessary component of academic excellence is safety and security. The connection between feeling safe and academic performance has been an area of interest among researchers for much of the past decade (see generally: Bosworth, Ford, & Hernandez, 2011; Johnson, 2009; Milam, Furr-Holden, & Leaf, 2010; Symons, Cinelli, James, Groff, 1997).

For instance, research has shown that students who are the victims of violence at school are more likely to report negative attitudes toward school, and those students who are worried about their safety are less able to focus on learning (Johnson, 2009). These findings indicate that, regardless of actual or perceived violence at school, students do worse academically when worried about violence in their school. Further, crime and victimization in school (including on the way to and from school) has shown to negatively affect the health and general well-being of adolescents including interfering with educational goals and stalling normal healthy development (Fredland, 2008). High levels of victimization in the school environment have also been correlated with higher teacher turnover, student dropout rates, and student transfer rates (Crews, Crews, & Turner, 2008). One study highlighted the impact of violence on academic performance noting that higher perceptions of violence on behalf of students were associated with a decrease in math and reading scores (Milam et al., 2010). Clearly, crime, victimization, and disorder among school youth and prevention and intervention strategies warrant further inquiry (Fitzpatrick, 1999; Johnson, 2009; Symons et al., 1997).

Responses to School Crime, Victimization, and Disorder

In response to the public's fear of mass shooting events and the perception that juveniles were becoming increasingly violent and crime-prone, communities and schools

took action. To address these perceptions, researchers and policymakers called for a “get tough” on crime approach that included, among other measures, the implementation of zero-tolerance policies and the increased use of law enforcement officers in the school setting.

Zero-Tolerance Policies

The public pressure to address crime and violence being committed by juveniles in communities across the United States ultimately led to the adoption of zero-tolerance policies by the federal government in the late 1980s (American Psychological Association, 2008; Skiba & Rausch, 2006; Teske, 2011). These policies were initially developed as a mechanism for drug enforcement in the community, but later were expanded to acts of violence (Skiba & Rausch, 2006). Specifically, a variety of federal and state legislation was passed that mandated harsh punishments for those involved in drug-related or violent crimes (Burke, 1998). Additionally, throughout the 1980s and 1990s, police departments across the country adopted what has been referred to as zero-tolerance policing (Burke, 1998). This style of policing involved persistent order maintenance (the intervention or suppression of behaviors that threaten to be offensive or disturbed public peace) and harsh responses to minor crime or disturbances in an effort to prevent more serious problems from arising (Burke, 1998). The idea is that if minor crimes or acts of incivility are left unaddressed, then it creates an environment where more serious crime and violence is likely.

The underlying premise or philosophy of this zero-tolerance policing approach can be traced to the concepts of deterrence and Broken Windows Theory (Teske, 2011; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Deterrence Theory suggests that in order to decrease crime

and/or antisocial behavior, the severity of the punishment must be greater than the benefits of the crime (Teske, 2011). Therefore, zero-tolerance policing entailed harsh and punitive responses to even minor crimes, to ensure that the punishment exceeded the benefit of the act committed. Similarly, the concept of Broken Windows suggests that minor crimes be responded to with punitive punishment in an effort to prevent future and more serious behavior (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). That is, if minor crimes are left unaddressed, it produces an environment for more serious crime to occur. This zero-tolerance policing approach expanded around the country for much of the 1990s and into the 2000s (Burke, 1998).

Just as the federal government and local police departments adopted zero-tolerance approaches to combat the possession and distribution of drugs and violent offenses by juveniles on the streets, schools began to implement these methods in the early 1990s (Skiba, 2000). Although there is no agreed upon definition; generally, zero-tolerance policies in schools call for mandatory punishment usually in the form of suspension, expulsion, or arrest (American Psychological Association, 2008). The idea behind zero-tolerance policies in schools is to create a discipline approach that has fixed, and often overly punitive consequences for a certain set of undesired behaviors (American Psychological Association, 2008). Ultimately, the ideas and philosophies that underlined the zero-tolerance policies and policing in the community were adopted in the school environment.

In 1990, California, New York, and Kentucky were among the first states to implement zero-tolerance policies in schools (Skiba, 2000). Each state's policy mandated that a student be expelled from school if they were involved in drugs, fighting, or gang-

related activity while at school. Zero-tolerance policies in schools were encompassed in national legislation in 1994, when then-President Bill Clinton signed into law the Gun-Free School Act (20 U.S.C. § 7151). The law required that schools receiving federal aid must adopt a policy mandating a one-year expulsion for any student found in possession of a firearm. Originally, the legislation only covered guns, but was later expanded to cover any instrument that could be used as a weapon.

By the mid-1990s, these zero tolerance policies were widely used in schools across the country, and many states had broadened the scope to include behaviors that caused any disruption to the school environment (Skiba, 2000). For instance, in 1995, Texas adopted zero-tolerance policies, which re-classified some school behaviors as criminal offenses and required that students be removed from the school (Fowler, Lightsey, Monger, Terrazas, & White, 2007). Specifically, students must be removed (e.g., expelled, suspended, or placed in an alternative school setting) for

- conduct that is punishable by a felony,
- conduct that contains the element of assault and causes bodily injury,
- conduct that involves giving, delivering, or using a controlled substance or alcohol,
- indecent exposure, or
- conduct that involves retaliation against a district employee (Texas Education Code 37.006).

It also allows districts to remove students for code of conduct violations at their discretion, including the use of profanity, disrupting class, and persistent violation of the student code of conduct.

Although zero-tolerance approaches have strong theoretical roots, the American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force (2008) suggests the use of zero-tolerance policies in schools is excessive and ineffective. For example, minor school infractions such as truancy or classroom disruptions have been punished with mandatory out-of-school suspension. However, there is no research that demonstrates that this type of discipline response improves behavior, rather, most research has concluded that this type of response actually exacerbates the misbehavior (Skiba, 2000; Skiba & Rausch, 2006; Teske, 2011). Additionally, the counterproductive nature of zero-tolerance policies is inherent in the punishment of suspending a student from school for truancy (Teske, Huff, & Graves, 2013). This puts a student at home with little (if any) parental supervision during the day, and an opportunity to converse with other delinquent peers (National Association of School Psychologists, 2015). Although school crime, victimization, and disorder all appear to be decreasing to varying degrees, many of these policies remain in effect today.

The Use of Law Enforcement

Research has noted that zero-tolerance policies are associated with the increased number of law enforcement officers in schools (Teske et al., 2013). Specifically, as zero-tolerance policies continued to extend to a broad range of student misconduct (e.g., dress code violations, swearing, and talking back to a teacher), SROs/SBLEs were being added to the school environment and tasked, often under the direction of school administration, with handling student misbehavior (Brown, 2006; Martinez, 2009).

The roles and duties of these officers have grown and transformed as the issues schools were facing changed. Ultimately, schools began adding SROs/SBLEs to not only

address school crimes, but also behaviors that were included under zero-tolerance policies. These behaviors are usually categorized under disorder, rather than crime (Brady, Balmer, & Phenix, 2007; Coon & Travis, 2012; Patterson, 2007; Weiler & Cray, 2012). The justification and use of law enforcement is therefore partly based on Broken Windows theory with the idea of crime prevention and the minimization of minor criminal incidents that could eventually escalate into major incidents. It was also thought that placing uniformed officers in schools would also create a better relationship between youth and local police (Coon & Travis, 2012), a concept that emerged from community oriented policing. As the use of full-time police in the school environment has emerged as arguably one of the most visible responses to the school crime, victimization, and disorder “problem,” it is necessary to examine the entry and history of police in schools in an effort to fully understand their role in school discipline and enforcement.

The Entry and Expansion of Full-time Law Enforcement into Schools

The first recorded law enforcement officer that was assigned full-time to an American school on a daily basis occurred in the late 1950s in Flint, Michigan (see generally: Coon & Travis, 2012; Cray & Weiler, 2011; Patterson, 2007; Weiler & Cray, 2011). The program was referred to as the “Police-School Liaison Program”, and was the result of a shift in traditional policing attitudes toward a more proactive crime prevention-centered approach. The goal of this program was to use law enforcement officers as a deterrent to prevent crime before it happened in the school environment. Initially, the program only called for law enforcement officers to be used in middle schools; however, after immediate success in the eyes of school administrators⁴, officers were placed in the

⁴ Success was based on mere satisfaction on behalf of school administrators. No systematic empirical evaluation was conducted.

high school settings as well (Weiler & Cray, 2011). States such as Florida, Arizona, Minnesota, and North Carolina developed similar programs that were based on the same large-scale shift in policing philosophy that aimed to be proactive rather than reactive (Patterson, 2007).

The continued development and expansion of law enforcement officers in school continued into the early 1960s when a police chief in Florida was credited with titling officers placed in schools as School Resource Officers (SROs). Since this time, an SRO has been further defined as a certified peace officer that is employed by the local or county law enforcement agency with the goal of increasing safety and security for the school district or campus (Coon & Travis, 2012; Weiler & Cray, 2012). Although definitions of an SRO vary to some degree, almost all suggest that an officer is loaned to the district or campus from a local police agency with the main duty of ensuring safety and order (Coon & Travis, 2012). In the early 1970s only approximately twenty school districts nationwide used SROs in some capacity (Coon & Travis, 2012); however, their numbers continued to increase.

Although their main function remained predominately safety and security of the school environment, law enforcement officers began to adopt an educational role in the mid-1980s (Rosenbaum et al., 1994). This new role mirrored what teachers and educators did in terms of teaching students as part of formal class instruction or guest speakers. This was, in part, due to the development of school-based drug prevention programs, such as the Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE) program. The DARE program was aimed at preventing school children from using illicit drugs and engaging in other criminal behaviors (DeJong, 1987; Rosenbaum et al., 1994; Sigler & Talley, 1995).

DARE and other school-based drug prevention programs were the result of the Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act passed in 1986 (which was later amended in 1989 and titled the Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act), which allowed for the rapid expansion of such programs by providing federal funds through grants to local education agencies (Rosenbaum et al., 1994).

As noted, perhaps the most documented and studied school-based drug prevention program has been DARE. This program was collectively designed and delivered by the Los Angeles Police Department and the Los Angeles Unified School District (DeJong, 1987; Rosenbaum et al., 1994; Sigler & Talley, 1995). The program consisted of one-hour classroom-based lessons that were delivered to students by a law enforcement officer during the school day (DeJong, 1987). Almost initially after the program's launch in Los Angeles, media and program supporters deemed it an overarching success, without much, if any, systematic evaluation (Sigler & Talley, 1995). This resulted in school districts across all 50 states adopting the DARE program in an effort to address juvenile drug use. However, when empirical evaluations were eventually conducted to assess the program's impact, findings were mixed (Lucas, 2008). Specifically, empirical evaluations of the program showed little or no effect on drug use rates of participants. This lack of empirical support ultimately led to the decrease in the use of the DARE program. However, during this time, the number of officers working in the school environment had increased (as they were needed to deliver the program), and these officers typically remained in the school even when DARE programs were abandoned.

It was not until the 1990s that a second spike in the use of law enforcement officers in the school environment occurred. The tragic events that occurred at

Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado, as well as the general perception that youth violence was “out of control” led to the “need” for more law enforcement officers in schools. The federal government responded to such pressure by increasing funding to support the training and implementation of law enforcement officers in schools (Patterson, 2007; United States Department of Justice, Community Oriented Policing Services, 2014).

In 1994, then attorney general Janet Reno, initiated the Public Safety Partnership and Community Policing Act (42 USC § 3796dd). This act also coincided with the creation of the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS), which was created by the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act (H.R. 3355, Pub.L. 103–322), and made available approximately \$8 billion over a six-year period to combat violence across the United States. The COPS office was initially created to oversee the distribution of these funds to grantees across the country. Eventually, the office was tasked with the implementation, sustainability, and evaluation of all efforts aimed at placing law enforcement officers in school settings (Coon & Travis, 2012).

This resulted in the COPS office initially funding the addition of over 6,500 law enforcement officers to American schools under its “COPS in Schools” program (Patterson, 2007). Under this initiative, the office partially funded the addition of SROs to grantee school districts for a three-year period. It was required that officers hired under this program would be placed in schools and engage in community policing practices. Successful grantees also had to demonstrate the capacity to continue the use of the officer(s) after grant funding expired. The last funding announcement under this initiative was in July 2005.

The office continued to support increased numbers of law enforcement officers in schools under various federal initiatives throughout the early 2000s. For instance, under the Safe School/Healthy Students initiative, the office provided an additional \$10 million in funding for hiring officers (Na & Gottfredson, 2013). Similarly, under the Gang Reduction Project, in collaboration with the Office of Justice Programs, the office provided another \$1.5 million for hiring and training officers (United States Department of Justice, Community Oriented Policing Services, 2014). More recent funding announcements from the COPS office include the COPS Hiring Program (CHP), the Safe School Initiative, and Secure Our Schools (SOS), all of which aim to increase funding for officers and/or security equipment (United States Department of Justice, Community Oriented Policing Services, 2014). Although some of these initiatives were general police hiring programs and not school specific, schools and communities often worked collaboratively to increase the number of officers in schools.

The second major event that initiated more federal funding for law enforcement officers in schools was the passing of the Safe Schools Act of 1994 (20 USC §5961). This Act allowed school officials to use a portion of federal monies for school security, including police services and surveillance equipment. This Act was a product of goal number six of the National Education Goals, which stated that by the year 2000, every school in America would be free of drugs and violence (National Education Goals Panel, 1993). This Act was the mechanism by which the federal government provided the resources needed to make schools free of drugs and violence and create an environment ripe for teaching and learning.

The impact of this legislation and various funding initiatives, specifically in terms of the number of officers working in the school environment, was immediately apparent. Approximately 60 percent of high school students in the early 2000s reported the presence of law enforcement in their schools (Kim & Geronimo, 2010). The Bureau of Justice Statistic's Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) survey became the main source to estimate the number of law enforcement officers working in the school environment (Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2014). LEMAS data showed that the number of School Resource Officers (SROs) peaked in 2003 at just fewer than 20,000, remained constant until 2007, at which time the numbers began to decrease slightly (James & McCallion, 2013). Media reports from 2009 are consistent with LEMAS data, estimating that the number of sworn law enforcement officers working in schools was just greater than 17,000 (New York Times, 2009).

Unfortunately, this survey was discontinued in 2007, which has left a void in the assessment of the number of law enforcement officers currently working in the school environment. It must also be noted that most estimates, including the LEMAS survey, only account for officers working as SROs from local law enforcement agencies, and not those officers that work directly for a school district police department. Schools around the country are adopting their own police departments which are under the direction and control of the school district rather than a model whereby officers are on loan from the local police agency. It is clear that a comprehensive examination into the number of officers working in schools is needed.

Impact of the STPP on Students

The school-to-prison-pipeline (STPP) refers to the conclusion that exclusionary discipline practices (e.g., suspension and expulsion) and legal responses (e.g., arrest and ticketing) to misbehavior in schools ultimately increase the likelihood of students becoming enmeshed in the criminal justice system and, ultimately, ending up in prison. However, in practice, much of the research that has been conducted on the STPP fails to show a direct causal connection because it is correlational. Much of the evidence supporting the pipeline demonstrates an increase in the use of both exclusionary discipline practices and legal punishments (which have increased with the presence of school-based police) but there is less research as to whether these discipline practices are directly causal to whether or not a student ends up in prison.

Much of the research related to the STPP focuses on other negative consequences; for instance, contact with the justice system has been shown to have profound effects on a student's academic success. An abundance of research has found that students who experience some form of legal punishment because of their misbehavior in school are more likely to have deficient academic performance and even drop out (Kang-Brown et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2011; Stearns & Glennie, 2006; Suh et al., 2007; Sweeten, 2006). This trend is also found for those students who are suspended from school. Specifically, one study concluded that if a student is suspended in ninth grade, they are twice as likely to drop out of high school (Rausch & Skiba, 2004).

Students who misbehave and are disciplined using legal means are more likely (than students who are disciplined informally using traditional school sanctions such as detention) to have trouble going to college and/or securing employment (Wolf, 2013).

Additionally, these students are also more likely than students who are disciplined informally using traditional school sanctions to have future involvement with the criminal justice system (Carmichael et al., 2005; Fabelo et al., 2011; Wolf, 2013). The negative impacts associated with legal responses and exclusionary discipline have been seen to have an even greater influence on minority and special education students. Wald and Losen (2003) stated that public school systems have long been plagued by inequalities along lines of race and class, and school discipline is showing to be no different.

As noted, prior research has been correlational and has not adequately controlled for potential mediating or moderating variables, such as behavior. For instance, it may be that experiencing exclusionary discipline or a legal response in school and these negative outcomes are all caused by the same precursor factor (e.g., a factor related to the student's personality, or drug use or some other factor). Research has, for the most part, identified a correlational relationship between the use of exclusionary discipline and legal responses, subsequent contact with the justice system, and these negative outcomes. Although this is an important area of research as it pertains to the STPP, and likely needs attention in future research, it is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

Regardless of whether or not this relationship between the formal discipline responses previously described and future prison is causal or merely correlational, there is clear evidence that suggests students, especially minority students and those with special needs, are more likely (than in the past) to have contact with the justice system today as a result of school discipline philosophies. Much of this evidence is in the form of anecdotal instances where arrest, ticketing, or other punitive measures were used to address relatively minor student behavior. However, limited national and jurisdictional

statistics and conclusions indicate a more wide-spread use of law enforcement-driven responses. As a result of growing media and public concern regarding the STPP, many school districts, local jurisdictions, and state agencies have begun to develop responses aimed at curbing the perceived overuse of formal legal responses to school misbehavior.

Responses to the School-to-Prison Pipeline

As evidence supporting the existence of the school-to-pipeline continues to grow, and government agencies and advocacy groups focus attention on issues surrounding this pipeline, responses and reform efforts are growing. Broadly, responses to the pipeline have focused on the use of alternative discipline models, the elimination of zero-tolerance policies, as well as state and local reform of discipline practices and student codes of conduct. All of these efforts are aimed at reducing the likelihood that a student will be removed from school (through arrest or exclusionary discipline practices) and/or experience a legal sanction (e.g., ticketing) for relatively minor misconduct. In turn, academic and social outcomes for students such as improved academic performance, higher graduation rates, admittance into college, and success in the workforce are expected.

Perhaps the most wide-spread response to the growing pipeline is discipline reform at the local level. These initiatives were spearheaded by President Obama in 2011 when he announced the Supportive School Discipline Initiative (SSDI). This initiative called for the United States Department of Education to collaborate with the United States Department of Justice in supporting the development and use of discipline practices that fostered safe and supportive learning environments that keep kids in school (United States Department of Education, 2011). As a result, in 2014, the United States

Department of Education, in collaboration with the United States Department of Justice, released a school discipline guidance package aimed at improving overall school climate. The toolkit included a list of research-based practices for delivering fair, legal, and effective discipline, a list of federal resources that support these practices, and a compilation of school discipline laws and regulations for all 50 states. The guidance package, and the larger initiative, is aimed at providing positive learning environments for students through local discipline reform (United States Department of Education, 2014). President Obama reaffirmed this commitment in 2014 when he called on schools to address the issue, especially as it relates to its impact on minorities (Associated Press, 2014).

As a result, schools and districts across the country have been implementing new discipline programs and philosophies. This includes the implementation of new discipline models such as Positive Behavioral Intervention Systems (PBIS), the use of restorative justice practices in schools, and revision of school discipline policies and student codes of conduct. For example, PBIS is used to create a discipline environment that is focused on developing and providing school-wide systems that support proactive strategies to define, test, and support student behavior (National Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports, 2015). Rather than customizing behavior plans for individual students, a continuum of behavioral supports is provided to all students. These supports are implemented school-wide and are based on proven-practices that enhance personal, health, social, and family outcomes. Ultimately, the systems support positive behavior of students through the prevention of unwanted behavior rather than

punishment (National Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports, 2015).

Although implementation of PBIS in many schools is relatively new, there are early signs of success in terms of impacting the STPP. For instance, schools in South Bend, Indiana implemented PBIS after witnessing the disproportionate number of suspensions received by minorities, especially African American students. Although the disparity still exists, school officials report that the gap has closed, and credit this to the implementation of PBIS (Kilbride, 2014). Additionally, schools in the Salinas Valley of California have also found success in the use of PBIS as a new discipline model. Over 70 percent of students who were previously suspended for minor discipline infractions are now receiving supports and interventions that are keeping them in school and on track academically. This school district has received national attention for their efforts, and was invited to the White House by President Obama to discuss their discipline reform approaches (Robledo, 2015). Further, California lawmakers have set aside approximately \$10 million to train teachers and educators in positive approaches to school discipline over the next three years (Frey, 2015).

Norwalk Public schools have seen similar results after the implementation of PBIS, with a large decline in suspensions and expulsions over the last several years; however, a disproportionate number of African-American students are still receiving suspensions. The district believes that changes in the discipline philosophy can be credited for closing this gap, and reducing the overall number of suspensions (Wilson, 2015). In Texas, El Paso Independent School District chose to implement PBIS after analyzing discipline placement data, realizing that over three percent of students were

being removed from the classroom each year. Initial reports indicate that the program has changed the discipline philosophy of the campuses and district as a whole and decreased the number of students removed from the classroom for disciplinary reasons (Anderson, 2015). Further, Bibb County Schools in Georgia witnessed a 50 percent decrease in suspensions after implementing PBIS (Schick, 2015).

These reforms have also seen the use of restorative justice practices as an alternative discipline model, with similar success in terms of curbing the pipeline. The idea behind such programs is to “repair” the harm caused by the negative behavior rather than removing students from school for their actions. Through these programs, relationships are formed between students, teachers, and administrators that provide students with an opportunity to resolve the problem (Nelson & Lind, 2015). It is a collaborative approach to addressing student misconduct, rather than an exclusionary one, where school staff members talk with students about their actions and develop a plan to address it. Similar to the implementation of PBIS, these programs are relatively new, but have shown some early success.

In Jefferson Parish Louisiana, all 80 public schools are in the process of implementing restorative justice practices. School officials state that rather than being arrested or suspended, teachers and school staff will now sit down with the student who has misbehaved and discuss their actions. From there, they will devise a plan of restitution to repair what they have done to others or the school. The approach is expected to reduce legal responses and exclusionary discipline practices that were previously used to address student misconduct (Williams, 2015). Similarly, Olean City Schools in Western New York has laid out a plan to slowly implement restorative justice practices

into its schools over the next several years. School officials believe the program will support collaboration among students and staff in response to discipline problems, and the reintegration of students after a discipline incident (Boudin, 2015).

The Oakland School District has been experimenting with restorative justice practices for almost ten years, and recently decided to expand the program district wide. This decision was based on the success of the few schools in the district that were testing the program (Nelson & Lind, 2015). Similarly, schools in Grand Rapids, Michigan implemented a counseling program based in restorative justice in 2013. Since its implementation, suspensions have dropped by 444 in the last two school years. The school district plans to roll the program out district wide after seeing such success in the pilot schools (Scott, 2015). Similar programs have been implemented in Sacramento, California schools, where a mediation program has been used to reduce suspensions and expulsions, and improve school climate. Initial data shows that in just one year, suspensions have decreased by 19 percent, and expulsions by almost 10 percent (Lambert & Reese, 2015). As with PBIS, restorative justice focuses on keeping students in school, while also addressing the root causes of their misbehavior.

In addition to altering school discipline practices and models, many local jurisdictions are reevaluating and/or eliminating the use of zero-tolerance policies. As noted, these policies often require mandatory punishments, which are often overly punitive in nature, to be delivered for a specified action. In light of evidence that suggests zero-tolerance policies actually exacerbate discipline problems, and have had no real impact on school crime or violence, their purpose has been called into question. Specifically, the National Association of School Psychologists (2015) notes that these

policies may create environments that lack supervision (e.g., at home while parents are at work) and increase the opportunity to interact with other delinquent peers, especially for those students who already have shown signs of a discipline problem (National Association of School Psychologists, 2015).

In August of 2015, Illinois Governor Bruce Rauner signed Senate Bill 100 into law, which eliminates automatic zero-tolerance suspensions and expulsions for the entire state. The law requires schools to exhaust all other options prior to suspending or expelling a student for more than three days. The law also prohibits the use of fines as a punishment for student misconduct. Similar steps have been taken in New York City schools as well. In February of 2015, the New York City Department of Education called for the end of suspensions initiated by school principals. These changes to the discipline code included requiring that principals obtain central office approval to suspend students for acts of defiance (Berwick, 2015). This comes as a major change to the discipline code which mandated such actions prior to this. Until this time, the discipline code had gone unchanged since it was developed in the 1990s.

The Los Angeles Unified School District has banned the use of suspension for acts of “willful defiance” in schools (Berwick, 2015). As noted earlier, Broward County, Florida witnessed a large percentage of arrests for relatively minor offenses, especially for minorities. As a result, in 2013, district officials decided that all non-violent misdemeanors offenses would be handled by the school district, and not law enforcement officers. This change has seen suspensions decrease by 40 percent and arrests decrease by 66 percent (Stuckie, 2013). Further, Governor Malloy in Connecticut recently signed legislation that prohibited the suspension of pre-k through second graders. This is in

response to state education data that showed over 1,200 students age 12 and younger were suspended in 2014 (Cook, 2015). These changes are in line with the American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force's (2008) recommendations to alter, limit, and create flexibility in such discipline policies.

Finally, these reform efforts also include restricting certain actions of the law enforcement officers that work in schools across the country. For instance, in Clayton County, Georgia, the juvenile court, the police department, and the school district decided to limit the offenses for which an officer could arrest or refer a student to court. The decision led to more students staying in school as well as an increase in the graduation rate by 24 percent over 6 years (Nelson & Lind, 2015). Also, as noted earlier in Chapter One, the State of Texas has passed SB 393, which limits the ability of Texas law enforcement officers working in schools to write misdemeanor citations and prosecute students for minor forms of misconduct.

Although states and local jurisdictions have begun to take different approaches to addressing the STPP, all have the goal of producing school environments that are safe and fair, while keeping kids in school. Large-scale discipline reforms, the altering and/or eliminating of zero-tolerance policies, and restricting the role of police, are perhaps the leading solutions currently. However, more information on the pipeline and these approaches is still needed. As these approaches are relatively new, and have not yet been assessed empirically, research continues to identify factors that may contribute to the pipeline in an effort to develop reform and legislation appropriately.

Law Enforcement and the School-to-Prison Pipeline

As researchers and policymakers continue to search for factors that contribute to this pipeline, many have focused in on the mere use of law enforcement in the school

environment as a major contributor. Dohrn (2002) concluded that the use of full-time police officers in schools creates a “prison-like” environment. Similarly, Meiners (2011) stated that on-site police officers give the campus environment the feel of a juvenile detention center rather than a school, and concluded that placing officers in schools will not make them safer and will only enhance the STPP. Although scarce and limited, the documented “criminalization” of minor misconduct and the increased use of legal punishments in schools have been linked to the presence of SROs and SBLEs (Dohrn, 2002; Kupchik, 2010; Meiners, 2011; Price, 2009; Rimer, 2004; Theriot, 2009).

At least one study has concluded that students in schools with law enforcement officers are more likely to be arrested than students in schools without officers (Na & Gottfredson, 2011). In another study, schools in the same district with officers were compared to those without officers in terms of overall arrest rates (Theriot, 2009). In contradiction to the conclusions made by Na and Gottfredson (2011), these findings indicated that the presence of a law enforcement officer in the school was not associated with more total arrests when controlling for poverty; however, it did predict more arrests for disorderly conduct. Although the total number of arrests did not differ significantly, the increased chance of arrest for disorderly conduct is potentially of concern. Nevertheless, this finding may be due to confounding variables (e.g. student enrollment, location, and any other non-random differences between campuses in the study).

Theriot (2009) further suggested that schools change the way in which officers are used to handle a situation (e.g., take a role other than enforcement). Although the intent of these officers is primarily safety and security of the students and staff, researchers have highlighted some potential unintended consequences of having more full-time

police officers in schools. Essentially, prior research has concluded that having law enforcement officers in schools, coupled with zero-tolerance policies and other punitive policies, has resulted in an educational setting that is much more punitive in nature and one in which students are more likely to be removed for misbehavior (Fowler et al., 2010). These conclusions have generated an overwhelming amount of concern among educators, parents, researchers, and policymakers regarding the use and effectiveness of police in schools (Dohrn, 2002; Kupchik, 2010; Meiners, 2011; Price, 2009; Theriot, 2009).

However, many studies fail to consider or control for other variables that could potentially impact this relationship. For example, the roles officers are given (e.g., enforcement, education, and/or mentor), often by or in conjunction with school administrators, likely impacts their actions (e.g., arrest, educate, and/or counsel) when called to an incident. Additionally, the training officers receive to support their different and expanding roles in the school environment also likely have an impact on how they respond to student misconduct. For example, if an officer is expected to serve in a law enforcement function for a specific school or has no training other than traditional law enforcement academy training, when they respond to an incident, it is likely they will act as a law enforcer. If an officer is expected to serve in a counselor role, and is provided training in counseling and other PBIS approaches, the officer is more likely to respond in that fashion.

That is, the expanding and evolving roles of SROs/SBLEs, coupled with a lack of targeted, specialized training, likely enhances role conflict, and might be responsible for the over use of legal responses to student misbehavior, rather than their mere presence in

schools. In other words, perhaps it has more to do with how officers are being used, and not simply *if* they are being used.

Role Theory

As this study focuses on the roles and the potential role conflict officers face working in the school environment, role theory will be used as the guiding framework to examine how officers respond to student misconduct. Generally, role theory states that most daily activities are the acting out of socially defined norms (Biddle, 1986; Burt 1982; Gibbs, 1989). For instance, the role of a mother may include the activities of making sure her children are prepared and at school on time each day. The role of a teacher may include the activities associated with teaching subjects such as math, reading, and writing to students each day. Each of these actions or set of actions (e.g., taking care of children and teaching) are in line with socially defined norms (i.e., mother or teacher, respectively). Therefore, these actions represent the mere acting out of such socially defined categories of norms. It is believed that human beings behave in ways that are different and predictable based on their social categories (Biddle, 1986).

The concept of “role” is often explained using a metaphor to a theatrical performance. In a play, for instance, actors take on certain parts based on the scripts written for them. The actor’s movements and interactions are guided entirely by the script, which indicates what is expected of the actor in each situation (i.e., analogous to a set of norms). Similarly, social actors (i.e., individuals) in society take on specific parts within the larger society in which scripts composed of norms (including expectations and responsibilities), often gained through formal and informal training and experience, guide their specific actions (Allen & Van de Vliert, 1984; Biddle, 1986; Gibbs, 1989). It is assumed that individuals hold certain social positions that come with specific normative

expectations for their own behavior as well as the behavior of others. Therefore, each role is composed of a set of norms including expectations and responsibilities that a person in that role must fulfill (Allen & Van de Vliert, 1984; Biddle, 1986). In other words, individuals behave in predictable ways based on the role they are fulfilling and the expectations that have been set for that role by society (again, often through training and experience). Therefore, a role represents a set of patterned behaviors that is based on a set of shared normative expectations (Biddle, 1986).

Although many theorists differ slightly on the definition and assumptions surrounding the concept of roles, most agree that it is normative expectations that generate the behaviors associated with a certain role (Biddle, 1986). These normative expectations are learned through training and experience, and serve as the guiding mechanism or script for that role in society. Although there has been debate in the field of sociology for some time regarding the definition of norms, Gibbs (1965 & 1989) developed a normative typology that can be applied when considering how to examine one's role. First, Gibbs (1965) discussed the idea of normative evaluations and normative expectations. Normative evaluations are what individuals *ought to do or not do*, whereas normative expectations are what people *actually do*. For example, it is likely that many individuals believe others should not speed when driving a vehicle (i.e., a normative evaluation), but a majority of those same individuals still speed when driving (i.e., a normative expectation).

Further, Gibbs (1989) introduced the fact that each of these normative qualities has a *personal* and *perceived* component. That is, personal evaluations are what the *social actors themselves* believe they ought to be doing or not doing and personal

expectations are what the *social actors themselves* actually do. Additionally, perceived evaluations are what *others in the same social environment* think one ought to be doing or not doing and perceived expectations are what *others in the same social environment* think one is actually doing or not doing. In sum, norms are therefore made up of an evaluation or expectation component as well as a personal or perceived component. Through prior research, common methods used to identify roles have been developed and can be expressed in terms of this normative typology introduced by Gibbs (1965 & 1989). These methods include asking individuals to report what they are *actually doing or not doing* in their role (i.e., personal expectations) as well as asking others in the same environment what they think these individuals *should be doing or not doing* in those roles (i.e., perceived evaluations) (Mead, 1934).

Assessing what others in the same environment think one should be doing and what one is actually doing is particularly important in regards to two areas associated with role theory. The first is the examination of role consensus. Role consensus is the idea that those in the same social environment should agree on the normative evaluations and expectations of a role (Kolb, 1964). For instance, there are various roles in a typical office setting which are defined by specific normative evaluations and expectations for each role. There could be a receptionist who is expected to answer phones, greet customers, and route matters to the appropriate individual in the office. There may also be an office manager who is expected to oversee the day-to-day operations of the office, and a financial officer who is expected to oversee the monetary aspects of the company, and so on. The degree to which all individuals in the office agree on the normative evaluations and expectations for these roles represents various measures of role

consensus. The predominant research question focused on as it pertains to role consensus is to what extent individuals actually agree on these normative evaluations and expectations for a given role (Biddle, 1986).

The second is the examination of role conflict. Role conflict is when there is disagreement among individuals (i.e., low consensus) regarding the normative evaluations or expectations associated with a specific role (Biddle, 1986). This conflict is the result of concurrent and incompatible normative evaluations or expectations for the behavior of a person. The person then acting in the role that has conflict is subjected to constant pressure as to which set of normative evaluations of expectations should be pursued to fulfill the role (Stryker & Macke, 1978). Role conflict often occurs within the boundaries of complex social systems. Research on role conflict has focused on conflicts among normative evaluations and expectations that are placed on a person by others (Biddle, 1986).

The need to examine both role consensus and conflict stems from the impact that these phenomena can have on both individuals and the social organizations that these individuals represent. Prior research has documented that those individuals who have a high degree of role conflict experience high levels of stress and frustration (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Stryker & Macke, 1978; Van Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981). For instance, Biddle (1986) concluded that role conflict has shown to produce stress for the individual, and must be resolved in order for the individual to be happy and the organization to function properly. However, not all role conflict is the same. Varying types of role conflict include 1) *role ambiguity* (expectations are insufficient to guide behavior), *role malintegration* (different expectations do not work together), *role discontinuity* (when

one is asked to do tasks that are vastly different from one another), and *role overload* (one is faced with too many expectations). One may also have trouble fulfilling the expectations of a role, and thus experience conflict, if they have not been provided the training or experience to carry out such a role (Biddle, 1986). Regardless of the degree, stress and frustration result from the inability of an individual to completely fulfill the conflicting roles or expectations asked of them (Stryker & Macke, 1978; Van Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981).

The stress and frustration resulting from role conflict ultimately impacts the overall functioning of the organization (Biddle, 1986; Van de Vliert, 1981). Specifically, conflict produces poor job performance, low commitment to the organization, a lack of individual motivation, and higher rates of misconduct (Biddle, 1986; Stryker & Macke, 1978). To address role conflict, Van de Vliert (1981) suggested that one of three things must occur: 1) an individual must choose which set of expectations they will follow, 2) this individual must find a compromise between the competing sets of expectations, or 3) the individual must remove themselves from the situation. Hall (1972) suggested a more collaborative process in which the individual should negotiate with the organization over their expectations for the given role and adjust their behavior accordingly. Once the conflict is resolved, researchers have found that individuals will be happy and the social entity (i.e., the school) will be able to function effectively (Biddle, 1986; Stryker & Macke, 1978).

Conversely, higher degrees of role consensus allow for a more efficient social organization (Biddle, 1986). For instance, organizations with high degrees of role consensus have individuals that know what they should be doing and others who will

sanction individuals if the expectations of their role are not fulfilled (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1972). Essentially, these organizations are more integrated, which produces more efficient interactions among individuals in the social organization. This is the case because those that agree on the social expectations of a given role are likely to respond similarly to a stimulus.

The theoretical model of role theory as it was presented above will be applied to this study focusing on the roles, training, and responses to student misconduct used by SROs/SBLEs in the school environment. Specifically, officers currently working in the school environment will be asked to indicate how often they engage in certain actions (i.e., personal normative expectations). Each of these actions corresponds to a role in the school environment that prior literature has identified as common for officers to have. These items will collectively measure the “actual roles” of an officer as these actions are what they actually do, thus representing the acting out of specifically defined expectations. Actual roles are said to be those that are based on the norms, including expectations and responsibilities, of the actor themselves (Mead, 1934). Additionally, officers will be asked how frequently they believe others in the school environment think they should be engaged in the same set of actions (i.e., perceived normative evaluations). These will be referred to as “others’ expected roles” in that these are the officers’ perceptions of the expectations of others who work in this same environment regarding their roles.

Assessing not only the actions and roles officers actually engage in, but also what they believe others’ think in regards to their expected actions and roles will allow for an initial assessment of role consensus to some degree. In this study, the focus is on

examining if what officers are actually doing is in line with what others in the same environment think they should be doing. Although a true assessment of role consensus would require one to examine the expectations of officers themselves as well as the expectations of others in the school environment directly (i.e., surveying teachers, administrators, and other school staff), the officers' perceptions of others working in the school environment could shed some light on potential role consensus or lack thereof. Future research should look to examine the true expectations of others working in the school environment to directly measure role consensus among officers and others working in the school environment. Additionally, examining the amount of role conflict between what officers actually do and what they believe others think they should do will provide greater insight into how roles and expectations of officers may contribute to their documented involvement in the STPP. Ultimately, the focus of this study is on how the actual and perceived roles of law enforcement officers working in the school environment, in conjunction with the training they receive to support these roles, affects their behavior in terms of responding to student misconduct.

Present Research and Importance

In summary, the increase in overall juvenile crimes rates and public fear of “superpredators” in the 1980s and 1990s, coupled with acts of mass violence in schools, led policymakers and the general public to respond. These responses were aimed at ensuring that schools would remain safe havens for children and places where they could learn and develop socially. Two of the responses were the use of zero-tolerance policies and the increased presence of law enforcement officers in schools. Both responses were aimed at preventing and responding to violence, drugs, and crime occurring in schools.

Although crime trends for juveniles, in general and in schools, have decreased over the last decade(s), the “zero tolerance” approaches largely remain in place today. Also, the use of law enforcement in the school environment has become commonplace. Over the last decade and a half, research has identified particular models for the implementation of SROs/SBLEs, developed terminology that describes this group of officers, and identified a wide variety of roles and functions that these officers take on in the school environment. The ways law enforcement officers have been integrated into the educational environment has changed over time, with many school districts now establishing their own police departments. However, despite these developments in school-based policing, little training or guidance has been developed specifically for these officers to support their expanding roles.

The presence of SROs and SBLEs in the school environment has led to a concern regarding the potential negative effects of officers, specifically in how student misconduct is responded to. An abundance of evidence has shown that over the last decade and a half, school discipline has become more punitive and dependent on the legal system. Specifically, research has shown that the increased use of SROs/SBLEs has paralleled the development of a more punitive discipline environment where the response to misconduct is likely to be suspension, expulsion, a ticket, and/or an arrest. These punishments have been regularly correlated with negative academic and social outcomes.

Although reform efforts and legislation have begun to focus on addressing the issue of the STPP, the use SROs/SBLEs remains a factor that researchers and policymakers agree still needs more attention. Therefore, this study aims to develop a

better understanding of how the roles and training of SROs and SBLEs impact their responses to student misconduct in the school environment.

The potential findings of this examination of officer roles and training and how they respond to student misconduct are important for a number of reasons. First, a better understanding of what actions and roles officers engage in, including what they believe others think they should be doing, will allow for a more detailed examination of their impact on the larger STPP trajectory. As recognition of the negative effects inherent in the phenomenon of the STPP grows, it is important to understand how officer's roles may impact a specific piece of this trajectory, specifically official responses to student misconduct. This understanding of roles will allow for more targeted efforts when attempting to curb the negative effects of school discipline (e.g., by identifying and addressing potential role conflict).

Second, it is important to simply understand what roles officers currently have in the school environment, and what training needs these roles create. Identifying the role-specific training needs of officers will ensure that officers working in schools are as prepared as possible, which will likely lead to better outcomes for schools and students as they will have been given the tools to act in the roles they have been tasked.

Finally, with the number of officers working in the school environment increasing daily, it is important to identify ways they can be used effectively. That is, it is important to evaluate how officers can increase the safety of the school environment, but also ensure that their actions and responses do not stunt students' growth academically or socially. It is not likely that officers will simply be removed from the school environment; therefore, attention must be turned to how they can be effectively integrated

into the school environment. Fully understanding the roles that these officers take on in the school environment and the training they receive in preparation for these roles will likely provide necessary insight in how they respond to student misconduct. Collectively, the findings of this study can be used to guide further research, practice, and policy in regards to the use of officers in the school environment.

The next chapter, Chapter III, provides a discussion of methodology including research questions, the target population and sample, data collection and instrumentation, the conceptualization and operationalization of the variables and measures of this study, and the procedures for conducting this research. These aspects are discussed first for the quantitative survey and then for the qualitative interviews. This section also includes an explanation of the analyses techniques to be used and potential limitations of the study.

III. METHODOLOGY

Chapter III begins with the primary research questions guiding this dissertation. Next, the research design is presented, detailing both a quantitative questionnaire and qualitative interviews with officers currently working in Texas schools. The target population for the overall study is described, followed by the participants, survey mode, instrument development, measures, and procedures of the quantitative questionnaire. Similar information is then presented for the qualitative interviews that will follow the questionnaire. This will be followed by a brief outline of the analytical plan. In Chapter IV and V, the findings of this dissertation will be presented.

Research Questions

Through a series of research questions, this study examined the roles and activities of commissioned law enforcement officers serving as SROs/SBLEs in the state of Texas. Specifically, there are three broad research questions with sub-queries under each addressed by this study:

- 1) *What are the predominant roles of commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment and their correlates (sex, age, race, years in law enforcement, grade-level served, geographical area of the campus, and percentage of students receiving free/reduced lunch)?*
- 2) *What types of training do commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment receive and what factors correlate with specific types of training?*
- 3) *What are the common responses to student misconduct used by commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment, and how do an officer's role and/or prior training affect their response?*

Each of the research questions is presented more fully below.

Officer Roles

The first major research question of this study was “*What are the predominant roles of commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment and their correlates?*” Specifically, this study aimed to understand the “actual roles” of law enforcement officers working in Texas schools, as well as the officers’ perceptions of what they believe others in the school environment think they should be doing (“others’ expected roles”). As mentioned, role theory states that *actual roles* are those that are based on the expectations, norms, and responsibilities of the actor themselves (i.e., the officer) (Mead, 1934). An additional way of analyzing one’s role is to examine others’ expectations of their roles, which will be referred to as *others’ expected roles* (Mead, 1934). There are four subsidiary queries that also pertain to officer roles:

- What are the *actual roles* of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment (as measured by officers’ reports of what they do on a daily basis)?
- What expectations do others have regarding the roles of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment (as measured by what officers believe others in the school think they should be doing)?
- Who is responsible for establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment?
- Are there any individual (e.g., sex, age, race, years in law enforcement) and/or aggregate (e.g., grade-level served, geographical area of the campus, percentage of students receiving free/reduced lunch) correlates that seem to influence the presence of any role-types?

This series of research questions was designed to thoroughly understand the roles SROs/SBLEs have in the school environment.

Officer Training

The second major research question of this project was “*What types of training do commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment receive and what factors correlate with specific types of training?*” There are two subsidiary queries that also pertain to officer training in the school environment:

- What types of training do SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment receive?
- Are there any individual (sex, age, race, and years in school-based policing) and/or aggregate (e.g., service structure, geographical area, and crime/disorder level) correlates that seem to influence the training an officer receives?

These research questions addressed the types of training received by officers working in the school environment as well as the factors that might influence whether or not they receive certain types of training.

Responses to Student Misconduct

The final major research question of this study was “*What are the common responses to student misconduct used by commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment, and how do an officer’s role and/or prior training affect their response?*” There are four subsidiary queries:

- What are the common responses to student misconduct used by SROs/SBLEs working in a school environment?

- Are there any individual (e.g., sex, age, and years in school-based policing) and/or aggregate (e.g., service structure, grade level(s) served, and geographical area) correlates that seem to influence the types of responses to student misconduct used by SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment?
- How do the *actual roles* of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment impact their response to student misconduct?
- How does the training of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment impact the types of responses to student misconduct used?

This series of research questions examined the ways SROs/SBLEs respond to student misconduct in the school environment, and how these responses may be influenced by their actual (e.g., self-perceived) roles and the types of training these officers receive.

Research Design

The methodology of this research utilized a mixed-methods approach in that both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used to address the research questions. In this study, both an online questionnaire and qualitative interviews were conducted with SROs/SBLEs currently working in the school environment across the state of Texas. By combining such methodologies, this study aimed to take advantage of the benefits associated with both of these methodologies, while attempting to also address the limitations of each method. Specifically, as Greene (2016) noted, mixed methods methodologies combine the *why* and *how* of qualitative research with the *how much* of quantitative research. A mixed methods approach allows for both a narrow and wide lens, which allows for a higher quality understanding of the issue under study. Finally, Greene

(2016) concluded that many police issues would benefit from an examination using a mixed-methods approach.

The online questionnaire associated with the study was delivered in a manner that was designed to increase the response rate, limit potential bias, and reduce various forms of error associated with survey research. Specifically, a mixed-mode approach was taken to improve the overall quality of the data gathered using this questionnaire. A mixed-mode approach to survey research involves the use of a number of different communication modes (i.e., telephone, mail, in-person, and internet) to reduce the total survey error (i.e., simultaneously controlling all types of error to the extent practical within the cost and time constraints) (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014).

Prior research highlights four main types of survey error that must be considered when designing and delivering a survey: 1) coverage error, 2) sampling error, 3) non-response error, and 4) measurement error. Coverage error is when the sampling frame does not accurately represent the characteristics of the population of interest (Dillman et al., 2014). The coverage error is the difference between the survey estimate produced with an inaccurate sampling list, and the estimate produced with an accurate sampling list. Sampling error is the difference between the estimates produced when only a sample of units from the frame is considered and when all units from the frame are included (Dillman et al., 2014). Sampling error occurs anytime a sample of the population is surveyed rather than the entire population. Non-response error is the difference between the estimates produced when only some of the sampled units respond and when all the units respond (Dillman et al., 2014). This occurs when those that respond and those that do not are different, thus bias is introduced into the estimate. Finally, measurement error

is the difference between the estimate obtained from the survey data and what the true value actually is of a given construct (Dillman et al., 2014). To reduce total survey error using a mixed-modes approach, the idea is to utilize the strengths of different modes to overcome the weaknesses of others, thus reducing the total survey error.

Dillman et al. (2014) noted that how one actually mixes modes is dependent on what the motivation is for mixing modes. For example, how a researcher mixes modes may depend on the type of error one is trying to reduce, the cost limitations of the research, or time constraints placed on data collection. It may be that data is collected through one or several modes and/or that notification and reminders are given through one mode and data collection occurs in another. Specifically, for this study, the main mode of data collection was online; however, respondents were notified and reminded of the request to participate via other modes (i.e., email, postal mail, and telephone).

From those officers that participated in the online quantitative questionnaire, a sample was solicited to participate in a follow-up qualitative interview. Conducting follow-up qualitative interviews with respondents was beneficial for two major reasons. First, these interviews allowed the quantitative findings to be put into greater context when making conclusions and/or policy recommendations. Specifically, these qualitative interviews did not simply reiterate information collected in the quantitative questionnaire, but rather reinforced, re-informed, and re-constructed the larger issues associated with the use of full-time police in schools and specifically how they may or may not be influencing a specific piece of the school-to-prison pipeline (STPP). Second, although these types of interviews have been done in prior research (McKenna et al., 2014; Martinez-Prather, McKenna, & Bowman, 2016a; Martinez-Prather, McKenna, &

Bowman, 2016a), this study looked to expand the population and sample to include not just those officers employed by a school district police department (i.e., SBLEs), but also those that are contracted to work in schools from local police agencies (i.e., SROs). It was expected that this expanded population would shed light on differences between SROs and SBLEs. Collectively, these two methodologies allowed the research questions to be addressed effectively and comprehensively.

Target Population

The target population of this study was all SROs/SBLEs currently working in a public school environment on a regular basis (i.e., assigned daily versus responding on an as needed basis or for certain extracurricular events) in the state of Texas. In an effort to assess this population, an open records request was submitted to the Texas School Safety Center (TxSSC). The TxSSC is the state agency legislatively responsible for the safety and security of Texas Independent School Districts (ISDs). Specifically, the TxSSC serves as the central repository for the dissemination of safety and security information, including research, training, and technical assistance for K-12 schools and public junior colleges throughout Texas.

According to the Texas Education Code (TEC) 37.108, public school districts are required to complete safety and security audits of their facilities once every three years. Subsequently, certain results of these audits are to be reported to the TxSSC and compiled in a statewide report. In 2014, the TxSSC published the *District Audit Report: Findings on Safety and Security in Texas School Districts 2011 – 2014* report (Martinez-Prather, McKenna, Calder, 2014). This purpose of the report is to provide key results of the safety and security audits completed by Texas public school districts. In addition to questions pertaining to the safety and security audit process and legislatively mandated

actions in school safety and emergency management, the TxSSC collected additional information on a number of practices and processes related to school safety, including the use of law enforcement officers in schools.

One such question asked school districts to report the type of school safety/security personnel their districts utilized, if any. Districts chose from a number of school safety/security personnel types, including SROs and ISD police departments (SBLEs). The TxSSC later conducted a follow-up inquiry to this item, seeking information from districts that reported the use of commissioned law enforcement officers as to the number of officers employed or contracted by the district. Therefore, the open records request was made to the TxSSC to obtain a list of districts that indicated using some form of commissioned law enforcement officers as safety and security personnel as well as the number of officers they reported utilizing.

It was estimated that approximately 450 school districts (out of 1,027) in Texas utilize commissioned law enforcement officers in some fashion on a daily basis (Texas School Safety Center, personal communication, October 4, 2015). This includes both contracted SROs employed by the city, county or local police agency, and officers employed by the district in a school-based police department under the direct control of the school district. Further, it was estimated that roughly 3,500 commissioned law enforcement officers serve these 450 Texas school districts⁵.

⁵ Estimates were obtained from the TxSSC, specifically data from District Audit Report and follow up research on the number of officers working in Texas schools.

Quantitative Data

Questionnaire Participants

It would have been ideal to survey the entire universe of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a public school environment in the state of Texas (i.e., all 3,500) or, alternatively, to draw a random sample of members from this population, however, this sampling was not practical due to the lack of a complete sampling frame. Although the TxSSC collected information related to which school districts in Texas use law enforcement, and even the number of officers used by each, contact information for each and every officer was not obtained. There is no other state agency or association that this researcher is aware of that tracks and records such information for all officers that are working for a school district or assigned to one by their local police agency. Therefore, there was no complete sampling frame (i.e., one that provides complete coverage of the population) that included contact information for the estimated 3,500 officers currently working in Texas schools in existence from which one could survey the universe or draw a random sample from the universe of officers.

Instead, the list used for the quantitative, survey portion of this research was obtained from the TxSSC and represents the best available contact information. The TxSSC actively collects individual officer contact information from training registration forms, web-contact forms, and manual searches of specific school and department websites. Officers that attended any one of the TxSSC training programs or events provide contact information to the Center. Additionally, any individual that has an interest in school safety can voluntarily request to be added to the contact list by completing a web-based contact form. Finally, the TxSSC periodically searches the web,

specifically district, campus, and police websites, in an effort to include individuals on specific contact lists as this information may be useful to them.

Each entry on this contact list contains an individual's title (e.g., chief, officer, or deputy), their agency, a physical mailing address, a phone number, and an email address. This contact list is updated approximately once a quarter. Although this list does not include every officer currently working in the school environment in the state, it was believed to provide adequate coverage of the population. Therefore, this list served as the sampling frame for this study, despite its lack of complete coverage of the population. This list contained 2,801 individuals that were believed to be current SROs/SBLEs working in a public school environment in the state of Texas. In an effort to increase the response rate and coverage of the larger population, each individual on this contact list was included in the study sample. Although this sampling technique was not random, it was believed to be the best way in which to reach members of this population. Therefore, the potential participants for this study were all 2,801 officers included on the TxSSC's school-based law enforcement contact list.

Questionnaire Mode

The administration and delivery of the questionnaire component of this study was primarily online delivery, but contacting and recruiting respondents also occurred via other modes. Specifically, participants were asked to answer and submit responses to the questionnaire electronically through an online software program (i.e., Snap Surveys). The Snap Surveys software allows a researcher to create a questionnaire with a variety of question types, utilize complex logic patterns within the questionnaire construction, and deliver the questionnaire to potential respondents in a number of formats and mediums.

The software also has the ability to collect and store these data with a username and password that can later be exported to various statistical software packages (e.g. SPSS or STATA). Each questionnaire created is hosted on a secure server with a URL that is unique to that questionnaire⁶.

Although selected as the primary method of data collection for this study, web-based survey research is not without potential limitations that must be considered. Perhaps the biggest issue associated with this survey mode (which was discussed earlier) is the lack of an adequate sampling frame for most populations (Brick, 2011; Dillman et al., 2014). The lack of an adequate sampling frame can lead to issues of under- and over-coverage as some individuals in the population may be excluded and others not in the population may be included. As noted, in this study, this potential issue was mitigated by the use of the most comprehensive sampling frame available for this population (i.e., the contact list compiled by the TxSSC). Although not ideal, this was the best approach for sampling this population while considering the potential issues associated with coverage and representativeness.

Additionally, prior research has indicated that response rates for online questionnaires are typically lower than other modes of survey research (i.e., mail, telephone, and face-to-face) (Brick, 2011; Dillman et al., 2014). Although this is a serious concern, research has also highlighted ways survey design and delivery can overcome issues related to response rates, while also ensuring quality data (Crawford, McCabe, Saltz, Boyd, Freisthler, & Paschall, 2004; Dillman et al., 2014; De Leeuw, Callegaro, Hox, Korendijk, & Lensvelt-Mulders, 2007; Kaplowitz, Hadlock, & Levine, 2004;

⁶ For more information regarding the design and functionality of Snap Surveys software, visit their website at www.snapsurveys.com.

Smyth, Dillman, Christian, & O'Neill, 2010). For instance, advance letters have been shown to increase response rates by upwards of 20 percent (Crawford et al., 2004; De Leeuw et al., 2007; Kaplowitz et al., 2004; Smyth et al., 2010). Specifically, mailed advance letters were found to significantly increase web response rates and demographic representativeness (Dykema, Stevenson, Klein, Kim, Day, 2012). For these reasons, an advance letter initiated contact with potential participants in this study.

Using multiple modes of communication also increases the likelihood of response (Dillman et al., 2014; Millar & Dillman, 2011). For this study, the researcher had access to email addresses, phone numbers, and physical mailing addresses for their place of employment that were obtained through the open records request to the Texas School Safety Center. Although an online questionnaire was the primary mode for data collection purposes, other modes were used to notify respondents of the request for them to participate in the research study as well as to remind them of this request throughout the data collection period. By contacting potential respondents included in the sample using different modes, coverage and response rate were expected to increase as opposed to only using one mode of contact (Messer & Dillman, 2011; Millar & Dillman, 2011).

Delivering a questionnaire through the web also removes human interaction, which can create problems of clarity and lack of understanding on the part of the respondents which may influence the quality of these data (Dillman et al., 2014; Millar & Dillman, 2011). For instance, if items are not clearly worded, or response categories are not carefully selected to reflect the full range of potential responses, participants may skip the item (i.e., item non-response), decide not to participate (i.e., unit non-response), or provide inaccurate information (i.e., measurement error). As in other modes (i.e.,

telephone and face-to-face), participants will not have the opportunity to ask the researchers for clarification in these instances. Therefore, careful attention was paid to the development of items and the overall delivery of this questionnaire.

Finally, web-based survey research is even further complicated by new technology (Dillman et al., 2014). As the internet and technology continue to evolve, people are now able to access the internet on a number of different devices in many different forms. For instance, people use tablets, cellphones, and other handheld devices to surf the web, check email, and use apps. This creates even more issues for web-based surveys because delivery platforms (e.g., survey monkey, Qualtrics, Snap Survey) must now be adaptive to screen size and device usability. If they are not compatible with these devices, usability and respondent experience may result in non-response error. Snap Survey software is adaptive to various screen sizes and devices, which will allow for greater usability. Overall, the internet has allowed researchers greater access to potential respondents, but has created a host of additional methodological issues that hinder its use as a reliable mode of data collection. Web-based surveys, if designed properly, have many desirable features that made this mode most appropriate for this particular study.

Delivering this questionnaire in an online medium was beneficial for a number of reasons related to the respondents' experience, the practical logistics and delivery of the survey, and the quality of the data collected. First, designing the survey to meet the needs of respondents was crucial to achieving an adequate response rate and quality data. In line with social exchange theory, potential respondents are more likely to participate in the study if they believe that the benefits of the study outweigh the expected costs (i.e., time and effort asked of them). Therefore, in addition to highlighting the benefit of their

participation in all study materials, the burden of completing a survey can be reduced in how the survey is delivered. For instance, online surveys decrease the burden on respondents because they do not require that responses be written out by hand, that the survey be conducted at some prearranged time with the researcher (i.e., in person or telephone), or that surveys be returned by mailing them back to the researchers.

Additionally, the actual questionnaire did have conditional questions that can sometimes complicate the traditional pencil and paper-based survey delivery method. Conditional questions are those that are based on a respondent's answer to a previous question or set of questions. The conditional questions therefore may or may not apply depending on the previous responses. Based upon their answers, a respondent is then directed to their next question or set of questions with text indicating what number they should "skip" to next. The online delivery of the questionnaire in this project simplified this process because the question logic was built into the questionnaire construction. This means that potential respondents were never exposed to the actual question logic pertaining to the conditional questions. Rather, the software program conveniently routed them to the appropriate question or set of questions automatically based on their responses to questions that the research had identified as conditional questions. This delivery medium likely simplified the user experience and hopefully increased full completion of the questionnaire.

Second, logistically and from a practical standpoint, delivery of the questionnaire via the web was acceptable. For instance, the participant population and subsequent sample were spread across a wide geographical area (i.e., the state of Texas which spans 268,581 square miles), thus attempting to survey each potential participant in person

would have been nearly impossible both from a logistical and cost standpoint. Utilizing an online questionnaire allowed the researcher to reach a much larger portion of the study's intended population without a significant financial and logistical burden. Additionally, the researcher was able to provide technical assistance to respondents that were having trouble with the questionnaire, and view/export data with ease, among other convenient features. Data entry and coding were also minimized to a certain degree because the data was entered and stored directly in the online software program. This also allowed for immediate access (to anyone that is authorized) to the study questionnaire and data anywhere where there is an internet connection.

Finally, and perhaps most important, delivering the survey through an online medium increased the quality of the data collected. For instance, prior research (Lind, Schober, Conrad, & Reichert, 2013; Tourangeau, Groves & Redline, 2010) has suggested that respondents are more likely to provide socially desirable answers when participating in a survey delivered by another individual (i.e., phone or in-person). Therefore, to decrease the potential that officers provide socially desirable responses, an online survey delivery was chosen. Additionally, an online survey has shown to reduce bias that is often attributed to other survey modes as it relates to sensitive information. For instance, web surveys have shown to increase the reporting of sensitive information (Tourangeau et al., 2010). As some officers may see what they do and how they respond to student misconduct as sensitive, an online delivery of the survey was believed to be most appropriate. Also, the security of these data is greatly improved when using an online delivery medium. The software being used for this study was controlled with a unique username and password, which limited access to these data to only the researcher.

Activities, including changes to the questionnaire and viewing/exporting the data, were logged to ensure that no unauthorized actions were occurring. It is believed that for all the reasons noted above (i.e., respondent experience, practicality, and data quality) that an online delivery of this questionnaire was most appropriate.

Questionnaire Development

The online questionnaire that was used to collect data in this study was created by the researcher. Specifically, the online questionnaire was created using prior literature in the area of school-based policing as well as school crime and safety to answer the specific research questions presented above. Although the larger body of literature pertaining to the use of full-time police in school was relied upon in general, three studies were of central importance to the questionnaire development.

The first is a project and data collection instrument developed by the National Center for Education Statistics (NES). This project, titled *School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS)*, was administered by NES to a national sample of school principals during five school years (1999-2000, 2003-2004, 2005-2006, 2007-2008, and 2009-2010) in an effort to provide estimates of school crime, discipline, disorder, programs and policies. The survey collects data from over 3,000 respondents in areas such as disciplinary problems and actions, school security, staff training, parent involvement at school, and other variables related to school violence. The SSOCS serves as the primary source of school-level data on crime and safety for the United States. The next scheduled administration of the SSOCS was in the spring of 2016; however, results are not expected until spring 2017. More information regarding this questionnaire can be found at <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/ssocs/>. The instrument in the SSOCS was used to construct the

items related to school crime/disorder, activities of law enforcement officers in the school environment. Additionally, the general layout and design of the questionnaire was modeled after the national survey.

The second study that was relied upon when creating the questionnaire for this project was one conducted by Coon and Travis (2012). In this study, the researchers examined the role of law enforcement officers by conducting a mail survey of school principals and law enforcement administrators. Specifically, the researchers compared school administrators to police administrators in their perspectives on the current activities of law enforcement officers working in the school environment. Although Coon and Travis (2012) found some agreement in terms of the activities that law enforcement officers are involved in while working in the school context, police administrators reported a more diverse set of activities that extended beyond a mere law enforcement function than did school administrators. The study's questionnaire was used in this project to create items and measures related to the roles of law enforcement officers in schools. Specifically, the activities reported by law enforcement and school administrators in the study conducted by Coon and Travis (2012) were used to develop an initial set of items for measuring officer roles. These items were then refined and added to other items based upon additional literature in this area of research.

The third and final piece of research that was utilized in developing the current questionnaire was a group of studies conducted by McKenna, Martinez-Prather, and Bowman (2014; 2016a; 2016b) related to the roles, discipline/enforcement practices, and training of school-based law enforcement officers in Texas. The study was qualitative in design and used in-depth phone interviews with 26 school-based police officers across

Texas. In each study, the interviews were transcribed into NVivo and coded to identify themes and patterns related to SBLE officer roles, how they handled student misconduct, and training they may or may not have received relating to their work in the school environment. Each of the studies provided a set of themes which this project used as the basis for item development.

Collectively, these studies, along with other research in the area of school-based policing, served as a basis and starting point for item development. These items were then used to create measures relating to the roles of law enforcement officers in the school setting (both actual and expected from others), their responses to student misconduct, and their level of training. In line with the focus of this research, the items developed for this questionnaire were further grouped into sections when presented in the questionnaire.

Questionnaire Sections and Measures

The questionnaire that was used in this study contained five sections and 33 questions (some of which have multiple items). The sections, specific items, and corresponding measures are discussed below.

Officer roles. The first section of the questionnaire focused on the actual roles of SROs/SBLEs working in a school environment, their perceptions of what others in the school environment think their roles should be, and how these roles are developed. A series of activities that officers may or may not engage in while working in the school environment was presented. The first question in this section asked respondents to report how often they engage in each activity while working in the school environment. This question was aimed at understanding an officer's actual role, which Mead (1934)

described as those roles that are based on the expectations, norms, and responsibilities of the actor themselves.

The second question presented the same list of activities, but asked respondents to report how frequently they believe others working in the school (e.g., teachers, campus administrators, district administrators, police administrators) think they should be engaged in each of the actions. Mead (1934) suggested that an alternative way of analyzing roles is to ask subjects what they believe to be others' expectations of their roles, which can be referred to as "others' expected roles." This section and the corresponding items were placed first in the survey because it was believed that officers would be eager to share the activities and duties they engage in within the school environment, and thus be motivated to participate in the survey. Additionally, the items were worded in such a way that differentiated actual and others' expectations of their role as well as captured the wide variation of roles these officers may or may not engage in.

Each activity, in both questions, was presented in Likert-scale format in an effort to determine how often each of these activities is engaged in by the respondent or the respondent's perception of what others think he/she should be engaging in. Likert-scale categories included *Never*, *Once a Year*, *Twice a Year*, *Once a Month*, *Once Every Two Weeks*, *Once a Week*, and *Every Day*. Each Likert-scale response was given a numerical value ranging from 0 (Never) to 6 (Every Day). Each of the activities was derived from prior research (Coon & Travis, 2012; McKenna et al., 2014; Martinez-Prather et al., 2016a.; National Center for Education Statistics, 2010), which clearly identified the triad model⁷, as well as extended versions of such, as a way to categorize officer activities in

⁷ The triad model details three predominant roles for officers working in the school environment: 1) enforcement, 2) education, and 3) mentoring (Kennedy, 2001).

the school environment. Each of these activities fit into a broader measure of officer roles in the school environment. The ten measures of officer “roles” included:

- *Actual law enforcer*
- *Actual mentor/role model*
- *Actual educator*
- *Actual surrogate parent*
- *Actual social worker*
- *Expected law enforcer*
- *Expected mentor/role model*
- *Expected educator*
- *Expected surrogate parent*
- *Expected social worker*

Actual law enforcer is a composite measure comprised of nine different actions that correspond to a role that emphasizes law enforcer functions (see Table 1). Therefore, a respondent’s total score on the measure ranged from 0 (e.g., all of the nine actions are engaged in “Never” [0]) to 54 (e.g., all of the nine actions are engaged in “Every Day” [6]).

Table 1. Actual Law Enforcer Actions

Crime prevention
Enforcement of law violations
Enforcement of code of conduct violations
Investigation of criminal activity
Patrol the inside of the school
Patrol the outside of the school
Engage in a specialized school-based police unit (e.g., gang unit, narcotics)
Traffic enforcement
Emergency management

Actual mentor/role model is a composite measure that included six different actions that correspond to a mentor/role model role (see Table 2). Therefore, a respondent’s total score on the measure ranged from 0 (e.g., all of the six actions are engaged in “Never” [0]) to 36 (e.g., all of the six actions are engaged in “Every Day” [6]).

Table 2. Actual Mentor/Role Model Actions

Assist students or their families with law-related issues
Provide advice to students about their behavior
Provide advice to students about problems they have at home
Talk with students in the hallways
Reach out to at-risk students
Build positive relationships with students

Actual educator is a composite measure created based upon five items that correspond to an educator role (see Table 3). A respondent's total score on the measure ranged from 0 (e.g., all of the five actions are engaged in "Never" [0]) to 30 (e.g., all of the five actions are engaged in "Every Day" [6]).

Table 3. Actual Educator Actions

Teach classes
Give presentations
Utilize informal opportunities to teach students about behavior
Provide informal counseling to students on juvenile law and the consequences of violating it
Provide in-service training to teachers/staff

Actual surrogate parent is a composite measure that is comprised of four items relating to a surrogate parent role (see Table 4). A respondent's total score on the measure ranged from 0 (e.g., all of the four actions are engaged in "Never" [0]) to 24 (e.g., all of the four actions are engaged in "Every Day" [6]).

Table 4. Actual Surrogate Parent Actions

Provide emotional support to students
Provide positive encouragement to students
Provide basic necessities (clothing and school supplies) for students
Provide monetary assistance to students

Actual social worker is a composite measure based upon three different actions that correspond to a social worker role (see Table 5). Therefore, a respondent's total score

on the measure ranged from 0 (e.g., all of the three actions are engaged in “Never” [0]) to 18 (e.g., all of the three actions are engaged in “Every Day” [6]).

Table 5. Actual Social Worker Actions

Visit a student at home
Provided a list of social services to students
Encourage parents to be more involved in their students life

The next five measures mirrored those of the actual roles of law enforcement officers in the school environment, yet they measured the officers’ perceptions of what others working in the school environment (e.g., teachers, campus administrators, district administrators, police administrators) think they should be doing. Respondents were provided with the same series of actions related to each role in a school environment, but were asked to indicate how frequently they believe others working in the school environment think they *should* engage in each of the actions considering their interactions over the past 12 months. The additional five measures are: *Expected law enforcer*, *Expected mentor/role model*, *Expected educator*, *Expected surrogate parent*, and *Expected social worker*. As noted, the parameters of each measure mirrored its corresponding measure of actual roles.

Additionally, this section also included a set of Likert-scale items pertaining to who is involved in establishing the roles and responsibilities of officers working in the school environment. Each Likert-scale item represented a group associated with the school or the police agency responsible for providing services. Respondents were asked to report the degree to which each group is involved as it relates to the establishment of law enforcement officer roles in the school environment.

Each measure in this group is a single item continuous measure that ranged from 0 to 4 (not involved, rarely involved, sometimes involved, often involved, and always involved). There were a total of five groups (actors) that respondents could choose from as well as a choice of officer discretion (see Table 6).

Table 6. Establishment of Role Items

District administrators
Campus administrators
Campus staff
Police administrators
School board
Individual officer discretion

Responses to student misconduct. Section two of the questionnaire contained items related to SRO's/SBLE's responses to student misconduct. This section was placed second in the survey because it was believed that this information may be more sensitive to officers (when compared to items regarding roles and training); therefore, it was best not to open the survey with such items. Additionally, the items were worded in a way that captured the diversity in how officers have responded to student misconduct in the school environment as well as the various situational factors that may also impact how an officer responds.

In this section, as certain contextual factors likely play a role in how SROs/SBLEs respond to student misconduct, a factorial survey design composed of vignettes was used. This design allowed the researcher to present specific situations for respondents to consider, while varying certain factors (i.e., independent variables) randomly that were assumed to influence the decision making process of officers and while holding constant all other details of the situation. This design allowed the researcher to utilize benefits associated with a true experimental approach.

Specifically, in this research study there was one vignette scenario that varied in terms of 1) *the student's age*, 2) *the incident seriousness*, 3) *the student's level of cooperation*, and 4) *the student's known misconduct history*. In this study, each of these four factors was an independent variable that was controlled by the researcher. That is, each scenario was presented identically, except for the information pertaining to the factors. The varying levels of each factor were randomly assigned to each vignette presented to the respondent. The vignette scenario used in this study was developed using prior literature as well as past experience and knowledge of the researcher. The specific vignette scenario was, “*You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a [insert student age] student [insert incident seriousness]. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student [insert level of cooperation]. To your knowledge, [insert student history].*”

As noted, this vignette had four independent variables. The first, *student's age*, had seven levels that ranged from 12 years old to 18 years old. That is, the student involved in the incident was between 12 and 18 years old, which was randomly assigned to each vignette presented to a potential respondent. This age range was chosen because it corresponded to the average age range of students in middle and high school.

The second independent variable was *incident seriousness*. This variable had six levels that varied in terms of the seriousness of the incident (see Table 7). Specifically, these incidents ranged from insubordination to a low-level weapons offense.

The third independent variable was the *student's level of cooperation* and had three levels (see Table 7.). The three levels of student cooperation ranged from complete

cooperation (i.e., responding to the officer's commands appropriately) to complete resistance (i.e., defiance of the officer's commands).

Table 7. Vignette Factors and Levels

<i>Factor 1: Student's Age</i>
Level 1: 12 years old
Level 2: 13 years old
Level 3: 14 years old
Level 4: 15 years old
Level 5: 16 years old
Level 6: 17 years old
Level 7: 18 years old
<i>Factor 2: Incident Seriousness</i>
Level 1. who is refusing to change their clothes, which is in clear violation of the dress code
Level 2. who has been asked to leave class for being disruptive and has refused
Level 3. who pushed another student down to the ground during an argument, but no one was injured
Level 4. who pushed another student down to the ground during an argument and the other student received a cut on their forehead requiring a trip to the school nurse
Level 5. who has a marijuana pipe and is showing it to other students
Level 6. who has a pocket knife and is showing it to other students
<i>Factor 3: Student's Level of Cooperation</i>
Level 1. responds with their name and gets up and goes with you
Level 2. does not respond and gets up and begins to walk away from you
Level 3. responds "it is none of your business" and refuses to get up and go with you
<i>Factor 4: Student's Known Misconduct History</i>
Level 1. the student has never been in trouble before
Level 2. the student has been in trouble a few times before for minor misconduct
Level 3. the student has been in trouble a number of times before for severe misconduct

The final independent variable was the *student's known misconduct history*, which had three levels. The three levels pertained to varying degrees of officer knowledge about the student's past misconduct history (see Table 7.). In total, there were 378 possible different combinations of factors (seven levels of age X six seriousness levels X three student cooperation levels X three student misconduct history levels).

Each respondent was presented with 10 of the 378 possible combinations for this vignette. The first vignette was the same for every respondent. The responses to this first vignette served as a baseline measure of overall response punitiveness for each individual participant. For the remaining nine vignettes, the various levels of each factor were randomly assigned to each respondent's set of vignettes.

For each of the 10 vignettes presented to respondents, they were asked to indicate how likely they would be to use four different responses to the situation. Specifically, respondents were asked "*Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation (insert response to misconduct)?*" This question was asked for each of the response to misconduct measures including 1) *using some form of informal counseling*, 2) *using some form of school-based punishment*, 3) *by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review*, and 4) *by arresting the student*.

An informal counseling response included any single or combination of the following actions: talking with students to understand the root causes of their behavior, making students think about their actions and why it is wrong, using student mistakes as a learning opportunity for them, educating students on why their behavior is a problem, and using restorative justice approaches that involve bring the parents, offender, and victim

together. School-based punishment included sending a student to a campus administrator, “writing-up” a student using the school referral system, sending a student to In-School Suspension (ISS), taking away a student’s free time or other valued activities (e.g., athletics, lunchtime), requiring a student to do school/community service, requiring a student to come to school during no scheduled hours (evenings or weekends), and punishing a student under a school zero tolerance policy. Issuing a class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review involved the officer issuing a legal citation or, because of SB 393, submitting a report to the local municipal court to see if a legal citation is warranted. Finally, arresting the student is when the officer would take the student into custody for their actions.

Each of the response actions to student misconduct were derived from prior research (Coon & Travis, 2012; McKenna et al., 2014; Martinez-Prather et al., 2016a; National Center for Education Statistics, 2010), which to some degree, had identified a variety of ways officers have dealt with student misconduct. Information gathered from these sources was reviewed, and common response actions were consolidated into the four broad responses. The response categories for each of these actions were *Extremely Unlikely*, *Unlikely*, *Somewhat Unlikely*, *Somewhat Likely*, *Likely*, and *Extremely Likely*. These response categories served as the outcome or dependent variable of interest for this research.

Officer training. The third section of the questionnaire contained items that focused on the types and sources of training that SROs/SBLEs currently working in the school environment received. In this section, various types and/or sources of potential training were presented, and respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they had

received each of the training items in an effort to prepare them for working in the school environment. As there is very little prior research on officer training in the school environment (Martinez-Prather et al., 2016a), the aim of this study was to simply identify areas and sources of training for SROs/SBLEs currently working in the school environment, rather than when they received the training, why they received the training, and/or their perceptions of the utility of the training. Therefore, response categories (i.e., have received and have not received) were appropriate in achieving this aim.

Each type and/or source of training was identified from prior research (Martinez-Prather et al., 2016a). Although scarce, prior research has, to a limited degree, outlined some areas that officers either have reported receiving training in, or training areas that these officers have suggested are needed or desired. Each of these training types and/or sources fit into a larger measure of officer training. Therefore, this section contained four measures including *Traditional police training*, *Specialized training*, *School-specific training program*, and *On-the-job-training*. Each is discussed below.

Traditional police training is a composite measure comprised of three items that relate to traditional training received by a vast majority of SROs/SBLEs. These three items included 1) training from a traditional police academy, 2) a formal field training officer program at a municipal police department, and 3) the experience from working in a municipal police department. Each of these items was dummy coded (i.e., received or not), and subsequently combined to serve as one measure. This specific measure ranged from zero to three.

Specialized training is the second measure included under the officer training section. This measure was also a composite measure comprised of 13 items related to

specialized police training that would be useful in a school environment (see Table 8).

Each of these items was dummy coded (i.e., received or not), and subsequently combined to serve as one measure. The specialized training variable ranged from 0 to 13.

Table 8. Specialized Training Items

Communication and interpersonal skills
Active shooter or active threat
How to address individuals with mental health issues (i.e., Crisis Intervention Training)
K-9, Bomb squad, SWAT, or other specialized police unit
Emergency management planning and drilling
Presentation or training development
Community-Oriented Policing strategies
Crime prevention strategies
Investigation skills and strategies
Counseling and/or mentoring strategies
Drug identification/counseling
Violence prevention of intervention
How to address individuals with special needs (e.g. autism, down syndrome, ADHD)

The *school-specific training* measure is a composite measure made up of eight items that relate to a specific training program dedicated to working in the school environment (see Table 9). Each of these items was dummy coded (i.e., received or not) and later combined to serve as one measure. This measure ranged from 0 to 8.

Table 9. School-Specific Training Items

A formal program that provided classroom-based instruction on specific law enforcement activities with in a school
A formal program that provided field training on specific law enforcement activities with in a school
How to specifically deal with irate parents and students
Legal updates pertaining to law enforcement work in the school environment
An in-depth understanding of applicable juvenile law
An in-depth understanding of applicable Texas Education Code requirements
An in-depth understanding of applicable district/campus policies and procedures
School operation, environment, culture, and/or climate

The final measure in this category is a composite measure of *on-the-job-training*. This measure is made up of two items that relate to learning from experiences in working

in the school environment. Specifically, the two items were 1) informal ride-along(s) with a more experienced officer(s) working in the school environment and 2) observing fellow officers to see how they conduct law enforcement activities in the school environment. As with the other items in this group, these were also dummy coded (i.e., received or not) and later combined to serve as one measure.

Additional items were also included in this section of the questionnaire that allowed officers to report their general perspectives of the training environment for SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school setting. Specifically, officers were asked to report (in an open-ended manner) any other types and/or sources of training that they have received or know of that assist in preparing officers to work in the school environment. Also, officers were asked if the training they received prior to starting their work in the school environment was adequate for working in such an environment, their thoughts on a mandated training curriculum for officers working in the school setting, and how useful actual experience is in relation to formal training. It was thought that these items would provide greater context to the types and/or sources of trainings reported in the close-ended survey items.

School demographics and environment. The fourth section of the questionnaire focused on the school and environment where the respondent works. This section contained items comprised of multiple choice, open response, and Likert-scale questions (see Table 10). These items were included in the survey and asked in such a way that identified potential school-level correlates to an officer's role, how they respond to student misconduct, and/or the specific training they have received. Each question format was selected based on the question content.

For instance, the structure of how law enforcement serve school districts is well-known and documented in the literature; therefore, a multiple choice question was used. However, when capturing the approximate ethnic breakdown of the campus where the officer works, it was more conducive to an open-ended question type due to the likelihood of a wide variation in responses. This logic was used throughout this section of the questionnaire when selecting question types.

Based upon these items, a total of seven measures were derived. These measures included *Service structure*, *Number of campuses assigned*, *Grade level(s) served*, *Geographical area*, *Percent free/reduced lunch*, *Race/ethnicity of campus*, and *Crime/disorder level*.

Service structure is a categorical measure related to the way in which law enforcement services are provided for the district. Respondents were given four choices to choose from when reporting the structure of their services. The first was through the use of an Independent School District Police Department in which the district commissions its own officers. The second was through a school resource officer program where the officers were employed by a local, county, or regional law enforcement agency and were contracted by the school district. In addition to these more popular approaches, respondents were also given two additional options. This measure was later dummy coded for analysis purposes.

Table 10. School Demographics and Environment Items

Which of the following best describes the structure in which you serve the school district that you currently work for or with?

- a. I work for an Independent School District Police Department in which the district commissions its own officers
- b. I work for a local, county, or regional law enforcement agency and am contracted by the school district to serve as a school resource officer (SRO)
- c. I serve the school district on an as needed basis (I am not only campus unless called)
- d. I serve the school district under some other type of structure (please explain)

In your current assignment, are you assigned to one campus/school or more than one on a daily basis?

- a. I am assigned to one campus on a daily basis
- b. I serve in an administrative role and am not on a campus daily
- c. I am assigned to more than one campus on a daily basis (If so, how

many?) _____

In your current assignment, which grade level(s) do you interact with most (select all that apply)?

- a. Elementary
- b. Middle/Junior High
- c. High School

What best describes the geographical area of the campus in which you work?

- a. Urban
- b. Suburban
- c. Rural
- d. Other (please specify)

Approximately what percentage of students in your school gets free or reduced lunch?

- a. 0-25%
- b. 26-50%
- c. 51-75%
- d. 76% or greater

What is the approximate racial/ethnic breakdown of your student body?

Race/Ethnicity	Percentage
African American	
White	
Hispanic	
Asian	
Other	
Total	100%

Table 10. Continued

During the past 12 months, how often did the following incidents occur in the campus/district in which you work?

(Never, Once a year, Twice a year, Once a month, Once every two weeks, Once a week, and Every day)

Student bullying/cyberbullying
Gang problems
Physical attacks or fights
Threats of physical attacks with weapons (e.g., gun)
Threats of physical attacks without weapons
Robbery
Theft/larceny
Possession of firearm or explosive device
Possession of knife or sharp object
Possession or distribution of illegal drugs
Sexual harassment
Vandalism
Hate Crimes
Intruders (armed or unarmed)

The differences between the various service structures available to implement the use of full-time police in schools was thought to be a factor that influences the roles and officer is tasked with, the training they receive, and how they respond to student misconduct. This hypothesis stems from the potential differences in culture between the two predominant structures in that one is based in a traditional law enforcement agency (i.e., SROs) and the other is based in an educational setting (SBLEs).

Number of campuses assigned is a categorical measure that captured the number of campuses the respondent served on a daily basis. Respondents chose from one campus, more than one campus, an administrative capacity, or other. If a respondent chose more than one, they were asked to report an actual number. This measure was later recoded to be a continuous measure of the number of campuses that a respondent was responsible for.

The number of campuses an officer is assigned to was thought to be a factor that influences the roles an officer is tasked with, the training they receive, and how they respond to student misconduct. This was suggested because it is believed that if an officer serves fewer campuses they will have more defined roles and training expectations, and thus more appropriate responses to student misconduct because of the stronger relationships with staff and students (presumably the relationships are stronger because the officer spends more time at that campus).

Grade level(s) served is a categorical measure of the current grade levels the respondent interacted with most on a daily basis. Respondents were able to select from Elementary, Middle/Junior High, and/or High School. As respondents were able to select more than one grade level, this measure was dummy coded by creating a variable for each of the possible eight combinations. Specifically, the following grade-level variables were created: 1) elementary only, 2) high school only, 3) middle school only, 4) elementary and middle school, 5) elementary and high school, 6) middle and high school, 7) all grade levels, and 8) no grade levels. Grade level served was thought to be a factor in the roles an officer has, the training they receive, as well as how they respond to student misconduct. Specifically, at lower grades, it was thought that officers may have a more counselor/mentor focused role and respond to misconduct in less punitive ways due to the age of the children they work with.

Geographical area is a categorical measure where respondents were given the following categories to choose from: Urban, Suburban, Rural, and Other. This measure was later dummy coded for analysis purposes. It was thought that where the campus in which the officer works is located could have an impact on the role they have, the

training they receive, and how they respond to misconduct. For instance, in a more rural setting, it was anticipated that officers would have less of a traditional law enforcer role, have less training opportunities, and handle student misconduct in more informal ways. This could be attributed to the characteristics of smaller towns when compared to more urban cities.

Percent free/reduced lunch is a continuous measure that ranges from 0 to 100 percent. It is likely that some respondents did not know this information; however, they were instructed to make an educated guess. If respondents did not make a guess, it was considered missing data and addressed during analysis. This measure was used as a proxy for an overall economic measure of the campus. It was thought that lower economic campuses would have officers who work more in a law enforcer role and who respond to student misbehavior using legal means.

Race/ethnicity of campus is a group of continuous measure that ranges from 0 to 100 percent for each of the racial/ethnic categories presented. These categories were African American, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other. It was also likely that some respondents would not know this information about their campus. Again, respondents were instructed to make an educated guess. If respondents did not make a guess, it was considered missing data and addressed during analysis.

Respondents were asked to report the approximate racial/ethnic breakdown of their school(s) by providing the percentage of the student body that was African-American, White, Hispanic, Asian, and some other racial/ethnic group. These percentages collectively should have summed to 100 percent, yet each racial/ethnic group could have had a percentage that ranges from 0 to 100 percent. Like the overall economic

measure, it was believed that the racial and ethnic breakdown of a campus may influence officer roles and how they respond to student misconduct. Specifically, the greater the minority population at a campus, the more likely an officer would be to fill a law enforcer role and respond to misconduct using legal means.

Overall crime/disorder level is a continuous measure that ranges from 0 to 84. Respondents are provided with a series of behaviors that are criminal and/or disorderly, and asked to indicate how often they have occurred over the past 12 months. There are a total of 14 different behaviors listed. To indicate the frequency of occurrence, respondents are given a Likert-scale with the following categories: *Never, Once a Year, Twice a Year, Once a Month, Once Every Two Weeks, Once a Week, and Every Day*. Each Likert-scale response will be given a numerical value ranging from 0 (Never) to 6 (Every Day). Therefore, a respondent's total score on the measure can range from 0 (e.g., all of the 14 behaviors "Never" (0) occur) to 84 (e.g., all of the 14 behaviors occurring "Every Day" [6]). It was thought that the more crime/disorder on a campus, the less likely an officer would be to counsel students, and the more likely they would be to serve in a traditional law enforcer role using legal means to respond to student misconduct.

Respondent demographics. The fifth and final section of the questionnaire was designed to collect information about the respondent that may impact the results pertaining to each of the research questions. Specifically, this section was composed of seven items specific to the respondent, which were either multiple choice or open response format (see Table 11). These items were included in the survey and asked in order to identify potential individual-level correlates to an officer's role, how they respond to student misconduct, and/or the specific trainings they have received. The

question type used for each of the items was based on the question content and used a similar logic to that presented in the school demographics and environment section above.

Table 11. Respondent Demographic Items

How many years have you been in law enforcement?
How many years have you served in a law enforcement capacity in any school environment?
How many years have you served in a law enforcement capacity for <u>this</u> school district?
What is your current rank?
What is your sex?
What is your age?
What is your race/ethnicity?

Derived from these items, this section contained seven measures including *Years of service*, *Years in school-based policing*, *Years in district*, *Professional rank*, *Sex*, *Age*, and *Race/ethnicity*.

Years of service is a continuous measure of how long the respondent had been in the law enforcement profession, in any capacity. This included their time working in or with school districts as well as time working for local, county, regional, state, and/or federal law enforcement agencies. It was expected that this measure would influence an officer's role as well as the training they have received. Specifically, it was hypothesized that the more years in policing an officer had the more likely they would be to serve in a law enforcer capacity. Additionally, they likely would have more traditional and specialized law enforcement training.

Years in school-based policing is a similar measure; however, it captured only the years in law enforcement that were spent directly working with schools and/or districts. It was expected that the more years an officer had in the school setting, the more likely they

would have additional roles outside of being a law enforcer. Additionally, they likely would have a greater amount of training in school-specific areas.

Years in district is a continuous measure in which respondents reported how many years they have served in a law enforcement capacity for the school district they currently work for, in any capacity. It was anticipated that the more years an officer had with a district, the more likely they would be to serve in roles outside of a law enforcer, have more school-specific training, and utilize responses to misconduct that were not legal in nature.

Professional rank is a categorical measure of where the respondent was in terms of the traditional law enforcement rank/chain of command structure. Respondents were asked to choose from either patrol officer or supervisory officer.

Sex is a categorical measure in which respondents selected either male or female. The measure was later dummy coded for analysis purposes. It was anticipated that sex of the officer could potentially influence their role and how they respond to student misconduct. For instance, it was expected that males would be more likely to take on a law enforcer role and respond to student misconduct using legal means.

Age is a continuous measure of the respondent's age in years. This measure was continuous in nature, and not collapsed in categories. It was anticipated that younger officers would be more likely than older officer to take on a law enforcer role, have less training overall, and be more likely to respond using legal means.

The final measure in this section is *Race/ethnicity*, which was a categorical measure of what race/ethnicity the respondent most associates with. Specifically, respondents were asked to choose their race/ethnicity from eight choices including

Caucasian, African American, Hispanic, Pacific Islander, American Indian, Asian, Multi-racial, and Other. This measure was later recoded into “White” and “Nonwhite”.

Pilot Testing of the Questionnaire

The initial draft of the questionnaire was pilot tested by a group of eight officers that were well-versed in school-based law enforcement. Specifically, the test group of officers used to pilot test the questionnaire were contractors of the Texas School Safety Center. These officers provide training as well as curriculum and resource development for the Texas School Safety Center. These officers are either currently working in schools, have previously worked in schools, or provide training to officers who work in schools across the state of Texas or nation. This group of officers was most appropriate to pilot test the questions because they could use their extensive knowledge, expertise, and experience to provide feedback on the questionnaire prior to it being disseminated.

Through this process, these officers were given the opportunity to take the questionnaire as a respondent would. This administration of the questionnaire mirrored that process that would be undertaken for a true respondent including the online delivery. This allowed the researcher to identify any areas or items that were not clear or relevant to this area of research, specifically the research questions. Additionally, those individuals that pilot tested the questionnaire were encouraged to not only participate in the mock administration of the questionnaire, but were also asked to provide feedback on how the questionnaire could be improved in terms of layout, design, and delivery. To facilitate the collection of this additional information, an open textbox was available at the end of each section for pilot testers to provide feedback. This aspect of the pilot testing was somewhat unstructured to allow officers to share any feedback they have

pertaining to the questionnaire. For instance, these officers had the ability to comment on the relevance of the current items, items that may need to be added, and the general layout and functionality of the online questionnaire.

Information gathered from both the administration of the questionnaire and the additional feedback was used to refine the instrument prior to implementation. Overall, only minor edits and suggestions were made based on the feedback provided by the pilot testers. The general consensus was that the survey design and items were appropriate and useful for addressing the scope of the study. This pilot testing process ensured that the instrument was relevant and an adequate tool to gather data for the specific research questions of this study.

Questionnaire Procedures

To initiate the research project, an advance letter (see Appendix C) was mailed to each individual included on the contact list provided by the TxSSC on February 11, 2016. The advance letter introduced the researcher and the institutional affiliation, provided justification for conducting the research, delivered a brief overview of the methodology, and detailed future correspondence that would allow for access to the survey (i.e., survey web link and participant access code). The purpose of this letter was to make respondents aware of the research study and provide them advance notice that their participation would be sought in the online questionnaire. Specifically, this letter (modeled after a sample letter in Dillman et al., 2014):

1. addressed the respondent by name;
2. included a clear statement of the survey topic;
3. provided the reason for conducting the survey and how it would benefit them;

4. framed the survey as a request for help;
5. explained that an email would be sent within the coming week that contained information about accessing and completing the survey, and;
6. contained direct contact information for the researcher.

Personally addressing each individual recipient by name rather than sending a letter with a generic greeting (e.g., Dear Sir or Madden) evokes attitudes of reciprocity (Dillman et al., 2014; Groves, Cialdini, Couper, 1992). Respondents are believed to be more inclined to commit their time and effort to complete the questionnaire (i.e., thus increasing the response rate) because the researcher was first to extend such considerations in this initial letter.

Further, clearly stating the survey topic, the reason the survey is being conducted, and asking for their assistance elicits altruistic tendencies (Dillman et al., 2014). By providing such information, respondents are believed to feel as if they are a part of something larger than themselves and be more inclined to participate (i.e., increasing the response rate) and provide accurate answers (i.e., decreasing the measurement error). Clearly explaining the survey process and providing contact information help to balance the costs (i.e., time and effort) and benefits of completing the survey. By providing such information, it is believed that it will take less effort on behalf of the participant to address questions they may have about the research and consider their participation.

It is also important to clearly state the benefits of participation in this research. In this study, the direct benefit to participants was the opportunity for them to share information related to their profession that could help develop well-informed decisions regarding future use of law enforcement officers in schools. Logically, their roles (either

actual or expected) as law enforcer, educator, mentor, and the training they do or do not receive likely impact their actions (e.g., arrest, mentor, educate) when called to an incident. Therefore, assessing how schools are using law enforcement officers from the perspective of actual officers is vital. This study's objectives included a better understanding of the role officers play in schools. These benefits were detailed in the advance letter and other study materials. These features associated with the development of the advance letter have been detailed in past research as ways in which response rates and data quality can be improved (Dillman et al., 2014).

Five days after the advance letters was sent (on February 16, 2016), potential respondents received a shortened version of the advance letter via email (see Appendix D). This email also contained instructions for completing the online questionnaire as well as an actual link and unique code to access the questionnaire. Specifically, potential respondents were instructed to click on the hyperlink and follow the directions thereafter. By clicking the link, the participants were taken to the online questionnaire hosted on a secure server.

At this point, respondents were asked to enter the unique access code that they had been provided in the email. The access codes were needed in order to provide reminder correspondence to those that delayed completing the online survey throughout the data collection period. Specifically, unique access codes were randomly generated, assigned, and used by respondents to access the online survey. These codes allowed the researcher to identify which officers have completed and submitted the survey at various points throughout the data collection period. In turn, reminder correspondences throughout the data collection period could be sent to only those that had not yet

completed the survey. Ultimately, these codes made it possible for the researcher to determine who had already completed the survey, so that they were not recruited to participate again via follow-up reminder correspondences. Information linking these access codes to individual officers was promised to be and is only accessible to the researcher. The file containing access codes that were matched to each officer was stored separately from the survey data in the researcher's office. This office was access controlled and secure, and the computer was password protected and encrypted.

Upon entering their access code, respondents were brought to an online consent form that was embedded in the questionnaire (see Appendix A). Prior to gaining access to the questionnaire, potential participants were asked to carefully read and consider the information presented in the consent form. The consent form (included in Appendix A) provided to participants followed the format put forth by the Texas State University Institutional Review Board (IRB). The following was included in the consent form: 1) the purpose, procedures, and length of the research, 2) the risks and benefits of the research, 3) confidentiality procedures, and 4) contact information for the researchers (including dissertation chair) and the IRB chair. Participants were prompted to print a copy of this form for their records.

After reviewing the form in its entirety, participants were asked to check one of two boxes indicating their consent or lack thereof for participation in the research. The first checkbox was followed by the statement "I have read and considered the information presented in the consent form and at this time I wish **not** to voluntarily participate in the research study". If a participant indicated that they did not want to voluntarily participate, the online system directed them to the final page of the questionnaire, which

will thank them for their time. The second checkbox was followed by the statement “I have read and considered the information presented in the consent form and at this time I wish to voluntarily participate in the research study”. Those participants who agreed to participate in the research study were forwarded to the beginning of the actual questionnaire.

After the questionnaire was completed, a debriefing sheet was made available to further explain the research, provide participants an opportunity to request a copy of the results at the conclusion of the study, and again provide contact information for the researcher to assist in answering any follow-up questions. Immediately following a successful submission of the survey, an email was automatically sent to confirm completion. This freed the respondent from any uncertainty surrounding their submission. Additionally, this letter expressed gratitude for their participation and allowed them to indicate their desire to receive a copy of the results at the completion of the study.

Throughout the data collection phase of this study, several reminders were sent to participants who had not yet completed the questionnaire (identified using the unique access code assigned to each potential participant). As noted throughout the methodology, the design of this component of the study was one that utilized a mixed-mode approach. Therefore, potential respondents were reminded of the request to participate in this research using email, postal mail, and telephone. Specifically, potential respondents received six reminders throughout the two-month reporting period that again introduced the researcher and the institutional affiliation, provided justification for conducting the research and a brief overview of the methodology, and delivered instructions for completing the online questionnaire. Each contact contained slightly

different content presented with a new approach. Transitioning from cheaper modes to more expensive alternatives kept costs lower than if the more expensive modes were used from the outset.

The first reminder was sent via email two weeks after the initial email containing the survey link was delivered. Following the first email reminder, those potential respondents who had not yet completed the questionnaire received a second reminder email on March 6, 2016. In order to reach respondents through an alternative mode, those potential respondents that had not responded to the survey following the initial letter and first three emails were sent a post card reminder in the mail. Two final reminders were sent via email on March 23 and March 27, respectively. Throughout the reporting period, several phone calls were made/returned to potential respondents in order to address concerns related to completing the questionnaire whether it was for technical reasons or specific questions regarding the research.

As previously noted, this approach using multiple modes of communication has been shown to improve response rates and data quality in web-based surveys (Messer & Dillman, 2011; Millar & Dillman, 2011). Every attempt was made to obtain and correct missing and/or invalid contact information. Specifically, after every reminder, invalid email addresses and returned mail was reviewed. All efforts were made to resolve the issues identified, including looking up contact information individually by visiting agency websites. In total, 240 email addresses were found to be invalid and could not be corrected. Additionally, 227 letters/postcards were returned via U.S. mail. The survey was closed for submission on March 28, 2016. Therefore, the data collection phase of this portion of the research was just over six weeks (February 11 – March 28, 2016).

Qualitative Data

Interview Participants

Qualitative data was also collected in order to reinforce, re-inform, and/or reconstruct the larger issues associated with the use of full-time police in schools, specifically how roles and training may or may not influence responses to student misconduct. From those officers that participated in the online quantitative questionnaire, a sample was selected to participate in follow-up qualitative interviews. Specifically, at the completion of the questionnaire, respondents were asked if they were willing to be considered for a follow-up interview. If the respondent selected “yes”, they were automatically directed to a separate survey (and database) that collected their contact information. This transition from one survey to another was seamless for the participant, but necessary to ensure that their survey data and their identity remained confidential. If a respondent was willing to participate in a potential interview, they were asked to provide their name, department, phone number, and email address.

The researcher then randomly selected 20 respondents to conduct the follow-up in-depth interviews. Strata were created based on the structure in which the officers served the school district that they currently work for or with (i.e., SRO or SBLE). As previously noted, the differences between the various service structures available to implement the use of full-time police in schools is thought to be a factor that influences the roles and officer is tasked with, the training they receive, and how they respond to student misconduct. This thought stems from the potential differences in culture between the two predominant structures in that one is based in a traditional law enforcement agency (i.e., SROs) and the other is based in an educational setting (SBLEs).

These 20 interviews were believed to encompass the point of data saturation for this type of research and focus (Creswell, 2013). That is, 20 interviews were believed to be sufficient in order to capture most, if not all, of the perceptions related to the topics being studied without simply collecting more data that is redundant and repetitive (Maxwell, 2013). Therefore, saturation is the point at which new data does not provide anything different on the issue(s) being studied (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Saturation is the standard for assessing sample size in qualitative research. Additionally, every effort was made to conduct face-to-face interviews with these participants; however, if this was not possible, then phone interviews were used as a substitute for the in-person interview. Therefore, these qualitative interviews took place at various locations throughout Texas where the respondents were located or via telephone.

Interview Protocol and Development

These interviews consisted of open-ended questions that allowed for further elaboration and in-depth discussion around the roles of SROs/SBLEs, their responses to student misconduct, and their level of training. However, the qualitative interviews did not simply reiterate information collected in the quantitative questionnaire, but rather were used to reinforce, re-inform, and/or re-construct the larger issues associated with the use of full-time police in schools and specifically how roles and training may impact responses to student misbehavior. Similar to the online questionnaire, the interview protocol was developed using prior literature in the area of school-based policing as well as school crime and safety to answer the specific research questions presented above. The four studies that informed the development of the online questionnaire (Coon and Travis,

2012; McKenna et al., 2014; Martinez-Prather et al., 2016a; School Survey on Crime and Safety, 2010), were also relied upon for the development of the interview protocol.

Rather than developing specific items as was done in the development of the online questionnaire, broad indicators were deduced from each study and used to create open-ended questions. These broad open-ended questions allowed for the analysis of themes and concepts that may or may not have been apparent in the quantitative survey data. Each of the questions is presented and discussed below.

1. Describe the structure and environment of the campuses in which you work.

a. Describe the area around your campus?

b. Generally, what is the environment of the campus like?

c. Generally, what are the students like on your campus?

d. Is there anything unique about your campus?

This question (and subsequent follow-up questions) allowed respondents to identify and discuss the structure and environment of the campuses in which they work. The rationale for asking such a broad question at the start of the interview was to allow for any potential correlates of officer roles, responses to misconduct, and training to be identified. Although the questionnaire collected data on a number of potential correlates (both individual and contextual), it is likely that there were additional factors that influence how officers are used at specific campuses. These factors, therefore, would not be captured quantitatively. Several follow-up questions were used when appropriate to solicit additional discussion in this area. This question also allowed for other demographic information collected in the questionnaire to be further explored in terms of the connection to roles, responses to misconduct, and training.

2. Describe the role(s) of SROs/SBLEs in the campuses in which you work.

a. Why do you think officers take on these particular roles in the school environment?

b. Do you believe officers should have these roles? Why or why not?

c. Are the roles of law enforcement officers different in the school environment as opposed to officers working the “streets”?

This question (and subsequent follow-up questions) gave participants the opportunity to fully discuss the role(s) officers have in the campuses in which they work (i.e., personal normative expectations; Gibbs, 1989). Similar to the first question, this information was gathered to some degree in the quantitative questionnaire; however, the questionnaire was limited by the extent to which past research and knowledge has adequately covered all roles officers have in the school environment. By asking this question qualitatively, new and expanded roles were uncovered as well as the possible transformation of existing roles. This information further advanced the understanding of the predominant role(s) of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment. Follow-up questions were also asked of respondents pertaining to their thoughts on why officers take on the role(s) they described, if they think these roles are appropriate, and how these roles relate to the roles of “street” cops”. This type of information could not be gathered effectively from a quantitative instrument, and therefore, it was best captured qualitatively. These follow-up questions allowed our knowledge to move beyond simply understanding what the roles are of officers working in the school environment to why officers have certain roles and not others.

3. Describe what role(s) others (such as teachers, campus administrators, district administrators, and police administrators) think SROs/SBLEs *have and/or should have* in the campuses in which you work.

- a. Why do you think these roles differ from what your actual role(s) is?**
- b. Why do you think the actual and expected role(s) from others is similar?**

This question (and subsequent follow-up questions) allowed respondents to describe the roles that other school personnel think SROs/SBLEs have or should have in the campuses in which they work (i.e., perceived normative evaluations; Gibbs, 1989). As noted previously, this information, to a certain degree, was captured in the quantitative questionnaire; however, those data are limited by the parameters of the questionnaire itself. In other words, every effort was made to be fully exhaustive in terms of the potential duties and roles included in the quantitative questionnaire, but that is not to say that other roles do not exist. Allowing participants to fully explore and discuss the roles that they think others in the school environment think they have will uncover new and/or expanding roles. Gathering this information qualitatively ensured that this aspect of the research was fully explored. Additionally, one of two follow-up questions was asked of respondents depending on the information they provided to the initial question. Specifically, if officers described the expectations of others as matching their actual roles, they were asked to explain why they believe this consistency exists. However, if they detailed differences in what others think their roles are or should be and their actual roles, they were asked why they think this difference exists. These follow-up questions allowed for the roles (both actual and expected by others) reported in the quantitative survey to be

discussed in greater detail. This level of understanding facilitated a better understanding of officer roles as well as areas for further inquiry.

4. Explain the role you believe SROs/SBLEs *should* have on a campus.

a. Why do you think officers should have this role in the school environment?

b. How would your campus function if the law enforcement presence was removed?

An officer's actual role as well as their perception of what others think their role is or should be may be very different from what they as an officer believe their role should be or actually is (i.e., personal normative evaluations; Gibbs, 1989). Therefore, respondents are asked to describe what they think their role should be in the school environment. Gathering this information allowed for actual, expected (by others), and desired roles to be examined together. This information provided greater insight into role conflict and other issues associated with establishing and defining an officer's role in the school environment. To further understand the role(s) officers think they should have, respondents were asked to explain why they believe officers should have this role. Again, by asking respondents to explain their position on this question, it allowed the reported information to be placed in a greater context and examined across all respondents. Officers were also asked to reflect on how their campus would function without law enforcement in an effort to further identify roles they believe they should have. The information gathered in these questions further enhanced our knowledge of officer roles in the school environment.

5. What are the most common incidents that SROs/SBLEs working in the school environment encounter today?

a. Why do you think these are the type of incidents they most commonly address?

b. Do you believe the law enforcement officers in schools should only handle criminal behavior? Why or why not?

This question (and subsequent follow-up questions) was asked of respondents because it provided necessary contextual information related to officer responses to student misconduct. Prior to asking officers to detail their responses to student misconduct, it was important to gather information on the most common incidents they encounter today in schools. The responses to misconduct that they detailed could be open to vastly different interpretations if this information was not gathered. For instance, if officers described arrest and ticketing as being a common practice in schools, one may assume the existence of a very punitive and unjust environment. However, the picture is incomplete if one does not know the types of incidents they are encountering. Specifically, if officers described incidents that are relatively minor such as insubordination or disturbing class, then one could accurately deduce an overly punitive environment. However, if officers described dealing with drugs, gangs, and violent crime, then their responses may be appropriate. Several probing questions were used where appropriate to solicit more discussion in the area. Gathering this information on the most common incidents that SROs/SBLEs working in the school environment encountered is therefore necessary contextual information for future questions.

6. Describe the range of responses to student misconduct that you most commonly employ.

a. What types of responses do you use most frequently?

b. How do these responses to student misconduct vary by situation?

As has been discussed in previous questions, it was important to allow respondents to reaffirm and/or further elaborate on information that has been collected in the quantitative questionnaire. Therefore, respondents were asked to describe the range of responses to student misconduct they most commonly employ. This allowed officers to discuss responses that may not have been captured in the quantitative questionnaire as it was limited by researcher knowledge and past research. To further expand and understand officer responses to student misconduct, follow-up questions were asked. Specifically, officers were asked to explain why these responses are the most frequently used and how the various responses they detailed differ by situation. As an appropriate response is often judged by the context of the incident, it was important to gather information related to when certain responses were used and when they are not as well as why they seem to be used most often. This provided greater insight into the types of responses used by officers.

7. Explain how zero-tolerance policies and SB 393 have impacted the range of responses to student misconduct that you most commonly employ.

In order to further understand the range of responses used by officers in response to student misconduct it was important to consider legislation that influences or mandates a particular type of response. Therefore, respondents were asked to detail how zero-tolerance policies and SB 393 (which prohibits officers from writing class C

misdemeanor tickets on school property) have impacted their response in certain situations. This information led to a better understanding of the parameters in which officers working in the school environment must operate, and how these parameters influence their responses. These questions allowed for examination of the issues to go beyond simply what their responses are, and explore why and under what conditions certain responses were used.

8. What would you describe as alternative ways of responding to student misconduct compared to the ones that currently exist in your campus (if you believe there should be alternatives)?

a. Why do you think these alternatives are more appropriate ways of responding to student misconduct?

b. Why do you believe there are no alternative ways of responding to student misconduct?

In addition to gathering information on the actual responses to student misconduct and some of the contextual parameters that guide these responses, it was also important to understand what officers think alternatives to these current responses might be (if they believe there are any). This question allowed responses to identify and describe ways that they would like to respond to certain incidents or maybe some unconventional ways that they were currently using. Several follow-up questions were used where appropriate to solicit additional discussion in this area. Gathering such information allowed for the full range of potential responses to student misconduct to be explored and considered in future research.

9. Describe the training that you received prior to starting your career or assignment in school-based policing.

As noted, it is important to consider an officer's training when examining both their role(s) and their responses to student misconduct. Therefore, respondents were asked to detail the training they received prior to starting their career or assignment in a school environment. In an effort to further expand the limitations of the quantitative questionnaire, officers were asked to describe all of the training in regards to school-based policing they received regardless of whether or not they think it was useful. Ideally, an officer would receive all appropriate training to be successful in the school environment prior to starting their career or assignment. However, prior research suggested that this is not the case. Allowing officers to identify and describe their training, including the topics and sources of their training, assisted in further understanding the level of training school-based officers receive over the course of their career and how it may impact the role(s) they have and their responses to misconduct.

10. Describe the training that you received since being involved in school-based policing.

a. Did you feel it was adequate in preparing you to work in a school

(why/why not)?

b. What should be in the training for school-based law enforcement?

Research has suggested that officers do not receive training specific to the school environment until they have already begun working in a school (if at all). Therefore, in addition to asking respondents to detail the training they received prior to starting their career or assignment in a school, they were also asked to describe the

training they have received since starting. This will again allow for an expanded and more detailed understanding of the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire. Additionally, two follow-up questions were also asked that allowed officers to provide their opinions and justifications on the training they have received and would like to receive. First, officers were asked if they believed the training they have received was adequate in preparing them to work in a school and why. Asking this question allowed officers to reflect on the topics and sources of training they have received and whether or not it supports their duties in that environment. Similarly, officers were asked to describe what they believe should be included in the training for officers working in schools. Again, this question allowed officers to reflect on gaps in their own training and training they have received and identify as being beneficial. This information furthered our knowledge of the training officers receive and subsequently do not receive.

11. How has your training influenced the role(s) you have in the school environment (if at all)?

After asking officers to detail the training they have received and the role(s) they have in the school environment, it was important to have them bring these two concepts together and share their thoughts on how they are (or are not) related. Therefore, respondents were asked how their training has influenced the role(s) they have in the school environment. As one of the major questions of this study, it was useful to use these personal qualitative data to inform the quantitative analysis. This allowed this study as well as future research to examine the correlations between training and role(s).

12. How has your training influenced your responses to student misconduct in the school environment (if at all)?

Similarly, officers were also asked to explain in detail their responses to student misconduct. It was also beneficial to link training and responses to misconduct, and obtain respondents' opinions on how these two concepts might be related. Respondents were, therefore, asked how their training has influenced their responses to student misconduct in the school setting. As one of the major questions of this study, it was useful to use these personal qualitative data to inform the quantitative analysis. This allowed this study as well as future research to examine the correlations between training and responses to misconduct.

Interview Procedures

A total of 214 respondents agreed to be considered for a follow-up interview. After the online questionnaire data collection period ended, a random sample of 20 individuals was drawn from these respondents. As noted, this information was collected and stored separately from the participant's quantitative questionnaire. As a result of an embedded hyperlink, those respondents that indicate they were interested in completing an interview were automatically routed to a separate survey where contact information was collected. The select cases function in SPSS was used to randomly select the 20 respondents. Using the contact information provided, these individuals were emailed to set up either in-person or telephone interviews (which were determined based on location feasibility and practicality). Interview days and times were scheduled based on the convenience of the participants. The interviews took place throughout the months of April and May of 2016. All those not selected for an interviewed were emailed and thanked for their time and willingness to support this research project.

Once interviews were scheduled, the researcher either met each individual in-person at a location that was both convenient and conducive to conducting an interview or phoned the individual during a scheduled day and time. Prior to beginning the interview, respondents were reminded of the consent procedures detailed at the start of the online questionnaire. To ensure the protection of the participant's rights as they pertain to research, the researcher presented the information in the original consent form again. Once an agreement to voluntarily participate was received, the interview commenced.

The interviews followed an open-ended and semi-structured format. Specifically, there was a list of interview questions (i.e., the interview protocol discussed above) that guided the discussion. In an effort to collect in-depth information pertaining to the use and impact of law enforcement officers in schools, open-ended interview questions were the most appropriate approach. Additionally, the use of open-ended interview questions allowed participants to express the concepts and phenomenon of interest in their own words. Despite being open-ended, the interview process was also semi-structured in nature. This allowed participants to discuss the use and impact of law enforcement officers in schools, but at the same time focus the interview on the specific aims of this research study. This style of interviewing was most appropriate considering the researcher had specific concepts and phenomenon that were the focus of this study. Therefore, by providing structure, rather than a more open-discussion approach, the researcher was better able to keep participants focused and obtain the specific information desired. In addition to note taking, all interviews were audio recorded to ensure that the researcher obtained, and can revisit, all information provided by the

respondents. If respondents did not consent to being audio recorded, then the researcher relied on note taking. The interviews lasted between 60 and 90 minutes each.

Protection of Human Subjects

Throughout the data collection phase of this project (both quantitative and qualitative), several precautions were taken to protect the human subjects involved. Although there was no expected physical, psychological, social, legal, or other direct risks to participants, it was possible that there may be a quasi-political risk based on the broader contextual findings of this research. For example, the data on an aggregate level still allows for large-scale generalizations and themes to be derived such as “overly punitive discipline practices”, “largely enforcement-based officers”, or “a severe lack of specialized training” throughout Texas schools. Therefore, it was anticipated that only a slight risk of quasi-political harm may result from the study’s findings; however, unforeseen risks are always possible.

In order to protect participants from any unforeseen risks, their identity was kept confidential in both the survey and interview portions of this research. That is, participants in the survey and interviews were only known to the researcher.

Additionally, the use of access codes to gain admittance to the online survey and the use of a separate survey to collect contact information from those willing to participate in a follow up interview further enhanced and protected the confidentiality of participants. In an effort to further protect participants, a username and password was used to secure all data collected from both the questionnaire and interviews. Specifically, the online questionnaire data was secured by a username and password through the Snap Survey

software during data collection. When the data was later exported for analyses, it was stored as an encrypted and password protected file on the researcher's computer.

Regarding the interview data, all notes, memos, and audio-recordings were stored in the researcher's office in a locked filing cabinet. Once transcribed, all notes, memos, and audio-recordings were destroyed. Transcription files were secured as their own encrypted and password protected files on the researcher's computer. These systems both limited access and provided monitoring to those who had authorized access to these data. Additionally, these measures ensured that no data could be linked to a specific officer, campus, or district (by anyone other than the researcher in the case of the interviews), therefore protecting participants from any quasi-political or other unforeseen risks. Moreover, participation was voluntary and those involved were notified that they could withdraw at any time without penalty. In addition, participants were instructed that they could choose not to answer certain questions at their own discretion. Participants were made aware that they could opt-out at any time in the consent form.

As noted previously, because participants of this research study were officers working in schools, the conclusions of this study have the potential to influence how they are used and perceived by others in the educational environment and society in general. This study's aim is ultimately to help make schools safer learning environments, which benefits participants and society. Overall, the benefits of this study outweighed the potential risks of participation due to the various safeguards used. With a variety of safeguards in place to protect the identity of respondents, the risk of being portrayed negatively for "overly punitive discipline practices", "a large number of enforcement-based practices", and other similar generalizations was mitigated. Though

generalizations can be made on a broad level, the harm that may result was extremely minimal.

Analytical Plan

The next two chapters, Chapter IV (quantitative) and V (qualitative), provide an in-depth discussion of the analytical techniques used to analyze both the quantitative and qualitative data in light of the specific research questions of the study as well as the findings of this dissertation. Several analytical techniques were used including univariate, bivariate, and multivariate statistics as well as a thematic analysis of the qualitative data.

Prior to conducting the main analyses for this study, several of the quantitative variables were examined in terms of their validity and reliability. This included using factor analysis to assess the composite measures created from other items in the quantitative survey. Upon completion of this preliminary assessment, the main analysis first included an examination of the distribution of responses (i.e., frequencies), measures of central tendency (i.e., mean), and measures of dispersion (i.e., range, variance, and standard deviation) for each of the key variables. Additionally, correlations (i.e., Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients) between variables of interest were also examined in an effort to assess the strength of the relationship between sets of two variables. Finally, using the data obtained from the vignette items as the outcome measures, several multilevel models (i.e., hierarchical linear models) were used to assess the relationship between roles and responses to student misconduct and training and responses to student misconduct.

In addition to the quantitative analysis, a thematic analysis was conducted on the qualitative interview data. Specifically, all of the interview data was coded after

identifying themes and concepts related to officer roles, their responses to student misconduct, their level of training, and the contextual information that influenced these concepts.

IV. QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS

Chapter IV begins by assessing the survey responses and the response rate. Next, several of the key composite variables are examined in terms of their validity and reliability. Specifically, factor analysis is used to assess the actual role variables and the training variables, and adjust the scales, where needed, that were created from the survey items. Next, these survey data are analyzed and the findings of these analyses are presented organized by research question, including distribution of responses, measures of central tendency, and measures of dispersion for each of the key variables as well as correlations between variables of interest. Finally, using the data obtained from the vignettes, several multilevel models (i.e., hierarchical linear models) were used to assess the relationship between roles and responses to student misconduct and between training and responses to student misconduct.

Survey Responses

In total, 610 respondents participated in the online quantitative survey. However, after an initial examination of the responses, it was discovered that 46 respondents did not complete a significant portion of the survey, and were subsequently removed from the dataset. Specifically, these respondents did not complete at least 50% of the survey items. Therefore, there were 564 usable responses.

As a reminder, there were 2,801 potential respondents included in the initial sampling frame. However, there were 240 undelivered emails and 227 returned mailed letters. Of the returned correspondences, 195 respondents had both a returned email and a returned letter, which left 272 respondents from the initial sampling frame that were not reached. This results in an actual sample of 2,529 officers. This translates to a response rate of 22.3% (i.e., 564 responses / 2,529 potential respondents).

Factor Analysis

As several of the variables of interest were composite measures (i.e., two or more individual items combined into a single measure that results in a single score), it was necessary to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis on each of these additive scales to assess their reliability. The goal of confirmatory factor analysis is to verify that a specific set of items is measuring a given variable (factor) using the variance structure of a set of correlation coefficients between the items believed to measure a given factor (Thompson, 2004). Essentially, this technique verifies that a factor underlines the correlation matrix of the items involved because it is assumed all of the items are correlated as the measure of the same concept (i.e., the factor).

In general, the common factor model assumes that there is a true measure of each of these variables (factors) plus some degree of measurement error. Therefore, the true measure of each variable is $X = T + E$, where X is the observed measure, T is the true measure, and E is the measurement error. Since there is no value for T , it can be replaced with *common variance* (h^2), which is the variance shared by a group of items that are all believed (based on theory and past research) to measure the same variable (factor). Based on this idea, the value for E then becomes the variation not shared by the items (u^2). In other words, this is variation that is *unique* to the item itself, and not due to the common variable of interest (Thompson, 2004). One can then examine the variance of the variable of interest in terms of its common variance with a set of items ($\sigma_x^2 = h^2 + u^2$). This process assumes that shared variance between the items is due to the variable (factor) of interest, which are again derived from prior research and theory (Thompson, 2004).

The composite variables (factors) of interest for this study included: 1) actual law enforcer, 2) actual mentor/role model, 3) actual educator, 4) actual surrogate parent, 5) actual social worker, 6) traditional police training, 7) specialized training, 8) school-specific training, and 9) on-the-job training. Each of these factors has a set of items that prior research has suggested measures the given concept (see Tables 12 and 13 for a list of initial items for each factor). Therefore, confirmatory factor analysis was used to assess each of the variables (factors) in terms of how well the items in each of the additive scales correlated (i.e., loaded) with one another to measure the variable (factor). It was anticipated that the items included in each of the scales would correlate with one another and load on the appropriate variable (factor). However, those that did not load on the assumed factor were dropped from the scale prior to conducting further analysis as described below (see Tables 12 and 13 for factors dropped from the models and why they were dropped). For this study, nine models were assessed, and the following process was used for each of these models.

First, for each variable (factor), a set of items based on prior research and/or theory was developed that was believed to measure the factor (see Tables 12 and 13 for a list of initial items for each factor). Each set of items was discussed previously in the *Questionnaire Sections and Measures* portion of Chapter III. As noted, these items were selected after a thorough review of prior research on the topic. Next, a value of commonality (h^2), which measures how much of each item is explained by the variable as well as to what degree each item is related to other items in the scale, was obtained for each item in each model.

Table 12. Items and Inclusion Status for Actual Role Factors

Items	Included in Final Measure
Factor 1: Actual Law Enforcer	
Crime prevention	No (low communality)
Enforcement of law violations	Yes
Enforcement of code of conduct violations	No (loading below .300)
Investigation of criminal activity	Yes
Patrol the inside of the school	Yes
Patrol the outside of the school	Yes
Engage in a specialized school-based police unit	No (loading below .300)
Traffic enforcement	No (loading below .300)
Emergency management	No (cross-loaded)
Factor 2: Actual Mentor	
Assist with law issues	Yes
Advice about behavior	Yes
Advice about home	Yes
Talk with students in the hallways	No (cross-loaded)
Seek out at-risk students	Yes
Build positive relationships	Yes
Factor 3: Actual Educator	
Teach classes	Yes
Give presentations	Yes
Informal teaching	Yes
Counseling on juvenile law	Yes
Staff in-service	Yes
Factor 4: Actual Surrogate Parent	
Provide emotional support	Yes
Provide positive encouragement	Yes
Provide necessities	Yes
Provide monetary assistance	Yes
Factor 5: Actual Social Worker	
Visit students at home	Yes
Provide access to social services	Yes
Encourage parents to be involved	Yes
<i>Note: Response set for all items was Never (0), Once a Year (1), Twice a Year (2), Once a Month (3), Once Every Two Weeks (4), Once a Week (5), and Every Day (6).</i>	

Table 13. Items and Inclusion Status for Training Factors

Items	Included in Final Measure
Factor 6: Traditional Police Training	
Academy	Yes
FTO	Yes
Municipal department	Yes
Factor 7: Specialized Training	
Communication and interpersonal skills	No (low communality)
Active shooter or active threat	No (loading below .300)
Mental health issues	No (cross-loaded)
Specialized police unit	No (loading below .300)
Emergency management	Yes
Presentation skills	Yes
Community-oriented policing	Yes
Crime prevention	Yes
Investigation	Yes
Counseling	Yes
Identification of drugs	Yes
Violence prevention	Yes
Factor 8: School-specific Training	
Law enforcement in a school	Yes
FTO in school	Yes
Dealing with parents	Yes
School law updates	Yes
Juvenile law updates	Yes
Texas education code	Yes
School policies	Yes
School culture/climate	Yes
Factor 9: On-job Training	
Ride-along	Yes
Observe others	Yes
<i>Note: Response set for all items was Not Received (0) or Received (1)</i>	

The communality values are equal to the squared loading value for that item, and can be interpreted as R^2 values. For instance, in Tables 14 and 15, 55.9% of the variation in “enforcement of law violations” can be attributed to an actual law enforcement role and 52.3% of the variation in training on the “training on the Texas Education Code” can be attributed to school-specific training. Whatever variance remains (u^2) can be assumed to be due to uniqueness of the item itself and not due to the factor of interest.

Finally, eigenvalues (i.e., the sums of the squared loadings) were then calculated and used to assess the number of factors to extract from the list of items for each variable (factor). Specifically, the correlation matrix of the items was separated into different parts, and each eigenvalue represented the amount of explained variation. Each part of the correlation matrix was created to maximize the relationship among the items (i.e., their commonality). Ultimately, each part of the matrix represented an item that can be used to predict the variable (factor).

To obtain these values, several correlation matrices were involved: 1) the observed matrix is the matrix of correlations between all of the items, 2) the reproduced matrix is the set of correlations produced by the factor model, and 3) the residual matrix is the difference between the previous two matrices. Factors with eigenvalues greater than one were retained. In these models, it was expected that only one factor would be identified in each model (i.e., a value greater than one). However, in three of the models (law actual law enforcer, actual mentor, and specialized training), more than one factor was identified. In these instances, the factors loadings and communality values were examined to identify potential items for deletion. That is, the factor scores and subsequent factor loadings (which are a measure of the relationship between each item and the variable and can be interpreted as standardized slopes) and communality values were examined in an effort to assess the reliability of the items as it relates to the factor.

Table 14. Factor Analysis for Actual Role Items

Items	Communalities	Loadings
Model 1 (Law enforcement)¹		
Enforcement of law violations	.559	.748
Investigation of Criminal Activity	.535	.731
Patrol inside the school	.288	.536
Patrol outside the school	.167	.368
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	2.079	
<i>Variance explained</i>	51.97%	
Model 2 (Mentor)²		
Assist with law issues	.379	.616
Advice about behavior	.688	.829
Advice about home	.708	.841
Seek out at-risk students	.540	.735
Build positive relationships	.173	.416
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	2.921	
<i>Variance explained</i>	58.42%	
Model 3 (Educator)		
Teach classes	.288	.536
Give presentations	.308	.555
Informal teaching	.277	.526
Counseling on juvenile law	.542	.736
Staff in-service	.832	.912
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	2.718	
<i>Variance explained</i>	54.36%	
Model 4 (Parent)		
Provide emotional support	.602	.776
Provide positive encouragement	.501	.708
Provide necessities	.613	.783
Provide monetary assistance	.641	.800
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	2.765	
<i>Variance explained</i>	69.12%	
Model 5 (Social worker)		
Visit students at home	.666	.816
Provide access to social services	.475	.689
Encourage parents to be involved	.503	.709
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	2.088	
<i>Variance explained</i>	69.59%	
¹ The following items were dropped from the model due to loadings <.300, a higher cross-loading on another factor, or a low communality value: Crime prevention, enforcement of conduct violations, specified police unit, traffic enforcement, and emergency management.		
² The following item was dropped from the model due to a higher loading on another factor: talk with students in the hallways.		
Note: Method of extraction in all models: Common factor		

Table 15. Factor Analysis for Training Items

Items	Communalities	Loadings
Model 6 (Traditional police training)		
Academy ¹	.025	.157
FTO	.593	.770
Municipal department	.648	.805
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	1.666	
<i>Variance explained</i>	55.53%	
Model 7 (Specialized training)²		
Emergency management	.225	.474
Presentation skills	.214	.463
Community-oriented policing	.408	.638
Crime prevention	.370	.608
Investigation	.209	.457
Counseling	.381	.617
Identification of drugs	.254	.504
Violence prevention	.337	.581
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	3.079	
<i>Variance explained</i>	38.49%	
Model 8 (School-specific training)		
Law enforcement in a school	.229	.479
FTO in school	.333	.577
Dealing with parents	.354	.595
School law updates	.137	.369
Juvenile law updates	.455	.674
Texas education code	.523	.724
School policies	.461	.679
School culture/climate	.502	.709
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	3.579	
<i>Variance explained</i>	44.74%	
Model 9 (On-job training)		
Ride-along	.511	.715
Observe others	.511	.715
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	1.512	
<i>Variance explained</i>	75.60%	
¹ This item was retained despite a low factor loading and communality value because the factor loadings of the other items in the scale dropped considerably when removed.		
² The following items were dropped from the model due to loadings <.300 or a higher loading on another factor: interpersonal communication, active shooter, mental health, and specialized police unit.		
Note: Method of extraction in all models: Common factor		

In the three models where more than one factor was extracted, items not consistent with other items in the scale were eliminated until only one factor was extracted⁸. Specifically, items were first removed from the model if they had a factor loading below .300. This is an arbitrary, but standard cut off point established in prior work (Thompson, 2004). If more than one factor remained after removing these items, items that cross-loaded on other factors with higher loading were removed. Again, the standard practice is to drop items that cross-load equally or higher on other factors as they are not consistent with other items in the scale (Thompson, 2004). Finally, if more than one factor was still extracted, items with the lowest communality values were removed until only one factor was extracted. Items with low communality values are often dropped since the goal of factor analysis is to explain the variance through a common factor (Thompson, 2004). As noted earlier, communality values represent how much of each item is explained by the factor as well as to what degree each item is related to other items in the scale.

The following items were removed from model 1 (law enforcer): enforcement of conduct violations (factor loading below .300 [.269]), specified police unit (factor loading below .300 [.255]), traffic enforcement (factor loading below .300 [.299]), emergency management (cross-loaded on factor 3 with a higher loading), and crime prevention (low communality value [.157]). The following item was removed from model 2 (mentor): talked with students in the hallways (cross-loaded on factor 2 with a higher loading). The following items were removed from model 7 (specialized training): active shooter (factor loading below .300 [.163]), specialized police unit (factor loading below .300 [.272]),

⁸ This was first done on a subset of the data and then confirmed on the entire dataset.

mental health (cross-loaded on factor 2 with a higher loading), and interpersonal communication (low communality value [.161]).

After the items for these three models were adjusted, the final set of nine models was run. The final eigenvalues and percent of variation explained for each model can be found in Tables 14 (actual roles) and 15 (training variables). All final scales aligned with a one factor model with an eigenvalue greater than one for the specific factor and/or an explained variation greater than 50%, with a large difference in explained variation between the first factor and subsequent factors. There was also minimal difference between the actual correlations and the model produced correlations. That is, there was little difference between the actual correlation coefficients obtained for these items and the correlation coefficients that were reproduced based on the extracted factors. This indicates that the values in the residual matrix are low, and that a majority of the variation in the actual correlation coefficients were explained by the extracted factors. The final factor loadings can also be found in Tables 14 (actual roles) and 15 (training variables).

The items that were retained in each factor model were then used to adjust the additive scales for the given factor. As a reminder, for the actual role variables, each item was presented in Likert-scale format assessing how frequently each activity was engaged in. Likert-scale categories included *Never*, *Once a Year*, *Twice a Year*, *Once a Month*, *Once Every Two Weeks*, *Once a Week*, and *Every Day*. Each Likert-scale response was given a numerical value ranging from 0 (Never) to 6 (Every Day). For the training variables, each item was dummy coded in terms of whether or not the officer had received this type of training. Therefore, responses ranged from 0 (not received) to 1 (received). It was not necessary for each of the composite variables (factors) to have an

identical number of items since they are not being compared to one another, but rather are assessed in terms of their statistical significance in relation to the dependent variable in the multilevel model (discussed later).

RQ 1: What are the predominant roles of commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment and their correlates?

As noted, this first series of research questions aimed to thoroughly understand the role(s) commissioned law enforcement officers have in the school environment and their correlates. Using univariate and bivariate statistics, analysis was conducted on the quantitative data in an effort to address the four sub-research questions.

- ***1.1 What are the actual roles of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment (as measured by officers' reports of what they do on a daily basis)?***

Univariate analysis of the *actual* roles variables (i.e., Actual law enforcer, Actual mentor/role model, Actual educator, Actual surrogate parent, Actual social worker) was conducted. Univariate analysis allows for one to understand, describe, and summarize the data for one specific variable at a time prior to completing more complex statistical analysis (i.e., bivariate or multivariate). Typically, univariate analysis consists of assessing the distribution of responses (i.e., frequencies), the measures of central tendency (i.e., mean, median, and mode), and the measures of dispersion (i.e., range, variance, and standard deviation).

Toward this aim, a frequency distribution was run for each of the actual role variables to include the frequency and valid percent for each response. This allowed for the complete range of outcomes to be examined prior to bivariate and multivariate analysis (Brase & Brase, 2015). Further, the measures of central tendency for each of the actual role variables were calculated. This included obtaining the mean for each of these

variables. The mean is often the most popular and most used measure of central tendency, which is used to describe the central position of the data with only one value. It has desirable properties in that it takes into account every value for that variable in the dataset, therefore, reducing error in the prediction of any one value in the dataset (Brase & Brase, 2015). Calculating the mean allowed the researcher to further understand the distribution of the data including its central position and the possibility of outliers and/or skewed data.

Measures of dispersion for each of these variables were also obtained. Although the mean is useful in understanding the data, it is possible for many datasets to have the same mean, yet be very different. Therefore, it was also necessary to understand how the data is spread around the mean. Specifically, the range, variance, and standard deviation were obtained for each variable. The range is the simplest measure of dispersion, and is the difference between the largest and smallest value. The limitation of this value as a measure of dispersion is that it only takes into account two points in the dataset (i.e., the largest and smallest values). Therefore, the variance can be calculated to represent how far each value in the dataset is from the mean. After calculating the variance, one can also obtain the standard deviation, which is the square root of the variance. By using the standard deviation, one can standardize the differences between values in the dataset (Brase & Brase, 2015). Understanding the spread of the data allows one to further summarize the data and select the most appropriate analysis moving forward.

As shown in Table 16, an overwhelming majority of respondents reported activities consistent with an *actual law enforcer* role. Specifically, the average (mean) score on the actual law enforcer scale was 21.13 with 380 respondents (69.5%) scoring

21 or higher on this scale (out of a max of 24). Only 5.2% (29) of respondents scored 15 or lower on the actual law enforcer scale. Recall that activities related to this role include enforcement of law violations, investigation of criminal activity, and patrol inside/outside of the school. Examining the spread of the data around the mean, 91.8% of the scores were within one standard deviation (3.51) of the mean. Similar descriptive statistics were also obtained for the *actual mentor variable* (see Table 16). A majority of respondents (388; 69.8%) scored 26 or greater on the actual mentor scale. The mean value for this scale was 26.23, with 90.5% of the distribution within one standard deviation (4.68) of the mean score. Recall that the activities related to this role include assisting students with law issues, providing students advice about behavior and issues at home, seeking out at-risk students, and building positive relationships.

As for the *actual educator* scale, which included activities such as teaching classes, giving presentations, and contributing to staff in-service, a majority of the respondents (173; 31.7%) scored between 11 and 15 [out of a max of 30; see Table 16]). The mean score for this scale was 14.69, with 69.1% of the scores within one standard deviation (5.86) of the mean score. Similar univariate results were also found for the *actual surrogate parent* variable (see Table 16), which included activities such as providing emotional support to students as well as basic necessities. Just under half of the respondents (263; 47.9%) scored between 11 and 15 on the actual surrogate parent scale. The mean score for the scale was 13.30 with 74.0% of the scores falling within one standard deviation (4.40) of the mean.

Table 16. Frequencies and Descriptives for Actual Role Variables

<i>Value</i>	Actual Law Enforcer¹		Actual Mentor		Actual Educator		Actual Surrogate Parent²		Actual Social Worker³	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
0-5	6	1.1%	3	0.6%	34	6.3%	17	3.2%	194	35.7%
6-10	3	0.6%	7	1.3%	90	16.5%	103	18.8%	203	37.2%
11-15	20	3.5%	17	3.1%	173	31.7%	263	47.9%	128	23.4%
16-20	138	25.3%	26	4.4%	158	29.1%	136	24.8%	21	3.7%
21-25	380	69.5%	116	20.8%	71	13.1%	30	5.3%	-	-
26-30	-	-	388	69.8%	17	3.3%	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	547	100.0%	557	100.0%	543	100.0%	549	100.0%	546	100.0%
Missing	17		7		21		15		18	
	Mean: 21.13		Mean: 26.23		Mean: 14.69		Mean: 13.30		Mean: 7.51	
	Range: 24		Range: 30		Range: 30		Range: 24		Range: 18	
	Variance: 12.35		Variance: 21.92		Variance: 34.38		Variance: 19.35		Variance: 19.77	
	SD: 3.51		SD: 4.68		SD: 5.86		SD: 4.40		SD: 4.45	
¹ Scale ranged from 0-24.										
² Scale ranged from 0-24										
³ Scale ranged from 0-18										

Finally, the majority of respondents scored low on the *actual social worker variable* (see Table 16), which included activities such as visiting students at home and connecting them with social services. Specifically, just over 70.1% of respondents scored 10 or less (out of 18) on this scale, with a mean score of 7.51. Examining the spread of the scores around the mean, 72.0% of the scores on this scale fall within one standard deviation (4.45) of the mean.

- ***1.2 What expectations do others have regarding the roles of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment (as measured by what officers believe others in the school think they should be doing)?***

A similar analytical approach was taken to address this sub-research question as it is necessary to understand, describe, and summarize the data for each of the *expected* roles variables (Expected law enforcer, Expected mentor/role model, Expected educator, Expected surrogate parent, and Expected social worker) prior to beginning more complex statistical analysis (i.e., bivariate). This univariate analysis consisted of assessing the distribution of responses (i.e., frequencies), the measures of central tendency (i.e., mean), and the measures of dispersion (i.e., range, variance, and standard deviation) for each of these variables

As shown in Table 17, the majority of respondents scored between 51 and 54 (out of 54) on the *expected law enforcer* variable. Additionally, over 63% of respondents scored 41 or greater on the scale and just over 13% scored less than 30. The mean score for the scale was 42.12, with 67.8% of the distribution within one standard deviation (10.90) of the mean score. Similar univariate findings were also discovered for the *expected mentor* variable (see Table 17). A majority of respondents scored high on the scale, with 244 (46.6%) respondents scoring the maximum of 36. The mean score for this

scale was 31.77, which reflects a majority of scores being on the high end of the distribution. A majority of the scores on this scale (87.4%) are within one standard deviation (6.85) of the mean.

The scores on the *expected educator* scale varied more than the previous two scales (see Table 17). Specifically, although a majority of respondents (56.4%) scored greater than 16, the remaining 43.6% of respondents scored less than 16. The average score on this scale was just below 17 (16.80), and 72.0% of the distribution fell within one standard deviation (7.18) of the mean. Regarding the *expected surrogate parent* variable, the majority of respondents (257; 51.2%) scored between 11 and 15 (out of 24; see Table 17). The average score for this variable was just above 13, with just under three quarters (72.7%) of the distribution within one standard deviation (5.29) of the mean. Finally, the *expected social worker* variable had considerable variation in terms of the responses provided (see Table 17). The majority of respondents (150; 29.4%) scored between 11 and 15; however, all other response categories (0-5, 6-10, and 16-20) had greater than 20% of respondents score in that respective range. The average score for this scale was 10.19 with 62.3% of the scores falling within one standard deviation (5.56) of the mean.

Table 17. Frequencies and Descriptives for Expected Role Variables

Expected Law Enforcer			Expected Mentor ¹		Expected Educator ²		Expected Surrogate Parent ³		Expected Social Worker ⁴	
<i>Value</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
0-5	5	0.8%	6	1.2%	32	6.4%	31	6.2%	106	20.9%
6-10	4	0.7%	6	1.2%	69	13.3%	82	16.3%	145	28.5%
11-15	7	1.4%	9	1.8%	122	23.9%	257	51.2%	150	29.4%
16-20	7	1.4%	21	4.1%	130	25.4%	82	16.3%	108	21.2%
21-25	20	4.0%	29	5.6%	103	20.1%	50	10.0%	-	-
26-30	25	5.0%	74	14.1%	56	10.9%	-	-	-	-
31-35	41	8.2%	133	25.4%	-	-	-	-	-	-
36-40	73	14.6%	244	46.6%	-	-	-	-	-	-
41-45	103	20.6%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
46-50	83	16.6%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
51-54	134	26.7%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	502	100.0%	522	100.0%	512	100.0%	502	100.0%	509	100.0%
Missing	62		42		52		62		55	
	Mean: 42.12		Mean: 31.77		Mean: 16.80		Mean: 13.11		Mean: 10.19	
	Range: 54		Range: 36		Range: 30		Range: 24		Range: 18	
	Variance: 118.82		Variance: 46.915		Variance: 51.55		Variance: 28.03		Variance: 30.96	
	SD: 10.90		SD: 6.85		SD: 7.18		SD: 5.29		SD: 5.56	
¹ Scale ranged from 0-36. ² Scale ranged from 0-30. ³ Scale ranged from 0-24. ⁴ Scale ranged from 0-18.										

- ***1.3 Who is responsible for establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment?***

Univariate statistics were also relied upon to assess who is responsible for establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment (i.e., District administrators, Campus administrators, Campus staff, Police administrators, School board, and Officer discretion). As with the actual and expected role variables, the distribution of responses (i.e., frequencies), the measures of central tendency (i.e., mean), and the measures of dispersion (i.e., range, variance, and standard deviation) for each of these variables was obtained and assessed.

As shown in Table 18, the two groups of individuals most involved in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs were police administrators and the officers themselves through individual discretion. Specifically, a majority of respondents (357; 67.7%) indicated that *officer discretion* is “always” involved in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs. The average response for the involvement of officer discretion in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs was 3.45 (out of 4)⁹. Similarly, a majority of respondents (316; 60.1%) reported that *police administrators* are “always” involved establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs. The mean response for police administrator’s involvement in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs was slightly lower than officer discretion at 3.27.

These two categories were followed by district administrators and campus administrators, respectively. The majority of respondents (239; 45.3%) indicated that *district administrators* are “always” involved in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs (see Table 18). Additionally, 91% of respondents reported that district administrators are

⁹ The response categories were coded as the following: 0 = none, 1= rarely, 2= sometimes, 3= often, and 4= always.

at least “sometimes” involved in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs for their campuses. The average response for the involvement of district administrators in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs was 3.08. In regards to *campus administrators’* involvement in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs, the majority of respondents (129; 24.5%) reported that they are “sometimes” involved (see Table 18). However, over 20% of respondents also reported that campus administrators were “often” (22.6%) and “always” (24.0%) involved in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs. The average response for the involvement of campus administrators in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs was 2.31.

To a lesser extent, respondents reported that *campus staff* were involved in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs (see Table 18). Specifically, the majority of respondents indicated that campus staff were “sometimes” involved; however, 23.5% reported they were “always” involved and 20.1% reported they are “rarely” involved. The average response for the involvement of campus staff in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs was 2.16. To an even lesser extent, respondents indicated that the *school board* was involved in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs (see Table 18). The average response for the involvement of school board members in establishing the roles of SROs/SBLEs was 1.48, with a majority of the respondents (158; 29.9%) reporting that they are “rarely” involved.

Table 18. Frequencies and Descriptives for Establishment of Roles Variables

District Administrators			Campus Administrators		Campus staff		Police administrators	
<i>Involvement</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
None	15	2.8%	54	10.3%	77	14.6%	13	2.5%
Rarely	33	6.3%	98	18.6%	106	20.1%	40	7.6%
Sometimes	88	16.7%	129	24.5%	126	23.9%	53	10.1%
Often	153	29.0%	119	22.6%	95	18.0%	104	18.4%
Always	239	45.3%	126	24.0%	124	23.5%	316	60.1%
TOTAL	528	100.0%	526	100.0%	528	100.0%	526	100.0%
Missing	36		38		36		38	
	Mean: 3.08		Mean: 2.31		Mean: 2.16		Mean: 3.27	
	Range: 4		Range: 4		Range: 4		Range: 4	
	Variance: 1.12		Variance: 1.69		Variance: 1.88		Variance: 1.16	
	SD: 1.06		SD: 1.30		SD: 1.37		SD: 1.08	

School board			Officer discretion	
<i>Involvement</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
None	145	27.5%	10	1.9%
Rarely	158	29.9%	18	3.4%
Sometimes	111	21.0%	52	9.9%
Often	52	9.8%	90	17.1%
Always	62	11.7%	357	67.7%
TOTAL	528	100.0%	527	100.0%
Missing	36		37	
	Mean: 1.48		Mean: 3.45	
	Range: 4		Range: 4	
	Variance: 1.70		Variance: 0.879	
	SD: 1.31		SD: 0.938	

Subsequent to the univariate analysis, bivariate correlations were conducted to assess the relationships between the establishment of role variables and individual and aggregate demographic factors. Specifically, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (Pearson's r) were obtained in an effort to assess the strength of the relationship between sets of two variables. Pearson's r measures how well two sets of data are related, and specifically the strength of a linear relationship (if any) between the two variables (Brase & Brase, 2015). Values for this statistic range from -1 to 1, with -1 being a perfect negative correlation, 0 being absolutely no correlation, and 1 being a perfect positive correlation. Therefore, a negative value indicates the strength of a negative relationship and a positive value indicates the strength of a positive relationship (Brase & Brase, 2015). Although this measure of association is both intuitive and informative, it is not a measure of causality. It simply details the strength of a linear relationship, and not whether one variable causes another. Multivariate analysis would still be needed to assess causality.

In this analysis, Pearson's r correlation coefficients were obtained between the establishment of role variables (District administrators, Campus administrators, Campus staff, Police administrators, School board, and Officer discretion) and school demographic variables (Service structure, Geographical area, and Number of campuses assigned) and between the establishment of role variables and individual demographic variables (sex, age, race, years in school-based policing, and professional rank). These specific demographic variables were thought to have a relationship with how an officer's roles are established. For instance, the service structure of a department may impact who assigns specific roles and duties to officers. A school-based police department may have

the chief handle this function, whereas a contracted SRO may have the superintendent or campus administrator identifying his or her role.

Table 19 contains the correlation matrix for the establishment of role variables and school demographics. The correlation coefficients of interest are identified in the table with the box. Despite theory and past research suggesting potential significant relationships between these school demographic variables and how roles are established, there were no significant relationships identified.

Table 19. Correlation Matrix of Role Establishment Variables and School Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(1) Campus administrators	1.00								
(2) District administrators	.283**	1.00							
(3) Campus staff	.568**	.172**	1.00						
(4) Police administrators	.000	.331**	-.113*	1.00					
(5) School board	.220**	.668**	.191**	.358**	1.00				
(6) Officer discretion	.027	.060	.005	.214**	.093*	1.00			
(7) Service structure (SRO)	-.019	-.019	-.004	.075	.004	-.017	1.00		
(8) Geographical area (Urban)	.023	-.011	.058	-.010	.017	-.047	-.203**	1.00	
(9) Number of campuses assigned	-.006	-.051	.038	-.017	-.024	-.047	.049	-.113*	1.00

*p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.001

Similarly, Table 20 contains the correlation matrix for the establishment of role variables and individual demographic variables. The correlation coefficients of interest are identified in the table with the box. Despite prior research suggesting potential significant relationships between these individual demographic variables and how roles are established, there were no significant relationships identified between these sets of variables.

Table 20. Correlation Matrix of Role Establishment Variables and Individual Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
(1) Campus administrators	1.00									
(2) District administrators	.283** .000	1.00								
(3) Campus staff	.568** .000	.172** .000	1.00							
(4) Police administrators	.000 .997	.331** .000	-.113* .009	1.00						
(5) School board	.220** .000	.668** .000	.191** .000	.358** .000	1.00					
(6) Officer discretion	.027 .529	.060 .170	.005 .907	.214** .000	.093* .033	1.00				
(7) Sex (male)	-.014 .764	-.009 .835	.086 .055	-.021 .644	.033 .466	.001 .990	1.00			
(8) Age	-.066 .145	-.046 .311	-.042 .355	.012 .793	-.031 .492	.003 .951	.122* .007	1.00		
(9) Race (nonwhite)	.041 .364	-.018 .686	-.039 .391	-.015 .743	-.022 .625	-.064 .151	-.057 .206	-.021 .642	1.00	
(10) Years in school police	.005 .911	.004 .936	-.014 .749	-.027 .546	.020 .663	-.064 .151	.051 .251	.424** .000	.117* .009	1.00

*p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.001

- ***1.4 Are there any individual (e.g., sex, age, race, years in law enforcement) and/or aggregate (e.g., grade-level served, geographical area of the campus, percentage of students receiving free/reduced lunch) correlates that seem to influence role-types?***

Bivariate correlations were also conducted to assess the relationships between the actual role variables and individual and aggregate demographic factors. Additionally, bivariate correlations were conducted to assess the relationships between the expected role variables and individual and aggregate demographic factors. In this analysis, Pearson's r correlation coefficients were obtained between the actual roles variables (Actual law enforcer, Actual mentor/role model, Actual educator, Actual surrogate parent, Actual social worker) and school demographic variables (grade-level served, geographical area of the campus, percentage of students receiving free/reduced lunch) and between the actual roles variables and individual demographic variables (sex, age, race, years in law enforcement). These specific demographic variables were thought to

have a relationship with the actual role of an officer. Specifically, their role may be dictated by what grade levels they serve or how many years they have been an officer. Additionally, their role may be different if they work with elementary as opposed to high school, or whether or not they are in their first or twentieth year.

Table 21 contains the correlation matrix for the actual role variables and school demographic variables. The correlation coefficients of interest are identified in the table with the box. Despite theory and past research suggesting potential significant relationships between these school demographic variables and actual officer roles, there were no significant relationships identified.

Similarly, Table 22 contains the correlation matrix for the actual role variables and individual demographic variables. The correlation coefficients of interest are identified in the table with the box. Despite prior research suggesting potential significant relationships between these individual demographic variables and officer roles, there were only three significant relationships identified between these sets of variables. First, there was a weak positive relationship between an officer's age and having an actual educator role ($r = .101$, $n = 471$, $p = .028$). That is, as an officers' age increases, they are more likely to have an educator role. Second, there was a weak negative correlation between the race of the officer (white vs. nonwhite) and an actual social worker role ($r = -.146$, $n = 484$, $p = .001$). This significant relationship indicates that nonwhite officers, when compared to white officers, are less likely to serve in a social worker role.

Table 21. Correlation Matrix of Actual Role Variables and School Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
(1) Actual law enforcer	1.00													
(2) Actual mentor	.533** .000	1.00												
(3) Actual educator	.106* .015	.416** .000	1.00											
(4) Actual surrogate parent	.234** .000	.605** .000	.423** .000	1.00										
(5) Actual social worker	.258** .000	.515** .000	.435** .000	.521** .000	1.00									
(6) Elem only ¹	.012 .781	.011 .796	.014 .748	-.015 .734	-.018 .682	1.00								
(7) Mid only ¹	-.058 .172	-.051 .231	-.028 .511	.031 .475	-.061 .153	-.118* .005	1.00							
(8) High-only ¹	.063 .143	.043 .316	.013 .767	.010 .813	.070 .103	-.178** .000	-.309** .000	1.00						
(9) Elem and mid ¹	-.024 .573	.005 .907	.029 .493	.015 .719	-.012 .781	-.050 .235	-.087* .039	-.131* .002	1.00					
(10) Elem and high ¹	-.009 .835	-.016 .708	-.024 .569	.025 .552	-.024 .575	-.029 .488	-.051 .229	-.076 .070	-.021 .610	1.00				
(11) Mid and high ¹	.001 .990	.038 .367	.018 .671	-.019 .654	.024 .574	-.083* .048	-.144** .001	-.217** .000	-.061 .147	-.036 .397	1.00			
(12) No grade ¹	-.064 .137	-.108 .111	-.055 .205	-.063 .143	-.075 .080	-.097* .022	-.168** .000	-.252** .000	-.071 .092	-.042 .325	-.118* .005	1.00		
(13) Geographical area (Urban)	-.009 .840	.014 .761	.019 .676	.038 .405	-.015 .739	.053 .241	.103* .021	.028 .529	-.058 .197	.002 .958	-.065 .151	.055 .220	1.00	
(14) % Free/reduced lunch	-.010 .829	.057 .210	.010 .833	-.022 .628	-.020 .672	-.004 .937	.002 .962	-.092* .042	-.034 .457	.014 .754	-.042 .357	.044 .333	.233** .000	1.00

¹All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.
*p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.001

Third, there was a weak positive relationship between the number of years an individual has been a law enforcement officer and having an actual educator role ($r = .110$, $n = 483$, $p = .015$). Specifically, the more years an individual has been in the law enforcement profession, the more likely they are to have an educator role.

Table 22. Correlation Matrix of Actual Role Variables and Individual Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(1) Actual law enforcer	1.00								
(2) Actual mentor/role model	.533**	1.00							
(3) Actual educator	.106*	.416**	1.00						
(4) Actual surrogate parent	.234**	.605**	.423**	1.00					
(5) Actual social worker	.258**	.515**	.435**	.521**	1.00				
(6) Sex (male)	.005	.030	.083	-.012	.025	1.00			
(7) Age	.013	-.013	.101*	-.026	.026	.122*	1.00		
(8) Race (nonwhite)	.025	-.006	-.070	-.057	-.146*	-.057	-.021	1.00	
(9) Years in LE	-.007	-.042	.110*	-.031	.018	.152*	.750**	-.055	1.00

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.001$

Additionally, Pearson's r correlation coefficients were also obtained between the expected role variables (Expected law enforcer, Expected mentor/role model, Expected educator, Expected surrogate parent, and Expected social worker) and the same individual and aggregate demographic factors.

Table 23 contains the correlation matrix for the expected role variables and school demographic variables. The correlation coefficients of interest are identified in the table with the box. Despite prior research suggesting potential relationships between these sets of variables, no significant relationships were found.

Table 23. Correlation Matrix of Expected Role Variables and School Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
(1) Expected law enforcer	1.00													
(2) Expected mentor/role model	.428**	1.00												
(3) Expected educator	.263**	.528**	1.00											
(4) Expected surrogate parent	.204**	.518**	.591**	1.00										
(5) Expected social worker	.358**	.523**	.596**	.578**	1.00									
(6) Elem only ¹	.058	-.024	-.029	-.054	-.078	1.00								
(7) Mid only ¹	.194	.577	.517	.225	.080	-.118*	1.00							
(8) High-only ¹	.652	.418	.921	.625	.186	-.178**	-.309**	1.00						
(9) Elem and mid ¹	.015	.096	.033	.041	.067	-.050	-.087*	-.131*	1.00					
(10) Elem and high ¹	.740	.059	.457	.356	.130	.235	.039	.002	-.021	1.00				
(11) Mid and high ¹	.029	.054	.037	.085	.003	-.029	-.051	-.076	-.061	-.036	1.00			
(12) No grade ¹	.514	.215	.410	.057	.946	.048	.001	.000	.147	.397	-.118*	1.00		
(13) Geographical area (Urban)	.003	-.029	.001	-.018	-.009	.022	.000	.000	.092	.325	.005	.055	1.00	
(14) % Free/reduced lunch	.952	.510	.984	.689	.835	-.097*	-.168*	-.252**	-.071	-.042	-.118*	.220	.233**	1.00
	.058	.014	.036	-.032	.003	.022	.000	.000	.092	.325	.005	.055	.233**	.000
	.214	.762	.431	.495	.951	.241	.021	.529	.197	.958	.151	.220	.233**	.000
	-.013	.016	.050	.045	.002	-.004	.002	-.092*	-.034	.014	-.042	.044	.233**	.000
	.785	.726	.279	.338	.969	.937	.962	.042	.457	.754	.357	.333	.000	1.00

¹All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.
*p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.001

Similarly, Table 24 contains the correlation matrix for the expected role variables and individual demographic variables. The correlation coefficients of interest are identified in the table with the box. There were only two significant relationships identified between these sets of variable. First, there was a weak positive relationship between the sex of the officer and an expected mentor role ($r = .090$, $n = 489$, $p = .047$). This relationship suggests that males, compared to females, perceive others in the school environment to expect them to serve in a mentor role. Second, a weak negative relationship existed between the race of the officer and the perceived expectation of others in the school environment that they will serve in a social worker role. Specifically, nonwhite officers are less likely to perceive others in the school environment to expect them to serve in a social worker role.

Table 24. Correlation Matrix of Expected Role Variables and Individual Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(1) Expected law enforcer	1.00								
(2) Expected mentor/role model	.428**	1.00							
(3) Expected educator	.263**	.528**	1.00						
(4) Expected surrogate parent	.204**	.518**	.591**	1.00					
(5) Expected social worker	.358**	.523**	.596**	.578**	1.00				
(6) Sex (male)	.060	.090*	.072	.047	.055	1.00			
(7) Age	.042	.061	.039	-.005	.029	.122*	1.00		
(8) Race (nonwhite)	.009	-.016	-.070	-.047	-.106*	-.057	-.021	1.00	
(9) Years in LE	.017	.040	.037	.010	.045	.152**	.750**	-.055	1.00

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.001$

RQ 2: What types of training do commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment receive and what correlates with specific types of training?

The second set of research questions addressed the types of training that commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment receive as well as what specific individual and aggregate factors might correlate with specific types of training. Using univariate and bivariate statistics, analysis was conducted on the data in an effort to address the two sub-research questions.

- ***2.1 What types of training do SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment receive?***

Univariate statistics were obtained to better understand, describe, and summarize the data for each of training variables (Traditional police training, Specialized training, School-specific training program, and On-the-job-training). As shown in Table 25, an overwhelming majority of respondents scored high on the *traditional training scale*. Specifically, the average (mean) score on the traditional training scale was 2.65 with 387 respondents (77.4%) scoring three on this scale (out of a max of three). Only three respondents (0.6%) reported receiving no traditional police training. Examining the spread of the data around the mean, 88.6% of the scores were within one standard deviation (0.69) of the mean.

Similar descriptive statistics were also obtained for the *specialized police training* scale and the *on-the-job training* scale (see Table 25). A majority of respondents (359; 72.5%) scored between seven and eight on the specialized police training scale. The mean value for this scale was 6.86, with 81.4% of the distribution within one standard deviation (1.70) of the mean score. Additionally, 82.0% of respondents scored a two (out of a max of two) on the *on-the-job training* scale. The mean score for this scale was 1.40.

Finally, the scores on the *school-specific training* scale contained more variation when compared to the other types of training (see Table 25). For instance, although a majority of respondents (267; 54.2%) scored between seven and eight on the school-specific training scale, 22.5% and 13.2% scored between five and six and between three and four, respectively. The mean score for this scale was 6.08, with 85.2% of the distribution within one standard deviation (2.18) of the mean score.

Table 25. Frequencies and Descriptives for Training Variables

Value	Traditional training ¹		Specialized training		School-specific training		On-the-job training ²	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
0	3	0.6%	1	0.2%	7	1.5%	88	18.0%
1-2	110	22.0%	15	3.0%	42	8.6%	400	82.0%
3-4	387	77.4%	44	8.9%	65	13.2%	-	-
5-6	-	-	76	15.4%	111	22.5%	-	-
7-8	-	-	359	72.5%	267	54.2%	-	-
TOTAL	500	100.0%	495	100.0%	492	100.0%	488	100.0%
Missing	64		69		72		76	
	Mean: 2.65 Range: 3.00 Variance: 0.48 SD: 0.69		Mean: 6.86 Range: 8.00 Variance: 2.89 SD: 1.70		Mean: 6.08 Range: 8.00 Variance: 4.77 SD: 2.18		Mean: 1.40 Range: 2.00 Variance: 0.60 SD: 0.78	
¹ Scale ranged from 0-3.								
² Scale ranged from 0-2.								

- **2.2 Are there any individual (sex, age, race, years in school-based policing, and professional rank) and/or aggregate (e.g., service structure, geographical area, and crime/disorder level) correlates that seem to influence the training an officer receives?**

Following the univariate analysis, bivariate analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between the training variables and individual and aggregate school demographic factors. Specifically, Pearson's r correlation coefficients were obtained in an effort to assess the strength of the relationship between sets of two variables. In this analysis, Pearson's r correlation coefficients were obtained between the training variables (Traditional police training, Specialized training, School-specific training program, and

On-the-job-training) and school demographic variables (service structure, geographical area, and crime/disorder level) and between the training variables and individual demographic variables (sex, age, race, years in school-based policing, and professional rank). These specific demographic variables were thought to have a relationship with the types of training received by an officer. For instance, the geographical area of the school may have limited training opportunities, whereas the more years in school-based policing and a higher professional rank may bring with it more years of experience.

Table 26 contains the correlation matrix for the training variables and school demographics. The correlation coefficients of interest are identified in the table with the box. Three statistically significant relationships were found. First, a weak negative relationship was found between the service structure of the respondent and school-specific training ($r = -.162$, $n = 488$, $p = .001$). Specifically, when an SRO structure is used, as opposed to an ISD police department structure, the amount of school-specific training decreases. Second, a weak negative relationship was found between the service structure of the respondent and on-the-job training ($r = -.179$, $n = 484$, $p = .001$). That is, when an SRO structure is used, as opposed to an ISD police department structure, the amount of on-the-job training decreases. Finally, a weak positive relationship was found between the level of crime and disorder in the school in which the respondent works and on-the-job training ($r = .149$, $n = 449$, $p = .001$). The more crime/disorder at the school in which the officer works, the more on-the-job training they receive.

Table 26. Correlation Matrix of Training Variables and School Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1) Traditional police training	1.00						
(2) Specialized training	-.038	1.00					
(3) School program	.027	.508**	1.00				
(4) On-the-job-training	-.047	.203	.422	1.00			
(5) Service structure (SRO)	.307	.000**	.000**		1.00		
(6) Geographical area (Urban)	-.086	-.056	-.162**	-.179**		1.00	
(7) Crime/disorder level	.058	.221	.001	.001	-.203**		1.00
	.072	.069	.030	.040	.001	.218**	
	.114	.130	.516	.377	.001	.000	1.00
	.021	.044	.053	.149**	-.142**		
	.662	.349	.262	.001	.001		

*p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.001

Similarly, Table 27 contains the correlation matrix for the training variables and individual demographic variables. The correlation coefficients of interest are identified in the table with the box. There were several statistically significant relationships identified. First, a weak positive relationship was found between the sex of the respondent and school-specific training ($r = .098$, $n = 489$, $p = .030$). Specifically, males, when compared to females, receive more school-specific training. Next, a weak negative relationship was found between the officer's age and on-the-job training ($r = -.148$, $n = 476$, $p = .001$). That is, as an officer gets older, they receive less on-the-job training.

Two significant relationships were found between an officer's race and the training variables. Specifically, weak positive relationships were found between the race of the officer and school-specific training ($r = .123$, $n = 486$, $p = .007$) and between the race of the officer and on-the-job training ($r = .171$, $n = 482$, $p = .001$). These relationships indicate that nonwhite officers receive more school-specific training and more on-the-job training when compared to white officers.

Finally, two statistically significant relationships were also found between the years an officer has been in school-based policing and the training variables. Weak positive relationships were found between the number of years an individual has been in school-based policing and specialized law enforcement training ($r = .150$, $n = 490$, $p = .001$) and between the number of years an individual has been in school-based policing and school-specific training ($r = .250$, $n = 491$, $p = .001$). That is, as the number of years an officer has been in school-based policing increases, the more specialized law enforcement training they receive and the more school-specific training they receive. Overall, this bivariate analysis provided greater insight into the individual and aggregate correlates that might influence the training received by school-based officers.

Table 27. Correlation Matrix of Training Variables and Individual Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(1) Traditional police training	1.00							
(2) Specialized training	-.038 .406	1.00						
(3) School program	.027 .545	.508**	1.00					
(4) On-the-job-training	-.047 .307	.203**	.422**	1.00				
(5) Sex (male)	.001 .983	.085 .060	.098* .030	-.015 .744	1.00			
(6) Age	.009 .847	.096 .037	.037 .414	-.148** .001	.122* .007	1.00		
(7) Race (nonwhite)	.015 .748	-.024 .594	.123* .007	.171** .001	-.057 .206	-.021 .642	1.00	
(8) Years in school police	.050 .267	.150** .001	.250** .001	.032 .474	.051 .251	.424** .000	.117* .009	1.00

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.001$

RQ 3: What are the common responses to student misconduct used by commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment, and how do an officer's role and/or prior training affect their response?

The final series of research questions examined the ways in which SROs/SBLEs respond to student misconduct in the school environment. Additionally, how these responses to student misconduct might be influenced by the actual role of an officer as well as their prior training was also assessed. Using univariate, bivariate, and multivariate statistics, analysis was conducted on the data in an effort to address four sub-research questions.

In this analysis, the vignette became the unit of analysis that was sampled; therefore, the total number of vignettes completed was considered as well as the total number of actual respondents. The total number of completed vignettes was 4,506 and the total number of individual respondents was 522. Because both individual respondents and vignettes were sampled, a factorial survey design produced a potential multilevel data structure. Ultimately, this created variables at two different levels, the individual level (i.e., the respondent) and the vignette level, because the vignettes are potentially nested within individuals (i.e., each individual responds to several vignettes).

This data structure can violate the independence assumption of traditional classic linear models (e.g., Ordinary Least Squares). That is, all of the independent variables must be linearly independent from one another, and the residuals should be uncorrelated from each other (Kutner, Nachtsheim, & Neter, 2004). If one were to analyze data that violates this assumption using a classical linear model, the estimates would still be unbiased, but they will not be efficient (i.e., the standard errors become biased). Using a

multilevel model allows both levels to be expressed in one single formula. A multilevel model produces two regression equations, one modeling the level two (individual) effects within vignettes and one modeling individual effects between individuals (Hox, 1995). Therefore, one can predict individual responses by the corresponding vignette (level one) and individual characteristics (level two). Prior to running the multivariate analysis, univariate and bivariate analysis was conducted on the four different response categories provided for the vignettes and the individual and school demographics.

- ***3.1 What are the most common responses to student misconduct used by SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment?***

Prior to conducting multivariate analysis, which will allow for various demographic and contextual factors to be held constant/controlled for, such as incident seriousness, univariate and bivariate statistics were obtained to better understand the data for each response to misconduct (counseling, school-based response, issuing a ticket/court referral, and making an arrest). As shown in Table 28, considering all of the vignette scenarios that participants responded to, the two most prevalent responses to student misconduct were counseling the student and referring the student to an administrator for a school-based response. Specifically, in a majority of the vignette scenarios (1,967; 43.8%) respondents indicated that they were “extremely likely” to respond to the incident of misconduct by *counseling* the student. Additionally, in just under 73% of the vignette scenarios, respondents indicated they were either “likely” or “extremely likely” to respond to the incident of misconduct by counseling the student.

The average response for a counseling response to an incident of student misconduct was 4.84 (out of 6)¹⁰.

Similarly, in a majority of the vignette scenarios (1,388; 30.9%) respondents indicated that they were “extremely likely” to respond to the incident of misconduct by referring the student to an administrator for a *school-based response*. Although in just under 55.0% of the vignette scenarios respondents indicated they were either “likely” or “extremely likely” to respond to the incident of misconduct by referring the student for a school-based response, in 22.2% of the scenarios respondents reported that this type of response was “extremely unlikely”. The mean response for a school-based response was slightly lower than a counseling response at 3.97.

The remaining two responses to student misconduct were selected to a lesser extent. That is, in 46.5% and 53.9% of the vignette scenarios, respondents indicated they were “extremely unlikely” to respond to the student misconduct by issuing a ticket / court referral or by arresting the student, respectively. In only 7.9% of the scenarios did a respondent report that they were “extremely likely” to issue a ticket / court referral to the student and in only 4.9% did the respondent indicate that they were “extremely likely” to arrest the student. The average response for a ticket / court referral response to an incident of student misconduct was 2.45 (out of 6) and the average response for an arrest response was 2.16.

¹⁰ The response categories were coded as the following: 1 = extremely unlikely, 2= unlikely, 3= somewhat unlikely, 4= somewhat likely, 5= likely, and 6= extremely likely.

Table 28. Frequencies and Descriptives for Response to Misconduct Variables

	Counseling		School-based response		Ticket / court referral		Arrest	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Extremely Unlikely	258	5.7%	996	22.2%	2,083	46.5%	2,419	53.9%
Unlikely	252	5.6%	381	8.5%	768	17.1%	724	16.1%
Somewhat Unlikely	165	3.7%	211	4.7%	357	8.0%	355	7.9%
Somewhat Likely	552	12.3%	468	10.4%	417	9.3%	412	9.1%
Likely	1,296	28.9%	1,042	23.2%	505	11.3%	360	8.0%
Extremely Likely	1,967	43.8%	1,388	30.9%	352	7.9%	220	4.9%
TOTAL	4,490	100.0%	4,486	100.0%	4,482	100.0%	4,490	100.0%
Missing	16		20		24		16	
	Mean: 4.84		Mean: 3.97		Mean: 2.45		Mean: 2.16	
	Range: 5		Range: 5		Range: 5		Range: 5	
	Variance: 2.11		Variance: 3.86		Variance: 2.98		Variance: 2.47	
	SD: 1.45		SD: 1.96		SD: 1.73		SD: 1.57	

- ***3.2 Are there any individual (e.g., sex, age, and years in school-based policing) and/or aggregate (e.g., service structure, grade level(s) served, geographical area, and race/ethnicity of the campus) correlates that seem to influence the types of responses to student misconduct used by SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment?***

Again, prior to conducting more complex multivariate analysis which will allow for demographic and contextual factors to be held constant, bivariate correlations were conducted to assess relationships between each of the responses to misconduct variables and individual and aggregate demographic factors. Specifically, Pearson's r correlation coefficients were obtained in an effort to assess the strength of the relationship between sets of two variables. In this analysis, Pearson's r correlation coefficients were obtained between the responses to misconduct and school demographic variables (service structure, grade level(s) served, and geographical area) and between the responses to misconduct and individual demographic variables (sex, age, and years in school-based policing). These specific demographic variables were thought to have a relationship with how an officer responds to student misconduct. For instance, the service structure of a department may impact how an officer responds to misconduct. Officers working in a school-based police department may have a better understanding of the educational environment, and therefore take a more nurturing approach, whereas a contracted SRO may have a more law-enforcement based mentality as a result of working for a municipal agency.

Table 29 contains the correlation matrix for the response to misconduct variables and school demographics. The correlation coefficients of interest are identified in the table with the box. There were several correlations of interest between the response to misconduct variables and school demographics. First, there was a correlation between a

counseling response and the service structure of the respondent ($r = .054$, $n = 4,321$, $p = .001$) and between an arrest response and the service structure of the respondent ($r = -.053$, $n = 4,321$, $p = .001$). Specifically, there was a weak positive correlation between a counseling response and the service structure of the respondent indicating that when an SRO structure is used, as opposed to an ISD police department structure, counseling is a more likely response to student misconduct. The relationship between an arrest response and service structure was also weak, but negative indicating that when an SRO structure is used, as opposed to an ISD police department structure, arrest is a less likely response to student misconduct.

Second, there were several correlations between the responses to student misconduct and the grade-levels in which the officers worked. Specifically, there was a weak negative relationship between a school-based response and working in an elementary school only ($r = -.048$, $n = 4,486$, $p = .001$). This relationship indicates that when officers are working in an elementary school only, as opposed to working with all grade-levels, a counseling response is less likely. There was also a weak negative correlation between a ticket/court referral response and working in a middle school only ($r = -.034$, $n = 4,482$, $p = .021$). That is, when working in a middle school only, as opposed to working with all grade-levels, the use of a ticket/court referral is less likely.

There were also two significant relationships between responses to misconduct and working in a high school only. A weak negative relationship was found between a counseling response and working in a high school only ($r = -.037$, $n = 4,490$, $p = .013$), and a weak positive relationship was found between a school-based response and working in a high school only ($r = .038$, $n = 4,486$, $p = .011$). The first relationship

suggests that when working in a high school only, as opposed to working with all grade-levels, the use of a counseling response is less likely. The later relationship indicates that when working in a high school only, as opposed to with all grade-levels, the use of a school-based response is more likely.

Additionally, there were three significant relationships between working in both an elementary and middle school and responses to student misconduct. Specifically, there was a weak positive relationship between a counseling response and working in both elementary and middle schools ($r = .041$, $n = 4,490$, $p = .006$). This indicates that when working in both an elementary and middle school, as opposed to all grade-levels, a counseling responses is more likely. Similarly, there was a weak positive relationship between a ticket/court referral response and working in both an elementary and middle school ($r = .048$, $n = 4,482$, $p = .001$) and between an arrest response and working in both an elementary and middle school ($r = .032$, $n = 4,490$, $p = .030$). These relationships indicate that when working in both an elementary and a middle school, when compared to working in all grade-levels, ticketing/court referral and arrest are more likely.

There were also two significant relationships between working in both an elementary and a high school and responses to student misconduct. There was a weak positive relationship between a school-based response and working in both an elementary and a high school ($r = .043$, $n = 4,486$, $p = .004$). This relationship suggests that when working in both an elementary and high school, when compared to working with all grade-levels, a school-based response is more likely. Additionally, there was a weak negative relationship between a ticket/court referral response and working in both an elementary and a high school ($r = -.032$, $n = 4,482$, $p = .033$). This relationship indicates

that when working in both an elementary and high school, as opposed to all grade-levels, a ticket/court referral response is less likely.

Finally, a weak negative relationship was found between a school based response and the geographical area of the campus in which the officer worked ($r = .032$, $n = 4,486$, $p = .030$). That is, officers working at an urban campus are less more likely than officers working at a non-urban campus to use a school-based response.

Similarly, Table 30 contains the correlation matrix for the response to misconduct variables and individual demographic variables. The correlation coefficients of interest are identified in the table with the box. There were several correlations of interest between the response to misconduct variables and individual demographics. First, there was a correlation between a ticket / referral response and the sex of the officer ($r = .058$, $n = 4,337$, $p = .001$). This weak positive relationship indicates that male officers are more likely than female officers to issue tickets / court referrals in response to student misconduct.

Next, there were three significant relationships between the age of the officer and their response to misconduct. Specifically, there was a weak negative relationship between a counseling response and the age of the respondent ($r = -.043$, $n = 4,250$, $p = .005$), indicating that as an officer gets older, they are less likely to respond to student misconduct using counseling. Additionally, there were two weak positive relationships between a school-based response and the respondent's age ($r = .046$, $n = 4,246$, $p = .003$) and between a ticket / court referral response and the respondents age ($r = .059$, $n = 4,243$, $p = .001$). That is, as an officer gets older, they are more likely to use school-based responses and tickets/ court referrals as responses to student misconduct.

Table 29. Correlation Matrix of Responses to Misconduct and School Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
(1) Counseling	1.00												
(2) School-based	.203**	1.00											
(3) Ticket / referral	-.025	.177**	1.00										
(4) Arrest	-.113**	.075**	.481**	1.00									
(5) Structure (SRO)	.054**	-.016	-.024	-.053**	1.00								
(6) Elem only ¹	.005	-.048**	-.006	.007	-.121**	1.00							
(7) Mid only ¹	-.001	-.018	-.034*	-.022	.105**	-.131**	1.00						
(8) High-only ¹	-.037*	.038*	-.020	.020	.033*	-.205**	-.349**	1.00					
(9) Elem and mid ¹	.041*	.019	.048**	.032*	.038	-.055**	-.094**	-.146**	1.00				
(10) Elem and high ¹	.002	.043*	-.032*	-.011	-.077**	-.031*	-.053**	-.083**	-.022	1.00			
(11) Mid and high ¹	.003	-.016	.011	-.022	.081**	-.093**	-.159**	-.247**	-.066**	-.038**	1.00		
(12) No grade ¹	-.060	-.043	.019	.013	-.082**	-.057**	-.097**	-.151**	-.041*	-.023	-.069*	1.00	
(13) Geographical area (Urban)	-.017	.032*	.011	.016	-.202**	.065**	.119**	.043*	-.058**	.016	-.080**	-.079**	1.00

¹All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.

*p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.001

Finally, there were three significant relationships between the number of years the respondent has been in school-based policing and their responses to misconduct. Specifically, there was a weak negative relationship between a counseling response and the number of years an officer has been in school-based policing ($r = -.068$, $n = 4,362$, $p = .001$), indicating that officers with more years in school-based policing are less likely to respond to student misconduct using counseling. There were also two weak positive relationships between a ticket / court referral response and the number of years an officer has been in school-based policing ($r = .061$, $n = 4,354$, $p = .001$) and between a response involving an arrest and the number of years an officer has been in school-based policing ($r = .062$, $n = 4,362$, $p = .001$). These relationships indicate that as an officer gains more years working in school-based policing, they are more likely to use ticketing / court referrals and arrest as responses to student misconduct.

Table 30. Correlation Matrix of Responses to Misconduct and Individual Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1) Counseling	1.00						
(2) School-based	.203** .000	1.00					
(3) Ticket / referral	-.025 .089	.177** .000	1.00				
(4) Arrest	-.113** .000	.075** .000	.481** .000	1.00			
(5) Sex (male)	-.001 .931	.005 .745	.058** .000	.029 .058	1.00		
(6) Age	-.043* .005	.046* .003	.059** .000	.015 .322	.131** .000	1.00	
(7) Years in school-based policing	-.068** .000	.012 .417	.061** .000	.062** .000	.060** .000	.430** .000	1.00

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.001$

- ***3.3 How do the actual roles of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment impact their response to student misconduct?***

In an effort to further understand the roles of SROs/SBLEs working in the school environment, the relationship between roles and the responses to misconduct was examined. Multivariate analysis was needed to assess the relationship between these variables, while holding constant other factors that may impact such relationships. In this analysis, there were a total of four different outcome variables. These outcome variables were the responses to misconduct (i.e., informal counseling, school-based punishment, ticket/court referral, and arrest). There were also four vignette variables (level 1): 1) student's age, 2) incident seriousness, 3) student's cooperation, and 4) student's know misconduct history. There were five individual-level variables (level 2): 1) actual law enforcer, 2) actual mentor/role model, 3) actual educator, 4) actual surrogate parent, and 5) actual social worker. Finally, there were a number of individual and school-level control variables (level 2) including sex, age, years in school-based policing, service structure, grade level(s) served, geographical area, and a baseline condition for each outcome variable. The baseline condition was created by having each of the respondents respond to the same initial vignette scenario in terms of each of the response to misconduct outcomes. This was used to control for any differences between respondents that were not due to the variables in the vignette scenario.

As noted earlier, because both individual respondents and vignettes were sampled, a factorial survey design produced a potential multilevel data structure, and this structure can violate the independence assumption of traditional classic linear models (e.g., Ordinary Least Squares; Kutner et al., 2004). Additionally, because a potential multilevel or "nested" data structure is possible, the following models must have identical samples.

This means, missing data had to be addressed prior to running these models as missing cases could differ in each model which would create different samples and not allow for the potential nested structure of the data. For all variables, less than 10% of cases were missing data. The missing cases were further examined and determined to be missing at random, as no systematic pattern existed for these missing cases. Therefore, imputation techniques were used to replace missing data. Specifically, for continuous variables, a mean imputation technique was used whereby the mean of a given variable was used to replace missing values. For dichotomous variables, logistic regression was used to estimate a value for the missing cases using other variables in the dataset. Once missing cases were addressed, and prior to estimating a model, one first must determine if the nested structure of the data matters statistically.

First, in order to determine statistically if a multilevel model is needed, a baseline ANOVA model with a random intercept was run for each dependent variable (i.e., counseling, school response, class C ticket, and arrest). There are two ways to assess this model in regards to the need for a multilevel model. The first option considers the likelihood ratio test. This test is appropriate because the two models that will be compared are nested within one another (individuals within vignettes). The null hypothesis is that there is no significant variation among the random variance components when comparing the restricted model (i.e., ordinary least squares) and the unrestricted model (i.e., the baseline ANOVA model with a random intercept). The alternative hypothesis is that there is significant variation among the random variance components when comparing the restricted model and the unrestricted model (i.e., the random variance components do not jointly equal zero in the population). One can also

examine the Inter-Class Correlation (ICC) to assess the need for a multilevel model. If the ICC lies within the 95% confidence interval, one would reject the null hypothesis as this indicates the variance of the “u” term is statistically different from zero in the population, and therefore, a more complex model is needed (Hox, 1995).

Regardless of how the model is assessed in terms of the need for a multilevel model, if the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, one would proceed with the simpler OLS model as this indicates that the nested structure does not matter statistically (Hox, 1995). That is, there is a difference between simply having nested observations and nesting being statistically important. If the null hypothesis is rejected, one would proceed with an empty random intercept model (i.e., only including level 1 variables).

Assuming a multilevel model is appropriate, an empty random intercept model will be run to assess the level 1 variables (i.e., vignette) variables on each of the dependent variables (Hox, 1995). In order to first determine the model of best fit for the data, two models will be run in addition to the ANOVA model. First, a likelihood ratio test will be used to compare the baseline ANOVA model with the empty random intercept model. The empty random intercept model only includes the vignette variables (i.e., level 1). The null hypothesis is that the restricted model (i.e., ANOVA) and the unrestricted model (i.e., empty random intercept) fit the data equally well in the population (i.e., all slopes in the model jointly equal zero in the population). The alternative hypothesis is that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population (i.e., all slopes in the model do not jointly equal zero in the population; Hox, 1995).

Next, assuming the null hypothesis is rejected, a full random intercept model would be run that allows for both level one (i.e., vignette) and level two (i.e., individual) variables to explain variation in the dependent variables (i.e., responses to misconduct; Hox, 1995). Again, a likelihood ratio test will be used to the empty random intercept model (i.e., only level 1 variables) and the full random intercept model (i.e., both level 1 and level 2). The null hypothesis is that the restricted model (i.e., empty random intercept) and the unrestricted model (i.e., full random intercept) fit the data equally well in the population (i.e., all slopes in the model jointly equal zero in the population). The alternative hypothesis is that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population (i.e., all slopes in the model do not jointly equal zero in the population; Hox, 1995).

Once the model of best fit is determined, the model-level statistics will be examined for each model including the Chibar² statistic and overall model Wald Chi-square statistic. These statistics are used to assess the variance among the random variance components when compared to simpler models and the model's fit, respectively (Hox, 1995). Finally, the partial slopes for each variable will then be examined to assess its impact and statistical significance on each of the outcome variables (i.e., responses to misconduct). This process was repeated for each of the responses to misconduct outcome variables below.

Counseling. For this first set of models, the outcome variable was informal counseling. Based on prior research, it was hypothesized that the actual mentor/role model and actual surrogate parent variables would have a positive and statistically significant effect on the response of counseling, while holding constant the other role

variables and the control variables. Further, it was anticipated that the remaining three role variables would not have a significant effect on the dependent variable in this model.

A baseline ANOVA model was run to first determine if the nested structure mattered statistically. The Chibar² statistic in this model is 1.83. The Chibar² statistic for this model does not lie within the critical region at the 0.05 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p = 0.083$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance more than 5 times in 500, given the null is true. Therefore, one cannot reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no significant variation around the fixed effects between the restricted model and the unrestricted model. However, the ICC for this model is 0.0104942. This statistic lies within the 95% confidence interval (0.0022826 – 0.0468593). Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude at the 0.05 level of statistical significance that the variance of the “u” term is statistically different from zero in the population. In this case, the results of the likelihood ratio test were relied upon, and it was concluded that a multilevel model was not needed. Because the null hypothesis was not rejected, this indicates that the nested structure does not matter statistically, and therefore an OLS model was run.

The results of the OLS model are presented in Table 31. The R² value for the model is 0.072. In statistical terms, the R² value indicates that by utilizing the regression line over the mean-only line, prediction error is reduced by 7.2%. However, error still exists in this model as evident by the root mean squared error value, which indicates the average size of prediction error when considering all of the plots is 1.399 points on the counseling scale. In social science terms, the R² statistic is specific to the sample, and

indicates the independent variables in the model explain 7.2% of the variation in the counseling outcome.

The F statistic for the model is 15.87. The null hypothesis for the F test is that all slopes in this model are equal to zero in the population. The alternative hypothesis for the F test is that at least one of the slopes in this model differs significantly from zero in the population. The F statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p < .001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that at least one of the slopes in this model differs significantly from zero in the population.

The null hypothesis for all slopes in the OLS model is that the effect of the given variable on the dependent variable is equal to zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The alternative hypothesis for all slopes in the OLS model is that the effect of the given variable on the dependent variable is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. Several of the role variable slopes in this model were statistically significant.

First, there was a significant relationship between actual law enforcer and a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of actual law enforcer is .007. This indicates that for every one unit increase in actual law enforcer, the rate of a counseling response increases on average by .007 points on the counseling scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t -statistic for actual law enforcer (2.090) lies in the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance. The p

value ($p=.037$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 5 times in 100, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an actual law enforcer role on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Table 31. OLS Model: Counseling Regressed on Actual Role Variables

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	β	t	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	4.172	.238	-	17.543**	-	-
Actual LE	.007	.003	.035	2.090*	.737	1.356
Actual Mentor	.024	.006	.079	3.955**	.523	1.912
Actual Educator	.009	.004	.034	1.965	.693	1.444
Actual Parent	.010	.007	.029	1.546	.570	1.755
Actual Social Worker	.034	.006	.100	5.433**	.608	1.644
Sex (Male) ²	.019	.056	.005	.345	.958	1.044
Age (respondent)	-.004	.003	-.026	-1.603	.794	1.260
Years in School Police	-.013	.004	-.060	-3.635**	.760	1.316
Structure (SRO) ²	.084	.044	.029	1.900	.888	1.126
Elem only ¹	-.111	.091	-.020	-1.220	.787	1.271
Mid only ¹	-.143	.069	-.038	-2.077*	.614	1.630
High-only ¹	-.254	.059	-.084	-4.327**	.552	1.811
Elem and mid ¹	.139	.117	.018	1.182	.863	1.158
Elem and high ¹	.058	.194	.004	.301	.940	1.063
Mid and high ¹	-.179	.081	-.037	-2.194*	.725	1.380
No grade ¹	-.248	.162	-.034	-1.537	.430	2.327
Geographical Area (Urban) ²	.002	.002	.026	1.219	.457	2.188
Baseline Counseling	.032	.015	.032	1.171	.976	1.024
Age (Vignette)	-.044	.011	-.058	-3.995**	.995	1.005
Seriousness (Vignette)	.003	.013	.004	.256	.988	1.012
Cooperation (Vignette)	-.137	.027	-.073	-5.069**	.985	1.015
History (Vignette)	-.093	.027	-.050	-3.462**	.996	1.004
n=4,506 Root MSE=1.399 R ² =0.072 F=15.87**						

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.001$

¹All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.

² Dummy coded variable (1=presence of variable, 0=absence of the variable).

Next, there was a significant relationship between actual mentor and a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of actual mentor is .024. This indicates that for every one unit increase in actual mentor, the rate of a counseling response increases on average by .024 points on the counseling scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The *t*-statistic for actual mentor (3.955) lies in the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance. The *p* value ($p=.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an actual mentor role on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

There was also a significant relationship between actual social worker and a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of actual mentor is .034. This indicates that for every one unit increase in actual social worker, the rate of a counseling response increases on average by .033 points on the counseling scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The *t*-statistic for actual law enforcer (5.433) lies in the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance. The *p* value ($p=.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an actual social worker role on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

In addition to the significant relationships found between the role variables and a counseling response, there were also several relationships found between the

demographic and vignette variables and a counseling response. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the years an officer spent in school-based policing and a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of years in school-based policing is -.013. This indicates that for every one unit increase in the years in school-based policing, the rate of a counseling response decreases on average by .013 points on the counseling scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The *t*-statistic for years in school-based policing (-3.635) lies in the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance. The *p* value ($p=.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of the years an officers has worked in school-based policing on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

There were also significant relationships between the grade-levels in which an officer worked and a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of middle school only, high school only, and both middle and high school are -.143, -.254, and -.179 respectively. These coefficients indicate that when working in a middle school only, high school only, and both middle and high school, when compared to working in all grade-levels, the rate of a counseling response decreases on average by .143, .254, and .179 points respectively on the counseling scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The *t*-statistics for these grade-levels (-2.007, -4.327, and -2.194) lie in the critical region; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in these grade-levels on a counseling response is

significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Finally, three of the vignette variables were found to have significant relationships with a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of age, cooperation, and history are -.044, -.137, and -.093 respectively. These coefficients indicate that for every one unit increase in the age, cooperation, and past history of the student, the rate of a counseling response decreases on average by .044, .137, and .093 points on the counseling scale respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The *t*-statistics for these variables (-3.995, -5.069, and -3.462) lie in the critical region; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of these vignette variables on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

School-based punishment. For this second set of models, the outcome variable was informal school punishment. Based on prior research, it was hypothesized that the actual educator variable would have a positive and statistically significant effect on the response of school-based punishment, while the remaining four role variables will not have a significant effect on the dependent variable.

A baseline ANOVA model was run to first determine if the nested structure of the observations mattered statistically. The Chibar^2 statistic in this model is 6.24. The Chibar^2 statistic for this model does not lie within the critical region at the 0.05 level of statistical significance. The *p* value ($p = 0.062$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance more than 5 times in 500, given the null is true. Therefore, one cannot reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no significant variation around the fixed effects

between the restricted model and the unrestricted model. However, the ICC for this model is 0.0198946. This statistic lies within the 95% confidence interval (0.008445 – 0.0461453). Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude at the 0.05 level of statistical significance that the variance of the “u” term is statistically different from zero in the population. In this case, the results of the likelihood ratio test were relied upon, and it was concluded that a multilevel model was not needed. Because the null hypothesis was not rejected, this indicates that the nested structure does not matter statistically, and therefore an OLS model was run.

The results of the OLS model are presented in Table 32. The R^2 value for the model is 0.047. In statistical terms, the R^2 value indicates that by utilizing the regression line over the mean-only line, prediction error is reduced by 4.7%. However, error still exists in this model as evident by the root mean squared error value, which indicates the average size of prediction error when considering all of the plots is 1.917 points on the school-based punishment scale. In social science terms, the R^2 statistic is specific to the sample, and indicates the independent variables in the model explain 4.7% of the variation in the school-based punishment outcome.

The F statistic for the model is 10.05. The F statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p < .001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that at least one of the slopes in this model differs significantly from zero in the population.

Several of the role variable slopes in this model were statistically significant. First, there was a significant relationship between actual law enforcer and a school-based

response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of actual law enforcer is .026. This indicates that for every one unit increase in actual law enforcer, the rate of a school-based response increases on average by .026 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Table 32. OLS Model: School Response Regressed on Actual Role Variables

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	β	t	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	1.205	.311	-	3.876**	-	-
Actual LE	.026	.004	.104	6.138**	.737	1.356
Actual Mentor	.026	.008	.062	3.069*	.523	1.913
Actual Educator	-.015	.006	-.045	-2.563*	.692	1.445
Actual Parent	.001	.009	.003	.153	.570	1.754
Actual Social Worker	.016	.008	.035	1.846	.608	1.644
Sex (Male) ²	-.026	.076	-.005	-.342	.958	1.044
Age (respondent)	.013	.004	.057	3.480*	.794	1.260
Years in School Police	-.007	.005	-.022	-1.326	.760	1.316
Structure (SRO) ²	-.094	.061	-.024	-1.556	.888	1.126
Elem only ¹	-.339	.125	-.045	-2.713*	.787	1.271
Mid only ¹	-.038	.094	-.007	-.402	.614	1.628
High-only ¹	.068	.080	.017	.847	.553	1.809
Elem and mid ¹	.136	.161	.013	.848	.863	1.158
Elem and high ¹	.810	.266	.046	3.046*	.940	1.064
Mid and high ¹	-.146	.111	-.022	-1.308	.725	1.380
No grade ¹	-.851	.221	-.086	-1.848	.430	2.327
Geographical Area (Urban) ²	-.007	.002	-.072	-3.336**	.457	2.188
Baseline School Response	-.017	.014	-.017	-1.167	.992	1.008
Age (Vignette)	.010	.015	.009	.631	.995	1.005
Seriousness (Vignette)	.120	.017	.102	6.985**	.992	1.008
Cooperation (Vignette)	.027	.037	.011	.735	.997	1.003
History (Vignette)	.075	.037	.030	2.044*	.995	1.005
n=4,506 Root MSE=1.917 R ² =0.047 F=10.05**						

*p<.05, **p<.001

¹All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.

²Dummy coded variable (1=presence of variable, 0=absence of the variable).

The t -statistic for actual law enforcer (6.138) lies in the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p=.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 5 times in 100, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an actual law enforcer role on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

There was also a significant relationship between actual mentor and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of actual mentor is .026. This indicates that for every one unit increase in actual mentor, the rate of a school-based response increases on average by .026 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t -statistic for actual mentor (3.069) lies in the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p=.002$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 5 times in 100, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an actual mentor role on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

There was also a significant relationship between actual educator and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of actual educator is -.015. This indicates that for every one unit increase in actual educator, the rate of a school-based response decreases on average by .015 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t -statistic for actual educator (-2.536) lies in the critical region at the .05 level of statistical

significance. The p value ($p=.010$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 5 times in 100, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an actual educator role on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

In addition to the significant relationships found between the role variables and a school-based response, there were also several relationships found between the demographic and vignette variables and this type of response. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the age of the officer and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of the age of the officer is .013. This indicates that for every one unit increase in the age of the officer, the rate of a school-based response increases on average by .013 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t-statistic for this variable (3.480) lies in the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of the age of the officer on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

There were two significant relationships between the grade-levels an officer worked in and a school-based response. That is, there was a significant relationship between working in an elementary school only and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of working in an elementary school only is -.339. This indicates that when working in an elementary school only, when compared to working in all grade-levels, the rate of a school-based response decreases on average by .339 points

on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t-statistic for this variable (-2.713) lies in the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in an elementary school only on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

There was also a significant relationship between working in both an elementary school and high school and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of working in both an elementary and high school is .810. This indicates that when working in both an elementary and high school, when compared to working in all grade-levels, the rate of a school-based response increases on average by .810 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t-statistic for this variable (3.046) lies in the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in both an elementary and high school on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Additionally, there was a significant relationship between the geographical area an officer works in and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of working in an urban campus is -.007. This indicates that when working at an urban campus, when compared to working in a non-urban campus, the rate of a school-based response decreases on average by .007 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t-statistic for this

variable (-3.336) lies in the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in an urban campus on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Finally, there were two significant relationships between the vignette variables and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of seriousness and history are .120 and .075 respectively. These coefficients indicate that for every one unit increase in the seriousness of the incident and the past history of the student, the rate of a school-based response increases on average by .120 and .075 points on the school-based punishment scale respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The *t*-statistics for these variables (6.985 and 2.044) lie in the critical region; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of these vignette variables on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Class C ticket/court referral. For the next set of models, the outcome variable was ticket/court referral. Based on prior research, it was hypothesized that the actual law enforcer variable would have a positive and statistically significant effect on this response to misconduct, while the remaining four role variables will not have a significant effect on the dependent variable.

A baseline ANOVA model was run to first determine if the nested structured mattered statistically. The F statistic in this model is 583.59. The F statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance. The *p* value ($p = 0.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in

1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is significant variation around the fixed effects between the restricted model and the unrestricted model. Additionally, the ICC for this model is 0.2487615. This statistic lies within the 95% confidence interval (0.2175099 – 0.2828801). Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude at the 0.05 level of statistical significance that variance of the “u” term is statistically different from zero in the population. Based on these results, significant level-two variation exists, indicating a need for a multi-level model.

Because these statistics indicate a need for a multi-level model, several models were run and tested to determine which provides the best fit to the data. In an effort to determine which model provides the best fit to the data, a series of likelihood ratio tests were conducted to compare these models. The first likelihood ratio test compared the baseline ANOVA model with a random intercept (i.e., restricted) and the empty random intercept (i.e., unrestricted) model which tested the hypothesis that the vignette variables have an effect on whether or not a ticket or court referral is used in response to student misconduct. The Chi-bar² statistic in this model is 259.15, which lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p < 0.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true.

Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population.

The second likelihood ratio test compared the empty random intercept model (i.e., restricted) and the full random intercept model (i.e., unrestricted) which tested the hypothesis that the vignette variables have an effect on whether or not a ticket or court

referral is used in response to student misconduct while also attempting to explain level two variation with the role variables. The Chibar² statistic in this model is 179.34, which lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p < 0.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population. Based upon the likelihood ratio tests, one can conclude that the full random intercept model provides the best fit to the data. Therefore, this model will be presented below.

The results of this model are presented in Table 33. The Chibar² statistic in this model is 193.31. The null hypothesis is that there is no significant variation among the random variance components when comparing the restricted model (i.e., ordinary least squares) and the unrestricted model (i.e., this multi-level model). In other words, the random variance components in the model jointly equal zero in the population. The alternative hypothesis is that there is significant variation among the random variance components when comparing the restricted model and the unrestricted model (i.e., the random variance components do not jointly equal zero in the population). The Chibar² statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is significant variation around the fixed effects between the restricted model and the unrestricted model.

The overall model Wald Chi-square statistic is 552.53. The null hypothesis for the Wald test is that the restricted model (i.e., intercept-only model) and the unrestricted model (i.e., the multi-level model) fit the data equally well in the population (i.e., all slopes in the model jointly equal zero in the population). The alternative hypothesis for the Wald test is that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population (i.e., all slopes in the model do not jointly equal zero in the population). The Wald Chi-square statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population.

The null hypothesis for all slopes in the multilevel model is that the effect of the given variable on the outcome variable is equal to zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The alternative hypothesis is that the effect of the given variable on the outcome variable is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

Table 33. Multilevel Model: Class C Regressed on Actual Roles

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	z
<i>Individual-level</i>			
Actual LE	.026	.003	7.94**
Actual Mentor	.005	.007	0.83
Actual Educator	-.015	.005	-3.22**
Actual Parent	-.004	.007	-0.66
Actual Social Worker	-.001	.007	-0.04
Sex (Male) ²	.155	.060	2.59*
Age (respondent)	.009	.003	3.12*
Years in School Police	.011	.004	2.90*
Structure (SRO) ²	-.002	.048	-0.04
Elem only ¹	-.046	.099	-0.46
Mid only ¹	-.143	.074	-1.91
High-only ¹	-.136	.063	-2.15*
Elem and mid ¹	.216	.126	1.71
Elem and high ¹	-.443	.210	-2.11*
Mid and high ¹	-.038	.087	-0.44
No grade ¹	.196	.175	1.12
Geographical Area (Urban) ²	.001	.001	0.57
Baseline Class C	.135	.021	6.39**
<i>Vignette-level</i>			
Age	.076	.018	4.28**
Seriousness	.289	.021	14.03**
Cooperation	.209	.040	5.26**
History	.052	.035	1.48
Constant	-1.16	.262	-4.43**
n=4,506; 522 Wald chi ² (21) = 552.53** Log likelihood = -8325.45			
Chibar ² (01) = 193.31**			
*p<.05, **p<.001			
¹ All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.			
² Dummy coded variable (1=presence of variable, 0=absence of the variable)			

Two of the role variable slopes in this model were statistically significant. First, there was a significant relationship between an actual law enforcer role and a ticket/court referral response. The partial coefficient for actual law enforcer is .026. This indicates that for every one unit increase in an actual law enforcer role, the ticket/court referral

scale increases by 0.26 standard deviations while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for actual law enforcer (7.94) lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an actual law enforcer role on a ticket/court referral response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

There was a significant relationship between an actual educator role and a ticket/court referral response. The partial coefficient for actual law enforcer is -.015. This indicates that for every one unit increase in an actual educator role, the ticket/court referral scale decreases by .015 standard deviations while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for actual educator (-3.22) lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an actual educator role on a ticket/court referral response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

In addition to the role variables, there were also several significant relationships between the demographic and vignette variables and a ticketing/court referral response. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the sex of an officer and a ticketing/court referral response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of sex is .155.

This indicates that when an officer is male, as opposed to female, the rate of a ticket/court referral response increases on average by .155 standard deviations on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for sex (2.59) lies within the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an officer's sex on a ticket/court referral response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

There were also significant relationships between the age of the officer and the number of years an officers has worked in school-based policing and a ticketing/court referral response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of age of the officer and years in school-based policing are .009 and .011 respectively. These coefficients indicate that that for every one unit increase in the officer's age and number of years in school-based policing, the ticket/court referral scale increases by .009 and .011 standard deviations respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistics for these variables (3.12 and 2.90) lie within the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effects of an officer's age and years in school-based policing on a ticket/court referral response are significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

Two of the grade-level variables were also found to have significant relationships with a ticket/court referral response. Specifically, there was a significant relationship

between the working in a high school only and working in both an elementary and high school and a ticketing/court referral response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of working in a high school only and working in both an elementary and a high school are -.136 and -.443. These coefficients indicate that when an officer works in a high school only or in both an elementary and high school, as opposed to all grade-levels, the rate of a ticket/court referral response decreases on average by .136 and .443 standard deviations on the school-based punishment scale respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistics for these variables (-2.15 and -2.11) lie within the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in a high school only or in an elementary and a high school on a ticket/court referral response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

Finally, there were three significant relationships between the vignette variables and a ticketing/court referral response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of age of the student, cooperation of the student, and seriousness of the incident are .076, .209 and .289 respectively. These coefficients indicate that that for every one unit increase in the age of the respondent, the cooperation of the respondent, and the seriousness of the incident, the ticket/court referral scale increases by .076, .209 and .289 standard deviations respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistics for these variables (4.28, 5.26, and 14.03) lie within the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance.

Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effects of the age of the respondent, the cooperation of the respondent, and the seriousness of the incident on a ticket/court referral response are significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

Arrest. For the final set of models associated with this research question, the outcome variable was arrest. Based on prior literature, it was hypothesized that the actual law enforcer variable would have a positive and statistically significant effect on this response to misconduct, while the remaining four role variables will not have a significant effect on the dependent variable.

A baseline ANOVA model was run to first determine if the nested structured mattered statistically. The Chibar² statistic in this model is 784.54. The Chibar² statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p = 0.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is significant variation around the fixed effects between the restricted model and the unrestricted model. Additionally, the ICC for this model is 0.2941709. This statistic lies within the 95% confidence interval (0.2611332 – 0.3295243). Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude at the 0.05 level of statistical significance that variance of the “u” term is statistically different from zero in the population. Based on these results, significant level-two variation exists, indicating a need for a multi-level model.

Because these statistics indicate a need for a multi-level model, several models were run and tested to determine which provides the best fit to the data. In an effort to determine which model provides the best fit to the data, a series of likelihood ratio tests were conducted to compare these models. The first likelihood ratio test compared the baseline ANOVA model with a random intercept (i.e., restricted) and the empty random intercept (i.e., unrestricted) model which tested the hypothesis that the vignette variables have an effect on whether or not an arrest is used in response to student misconduct. The Chibar² statistic in this model is 274.84, which lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p < 0.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population.

The second likelihood ratio test compared the empty random intercept model (i.e., restricted) and the full random intercept model (i.e., unrestricted) which tested the hypothesis that the vignette variables have an effect on whether or not an arrest is used in response to student misconduct while also attempting to explain level two variation with the role variables. The Chibar² statistic in this model is 159.97, which lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p < 0.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population. Based upon the likelihood ratio tests, one can conclude that the full random

intercept model provides the best fit to the data. Therefore, this model will be presented below.

The results of this model are presented in Table 34. This Chibar² statistic in this model is 247.02. The Chibar² statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is significant variation around the fixed effects between the restricted model and the unrestricted model.

The overall model Wald Chi-square statistic is 569.86. The Wald Chi-square statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population.

Two of the role variable slopes in this model were statistically significant. First, there was a significant relationship between an actual law enforcer role and an arrest response. The partial coefficient for actual law enforcer is .016. This indicates that for every one unit increase in an actual law enforcer role, the arrest scale increases by 0.16 standard deviations while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for actual law enforcer (5.41) lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an actual law enforcer role

on an arrest response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

Table 34. Multilevel Model: Arrest Regressed on Actual Roles

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	z
<i>Individual-level</i>			
Actual LE	.016	.003	5.41**
Actual Mentor	-.010	.005	-1.80
Actual Educator	-.001	.004	-0.29
Actual Parent	-.013	.006	-2.18*
Actual Social Worker	.008	.005	1.48
Sex (Male) ²	.079	.005	1.49
Age (respondent)	-.002	.002	-1.11
Years in School Police	.015	.003	4.52**
Structure (SRO) ²	-.099	.042	-2.34*
Elem only ¹	.232	.087	2.65*
Mid only ¹	.061	.066	0.93
High-only ¹	.113	.056	1.99*
Elem and mid ¹	.290	.112	2.58*
Elem and high ¹	.006	.187	0.04
Mid and high ¹	.004	.078	0.06
No grade ¹	.151	.155	0.97
Geographical Area (Urban) ²	-.001	.001	-0.97
Baseline Arrest	.194	.022	8.52**
<i>Vignette-level</i>			
Age	.065	.016	3.98**
Seriousness	.253	.019	12.95**
Cooperation	.248	.036	6.79**
History	.069	.031	2.18*
Constant	-.270	.235	-1.15
n=4,506; 522 Wald chi ² (21) = 569.86** Log likelihood = -7806.16			
Chibar ² (01) = 247.02**			
*p<.05, **p<.001			
¹ All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.			
² Dummy coded variable (1=presence of variable, 0=absence of the variable)			

Additionally, there was a significant relationship between an actual parent role and an arrest response. The partial coefficient for actual parent is $-.013$. This indicates that for every one unit increase in an actual parent role, the arrest scale decreases by 0.13 standard deviations while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for actual law enforcer (-2.18) lies within the critical region at the 0.05 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 5 times in 100, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an actual parent role on an arrest response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

In addition to these significant role variables, there were also several demographic and vignette variables that were also significant. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the number of years an officers has worked in school-based policing and an arrest response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of years in school-based policing is $.015$. This indicates that that for every one unit increase in the number of years in school-based policing, the arrest scale increases by $.015$ standard deviations, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for this variable (4.52) lies within the critical region at the $.001$ level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of years in school-based policing on an arrest response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

There was also a significant relationship between the service structure of the respondent and an arrest response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of the service structure of the respondent is $-.099$. This indicates that when an officer works in an SRO structure, as opposed to an ISD police department structure, the rate of an arrest response decreases on average by $.099$ standard deviations on the arrest scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for service structure of the respondent (-2.34) lies within the critical region at the $.05$ level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of service structure on an arrest response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

There were several significant relationships between the different grade-level variables and an arrest response. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the working in an elementary school only, a high school only, and working in both an elementary and middle school and an arrest response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of working in an elementary school only, a high school only, and working in both an elementary and middle school are $.232$, $.113$, and $.290$. These coefficients indicate that when an officer works in an elementary school only, a high school only, or in both an elementary and middle school, as opposed to all grade-levels, the rate of an arrest response increases on average by $.232$, $.113$, and $.290$ standard deviations on the arrest scale respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistics for these variables (2.65 , 1.99 , and 2.58) lie within the critical region at the $.05$ level of statistical

significance. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in an elementary school only, a high school only, or in both an elementary and middle school on an arrest response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

Finally, there were four significant relationships between the vignette variables and an arrest response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of age of the student, cooperation of the student, past history of the student, and seriousness of the incident are .065, .248, .069, and .253 respectively. These coefficients indicate that that for every one unit increase in the age of the respondent, the cooperation of the respondent, the past history of the student, and the seriousness of the incident, the arrest scale increases by .065, .248, .065, and .253 standard deviations respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistics for these variables (3.98, 12.95, 2.18, and 6.79) lie within the critical region. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effects of the age of the respondent, the cooperation of the respondent, the past history of the student, and the seriousness of the incident on an arrest response are significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

- ***3.4 How does the training of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment impact the types of responses to student misconduct used?***

Multivariate analysis was used to regress officer responses to student misconduct on the types of training SROs/SBLEs currently working in a school environment have received, while controlling for other relevant factors. In this analysis, there were again four different outcome variables that corresponded to the responses to misconduct (i.e.,

informal counseling, school-based punishment, ticket/court referral, and arrest). There were also the same four vignette variables: 1) student's age, 2) incident seriousness, 3) student's cooperation, and 4) student's known misconduct history. The four individual-level variables of interest were: 1) traditional police training, 2) specialized training, 3) school-specific training program, and 4) on the job training. Finally, there were a number of individual and school-level control variables including sex, age, years in school-based policing, service structure, grade level(s) served, geographical area, and a baseline condition for each outcome variable. The baseline condition was created by having each of the respondents respond to the same initial vignette scenario in terms of each of the response to misconduct outcomes. This was used to control for any differences between respondents that were not due to the variables in the vignette scenario. The same analytical approach was used to examine the impact of training on responses to student misconduct.

Counseling. For this first set of models, the outcome variable was informal counseling. Based on prior research, it was hypothesized that specialized training and school-specific training variables would have a positive and statistically significant effect on the response of counseling, while the remaining two training variables would not have a significant effect on the dependent variable.

As noted earlier, the results of the baseline ANOVA model were not significant; therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. This indicates that the nested structure of the observations does not matter statistically, and therefore an OLS model is sufficient. The results of the OLS model are presented in Table 35. The R^2 value for the model is 0.029. In statistical terms, the R^2 value indicates that by utilizing the regression line over

the mean-only line, prediction error is reduced by 2.9%. However, error still exists in this model as evident by the root mean squared error value, which indicates the average size of prediction error when considering all of the plots is 1.431 points on the counseling scale. In social science terms, the R^2 statistic is specific to the sample, and indicates the independent variables in the model explain 2.9% of the variation in the counseling outcome.

The F statistic for the model is 6.47. The F statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p < .001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that at least one of the slopes in this model differs significantly from zero in the population.

One of the training variable slopes in this model was statistically significant. That is, there was a significant relationship between traditional police training and a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of traditional police training is -.071. This indicates that for every one unit increase in traditional police training, the rate of a counseling response decreases on average by .071 points on the counseling scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The *t*-statistic for traditional police training (-2.266) lies in the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p = .022$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 5 times in 100, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of traditional police training on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Table 35. OLS Model: Counseling Regressed on Training Variables

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	β	t	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	5.823	.221	-	26.327**	-	-
Traditional Police Training	-.071	.031	-.034	-2.266*	.979	1.022
Specialized Training	-.006	.015	-.007	-.389	.741	1.349
School-Specific Training	.007	.013	.010	.558	.626	1.598
On-the-job-Training	-.029	.031	-.015	-.935	.813	1.230
Sex (Male) ²	.044	.057	.012	.777	.967	1.034
Age (respondent)	-.004	.003	-.023	-1.377	.803	1.246
Years in School Police	-.012	.004	-.056	-3.298*	.762	1.312
Structure (SRO) ²	.111	.045	.038	2.467*	.891	1.122
Elem only ¹	-.135	.093	-.024	-1.451	.787	1.271
Mid only ¹	-.214	.070	-.057	-3.063*	.622	1.608
High-only ¹	-.255	.060	-.084	-4.245**	.552	1.811
Elem and mid ¹	.126	.120	.017	1.055	.867	1.153
Elem and high ¹	-.039	.198	-.003	-.196	.946	1.057
Mid and high ¹	-.172	.083	-.036	-2.072*	.726	1.377
No grade ¹	-.358	.165	-.049	-1.176	.433	2.310
Geographical Area (Urban) ²	.003	.002	.038	1.759	.460	2.175
Baseline Counseling	.038	.015	.038	2.511*	.956	1.046
Age (Vignette)	-.043	.011	-.056	-3.793**	.996	1.004
Seriousness (Vignette)	.010	.013	.011	.758	.970	1.031
Cooperation (Vignette)	-.139	.028	-.074	-5.002**	.985	1.016
History (Vignette)	-.083	.028	-.045	-3.022*	.991	1.009
n=4,506 Root MSE=1.431 R ² =0.029 F=6.47**						

*p<.05, **p<.001

¹All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.

² Dummy coded variable (1=presence of variable, 0=absence of the variable).

There were also several significant relationships between the demographic variables and vignette variables and a counseling response. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the years an officer spent in school-based policing and a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of years in school-based policing is -.012. This indicates that for every one unit increase in the years in school-based policing, the rate of a counseling response decreases on average by .012 points on

the counseling scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t -statistic for years in school-based policing (-3.298) lies in the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of the years an officers has worked in school-based policing on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

There was a significant relationship between the service structure of the respondent and a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of the service structure of the respondent is .111. This indicates that when an officer works in an SRO structure, as opposed to an ISD police department structure, the rate of an arrest response increases on average by .111 on the arrest scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t -statistic for service structure (2.467) lies in the critical region. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect service structure on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

There were also significant relationships between the grade-levels in which an officer worked and a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of middle school only, high school only, and both middle and high school are -.214, -.255, and -.172 respectively. These coefficients indicate that when working in a middle school only, high school only, or both middle and high school, when compared to working in all grade-levels, the rate of a counseling response decreases on average by .214, .255, and .172 points respectively on the counseling scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t -statistics for these grade-levels (-3.063, -4.245,

and -2.072) lie in the critical region; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in these grade-levels on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Finally, three of the vignette variables were found to have significant relationships with a counseling response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of age, cooperation, and history are -.043, -.139, and -.083 respectively. These coefficients indicate that for every one unit increase in the age, cooperation, and past history of the student, the rate of a counseling response decreases on average by .043, .139, and .083 points on the counseling scale respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The *t*-statistics for these variables (-3.793, -5.002, and -3.002) lie in the critical region; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of these vignette variables on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

School-based punishment. For this next set of models, the outcome variable was school-based punishment. Based on previous literature, it was hypothesized that that the specialized training and school-specific training variables would have a positive and statistically significant effect on the response of school-based punishment, while the remaining two training variables would not have a significant effect on the dependent variable.

As noted earlier, the results of the baseline ANOVA model were not significant; therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. This indicates that the nested structure of the observations does not matter statistically, and therefore an OLS model is sufficient.

The results of the OLS model are presented in Table 36. The R^2 value for the model is 0.027. In statistical terms, the R^2 value indicates that by utilizing the regression line over the mean-only line, prediction error is reduced by 2.7%. However, error still exists in this model as evident by the root mean squared error value, which indicates the average size of prediction error when considering all of the plots is 1.936 points on the school-based punishment scale. In social science terms, the R^2 statistic is specific to the sample, and indicates the independent variables in the model explain 2.7% of the variation in the school-based punishment outcome.

The F statistic for the model is 5.99. The F statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p < .001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that at least one of the slopes in this model differs significantly from zero in the population.

One of the training variable slopes in this model was statistically significant. There was a significant relationship between school-specific training and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of school-specific training is -.040. This indicates that for every one unit increase in school-specific training, the rate of a school-based response decreases on average by .040 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t -statistic for school-specific training (-2.330) lies in the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p = .018$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 5 times in 100, given the null is true. Therefore, one reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of school-specific training on a school-based response is

significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Table 36. OLS Model: School Response Regressed on Training Variables

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	β	t	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	3.320	.286	-	11.617**	-	-
Traditional Police Training	-.062	.042	-.022	-1.483	.981	1.019
Specialized Training	.005	.020	.004	.238	.743	1.346
School-Specific Training	-.040	.017	-.043	-2.330*	.629	1.589
On-the-job-Training	-.012	.043	-.005	-.287	.810	1.234
Sex (Male) ²	-.003	.077	-.001	-.034	.967	1.034
Age (respondent)	.012	.004	.054	3.274**	.803	1.245
Years in School Police	-.005	.005	-.017	-.998	.762	1.312
Structure (SRO) ²	-.054	.061	-.014	-.888	.892	1.122
Elem only ¹	-.373	.126	-.049	-2.955*	.787	1.271
Mid only ¹	-.086	.094	-.017	-.911	.623	1.606
High-only ¹	.070	.081	.017	.865	.553	1.808
Elem and mid ¹	.136	.162	.013	.837	.867	1.153
Elem and high ¹	.785	.268	.044	2.931*	.946	1.057
Mid and high ¹	-.124	.112	-.019	-1.105	.726	1.377
No grade ¹	-.923	.223	-.093	-1.145	.433	2.310
Geographical Area (Urban) ²	-.007	.002	-.070	-3.239**	.460	2.176
Baseline School Response	-.016	.014	-.016	-1.106	.985	1.015
Age (Vignette)	.007	.015	.007	.460	.995	1.005
Seriousness (Vignette)	.122	.017	.104	6.976**	.975	1.026
Cooperation (Vignette)	.021	.037	.008	.575	.996	1.004
History (Vignette)	.091	.037	.036	2.449*	.991	1.009
n=4,506 Root MSE=1.936 R ² =0.027 F=5.99**						

*p<.05, **p<.001

¹All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.

² Dummy coded variable (1=presence of variable, 0=absence of the variable).

In addition to this significant relationship between school-specific training and a school-based response, there were also several relationships found between the demographic and vignette variables and this type of response. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the age of the officer and a school-based response. The

unstandardized partial coefficient of the age of the officer is .012. This indicates that for every one unit increase in the age of the officer, the rate of a school-based response increases on average by .012 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t-statistic for this variable (3.274) lies in the critical region. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of the age of the officer on a counseling response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

There were two significant relationships between the grade-levels an officer worked with and a school-based response. That is, there was a significant relationship between working in an elementary school only and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of working in an elementary school only is -.373. This indicates that when working in an elementary school only, when compared to working in all grade-levels, the rate of a school-based response decreases on average by .373 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t-statistic for this variable (-2.955) lies in the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in an elementary school only on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

There was also a significant relationship between working in both an elementary school and high school and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of working in both an elementary and high school is .785. This indicates that

when working in both an elementary and high school, when compared to working in all grade-levels, the rate of a school-based response increases on average by .785 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t-statistic for this variable (-3.239) lies in the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in both an elementary and high school on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Additionally, there was a significant relationship between the geographical area an officer works in and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of working in an urban campus is -.007. This indicates that when working at an urban campus, when compared to working in a non-urban campus, the rate of a school-based response decreases on average by .007 points on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The t-statistic for this variable (-3.239) lies in the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in an urban campus on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Finally, there were two significant relationships between the vignette variables and a school-based response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of seriousness and history are .122 and .091 respectively. These coefficients indicate that for every one unit increase in the seriousness of the incident and the past history of the student, the rate of a school-based response increases on average by .122 and .091 points on the school-based

punishment scale respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model. The *t*-statistics for these variables (6.976 and 2.449) lie in the critical region; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of these vignette variables on a school-based response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Class C ticket/court referral. For the next set of models, the outcome variable was ticket/court referral. Relying on previous literature, it was hypothesized that that traditional police training and on-the-job training variables would have a positive and statistically significant effect on ticket/court referral response, while the remaining two training variables would not have a significant effect on the dependent variable.

Because the results of the baseline ANOVA model were significant, the null hypothesis was rejected. This indicates that the nested structure of the observations matters statistically, and therefore a multilevel model is needed. In an effort to determine which model provides the best fit to the data, a series of likelihood ratio tests were conducted to compare these models. The first likelihood ratio test was already conducted and compared the baseline ANOVA model with a random intercept (i.e., restricted) and the empty random intercept (i.e., unrestricted). The Chibar² statistic was significant, and it was concluded that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population.

Therefore, a second likelihood ratio test was run to compare the empty random intercept model (i.e., restricted) and the full random intercept model (i.e., unrestricted) which tested the hypothesis that the vignette variables have an effect on whether or not a ticket or court referral is used in response to student misconduct while also attempting to

explain level two variation with the training variables. The Chibar² statistic in this model is 95.50, which lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p < 0.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population. Based upon the likelihood ratio tests, one can conclude that the full random intercept model provides the best fit to the data. Therefore, this model will be presented below.

The results of this model are presented in Table 37. This Chibar² statistic in this model is 185.59. The Chibar² statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is significant variation around the fixed effects between the restricted model and the unrestricted model.

The overall model Wald Chi-square statistic is 464.33. The Wald Chi-square statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population. Although the model level statistics were significant, no training variable slopes in this model were statistically significant.

Table 37. Multilevel Model: Class C Regressed on Training Variables

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	z
<i>Individual-level</i>			
Traditional Police Training	.007	.048	0.15
Specialized Training	.003	.023	0.15
School-Specific Training	-.007	.020	-0.33
On-the-job-Training	-.021	.049	-0.43
Sex (Male) ²	.184	.060	3.06*
Age (respondent)	.008	.003	2.95*
Years in School Police	.012	.004	3.14*
Structure (SRO) ²	.014	.048	0.30
Elem only ¹	-.066	.099	-0.66
Mid only ¹	-.158	.075	-2.11*
High-only ¹	-.132	.064	-2.05*
Elem and mid ¹	.223	.127	1.75
Elem and high ¹	-.439	.211	-2.08*
Mid and high ¹	-.021	.088	-0.25
No grade ¹	.152	.175	0.87
Geographical Area (Urban) ²	-.001	.002	0.33
Baseline Counseling	.135	.021	6.39**
<i>Vignette-level</i>			
Age	.072	.017	4.10**
Seriousness	.291	.021	13.99**
Cooperation	.205	.040	5.12**
History	.056	.035	1.59
Constant	-.219	.282	-0.78
n=4,506; 522 Wald chi ² (21) = 464.33** Log likelihood = -8367.26			
Chibar ² (01) = 185.59**			
*p<.05, **p<.001			
¹ All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.			
² Dummy coded variable (1=presence of variable, 0=absence of the variable)			

Despite no significant relationships between the training variables and a ticketing/court referral response, there were several significant relationships between the demographic and vignette variables and this response. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the sex of an officer and a ticketing/court referral

response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of sex is .184. This indicates that when an officer is male, as opposed to female, the rate of a ticket/court referral response increases on average by .184 standard deviations on the school-based punishment scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for sex (3.06) lies within the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an officer's sex on a ticket/court referral response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

There were also significant relationships between the age of the officer and the number of years an officers has worked in school-based policing and a ticketing/court referral response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of age of the officer and years in school-based policing are .008 and .012 respectively. These coefficients indicate that that for every one unit increase in the officer's age and number of years in school-based policing, the ticket/court referral scale increases by .008 and .012 standard deviations respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistics for these variables (2.95 and 3.14) lie within the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effects of an officer's age and years in school-based policing on a ticket/court referral response are significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

Three of the grade-level variables were also found to have significant relationships with a ticket/court referral response. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the working in a middle school only, a high school only, and in both an elementary and high school and a ticketing/court referral response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of working in a middle school only, a high school only, and both an elementary and a high school are -.158, -.132, and -.439. These coefficients indicate that when an officer works in a middle school only, a high school only, or in both an elementary and high school, as opposed to all grade-levels, the rate of a ticket/court referral response decreases on average by .158, .132, and .439 standard deviations on the school-based punishment scale respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistics for these variables (-2.11, -.205, and -2.08) lie within the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in a middle school only, a high school only, or in an elementary and a high school on a ticket/court referral response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

Finally, there were three significant relationships between the vignette variables and a ticketing/court referral response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of age of the student, cooperation of the student, and seriousness of the incident are .072, .205, and .291 respectively. These coefficients indicate that that for every one unit increase in the age of the respondent, the cooperation of the respondent, and the seriousness of the incident, the ticket/court referral scale increases by .072, .205, and .291 standard deviations

respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistics for these variables (4.10, 5.12, and 13.99) lie within the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effects of the age of the respondent, the cooperation of the respondent, and the seriousness of the incident on a ticket/court referral response are significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

Arrest. For the final set of models, the outcome variable was arrest. Based on prior research, it was hypothesized that that traditional police training and on-the-job training variables would have a positive and statistically significant effect on ticket/court referral response, while the remaining two training variables would not have a significant effect on the dependent variable.

Because the results of the baseline ANOVA model were significant, the null hypothesis was rejected. This indicates that the nested structure of the observations matters statistically, and therefore a multilevel model is needed. In an effort to determine which model provides the best fit to the data, a series of likelihood ratio tests were conducted to compare these models. The first likelihood ratio test was already conducted and compared the baseline ANOVA model with a random intercept (i.e., restricted) and the empty random intercept (i.e., unrestricted). The Chibar² statistic was significant, and it was concluded that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population.

Therefore, a second likelihood ratio test was run to compare the empty random intercept model (i.e., restricted) and the full random intercept model (i.e., unrestricted) which tested the hypothesis that the vignette variables have an effect on whether or not an arrest is used in response to student misconduct while also attempting to explain level two variation with the training variables. The Chibar² statistic in this model is 120.20, which lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance. The p value ($p < 0.001$) indicates that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model in the population. Based upon the likelihood ratio tests, one can conclude that the full random intercept model provides the best fit to the data. Therefore, this model will be presented below.

The results of this model are presented in Table 38. This Chibar² statistic in this model is 241.75. The Chibar² statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is significant variation around the fixed effects between the restricted model and the unrestricted model.

The overall model Wald Chi-square statistic is 525.06. The Wald Chi-square statistic for this model lies within the critical region at the 0.001 level of statistical significance indicating that this statistic happens by chance less than 1 time in 1,000, given the null is true. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the unrestricted model provides a significantly better fit to the data than the restricted model

in the population. Although the model level statistics were significant, no training variable slopes in this model were statistically significant.

Table 38. Multilevel Model: Arrest Regressed on Training Variables

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	z
<i>Individual-level</i>			
Traditional Police Training	-.031	.045	-0.69
Specialized Training	-.012	.021	-0.54
School-Specific Training	.021	.018	1.20
On-the-job-Training	-.019	.045	-0.41
Sex (Male) ²	.105	.053	1.97*
Age (respondent)	-.002	.002	-0.88
Years in School Police	.016	.003	4.54**
Structure (SRO) ²	-.102	.043	-2.39*
Elem only ¹	.217	.088	2.47*
Mid only ¹	.047	.066	0.72
High-only ¹	.117	.056	2.06*
Elem and mid ¹	.295	.112	2.62*
Elem and high ¹	-.018	.187	-0.10
Mid and high ¹	.009	.078	0.12
No grade ¹	.091	.155	0.59
Geographical Area (Urban) ²	-.002	.001	-1.32
Baseline Arrest	.195	.022	8.54**
<i>Vignette-level</i>			
Age	.064	.016	3.91**
Seriousness	.257	.020	13.07**
Cooperation	.246	.036	6.73**
History	.068	.032	2.15*
Constant	-.108	.257	-0.42
n=4,506; 522 Wald chi ² (21) = 530.29** Log likelihood = -7825.44			
Chibar ² (01) = 241.54**			
*p<.05, **p<.001			
¹ All grade-levels was excluded as the reference group.			
² Dummy coded variable (1=presence of variable, 0=absence of the variable)			

Despite no significant relationships between the training variables and an arrest response, there were also several demographic and vignette variables that were also

significant. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the sex of the officer and an arrest response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of sex is .105. This indicates that when an officer is male, as opposed to female, the rate of an arrest response increases on average by .105 standard deviations on the arrest scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for sex (1.97) lies within the critical region at the .05 level of statistical significance. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of an officer's sex on an arrest response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

There was a significant relationship between the number of years an officers has worked in school-based policing and an arrest response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of years in school-based policing is .016. This indicates that that for every one unit increase in the number of years in school-based policing, the arrest scale increases by .016 standard deviations, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for this variable (4.54) lies within the critical region at the .001 level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of years in school-based policing on an arrest response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

There was also a significant relationship between the service structure of the respondent and an arrest response. The unstandardized partial coefficient of the service

structure of the respondent is $-.102$. This indicates that when an officer works in an SRO structure, as opposed to an ISD police department structure, the rate of an arrest response decreases on average by $.102$ standard deviations on the arrest scale, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistic for service structure of the respondent (-2.39) lies within the critical region at the $.05$ level of statistical significance; therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of service structure on an arrest response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

There were several significant relationships between the different grade-level variables and an arrest response. Specifically, there was a significant relationship between the working in an elementary school only, a high school only, and working in both an elementary and middle school and an arrest response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of working in an elementary school only, a high school only, and working in both an elementary and middle school are $.217$, $.117$, and $.295$. These coefficients indicate that when an officer works in an elementary school only, a high school only, or in both an elementary and middle school, as opposed to all grade-levels, the rate of an arrest response increases on average by $.217$, $.117$, and $.295$ standard deviations on the arrest scale respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistics for these variables (2.47 , 2.06 , and 2.62) lie within the critical region at the $.05$ level of statistical significance. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effect of working in an elementary school only, a high school only, or in both an elementary and

middle school on an arrest response is significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept.

Finally, there were four significant relationships between the vignette variables and an arrest response. The unstandardized partial coefficients of age of the student, cooperation of the student, past history of the student, and seriousness of the incident are .064, .246, .068, and .257 respectively. These coefficients indicate that that for every one unit increase in the age of the respondent, the cooperation of the respondent, the past history of the student, and the seriousness of the incident, the arrest scale increases by .064, .246, .068, and .257 standard deviations respectively, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model and while allowing for a random intercept. The z statistics for these variables (3.91, 6.73, 2.15, and 13.07) lie within the critical region. Therefore, one can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the effects of the age of the respondent, the cooperation of the respondent, the past history of the student, and the seriousness of the incident on an arrest response are significantly different from zero in the population, while controlling for all other independent variables in the model.

Quantitative Results Summary

Overall, the results of the quantitative survey provided several notable findings. First, related to roles and the establishment of roles, it appears that officers have two predominant roles in the school setting – law enforcer and mentor. However, other roles such as educator, surrogate parent, and social worker were also apparent, yet to a lesser extent. Interestingly, the expected roles of officers as reported by what officers thought others in the school environment thought they should be doing mirrored the actual roles

reported by the officers. Additionally, there were several individual and school-level demographic variables that were correlated with certain roles. For instance, the grade level an officer works with as well as the officer's age, sex, and years of experience were all found to influence the roles officers served in. Specifically, when an officer works in a high school environment they are more likely to have a law enforcer role as well as a mentor role. Additionally, as an officer's age increases, they are more likely to have an educator role and the more years an individual has been in the law enforcement profession, the more likely they are to have an educator role. In terms of who establish such roles, individual officer discretion and police administrators appear to be the most involved in establishing the roles of officers on campus.

A majority of officers reported receiving traditional and specialized law enforcement training, but to a much lesser extent, officer reported receiving school specific training. However, many officers did report receiving on-the-job training when working in a school setting. Additionally, several individual and school demographic variables were correlated with the types of training officers received. Specifically, the service structure of the department as well as an officer's age, sex, and experience each had a relationship with the types of training received.

Finally, in terms of how officers respond to student misconduct, counseling was by far the most frequently used response, followed by the use of school-based responses. The use of legal responses was reported as being rarely used. The service structure of the department and grade level an officer works with as well as the age, sex, and experience of an officer were demographic factors that showed to have a relationship with the ways officers responded to student misconduct. For example, when working in an elementary

school, counseling responses were more likely when compared to other grades; however, ticketing responses were also more likely when compared to other grade levels.

Additionally, male officers were found to be more likely than female officers to issue tickets / court referrals and officers with more years in school-based policing were found to be less likely to respond to student misconduct using counseling.

Also, considering the multivariate analysis, several role variables were shown to have a significant relationship with how an officer responds to student misconduct, while holding constant the other role variables as well as contextual and demographic factors. Perhaps the most interesting finding related to officer role's and how they respond to student misconduct was the fact that a law enforcer role was seen to have a positive relationship with a counseling response. This indicates that the more of a law enforcer role that an officer takes on, the more likely they are to counsel as a response to student misconduct. To a much lesser extent, the training an officer received had a significant relationship with how an officer responds to student misconduct, while holding constant the other training variables as well as contextual and demographic factors. In order to further examine the roles, training, and responses to misconduct by officers, a thematic analysis of the interview data is presented in the next chapter.

V. QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

Chapter V begins by detailing the characteristics of the interviews themselves as well as the interview participants. Next, the themes that emerged from these interviews related to the roles of SROs/SBLEs are presented and supported by direct quotes from interviews with the participating officers. A similar analytical process is used for the themes that emerged related to officer training and officer responses to student misconduct. Direct quotes are again used to illustrate the emergence of these themes.

Interview and Participant Characteristics

A total of 213 survey respondents (out of 564) agreed to be considered for a follow-up interview. After creating strata based on the service structure they work in (as discussed in the qualitative methodology section), a random sample of 10 officers was taken from each of the strata. Therefore, in total, 20 interviews were conducted with commissioned law enforcement officers who were currently working in a school on a regular basis.

All of the officers represented different departments that either contracted with a school district to provide police services or were established as an ISD department. Specifically, 11 of the officers represented ISD police departments and the remaining nine were contracted SROs. Collectively, these officers represented districts that were considered rural, suburban, and urban, with district enrollments ranging from 200 students to more than 100,000 students. A majority of the officers worked in middle and/or high school settings, while other officers worked in either elementary campuses or served the entire district. Six of the officers interviewed were female and fourteen of the

officers were male. Of these 20 interviews, five were conducted in person and fifteen were done over the phone.

The data collected from these qualitative interviews allowed for further elaboration and in-depth discussion around the roles of SROs/SBLEs, their level of training, and their responses to student misconduct. Specifically, these open-ended questions allowed for the analysis of themes and concepts, of which, some were apparent in the quantitative survey data, while others were not. Although methodological limitations likely exist with these data (discussed later), these interviews allowed the researcher to reinforce, re-inform, and/or re-construct the larger issues surrounding the intersection of law enforcement and the school environment.

Once the interviews were completed, all information collected, including audio-recordings and notes/memos, were transcribed and uploaded into NVivo, a software program that organizes and assists with the analysis of non-numeric data. All of the data was then coded to identify similar themes and concepts relating to officer roles, their responses to student misconduct, and their level of training. The anticipated themes that were hypothesized in each of these areas are discussed below.

It was anticipated that several themes related to officer roles would emerge. Based on previous literature and the quantitative analysis, it was expected that law enforcer, mentor/role, and educator would be the predominant themes pertaining to roles. It was also expected that themes of surrogate parent and social work roles will also emerge, but to a lesser degree. It was expected that these themes would emerge in terms of actual roles as well as expected roles from others working in the school environment, although their prevalence may differ between the two groups (officers and others in the school

environment). Additionally, it was expected that other themes related to officer roles would emerge that have not yet been discovered in previous research. This is a benefit of qualitative research in that it allows for the discovery of new themes that are often not captured in quantitative instruments.

Additionally, it was anticipated that several themes related to officer training would emerge. Specifically, it was expected that themes related to traditional police training, specialized training, and on-the-job training would be most prevalent. However, officers would also provide information that supports the theme of school-specific training. It was also hypothesized that officers would support a theme that highlights the inadequacy of their training for the environment in which they work as well as themes that support how this lack of training negatively impacts their roles and responses to misconduct in the school environment. As with roles and responses, it was expected that unanticipated themes would emerge due to the nature of qualitative research.

Finally, in terms of responses to misconduct, it was anticipated that themes related to legal responses, counseling, and school-based punishment would emerge. However, it was hypothesized that additional themes would also emerge related to responses differing by incident type, the restricting influence of zero tolerance policies and SB 393, and nontraditional ways of responding to student misconduct. Like the themes pertaining to roles, it was also expected that new themes not yet conceptualized or presented in prior research would emerge related to how officers respond to student misconduct.

Roles of SROs/SBLEs

In order to further examine the role SROs/SBLEs have on campus, respondents were asked to describe the role(s) of SROs/SBLEs in the campuses in which you work,

the roles others in the school environment think they have or should have, and the ideal role they think they should have on campus. Several themes emerged from these conversations. These themes included different roles that officers engage in while on campus. Specifically, officers described roles consistent with 1) *a law enforcer*, 2) *a role model for students*, 3) *an educator*, and 4) *a relationship builder*. Three additional themes were also discovered that were related to officer roles on campus. These included the multifaceted nature of an SRO/SBLE's role on campus, the differences between traditional and school-based policing, and the impact of relationships with school staff on officer roles. Each of these themes is presented in more detail below, along with direct quotes from the interviews to support the identified themes.

Law enforcer. First, and as hypothesized, it was clear that a majority of the officers interviewed stated that their main role on campus was that of a *law enforcer*. Specifically, they are there to provide a safe and secure environment as well as handle violations of criminal law. This included engaging in traditional law enforcement activities such as patrolling hallways and the exterior of the buildings, checking doors to make sure they were secure, and investigating/addressing incidents that amounted to violations of criminal law. Many of the officers describing this role noted this as their primary role because they are commissioned law enforcement officers over all else. One officer described ensuring safety and security as their main purpose on campus,

“My main role is to provide security for the students and the staff. To make sure that their environment is safe, secure, and they can do what they need to do in that environment and not have to worry about some of those safety concerns. That’s why they have law enforcement officers here.”

-Officer L

Similar descriptions were provided by other officers supporting this idea of safety and law enforcement as their main function on campus,

“Your main function on campus is the safety of the students. You need to be out. You need to be visible. You need to be talking with the kids. You need to have your ear to the stone. These kids know what's going on long before any administrator. If you've got good rapport with your kids, you're going to get told and you're going to be able to stop something bad from happening.”

-Officer H

“The main things as far as being the SRO, you're definitely there for deterrence. You're also there as far as anything involving safety, a lot of community policing. You're getting to know the kids. They're getting to know you, so they can feel comfortable. If something happens, they feel comfortable coming to you. We are still police at the end of the day, just working in schools.”

-Officer O

Other officers echoed this sentiment by describing the specific activities they engage in to ensure a safe environment for students and staff such as patrolling the campus and being visible,

“Being visible to staff and students is important in making sure they are safe. I patrol the halls in the morning, at lunch, and during the days every day. It's similar to being out and visible in a community. People want to see you.”

-Officer C

“I do mainly patrol of the inside of the campus as well as outside. It allows me to get out there and see what is going on. I can usually catch things before they occur if I am out there”

-Officer D

“I do a lot of door checks and perimeter checks and talking to kids about not opening the doors. It is all about being safe.”

-Officer E

“We patrol the school halls during passing periods. We walk up and down and talk with the students. Staying visible to them is the most important and helps us get a head of things that might be happening”

-Officer L

“We have passing periods, so I try to be visible during passing periods. Try to, at some point in the day, I say get social. I go and talk to staff members just to say hi and see the face. People see us talking to them, people know we're there.”

-Officer N

Other officers described achieving a safe and secure environment by investigating and addressing issues that are violations of criminal law,

“Basically, any time there was an offense committed on campus, per Chapter 37 of the Education Code that was mandated to report, those were automatically mine. I was the police presence on campus. My main role was to address the criminal side of things and the administrators handled the school side of things. I am a law enforcement officer, so this is what I do.”

-Officer B

“Our main function, is just enforcing any state laws. Graffiti, damaging equipment, fighting, that type of stuff. I am still an officer; I just work in the school”

-Officer L

“I am always an officer first, and sometimes I have to do things that I don’t want to do. This may mean arresting a student or restraining them. If they violate the law sometimes I have to. I am required to, but that’s few and far between.”

-Officer A

Although many of the officers described a role consistent with that of a law enforcer, several respondents explained the boundaries between violations of the school code of conduct and criminal offenses. For example, one officer states,

“I am here for your safety, for the safety of the school. I’m really not here to address any administrative situations. If you have a situation to where a child will not stay in the classroom or he has—he’s cutting up in the class, that’s not me. You need to go to your administrator for that. That’s not what the police do. They don’t call me to remove a kid from the classroom.”

-Officer E

Another officer echoes this thought, but notes that he is willing to be present for these types of situations as a resource if needed,

“I don’t get involved in too much school discipline, but I will sit in every once in a while just to kind of shake things up. It usually does not pertain to me, but maybe I can help. Maybe I can explain the legal side of things, or maybe I can present a student or parent from getting out of hand. I am here to help.”

-Officer A

When talking about this issue of law enforcement and school discipline, two officers noted that calling the police should be a last resort,

“I told my teachers in training, I’m not your disciplinarian. I’m here to help you, but you need to go through your classroom management protocols that the district has set up for you to follow. If Johnny disrupts class, you need to call a parent or talk with him first. Then talk to the assistant principal then go through all of your other procedures. I am your last resort. They sometimes forget that I am a law enforcement officer still.”

-Officer B

“I can tell you right now, at the middle school level, the lines [regarding school discipline and law enforcement officers] are blurred a whole bunch. I’m not sure that’s because of the dynamics of the school, the kids or the officers, but I found myself getting, unfortunately, called on a lot of things that were not my problem at the middle school level. I had to explain to teachers that I should be called as a last resort on issues that are not criminal or jeopardizing safety.”

-Officer N

For this theme, it is clear that a majority of officers see themselves and their main function on campus as a law enforcer. They reported engaging in activities and duties that are consistent with that of a traditional law enforcement officer; however, they fill this role in the school environment rather than the community. Officers were adamant that they were law enforcers above all else, and therefore, were hesitant to be involved in issues related to school discipline.

Positive role model. In addition to a law enforcer role, many officers described a role consistent with that of a being *positive role model* for students. Although this was similar to the hypothesized role of mentoring, the focus of officers was more on being visible and engaging with students in positive ways rather than providing them advice or guidance as a counseling role would suggest. Being a positive role model included talking with students in the hallways and engaging in different school activities with students that were positive in nature. Some of these activities and the theme overall could

be seen as consistent with the ideas and practices of community-oriented policing. For instance, several officers discussed just simply being available to students in the hallways where they can interact,

“I get out in the hallway and just mingle with them [the students]. I mean, kids are always coming up, shaking hands. They’ll give me a hug. “Hey Officer, how are you?” Between classes, I’m always out in the halls. This is important.”

-Officer C

“We try to be visible to the kids, let them know that we’re not here just as the bad guy. For instance, I spend lot of time over at the high school. I spend a lot of time going to the gym and playing kickball and things like that with the kids. I spend a lot of time with the special—or life skills kids in the gym and in their classroom just letting them know that they’re just as important as the other kids are. I mean we try to get involved as we can. This allows the kids to come to us when there’s an issue.”

-Officer E

Several other officers described that being a positive role model to students allows them to feel more comfortable approaching an officer should they have a problem. One officer notes,

“We just need to create a—I guess a better rapport, be more understanding to their needs without them thinking that, “Hey, it’s okay to do this or do that.” “No. Yes, we’re going to be helpful and do whatever we need to help you out, to meet your needs, but we’re also here to enforce the law and we need to do that if we have to. We need to get on their level sometimes and relate to them so that we can understand them and they can understand we are here to help. I try to seek out these times to interact with them in some type of positive way. I have found it helps when there is an issue.”

-Officer D

Officer E supported this same idea as well,

“I like to be approachable. That’s very important for me to where if they have a situation, they see me, they know where to come to and they realize that they could tell me any situation that they come across and I’m going to help them. This is most of what I do. Engaging with the students when they need someone to look up to is important.”

-Officer E

Additionally, many of the officers described that these more positive interactions (as opposed to a law enforcement function) are much more common than negative interactions with students. One officer estimated the number of positive interactions they have in relation to negative interactions,

“Most of my interactions are very positive with students. I’d say for probably every student I arrest and actually have to take into custody, I’ve probably had 30 or 40 positive interactions.”

-Officer G

Another officer echoes this idea as well,

“Almost all of my encounters with students are positive. Sure, there are a few kids that always give us problems, but most of these kids are good kids and I get to interact with them in a positive way.”

-Officer O

Although similar to the hypothesized mentor role, the positive role model theme that was identified is different. This role, as officers described, is more about seeking out opportunities to interact with students in a positive manner. Many officers described these positive interactions as much more common and frequent, but also noted that they allow for better outcomes when dealing with negative situations. For instance, several officers noted that getting to know students in a positive manner allows students to trust them when they have a problem or when they need something.

Educator. Although not as prevalent as law enforcer or positive role model themes, several officers discussed the idea of serving in an *educator* role. This included formal education where officers would go into classrooms and teach on a variety of topics, but also informal education on what the law is or what the consequences of certain behaviors might be if they became criminal. Many of the officers describing this role also

noted that is secondary to their primary function of being a law enforcer; however, because of the juvenile population that they work with, educating as a part of addressing negative behavior is important. One officer described this role in the following way,

“Obviously law enforcement’s there for criminal activity, but I think we can also educate students about their behavior along the way—you don’t have to be their best friend—they’ve got to know where the line is. I will always tell my kids you went out teepeeing that house, you know that’s a criminal offense, right? You know that this is illegal. This is a law; you cannot do it. Teaching kids right—I mean not necessarily right from wrong because they usually haven’t got a good understanding of that, but a lot of times it’s the ignorance of not knowing that it’s a criminal law.”

-Officer B

Another officer again supported this idea of educating students about the consequences of their behavior,

“We’re not only there just for the law enforcement side of it, but I, in my personal opinion, I’ve gotten involved in some stuff early on, like I see kids going down a certain path, like maybe assistant principals are dealing with something, I might step in and explain the legal side of it all. Educate these students a bit on when I might have to get involved and what that might mean. I think we need to teach them so that they can make informed decisions. Then it is on them.”

-Officer J

Although many officers described this more informal education role, others also discussed a more traditional educational role where they would go into the classroom and educate students on a variety of topics.

“For the first 8-10 years of my career in school policing, I taught DARE. It was great. I got to teach a few lessons each week and educate the students on the consequences of drug use. I think the student enjoyed seeing an officer come in and teach them about this stuff. It gave the topic more credibility since we deal with this stuff all of the time and we know what these drugs can do to you later in life.”

-Officer B

“If a teacher wants us to come in and talk, I try to go in and talk as well. Teach a few classes here and there, or just even do question and answer sessions for the kids.”

-Officer C

“From time to time, I will get—the teachers will pull me—I’m walking the hallway and they’ll pull me into their classroom and tell me this and this happened. Could you talk to the kids about the consequences?” I will go in and do that for them.”

-Officer D

“Being that I’m K-9, I do a lot of presentations. We get called in middle schools to do presentations in government classes as well as the high schools. One of our high schools has an extensive law program where they do a lot of law related classes, and we get called to interact with them a bit.”

-Officer G

As noted, this educator role was not as prevalent as the law enforcer and positive role model roles; however, it was identified as an important supplement to these more primary roles. That is, officers described that educating students regarding their behavior was an effective way to prevent future negative behavior. This education role can be filled by educating students informally when officers have contact with students or in a more formal setting such as making a presentation in a classroom. Overall, officers see the value in serving in some form of educator capacity.

Relationship builder. Finally, many officers discussed the idea of being in a role that is consistent with that of a *relationship builder*. Primarily, this role included building relationships with students, but also with staff, parents, and outside agencies that support school safety. This was typically accomplished by simply having regular conversations with these different groups. Although similar to the positive role model role discussed earlier, the relationship builder theme was more about connecting the various subgroups that operate within the school and less so about being a role model for students to look up to. This role was not hypothesized or examined in the qualitative survey.

For instance, one officer describes the importance of and their role in building relationships,

“Networking is huge in the school environment – between the fire department and the police department and the teachers and the students and just creating a very solid web of network and know that all that is interconnected and it affects one another and that you have to keep that network tight. In the streets, it’s all about stats, in the school, it’s about a tight web of a network where you’re truly being a resource all the way across the board. It’s really what I do. I find problems and I find solutions for them and most of the time I’m not the solution, but I can find you the solution or the resource that makes sense.”

-Officer A

A different officer describes a similar role consistent with being a relationship builder in the school environment,

“The SRO position is what you put into it. You can make the job whatever you want to. If you want to do bare minimum, you sit on your butt, you do bare minimum. If you want to be involved and get to know your kids, and it’s so rewarding. Absolutely so rewarding. I mean little things on your intervention prevention could be something as simple as, “What time’s your baseball game tonight?” “You going to be there?” “Absolutely. I’m working your game tonight.” I work a lot of off-duty events for the school district. It comes down to being a part of the community and creating relationships with the students and the larger community. They need to see you as a person who cares. Same goes for school staff, you need to get to know them. We are all in this together.”

-Officer B

Other officers described how they go about building these relationships,

“Building relationships with the students and school staff is most important. In the mornings I love to stand at the front of the door where all the students come in and greet them. It makes a huge difference it gives me the opportunity to get to know people. Who knows, maybe I can work with one of the staff members to address an issue in the future. You have to develop strong relationships.”

-Officer C

“I make it a point to get to know the staff and students. It’s not that hard if you want to get to know them. Just walking around the campus, making sure I’m visible to the staff, to the students, saying hello if there’s a kid in the hallway or just saying, “How’s your morning going?” Just general police presence, and also following up with the administrators to see if there’s any ongoing problems I can help them with.”

-Officer M

Again, this role of relationship builder was not as prevalent as law enforcer or positive role model, but like educator, seemed to be a secondary role that officers

believed was important. Many of the officers describing this role noted that they do not have all of the tools or solutions to address issues they may come in contact with, and therefore, developing this web of relationships allows them to call on others in the school environment who may be more appropriate to address a specific issue. Additionally, officers described this role as somewhat of a “bridge” between community resources/other first responders and school staff.

Additional Role Themes

In addition to discussing the different roles they have in the school environment, themes related to the dynamic and multifaceted nature of officer roles, how these roles compare to traditional policing, and how relationships and understanding with school staff impact their roles on campus were discovered.

Multi-faceted role. First, and perhaps the most frequently expressed descriptive theme that emerged from the discussion of SRO/SBLE roles on campus, was that of a *multi-faceted* and ever-changing role. Many of the officers discussed a role that changed constantly depending on what was needed and one that encompassed a lot of different activities. They may not do each of these activities often, but the list of activities can be long. For instance, one officer described their role very succinctly,

“My role is really just being available and not being tied down to one specific thing.”

-Officer A

Other officers described a similar function in the school environment,

“My role is to get to know the kids, help the kids that I can, and take care of any law violations that comes up. I do this in a lot of different ways. I may sit and talk with kids in the lunchroom, teach their class, give them a hug, whatever I can do I will do. How I handle issues is different every day depending on the situation. I am here as a resource to the school so I need to be able to adapt.”

-Officer C

“I do a little bit of everything on campus. For instance, teachers know that I can help them with their stuff when—like I said, when they need to go to the bathroom or maybe they need to run and make copies. They can trust me to stay there with their class. They also know that if there is something criminal or something going on, that I can also help them with that too. I always try to help in any way that I can.”

-Officer D

“I do everything from walking kids to their class, we’ve got some special needs kids that come there, if the special needs teachers don’t come up, I walk them back to their class. I do lunch duty. Of course when some of our other kids have meltdowns, I end up helping with the restraints on them. Basically, a little bit of everything, sometimes teaching classes, I’m do presentations, sometimes with a counselor.”

-Officer P

“In a rural district, I do a little bit of everything. I will walk the halls several times a day, sit in on discipline matters, and sometimes I assist with restraining the special needs students, not with handcuffs, but just holding them until their parents arrive. I also verify addresses for pre-k children who are coming into the district. I’m also the emergency management coordinator for our district. I put together all the fire drills and evacuation drills on a monthly basis.”

-Officer O

The notion of serving in a surrogate parent role or a social worker role were also encompassed in this multi-faceted role theme. That is, although these roles do not appear to be prevalent, they are something an officer will do if needed and if called upon to do so. One officer describes feeling like a parent sometimes,

“I feel like a parent on the outside of it sometimes. I feel like a parent because a lot of these kids are great kids, most of them, and then to see them doing well, and see them getting to some of their dreams and goals, it’s kind of cool. I just appreciate the fact that these kids still want to come up and talk to me and that I can have an impact on their lives.”

-Officer E

Similarly, another officer describes sometimes acting in what seems to be a social worker capacity by trying to find students the services and resources they need,

“I try to help them get counseling and I try to help them—I’ll get them with the counselors, try to get them help if it’s that bad. Some of them, I’ve helped get jobs. Go down here to Sonic. I know the manager at Sonic. Go talk to him. Get a job where you don’t have to hang out and get in trouble with these guys at night. You’re making money. You can buy shoes that you want.”

-Officer C

As stated, this multi-faceted role theme was described less as a specific role that officers have, and more so as a characteristic of school-based policing. That is, officers describing this theme realized that they do not have a set list of duties or roles, but must be flexible to meet the demands and needs of their campuses on a given day. At times, they may be called on to be a law enforcer, the next day a role model, and the next day a parent. Many of these officers have embraced this dynamic environment and to some degree have realized this is the way they can be most effective.

Traditional policing vs. school policing. Next, almost all of the officers discussed that, although this is still policing and they do some of the same activities, it is very different from traditional street policing. Specifically, a majority of the officers were quick to note that they are peace officers and follow all of the same guidelines as patrol officers, but how they achieve a safe and secure environment in the schools looks much different than one would expect in a community setting. Several officers noted the differences between normal patrol functions in a community and serving in a school environment,

“In a patrol you’re looking for and you’re taking calls. Usually, unfortunately, as they say, you’re usually taking calls for something that’s already happened. You do an investigation. You usually got to turn it over to CID and let them do investigations on that. Where in schools, a lot of times we’re here when it happens. We find out immediately about it. We do an immediate investigation on it. Our department, the way we’re set up and the way we work, we do all of our own investigations for everything that happens at the school.”

-Officer C

More specifically, some officers noted the heightened perception of danger officers who patrol the streets experience,

“If you have a street officer, especially somebody who was on night and he wasn’t really a community type of person—because when you’re a night officer, you’re looking’ for DWIs. You’re doing a lot of family disturbance, stuff like that, so your officer safety is very heightened because of your environment of work. I did two years on nights, and then I switched to the schools. To stand in the middle of a 6-A high school during class change and 600 kids are walking right by you front and center, that’ll flip you out.”

-Officer G

“In a community, you’re more on the alert, and you’re more ready. You take more abuse and you give more abuse. In the school setting, it’s totally different. You’re not allowed to really curse at the kids. They’re allowed to curse at you all they want, but you’re not allowed to say anything like that to them.”

-Officer L

Other officers noted that differences between traditional policing and school policing also have to do with the population you deal with and how you interact with them,

“Your beat cops don’t really understand what the school officers do. The school officer is very unique. You have kids in your space all the time. That’s a big part of training. I had to really get used to someone being right up on me. I wasn’t comfortable with that. Then of course dealing with juveniles all of time. It is different.”

-Officer E

“The big thing really about being a school police officer is that you know your clientele. You know your location. You know your kids or you watch out for who’s who. If you’re a beat officer, unless it’s somebody you’re always arresting, you’re not going to know who they are.”

-Officer N

In addition to discussing the differences between traditional policing and school policing, two officers mentioned what it takes to be a good school officer (as opposed to a good officer in general),

“Not everybody that’s a good officer can be a good SRO, because they don’t want to drop their shields enough to get down and talk to the kids. If you don’t talk to the kids, you’re not going to get any information from them, as far as what’s going on in school. It is important to drop your shield, but it is hard from some officers to do. It is critical to success in the school.”

-Officer O

“You have to do things differently in the school. One of the things that I try to do is present a positive role model of law enforcement to the students, and the parents, and the school administrators. Because of that, because I’m in daily contact with those people, then I would probably be more gentle, if you want to say that, more understanding, would probably grant more leeway with one of the students inside the school setting as I would if I saw them out on the street. How you handle situations has to change when you come into the school. You can’t be Robo cop in the school, it will not work.”

-Officer P

It is clear from this theme that a majority of the officers interviewed see themselves as law enforcement officers in the truest sense, yet they acknowledge that how they do law enforcement business looks much different in a school environment than it would in traditional street policing. The officers noted that because of the population they deal with, the close proximity of the school community, and the goals of the education setting, they have to do things differently in order to be effective.

Impact of relationships with school staff on roles. Finally, officers also discussed the importance of relationships with school staff and how their understanding of their roles is important. Although the question posed to officers was intended to elicit roles that educators and other school staff think officers should have (in comparison to what they described as their roles), the focus in almost all interviews shifted to the importance

of working in conjunction with school staff to handle issues that arise on campus. One officer summed this idea up by saying,

“Having a good administration who really knows what you do and knowing where the line is between what they do is imperative to be an SRO. It's really important.”

-Officer H

Another officer noted how important the relationship is between the officer and the administrator,

“The one thing I do wish, though, is principals don't understand their role with the SRO is so very vital to what we do because it's their campus. At the end of the day, it's his campus. I'm there to give him a service and so that's one of the things that I have found as sometimes the principals don't utilize their SROs to the extent that they could.”

-Officer F

Officer B noted that being included in the school side of things allowed them to do their job better,

“I was part of the school staff. I was considered part of staff. I sat in in their Monday morning meetings and if it pertained to me, I interjected. If it didn't, I sat back and learned. I was treated like a campus administrator. They taught me how the school works. It really helped me do my job better.”

-Officer B

Officers also discussed the importance of working with teachers to define their role and how to ensure that everyone understands what the role of the officer is on campus. Two officers discussed their relationships with their teachers and how it influences what they do on campus,

“I think I work well with our teachers, which is important to them understanding what I do and what they do. It's completely relative [teachers' understanding of what the officer does] to how close they are to me. I mean if a teacher doesn't have a lot of contact with me, you know, maybe they have a really good classroom management and just deal with really upper level kids, they probably really don't know what I do. It is important that they know what I do, so I try to let them know when I have the chance.”

-Officer B

“With the teachers, I mean they’ve been very accepting of us. I mean, they’re ready to use us any chance they can. Not only does it get them out from in front of the kids for a little bit, but I mean just because now if they’re having a problem, they know somebody’s available and going to respond whereas in the past it may have been a hit and miss. We just need to train them on the process for using us.”

-Officer S

Several officers also mentioned how they educate school staff on what their role is on campus,

“If they [teachers] didn’t know if I should handle it, they would call me direct and a lot of times—I always told them if you don’t know, ask me. I’ll tell you whether it’s mine, if it’s yours and my administrators I tell the same thing. I’ll tell you if it’s something I have to do or if it’s something I should do or if it’s something you need to handle.”

-Officer B

“At first many teachers don’t understand what we do because they are calling the police for everything. You don’t call the police for classroom management, that’s administrative. I saw that when I first came into school based law enforcement that the teachers were relying on the police officers to really handle classroom management. I had to really talk with the teachers so that they knew what we did.”

-Officer E

“Every once in a while, a little education has to take place, but our administrators, by large, are phenomenal. If they’re not sure, they’ll call up to me and say, “Hey, is this a me thing or a you thing, or is it a both of us thing?”

-Officer G

Overall, this theme highlights the importance of school staff and law enforcement officers being integrated in terms of what they do on campus to address issues. That is, officers appreciate being involved, at least as observers, with the school side of things, while officers also want school staff to be familiar with what they can and cannot do on campus. Additionally, this theme really highlights the importance of a collaborative working environment and not one that is siloed into law enforcement and education. These officers have identified the importance of integrating education and law enforcement in order to be successful.

SROs/SBLE Training

In an effort to examine the training that SROs/SBLEs receive, interview participants were asked to discuss the training they received prior to starting their career or assignment in school-based policing and the training they have received since being involved in school-based policing. Additionally, officers were asked to describe how useful the training was at preparing them for the school environment and what topics or areas they believe should be a must for school-based officers. Several themes emerged from these interview items. Specifically, officers described, 1) the *lack of or inadequacy of training*, 2) the importance and utility of *on-the-job training*, 3) the need for more *school-specific training*, and 4) the need for *parallel training* with educators. Each of these themes is presented in more detail below, along with direct quotes from the interviews to support the identified themes.

Lack/inadequacy of training. First, officers described a training environment that is lacking and/or inadequate at preparing them for the roles they take on in the school environment. Specifically, many of the officers mentioned that prior to working in a school, they did not receive any training beyond a traditional police academy and their experience working on the street. Although many officers noted that their experience and traditional law enforcement training was useful to some extent, it did not adequately prepare them for working in a school setting. Many of the officers described this lack of training that would adequately have prepared them for working in a school environment,

“When I first started, it was definitely learn as you go. We just got thrown in the school and were expected to do the same things or maybe figure it out, I am not sure. There was not additional training on what the school environment was going to be like.”

-Officer A

“When I first started working in the school, I got no training on how to deal with kids or anything about the school. I kind of just had to learn that on my own, which took some time.”

-Officer M

“There was nothing for training when I transitioned over to the school from patrol. One day I was on patrol and the next I was told I was reassigned to the school. I think they expected us to get in there and figure it out.”

-Officer G

“I wish I had received some basic training before I started, but I didn’t. I had not been in a school in a long time, some basic information on what it was like would have been helpful. I just had to figure it out.”

-Officer P

“I didn’t receive any training. I was on patrol for a little while before they put me in the school and I really didn’t know what I was doing.”

-Officer O

Several other officers noted that even the training they were provided or located themselves was inadequate in terms of preparing them to work in the school. Specifically, one officer notes,

“Training for school officers was really all over the place.” You get some over here and some over there. Most of the time, it is conflicting information. I think it made me more confused than I was before.”

-Officer D

Others noted that what training they did receive did not address the topics they felt they needed to be effective in the school,

“I got some training, not a lot. The training I did get was not that good. It covered many topics that I already had for my peace officer license, nothing that helped me in the school. We need more training on how to work with administrators and students, stuff like that.”

-Officer B

“I got some basic training, but nothing on juvenile law or working in a school. I wish I got more on what I need to do in the school before going in.”

-Officer E

“The department sent me to some national school police training. It was broad and didn’t really cover anything specific to Texas or where I was going to be working. It was good, but didn’t help me much.”

-Officer F

Overall, a majority of the officers interviewed transitioned from a traditional patrol function to working in a school environment at some point in their career. Additionally, almost all of these officers noted that they were not adequately trained or prepared to work in the school setting when they made this transition. Even those officers that did receive some additional training before transitioning to the school noted that it was often not exactly what they needed to be effective in this environment. This theme highlights that lack of and poor quality of training in the area of school-based policing.

On-the-job training. Although many of the officers interviewed discussed not receiving training, or at least adequate training, prior to working in a school setting, many mentioned that they eventually figured out what to do as they spent more time on campus. Specifically, a majority of the officers interviewed noted that they received most of their training *on-the-job* either informally from others or as part of a department field training officer (FTO) program. Many of these officers valued this type of training and credited it with their success in the school environment. One officer discussed how they learned on-the-job,

“Just by seeing some of the older officers that have been here, and of course luckily, I’ve worked with a lot of officers that have been here for a while and are very helpful, very willing to take you under their wing and teach you what they can. In that sense, I’m very lucky.”

-Officer D

Another officer discussed how they learned on-the-job, but they had to seek it out rather than more seasoned officers taking the initiative,

“I had to seek it out from officers who have been doing it longer than me. Just some of it, most of the hands on stuff I figured out as it come up. Some of it, you know, going through school law enforcement updates. Anything that relates to school as far as changes. I learned as a I went with help from other officers who knew what they were doing”

-Officer L

Another officer discussed a trial and error process that allowed them learn more about what works and what does not work in the school setting,

“It’s more just figuring it out as you go, “Okay, I tried this. It didn’t work too well, so I might try this the next time.” Just figure out those techniques that work a little differently in the school than in the streets.”

-Officer M

Several other officers described being formally assigned to work with another officer when they started working in the school environment,

“When I transitioned from street policing, I was paired with an officer already in the school to learn from him. He was really helpful. He was kind of my mentor. We talked through things and he has always been there for me if I have questions”

-Officer F

“The first week, I had an officer training me. Observing what he does and how he does, and talking together. Then, eventually, you figure out, like I said earlier, when you talk to these kids, if you go up to them and you try to be Robocop to them, they’re not going to respond well. If you give them the respect, the open dialogue, typically you get good feedback from them.”

-Officer M

Additionally, some officers described a formal FTO program that allowed them to receive classroom and hands-on on-the-job training and the benefits of programs like this,

“We had a field training officer program, but it was like being rehired, and that had multiple phases to go through in working both on middle school and high school campuses and dealing with various things and had numerous situations that I was required to either have an actual experience with that or we’d have a mock experience act and how we would deal with it.”

-Officer G

“When a new guy comes in, whether he’s been with another department or fresh out of the academy, they get FTO-ed. Depending on if it’s a veteran officer, well then they have maybe four weeks of FTO. Anyone else, six or seven. We try to teach them everything. I try to teach them everything that they have to deal with in the school.”

-Officer M

“Doing the FTO program, even though it was abbreviated, was the best because he taught me the importance of my communication and relationships with—and my partnership—with the principals and the people on the campus.”

-Officer F

Overall, it is important to note that although many officers reported that they did not feel adequately prepared to begin their school-based law enforcement careers, they learned a great deal from simply working in the school environment and relying on other officers who had done this type of policing longer. Additionally, it appears as if many departments have identified a need for training and have formalized on-the-job training through the creation of FTO programs. The officers interviewed put great value in this type of training as a way to better prepare them for working in a school setting.

The need for school-specific training. Many of the officers interviewed also discussed the need for *school-specific training* that is mapped to what they do (i.e., their roles). Several officers noted that the school environment is different from traditional policing, and therefore requires a different set of skills. Therefore, in order to develop a different set of skills, a different set of training that is not traditionally covered in other law enforcement training is needed. For instance, one officer noted,

“We need training that supports what we do. How to work with kids, how to work with administrators, what the school rules are, things like that. It is hard to fund training on these areas.”

-Officer L

Similarly, another officer stated,

“The law enforcement training we get is good and important, but it is different in the school. Some of it applies and some of it does not. We need to fill the gaps.”

-Officer G

Officers mentioned and discussed a host of different school-specific training topics that they would benefit from,

“Every single school police officer should have their mental health certification because of the population we deal with. We need more training in this area. We deal with a very vulnerable population and have to be prepared to handle these situations.”

-Officer A

“I really liked the restorative justice training in the new mandated class because it puts us in a different mindset when we’re dealing with kids to try to see—to find a reasoning for the behavior that led up to the actions. I think this is an area that all school-based police could benefit from”

-Officer E

“Every officer should receive a basic training on how to socialize with the kids, knowing the layout of the school, things like that. That’s important. You need to know what your layout is in case something does happen. What to look for. When you see a group of students, if they’re huddled together in a particular fashion, being able to recognize if that indicates a fight probably is going to happen.”

-Officer H

“We need more education on being able to deescalate. If you come to a disturbance, you got four or five people hot under the collar—kids want to fight in front of a crowd, so everybody’s going to pull a cell phone out, and you got a big situation if you can’t deescalate that quickly. This is the most important skill in the school and we get very little training on it”

-Officer G

This same topic was also noted by Officer E,

“We do a lot of training geared towards conflict resolution. We do a lot of those or dealing with someone that’s already up there, to bring them down where yeah, it’s not an issue.”

-Officer E

Building on previous themes related to training, officers have mentioned that they typically do not feel prepared to work in a school setting when they first are assigned to a school, yet they do value learning on-the-job. Despite the value and effectiveness of on-the-job training, this theme of needing more school-specific training highlights that there are still deficiencies in training that need to be addressed. Additionally, officers have noted areas that they need more training and education in to be more effective and prepared to accomplish what is asked of them in schools.

Parallel training. The final theme related to training that emerged is the need for *parallel training* with school staff, especially administrators. That is, officers discussed the need for them to train with educators so that all parties know what each other can do and what they have the training to do. Several officers discussed a desire to have educators train with them, but also for them to train with educators. They noted the importance of this is that if all are aware of what others can do, the school will run more efficiently. One officer discussed this idea of parallel training as a way of all being on the same page,

“We need to co-train with school staff so we all know what each other is doing and capable of doing. This will allow the school to run better. If I know what my principal can do and he knows what I can do, we will avoid bring each other into situations that are not appropriate.”

-Officer D

Another officer mentioned the benefits of parallel training in terms of knowing when law enforcement officers should be called,

“It is important that administrators and teachers are trained on what law enforcement officers need to do their job and what they will and can do. It will help them to better understand when they should call us.”

-Officer F

Several other officers discussed this parallel training idea more indirectly, noting the need for all in the school setting to be more connected and familiar with the role each other plays. This theme again highlights the need and importance of collaboration and integration between educators and law enforcement officers in an effort to ensure an efficient and effective school environment.

Most Common Incidents Encountered by SROs/SBLEs

Finally, in an effort to further explore the responses of SROs/SBLEs to student misconduct, interview participants were asked to discuss the most common incidents that they encounter in the school environment, how they respond to these incidents they encounter, and any barriers they deal with that impact how they respond to student misbehavior. There were several themes that emerged from the interviews related to how officers respond to student misconduct. Specifically, officers noted four main types of incidents they respond to: 1) *theft of personal property*, 2) *drugs*, 3) *assault/fighting*, and 4) *mental health situations*. Additionally, two major themes emerged related to how officers respond to these incidents: 1) *counseling* and 2) *school-based response*. Each of these themes is presented in more detail below, along with direct quotes from the interviews to support the identified themes.

Theft of personal property. Almost every officer interviewed mentioned *theft of personal property* as one of the main incidents they deal with on campus. Specifically, many of these officers noted that the property stolen is in most cases is a cellphone or some type of gym attire, usually sneakers. The officers interviewed also mentioned that they believe this is the main issue they are dealing with on campus because students are careless and/or not watchful over their belongings. For instance, several officers described theft as their main issue on campus,

“The main issue we deal with has to be theft. A lot of theft, locker room theft and theft of cellphones. Students can be careless with their belongings, and it seems there is always someone who want to take it. We do a lot of theft cases.”

-Officer B

“I would think the largest problem that we have here would be theft of personal property. We often get calls from students and parents that their stuff was taken out of the locker or from the classroom. We investigate these and see if we can get their stuff back.”

-Officer E

Several other officers also noted the issue of theft and mentioned the carelessness of students with their belongings as the main reason for this occurring,

“I deal with a lot of cellphone theft. Because they [students] put their cell phones down anywhere. They put their purses or bags down anywhere and they’re just doing their thing like nothing ever happens here, but it does. We do a lot of thefts.”

-Officer E

“I’d say probably 40 to 50 percent of my cases are thefts that start with, “My cell phone was charging, and then I left the room. Students will charge their phones wherever they can, and then they leave them there expecting them to be there when they get back. It seems most of the time they are not. We try to educate kids on this.”

-Officer G

“A majority of my cases are going to be thefts involving cellphones and property. The majority of my cases have been unsecured cellphones, whether it was left in an unsecured part of the locker room or the classroom, just losing that focus. You’re focused on the classwork, and you’re nonchalant about where you leave your cellphone. You go back to get it, it’s disappeared. We see a lot of this, it is very common in school these days.”

-Officer M

By far, the most common incident that officers encounter in the school environment is theft of personal property, but more specifically cellphones. That is, a majority of interviewees noted that upwards of half of their cases deal with theft of property. Officers also noted that this is often because students leave their property unattended, which makes it easier for others to steal their belongings. Those officers discussing this as a major issue noted that they do follow up on these reports by investigating and trying to get the property returned, but also by educating students on how to better secure their property.

Drugs. The next theme that emerged related to the types of incidents that are most common in the school environment is the use or possession of *drugs* and/or drug paraphernalia. Specifically, officers mentioned that marijuana and pills are the most common types of drugs they are seeing on campus. Other officers hypothesized that many of the drug problems they see in the schools are a product of what is occurring in the larger community that surrounds the campus. Several officers discussed drugs as their main problem and the specific types of drugs they are seeing,

“Yeah, drug offenses seem to be our biggest issue on campus. I wouldn’t say a lot of students are doing drugs, but we have our drug users and our dealers that are always bringing drugs on campus. It is usually just pot and sometimes pills. Not sure why, but pills have become common lately on our campus.”

-Officer H

“Main problem we have on our high school campus is drugs. We have been seeing a lot of pills and marijuana this year. I think we have always seen the weed, but the pills surprised me this year. I think that’s the new thing, taking pills from your parents’ medicine cabinet. It is very dangerous.”

-Officer B

“I would say most of our reports are for narcotics. Most of my arrests are usually narcotic related. It’s still predominantly marijuana but this year I’ve seen a huge uptick in pills, almost all of them Xanax.”

-Officer N

Several other officers described not only seeing drugs, but also drug paraphernalia,

“I wouldn’t say we have a drug problem because I do not see a lot of actual drugs on campus. I do see a lot of paraphernalia though. I think the kids bring it to school to show their friends. Maybe they use drugs after school, I don’t know. Usually it is pipes that I find in their backpack or somewhere like that.”

-Officer F

“A lot of students bring their pipes to school. I think they are hardcore drug users who like to smoke before school and then they have their pipe for later. Those things smell and we usually don’t have any trouble finding them.”

-Officer O

Finally, some officers hypothesized that the issue of drugs on campus is caused by community drug issues,

“I saw these same issues [related to drugs] when I was on patrol. The school is like a mirror of the community. It is the same families using drugs and now it is their kids. These drug problems spill over into the school all of the time.”

-Officer H

“We see the same drugs on campus as we do in the community. These students who are using drugs don’t just use them at school, but at home as well. Sometimes they do drugs with their parents or siblings. I talk often with our narcotics officers in the community to get an idea of what I should be looking for.”

-Officer B

“We get most of our drug problems from one neighborhood. This area is known for drugs, and it is not surprising that most students that live there bring drugs on campus.”

-Officer C

Although not as prevalent as theft on campus, several officers noted drugs as an issue they regularly deal with on campus. Mainly, these officers noted that marijuana and pills are most common as well as drug paraphernalia. These drug problems, as described by some of the officers, are reflective of larger community issues.

Assaults/fighting. Several officers also mentioned that assaults and fighting were common occurrences on campus in terms of the incidents they most often deal with. Specifically, some officers noted that assaults or fighting is often the result of a verbal altercation that escalates and one student either physically attacks another or they mutually agree to fight one another. One officer describes how these situations typically evolve,

“Assaults are pretty common on campus as well. It is usually a he-said-she-said and then talking trash turns into a fight or an assault. Sometimes both kids want to fight and other times we have one aggressor. They are always because of some rumor or drama going on.”

-Officer B

Another officer describes similar situations on the campus where they work,

“One kid says something to another one, the other one’s not going to take it. Either they both decide to meet in the bathroom, or they do it in the hallway. It’s just basically fights or mutual combat that we see.”

-Officer L

Some of the other officers discussed when they label this type of behavior assault and when it is mutual combat and how each is addressed,

“We see a good deal of assaults. Well, most of them end up turning into fights because as long as the other kid fights back that's mutual. There are some instances of where these kids just straight out assault. We typically deal with assault and let the school handle the mutual combat.”

-Officer O

“We get our fair share of fighting. Most are handled by administration unless it's just something pretty serious. I've taken knives off of kids after fights. I've had agg-assaults before. It depends on how serious the fight is. I might be involved, I might not.”

-Officer H

Although many of the officers interviewed mentioned theft and drugs as the more common issues they deal with on campus, some also mentioned assaults or fighting.

Those that mentioned fighting as a common occurrence on their campus noted that it was often the result of verbal arguments that escalated to this behavior. However, many officers also noted that not all fights are handled by law enforcement, but rather it depends on the specific details and the seriousness.

Mental health situations. Finally, some officers mentioned that they often are called to handle situations related to a student's mental health. Although these types of situations were not mentioned by a majority of the officers, it was noted by several of the respondents. Officers that did mention addressing incidents that were related to mental health issues discussed everything from assessing students to getting them in an appropriate mental health placement. Officers noted that these types of incidents involving mental health issues are more common because many students have undiagnosed or untreated mental health issues that they bring to school.

One officer described their role in incidents that involve mental health issues,

“We handle a lot of mental health type of calls, making sure they're getting the right assessments, taken to the hospital, getting parents involved, things along those lines—we also worked side by side with the administration and counselors pretty much for anything.”

-Officer H

Another officer echoed this same idea,

“We are the ones on campus with crisis training, so we get called in when students who have mental health problems are involved. We do everything we can to talk them down so that we can get them some help. We have been dealing with more calls like this for the last few years.”

-Officer S

Additionally, several officers noted that they are dealing with more calls like this because more students are not getting the help they need outside of school or are not being treated appropriately. One officer stated,

“We have all kinds of mental health calls. We have very severely emotionally disturbed kids that are not on medication or receiving any type of care. We have a lot of mental health calls here in the school district because of that. This is an area we continue to train in.”

-Officer N

“There are a lot of kids in our district that are not getting the resources and help they need outside of school. We have kids with severe mental health issues that are not seeing a doctor or taking their meds. It creates a lot of difficult calls for us.”

-Officer B

“Many parents do not want to admit that their child has mental health issues. I understand it is hard for them, but it creates a lot of situations in school that are difficult for them and for us. We have to be careful and really talk with these kids to make sure they don't hurt themselves or other students.”

-Officer L

Although again not as prevalent as theft and drugs, some officers noted their increasing role in incidents that involve mental health issues. Their involvement ranges from assessing the mental health of students to ensuring they get the most appropriate

care for their needs. Officers also mentioned that these types of incidents seem to be coming more common because appears that students with these mental health issues are going undiagnosed and/or untreated.

SROs/SBLEs Responses to Student Misconduct

In addition to examining the most common incidents that SROs/SBLEs deal with on campus, officers were also asked to discuss how they most often address issues of student misbehavior on campus.

Counseling. Overwhelmingly, every officer interviewed discussed some form of counseling as their primary way of addressing incidents of student misconduct. Although officers mentioned this as their primary way addressing student misconduct, they also noted that in some cases they are either required to or feel it is necessary to use other forms of punishment such as legal responses. Officers also discussed why and how the school environment allows for this type of response as an effective alternative to legal responses.

One officer described how he handles a majority of student misconduct issues on campus,

“The first thing that I try and do is remove them from the classroom. Let's— for example, let's say Bobby. I'll say, Bobby, I need you to come with me for a minute, please. Usually, I'll have the student walk out of the room with me and—without incident. As we're on our way to the office or to the counselor's office, wherever it might be that we're going, then I'll talk to them along the way. I'll ask them what the problem is, what's going on. Try to get a better understanding behind the behavior. Hopefully this helps me and the school staff help them a little better.”

-Officer D

A second officer noted the importance of talking with and counseling students to get to the root cause of their behavior,

“I like to have conversations and dig into what’s going on at home as far as, “How’s home life,” and that sort of reaching out. There is almost always something going on at home that is causing this behavior. To get at the cause of the problem a little bit more will help me decide what the student needs.”

-Officer M

Additionally, officers noted that counseling extends beyond just talking with students when they have done something wrong, but also reaching out to them when they have done something right. These officers noted that counseling students who are on the wrong path needs to also include positive reinforcement in addition to the negative,

“I’m not looking to traumatize the kid. I’m trying to educate them. I call it mentoring, where I get called out and I let principals know, “Hey, call me back when little Timmy’s having a good day because I’ll introduce him to my dog, I’ll show him my car, give him a sticker.” I want to create those positive interactions as well so I’m not just yelling at kids, and I don’t want just be called to be the bad cop every time somebody’s doing something wrong. These interactions are equally if not more important in getting them back on the right track.”

-Officer L

“If it’s a kid I think we can make an impression on, we try to make an impression if they’re on the wrong path, try to set them on the right path. I know that you’re going down the wrong path and we’re here to help you if you want to go down the right path. I have these conversations usually when they have done something wrong that doesn’t require me to take action. I also try to keep an eye on that kid and check in with them for the next few weeks. Lets them know I am watching and here if they need me.”

-Officer G

In addition to describing what a counseling response looks like in the school environment and when officers try and use this response, participants also discussed why they think this is the most effective response to student misbehavior. Several of the officers discussed why counseling is used so frequently in the school setting,

“Being in a school allows us sit down and have a conversation with a kid, get the point across that you can either stop what they’re doing or what’s going to happen to them, the consequences. If we don’t have a probable cause for arrest, we can have that conversation and talk to the parents. The parents know us. Talk to the admin, they can provide consequences. It’s a formal but less formal way of I guess, having some effect on

social control The school allows us to do this and hopefully correct the behavior before it gets any worse.”

-Officer N

“For being in the middle school and dealing with these kids, I see more of it as opportunity to discourage some of the behaviors I’m seeing. It’s more of a mentorship, more of a counseling approach, than what I did on the street. Working in school with them allows me to get to know them and try to help them versus being more reactive to a call as I would on the street.”

-Officer M

Similarly, other officers also noted the close proximity of the school setting allows them to use counseling more effectively to address student misbehavior,

“Here on the campus, it’s a little bit closer in that we have more access to them to talk to them and try to show them that their behavior that they’re doing is going to ruin them if they keep it up. Spending everyday with them allows me to be more personal with them.”

-Officer L

“Because in a school environment, it’s a controlled environment where a neighborhood is not a controlled environment. There’s a lot more variables where working a school is—to me, I would compare it more like working in a jail. It’s a controlled environment. You have administrators on hand. You have a way of doing things within that environment where a neighborhood, you patrol it and you don’t have those things in place. It’s just anything can happen. The school allows you to work more with these students because of how controlled it is.”

-Officer F

Although every officer interviewed discussed counseling in some way as a response to student misbehavior, many also noted that there are times when they must respond in other ways, specifically in a legal manner. This is a direct result of officers still being law enforcement officers primarily and above all else. Two officers described the idea that legal responses are not preferred, but used when needed or when required,

“I am not here to ruin a kid’s life. I try to do things more informally when I can, but there are times where I have to write the ticket. I usually try and file it for the lowest charge I can, because I do not want to screw up their life. I’d rather the school handle if they can, but sometimes my hands are tied.”

-Officer S

“I want try and intervene, and try and get them back on the other path. Try and intervene, and explain to them why they don’t really want to go that way. I try and go the school discipline route if it’s not a real severe, if we don’t have to do the criminal charges we won’t, we’ll just handle it with school discipline. You only get the one shot, that type of deal. Most of the time after that, I will have to go the legal route if the behavior continues.”

-Officer O

School-based response. The final theme that emerged related to SROs/SBLEs and how they respond to student misconduct is the use of *school-based responses*. Although not nearly as common as the counseling response, some officers noted that they rely on administrators or teachers to address certain misbehavior. This is often the case when officers feel a crime has not been committed, but some form of punishment is needed. One officer describes the school-based response and why they prefer it,

“When we can, we try to get the school and parents involvement. For me personally, the biggest bang is getting parent involvement so they can work it out with the school. If I can get the parents involved and get this quashed to where it doesn’t have to be a criminal thing, it may be a report but as far as filing charges, if we can get it handled on the school level, then I would rather do that. I would rather do just about anything before we actually file charges on a kid.”

-Officer P

Officer L noted that in some cases, a school-based response might be best for everyone involved,

“You have to use a lot of restraint when responding to student issues. Don’t go back to their level, don’t try to grab them just because you’re a cop and you have the right to. Don’t try to grab them and make them do what you want to do because you’re going to get into a struggle, and that struggle, you’re not going to be able to justify why you got into the struggle. If we can’t reason with them, we let administration know and let them handle it administratively. The best way that we can. It is sometimes best for everyone to let the school handle it, the student, the officer, and the community. They school has different resources and training they can use to handle the issue.”

-Officer P

Finally, one officer noted that given recent legislation limiting what an officer can do in response to student misconduct, it is best if the school can handle it administratively,

“It [how he responds to student misconduct] really just depends because you know the new set of bills that came out really limited exactly the things that we could do. To tell you the truth, before they even came out, I wasn’t even doing that [using legal responses] because I realized early on that when you cite a child for doing something like this, the child is really not the one that’s being helped. If we can have the school handle it that is always best. They have the resources to help this student long-term. A ticket is not going to help them in any way.”

-Officer E

From this theme of school-based response, coupled with the theme of counseling, it is clear that officers attempt to refrain from using legal means whenever possible. The officers interviewed acknowledge the fact that they have a unique opportunity, because of the school environment, to “help” these students get back on the right path. Almost all of these officers indicated that using legal means does not help the student in any way, but at times it is either required of them or necessary. However, as demonstrated, officers use counseling techniques and school-based responses far more often.

Summary of Qualitative Results

The thematic analysis of the interview data allowed for the survey results to reaffirmed and placed in greater context as well as for the identification of additional themes related to roles training, and the responses to student misconduct. Specifically, the

interview data reaffirmed the predominant role of officers in the school setting as a law enforcer, which was also identified in the survey analysis. This included engaging in activities such as patrolling hallways and the exterior of the buildings, checking doors to make sure they were secure, and investigating/addressing incidents that amounted to violations of criminal law, all in an effort to promote a safe environment for students. Additionally, officers described a role of a positive role model that was somewhat similar to a mentor but had some different elements to it. Officers also described being a relationship builder, which was a role not found in the survey data. Finally, officers also described serving in an educator role at times. In addition to identifying the specific roles they serve in, officers also noted the multi-faceted and constantly changing nature of the roles they serve in the school environment, the differences between street-based policing and school-based policing, and the importance of developing relationships with educators as their understanding of an officer's role is critical.

Many of the findings from the thematic analysis mirrored those found in the survey data. For instance, a majority of officers reported a lack of adequate training to prepare them for the school setting and a need for more targeted and specialized school specific training. Additionally, many officers noted the frequency and benefits of on-the-job training that came from working with more-seasoned school-based officers. Also, officers noted the desire for parallel training with school staff, especially administrators.

Finally, officers indicated that they most often deal with issues related to theft of personal property, drugs, assault/fighting, and mental health. In response to these incidents, officers indicated that counseling types of responses were the most common, followed by school-based responses. In the next chapter, the findings from both the

quantitative survey and the qualitative interviews will be discussed, in conjunction with previous research, to identify conclusion and recommendations for both policy/practice and future research.

VI. DISCUSSION

The next chapter of this dissertation, Chapter VI, provides a discussion of both the quantitative and qualitative findings in light of prior research in the areas of officer roles, training, and responses to student misconduct. This dissertation aimed to better understand the roles and training of officers working in the school environment and how these factors may influence officer responses to student misconduct. Three primary research questions guided the present study:

1) What are the predominant roles of commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment and their correlates (sex, age, race, years in law enforcement, grade-level served, geographical area of the campus, and percentage of students receiving free/reduced lunch)?

2) What types of training do commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment receive and what factors correlate with specific types of training?

3) What are the common responses to student misconduct used by commissioned law enforcement officers working in a school environment, and how do an officer's role and/or prior training affect their response?

SBLE/SRO Roles

As noted previously in Chapter II, prior research has noted an inherent role conflict in policing in terms of the duties that officers are expected to fulfill. Specifically, throughout the history the policing, law enforcement officers have been expected to be both crime fighters and public servants, and at any given time, one of these roles can supersede the other (Packer, 1968; Pollock, 2016). One could even argue that these roles often present two competing missions. A majority of the time, it is left up to individual officer's discretion as to which of these competing roles they fulfill in any given

situation. For example, an officer may choose to arrest a mother who was caught shoplifting food for her children or connect her with social services.

The results of this study suggest that this role conflict could perhaps be even more prevalent in school-based policing due to the many roles that these officers are asked to fulfill in the educational environment. That is, a majority of prior research has highlighted the triad model as a way of understanding the roles of police in an educational setting. In this model, school-based officers are expected to serve as law enforcers, educators, and mentors (Coon & Travis, 2012; Kennedy, 2001). However, more recent research has suggested that the roles of officers in the school setting may be expanding. For instance, McKenna et al. (2014) identified that some officers are also serving as surrogate parents and social workers. This expanding and changing nature of officer roles was also identified in the current study.

In the survey data, a majority of the respondents most frequently identified law enforcer and/or mentor roles. This included engaging in activities of traditional law enforcement officers such as conducting routine patrol, investigating and responding to violations of the law, and being present as a form of deterrence. As for mentoring, officers reported talking with students about their behavior, giving legal advice, and working with the most at-risk students as a way of getting them “back on track”. However, many officers also noted engaging in activities that were consistent with other roles such as an educator, surrogate parent, or social worker. Although these roles were not as prevalent, they still seemed to be consistent with some of the activities that officers engaged in and thought they should be engaging in on campuses. Interestingly, for the most part, what officers reported others thought their roles should be (i.e. expected roles)

was consistent with what they believed also (i.e. actual roles). These findings again suggest that officers perceive others seeing them as fulfilling two predominant roles – law enforcer and mentor. However, the findings also suggest several secondary roles that officers also serve in to a lesser extent.

In support of these quantitative findings, the qualitative interview data from this study also supported law enforcer as the predominant role of officers in the school environment, as they again described engaging in activities consistent with traditional law enforcement officers. Also, many officers also noted their role as an educator who not only engages in the delivery of classroom presentations and lessons, but one who educates students on their behavior and potential consequences.

However, the interview data also highlighted some additional context and explanation for understanding the roles of officers in educational environments that could not be gleaned from the survey data. For instance, many officers discussed their role as being a positive role model to students on campus; not necessarily a mentor who is providing guidance, but rather someone who is simply being visible and engaging with students in a positive way. These more positive interactions were noted as being much more prevalent than the negative encounters often associated with the law enforcer role. Additionally, an unexpected role of relationship builder was also identified, whereas officers are the liaison between the student and other services, both in school and in the community. These themes identified in the interview data again support the idea of some predominant triad model; however, other more secondary roles exist as well.

Perhaps the most notable finding from the qualitative interviews that can be used as a context for understanding the survey data as well as prior research, was the idea of

this multi-faceted and ever changing role of police in schools. That is, many officers described that they do not have a set list of duties or a defined role, but must be flexible to meet the demands and needs of their campuses on a given day. At times, they may be called on to be a law enforcer, the next day a role model, and the next day a parent. Many of these officers embraced this dynamic environment and to some degree have realized that this is the way they can be most effective.

This dynamic and changing environment for law enforcement officers may be able to explain why to some extent the triad model seems to be inadequate at capturing the full breath of what an officer does in a school setting as well as why some of these ancillary roles of social worker, surrogate parent, and educator appear as roles that officers are engaged in, in some studies, but not others. Perhaps, officer roles in the educational environment are campus specific and not uniform across geographical areas or even a single school district. Perhaps, officer roles need to be developed on a campus-level and not be so rigid and defined, but, rather, be more flexible and specific to the situation in an effort to fulfill the needs of a given campus.

Based on these findings, it is likely impossible to create a typology of school-based officer roles. That is, like policing in general, the situations that officers are confronted with are not as “black and white” as we might think. Officers in both the community and in the school setting deal with complex social problems that require an officer to use his or her discretion to determine the role they should fill in the given situation, and ultimately the best response. As Pollock et al. (2016) found in their interviews with officers, police officers themselves see good policing as largely using communication skills to resolve issues, using legal means only when necessary. This

means that police officers must have good communication skills, be able to listen to others, and be respectful in an effort to defuse and de-escalate situations. The results of this study show this sentiment to be true in the school environment as well.

The findings from this study in regards to officer roles, in conjunction with those of prior research, highlight three main conclusions that should be considered in both practice and future research when examining officer roles in the school environment. First, role conflict should be examined more so in terms of decisions that an individual officer must make in the school setting, given their multitude of roles, rather than different ideas on what an officer's roles should be between different subgroups in the educational environment. Specifically, in this study, it was thought that role conflict manifested as a result of officers and others in the school environment having different views on what the officers should be doing. Although officers mentioned that initially educators did not fully understand the roles of officers, many noted that after some educating, the different subgroups in the school were clear on each other's roles.

Specifically, in the quantitative survey, the actual roles officers reported having and the roles that officers reported others in the school environment thought they had mirrored one another. However, in the qualitative interviews, when asked about what others in the school environment thought their roles should be, the conversations shifted to the importance of working with educators to handle issues on campus. Many officers noted that initially administrators and other educators did not understand the roles of law enforcement. Further, many stated that when they were initially placed in the school setting, they had to continually educate administrators and other schools staff on what they were there to do, and in some cases what they legally could and could not do.

In conjunction with these findings, officers also reported that individual officer discretion was the predominant factor in determining their roles. That is, it is most often left up to the officer to decide what role they will fulfill in a given situation. Therefore, considering the dynamic and exhaustive list of roles officers identified in this study, it is likely that officers are often conflicted within themselves on the best way to handle a situation (i.e., what role to fulfill). This is somewhat analogous to the example provided earlier where the officer had to decide whether to arrest or connect a shoplifting mother with social services. A school-based officer likely faces many of these types of dilemmas given the number of roles they have.

For instance, if a student is consistently having outbursts in class, should the officer use legal means to address this behavior when it amounts to disturbing the peace or should the officer find out what is causing these outbursts. Perhaps the student is not getting enough food at home which makes them more irritable or that their parents stay up fighting all night and he/she is not able to sleep. Each response represents a different role an officer could have in a school setting (law enforcer vs. social worker), and they do not exactly coincide with one another. Therefore, it is recommended that future research examine how officers make such decisions given the number of roles they often taken on in the school setting and the many contextual factors they must consider.

Second, it was readily apparent in the interview data that officers believed that relationships with educators, especially at the campus-level, and their understanding of what the officers roles' were was vital to a successful integration of law enforcement officers into the educational environment. However, as identified in the survey data, campus administrators were not as involved as other groups (police and district

administrators) in determining what the officer's roles for that campus would be. Other groups such as police and district administrators seemed to play a bigger role in determining the roles of these officers. Considering the dynamic, multi-faceted, and campus-specific nature of officer roles in educational environments, it is recommended that individual officers and campus administrators be the primary parties involved in establishing roles. This more targeted and focused discussion and identification of what an officer should be doing at a particular campus allows for roles to be clarified for this specific campus. This will allow those responsible for carrying out these daily functions on a particular campus to ensure they are on the same page when it comes to each other's role. Officers should meet with campus administrators on a regular basis to collectively determine and prioritize their role(s) on campus.

Finally, and as noted by several of the officers who were interviewed, although serving as a law enforcement officer in a school is still policing and shares many similarities, it is not directly analogous to street-based policing. Specifically, officers working in a school setting likely share the same conflicting roles of law enforcer and public servant, but school-based officers have many additional roles that are not nearly as prevalent in traditional policing. For instance, officers at times reported acting as a parent or social worker as well as attempting to seek out positive interactions with students. To some extent, one could label school-based policing as a specialized type of policing just as Crisis Intervention Teams (CIT) are often seen. That is, again, it is still policing, yet the duties, activities, and environmental factors require a certain way of doing business that is different from traditional policing. This difference needs to be considered in future

research as well as practice to ensure that specific and targeted recommendations are provided to this subgroup of officers.

Additionally, officers working in the school setting are encountering and interacting with a defined and confined population which must be considered in all that they do. As one officer noted in an interview, officer safety is paramount when working traditional patrol in the streets. The environment that many officers work in on the streets requires they maintain their own personal safety at all times and above all else. The unknown dangers of many situations, coupled with the reality that backup many not arrive immediately, results in officers having their “guard up” at all times. Officers receive countless hours of training on officer safety, and this is a key element of the law enforcement culture. This same officer discussed his transition from the streets to the school setting and how having 600 kids in close proximity to him really challenged his perceptions of officer safety that had become so engrained from his time spent working on the streets.

In direct contradiction to this, several other officers noted in their interviews that to be successful in a school setting, officers must let this “guard” down to some degree. This shield of safety that officers have, which is reinforced through traditional training and law enforcement culture, likely at times influences how an officer responds in a situation. This is critical to consider in a school setting as many officers reported transitioning from the streets to the school. These officers are trained to have heightened levels of awareness, especially in terms of their safety, which may result in a response that is appropriate on the street (e.g., use of force), but may not be in a school setting.

This issue of officer safety as well as how traditional law enforcement training and culture may be in contrast with a policing in a school setting can be considered in the large “warrior versus the guardian” debate. Remember, the warrior mindset is often used to refer to the attitude that officers must have to overcome potential life-threatening situations that are inherent to police work (Stoughton, 2015). This mindset is instilled in officers from the day they start the academy and throughout their careers (Stoughton, 2015; Van Brocklin, 2015). It is made clear to officers that their primary objective is to go home each and every night, despite the dangerous communities and citizens they will interact with. In contrast, the guardian mindset focuses on interacting with community members in fair, respectful, and considerate ways until they give cause to treat them otherwise (Pollock, 2016; Rahr and Rice, 2015; Stoughton, 2015). Officers working under a guardian mindset are likely to utilize de-escalation techniques to resolve confrontational situations in an effort to establish meaningful relationships with citizens (Stoughton, 2015). It is likely that a guardian approach is more conducive to school-based policing, yet many of the officers likely enter school policing without training on how to navigate an environment that is much different from the challenges faced on the street. Schools pose challenges to the law enforcement officer, but their training in officer safety and officer presence may be ill-suited to a school environment.

It is clear that officers working in school are first and foremost law enforcement officers. However, one of the most interesting findings from this research is that the law enforcer role (as perceived by law enforcement officers) is probably more inclusive than researchers perceive it to be. Recall that there was a positive association between the law enforcer role and an arrest response, but there was also a positive correlation between the

law enforcer role and a counseling response. These findings have to be considered, along with the qualitative findings, as supporting a more encompassing law enforcer role than what the warrior-guardian or crime control versus public servant discussion implies. In these findings, police officers view themselves as law enforcers but that role seems to include resolving conflicts without an arrest or citation if at all possible. Therefore, more attention must be given to what roles officers are taking on given the contextual factors of specific campuses as well as the best process to establish and clearly communicate these roles across the campus community.

Training of SROs/SBLEs

In addition to the in-depth examination of officer roles and how these roles are established, the degree and types of training received by school-based officers was also examined. Prior research has highlighted a training environment for school-based officers that is, to some extent, non-existent, but at the very least inadequate. Specifically, very little time, if any, in traditional police academies is spent on issues related to school-based policing (Clark, 2011). Additionally, no systematic assessments of the prevalence and/or effectiveness of school-based law enforcement training programs that exist have been conducted. Researchers and practitioner groups have also highlighted topics such as juvenile law, alternatives to arrest, classroom teaching techniques, cultural diversity, mental health/child psychology, substance abuse, and counseling techniques as necessary for officers working in schools (Finn et al., 2005; International Association of Chiefs of Police, 2011). Despite this lack of training to prepare officers for working in the school environment, research has concluded that the success of officers who are assigned full-

time in schools is dependent upon specialized training (Buckley et al., 2013; James & McCallion, 2013).

The findings of this study are consistent with those of prior research as it relates to school-based officer training. That is, although almost all of the survey respondents have received traditional law enforcement training (e.g., the academy) as well as some specialized law enforcement training, very few of them had received school-specific training. However, the respondents also reported that on-the-job training was common in the school setting, and a useful way of receiving training specific to this setting.

These findings were also supported by the qualitative interview data. Specifically, many of the officers interviewed noted that prior to working in a school setting, they received no specific training that adequately prepared them to be effective or successful in the school environment. Although many transitioned to the educational setting from a traditional policing function (e.g., patrol in the community), they did not feel this experience adequately prepared them to work in a school specifically. However, the officers interviewed also highlighted the importance of on-the-job training, which is where they would learn from other more seasoned school-based officers on how to function in the educational environment. Officers noted both formal (i.e., FTO programs) and informal types of on-the-job training. Finally, interviewees highlighted the need for more school-specific training as well as the need for parallel training with educators.

These findings, in conjunction with those of previous research on school-based officer training, have highlighted several conclusions that must be considered in both practice and future research. First, it is readily apparent that officers working in the school setting need specialized, school-specific training that target issues specific to

working in this type of environment. Both prior research and this study have highlighted topics such as juvenile law, mental health/child psychology, de-escalation techniques, and counseling strategies that would be of great value to officers working in schools. Given the findings and conclusions regarding officer roles, it is evident that school-based officers are engaged in different activities and serve in different roles when compared to traditional street officers. Therefore, it is necessary that officers working in the school environment receive training that is targeted and mapped to the roles that they perform. For instance, if an officer is expected to counsel students who have been victimized or who have committed crimes against others, they should be trained to recognize symptoms of post-traumatic stress, depression, and suicidal ideation; and to know how to link the student to needed services. Additionally, if officers are expected to teach lessons or classes, training on lesson plan development, classroom management, and basic teaching techniques should be provided.

It is also important to note that, many officers reported that they had extensive law enforcement training, and in many cases, years of experience, so it may be advantageous to provide school-specific training in areas outside of the law enforcement functions they will fulfill for the school as they already have a great deal of training in this area. There are certainly areas specific to law enforcement that may differ in the school setting, when compared to the community setting, and these areas will likely require school specific training, but a majority of officers working in school appear to have a great deal of law enforcement experience prior to making the transition to school-based policing.

Additionally, given training budgets are limited, roles as well as the training to support these roles should be prioritized. That is, training should be provided for the officer's predominant roles first as these are likely more frequent. Specifically, if the officer's main roles are law enforcement and mentoring, but they will occasionally teach a law related course, it might be best to provide them with training in mentoring first and then look to provide educator-based training later. Establishing a long-term training agenda can assist with ensuring that officers over time get the training they need to support the host of duties and roles they engage in while working in the school setting.

Second, school districts and/or police departments who have school-based officers should aim to establish some form of on-the-job training for officers new to the school setting. This type of training has shown to be valuable in acclimating officers to the school environment. This could be as simple as making sure a new officer spends a defined amount of time with more-seasoned officers by shadowing what they do. This will provide the new officer an opportunity to ask a fellow officer any questions they may have as well as pick up techniques that are more appropriate in a school setting when compared to street policing. For districts that only have one officer, this may mean starting another officer prior to the current officer leaving, or partnering with other nearby districts that utilize law enforcement to co-train.

Districts and departments should also consider developing more formal on-the-job training through the use of FTO programs that combine classroom lessons with field experience. These types of programs are pervasive in traditional policing, and therefore, could be customized to fit with the special needs of school-based policing. This type of program would allow new officers to work directly with more seasoned officers and

discuss the complex situations that may present themselves in this type of setting. Specifically, this type of formal program could help identify potential decisions where role conflicts may arise and how best to work through the most appropriate role given the situational factors. This can be done in a safe training environment prior to dealing with real-world situations. It is likely that these programs will make officers more effective in schools as that they can provide critical classroom-based information to officers prior to working in the school as well as an opportunity to get acclimated to the differences in this type of policing, as compared to a more traditional setting, by providing direct field experience.

Finally, school districts and police departments should allow for parallel training between law enforcement officers and educators. That is, officers should be required to attend relevant educator-based trainings and educators should attend relevant law enforcement training. This type of training will ensure that both parties are familiar with what the other is allowed to do and how they will likely respond in different situations. This does not mean that educators and officers need to attend every training that the other does, but rather just in areas where it would be beneficial for the other to know that information. For instance, it would be useful for an officer to be familiar with when an administrator is required to suspend a student or when they are required to notify law enforcement of specific incidents. In turn, it would also be beneficial for administrators to know when an officer is required to arrest a student or when they can employ other techniques to de-escalate a situation. Parallel training might also indirectly assist in developing strong relationships between educators and officers, which was noted by many of the officers as critical to their success in the school environment. Overall, this

idea of parallel training will assist in ensuring that the various sub-groups operating in this environment are on the same page and familiar with what each other can and will do in a given situation.

Responses to Student Misconduct

The main focus of this dissertation was not only to provide an in-depth examination of school-based officer roles and training, but also to assess how roles and training may influence an officer's response to student misconduct. An officer's response to student misconduct has larger implications for the overall discipline environment of a school. For instance, many studies have cited how the increased use of legal means to address student misconduct has paralleled the increasing police presence in schools (Dohrn, 2001; Theriot, 2009). The use of these legal means, which are exclusionary in nature, have shown to contribute to negative student outcomes (Kang-Brown et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2011; Stearns & Glennie, 2006; Suh et al., 2007; Sweeten, 2006). This has led some previous studies to conclude that the increased use of police in the school setting is an important and contributing factor that is fueling the larger "school-to-prison pipeline" (Dohrn, 2002; Kupchik, 2010; Meiners, 2011; Price, 2009; Rimer, 2004; Theriot, 2009). However, previous work has not considered the roles and training of officers as factors that influence how an officer responds to student misconduct.

There were several notable findings from the present study that should be considered, in conjunction with prior research, when assessing the impact of roles and training on responses to student misconduct. First, from the qualitative interviews, respondents noted the most common incidents that they deal with on campus are thefts, drugs, assault/fighting, and issues relating to mental health. Although serious to some

degree, respondents noted that these incidents are relatively less serious when considered on the larger crime continuum.

Moreover, in both the survey and interview data, it was clear that a counseling type of response to student misconduct was the most frequent, followed by the use of a school-based response. That is, officers reported in the survey that they most often address misconduct by counseling the student, and those interviewed reaffirmed this finding and also noted that other more punitive responses (i.e., legal responses) are only used when required or absolutely necessary. Officers also noted school-based responses were a way of avoiding the use of a legal response, yet still holding the student responsible for their actions. Taking these two findings together, given that officers deal with relatively minor crimes a majority of the time, it makes sense that they use a less punitive response, such as counseling or school-based, most often when compared to the use of a legal response. Again, the use of legal responses such as arrest and ticketing were reported as being extremely rare and only used in the most serious incidents.

When examining the findings from the multivariate analysis, it was evident that certain roles and types of training increased or decreased the likelihood of different responses to student misconduct. For instance, counseling, school-based, and legal responses (ticket/referral and arrest) all increased as an officer took on more of a law enforcer role. That is, as officers took on a more law enforcer role in the school setting, they were more likely to use counseling, school-based, and legal responses when controlling for other roles and relevant contextual factors. As a law enforcement officer, one would expect that the use of legal responses would increase, but not the use of counseling or school-based responses. This finding is interesting in that the predominant

role officers identified was that of a law enforcer, yet as this role increases so does the use of counseling students and school-based responses. This supports the idea of a more encompassing law enforcer role that aims to resolve situations using non-legal means when appropriate, and only using legal means as a last resort. The increased use of school-based responses with a law enforcer role may be due to the reasoning provided by some of the interviewees, who stated that this type of response is a good alternative to the use of legal responses in that it provides some consequences for the student actions without involving the legal system.

Additionally, the use of counseling and school-based responses also increased as officers took on more of a mentor role. Considering the standardized coefficients, officers who took on more of a mentor role were more likely than those who took on a law enforcer role to use a counseling response. Unlike the association between the law enforcer role and counseling response, this makes intuitive sense. A mentor by nature is likely going to try and talk with the student to figure out what the root cause of the misconduct is and how best to address it. A mentor may also look to provide some consequences (i.e., school-based), but not create a punishment that will have lasting effects (i.e., legal). A counseling response also increased as an officer took on more of a social worker role where as legal responses decreased as an officer took on more of an educator or surrogate parent role. As a social worker, a counseling response goes along with trying to identify the root cause of the issue and providing the needed services. The decrease in the use of legal responses for officers who took on more of an educator or surrogate parent role are inherent to wanting students to succeed and not create barriers later in life that may be damaging.

These findings are interesting considering the prior literature on the dichotomy between the two predominant roles of policing: crime fighter and public servant. It appears that this may not be a dichotomy at all, at least in terms of school policing. That is, officers reported a multi-faceted and ever changing role in the school environment, and were supportive and accepting of this dynamic role. This role included being a law enforcer, but also other roles, such as a counselor and educator, which are more in line with a public servant approach. Further, even when the predominant role of law enforcer was adopted, counseling and other non-legal responses were more likely to be used than legal responses. That is, even when in a law enforcer role, school officers do not only use legal responses, but rather, often try to counsel students or use less punitive school-based punishment prior to opting for a legal response. This demonstrates that even when in a law enforcer role, officers tend to use responses that align better with a public servant approach. Ultimately, these findings suggest that being a crime fighter and a public servant may not be in contrast to one another as has been previously suggested. At least in this study, it appears that officers attempt to fulfill both roles in terms of how they respond to different situations in the school environment. This conclusion may also apply more broadly, considering that Pollock et al. (2016) found that officers identified elements of both a crime fighter and public servant as being “good policing”.

Additionally, although many of the training variables did not have a significant impact on the types of response to student misconduct, one finding was notable. The likelihood of a counseling response decreases as more traditional police training is acquired. That is, as officers receive more traditional police training, they are less likely to use a counseling response. Although police likely receive some degree of counseling

training at the academy, one could argue that the focus is on other more punitive responses. Therefore, in an environment where a counseling response is arguably more appropriate a majority of the time, the traditional training officers receive is counterproductive in this regard. Therefore, this finding again highlights the need for training to be specific and mapped to the unique roles officers have in schools as it likely has some relationship with how they will handle student misconduct.

It is also interesting to note that although control variables in this study, and not the focus of the analyses, many of the individual and school-level demographic variables had significant relationships with the different response variables. For instance, the more years an officer had in school-based policing, the less likely they were to use a counseling response. Additionally, officers who worked with middle and high school students were less likely to use counseling responses when compared to officers who worked with students in all grade-levels. Further, older officers and those who worked with both elementary and high school students were more likely to use school-based responses. However, officers working in urban areas were found to use school-based responses less often than those officers working outside of an urban area. Male officers, older officers, and those with more years in school-based policing were more likely to use Class C tickets as a response to student misconduct. Finally, those officers with more years in school-based policing were also more likely to use arrest as a response. Many of these findings make intuitive sense; however, others are contradictory to what was hypothesized and what one would expect, and should be considered in future research. It is likely that many of these individual and school level factors influence officer decisions on how to respond in different situations.

In addition, several of the vignette variables also had notable relationships with the different response variables. Specifically, in the scenarios, as the age of the student decreased, the cooperation of the student decreased, and the student had less of a misconduct history, they were more likely to receive a counseling response. Certainly, it does not make intuitive sense that a student who is not cooperating has a greater chance of receiving a counseling response. Further, as the seriousness of the incident increased and the student had more of a misconduct history, they were more likely to receive a school-based response. Finally, as the age of the student increased, the seriousness of the incident increased, and the student's cooperation increased, they were more likely to be given a class C ticket as well as arrested. Again, it is not intuitive to think that someone who is cooperating is more likely to receive a legal response. Overall, some of these relationships appear intuitive, where others are contradictory to what one would expect. Although not the focus of this study, these vignette factors appear to matter in how an officer responds to student misconduct, and therefore should be considered in future research.

Limitations

This study provided findings and conclusions that allowed for a better understanding of what roles officers engage in, the training officers receive, and how these roles and training may impact their responses to student misconduct. Nonetheless, this study was not without limitations. First, in regards to the quantitative survey, this study likely has limited external validity outside of Texas. As the target population and subsequent sample are derived from Texas, the findings and conclusions of this study may not apply to other states or jurisdictions. In other words, when generalizing the

findings and conclusions of this study outside of Texas, it should be done with caution. However, regardless of this limitation, much of the research on the use of full-time police in schools and the STPP has been conducted in Texas, and thus, the current study's findings can contribute to this dialogue. Additionally, the findings and conclusions of this study can provide the necessary methodology and theoretical ideas to conduct similar research in other areas of the country in an effort to more comprehensively examine factors said to be related to the STPP.

Second, there was likely some degree of coverage error present in this study as a result of the chosen methodology. Coverage error is when the sampling frame does not accurately represent the characteristics of the population of interest (Dillman et al., 2014). In this study, the sampling frame did not include the entire population, and because of that, the sampling frame may not have adequately and fully represented the target population. Although it would have been ideal to survey the entire universe of SROs/SBLEs currently working in a public school environment in the state of Texas (i.e., all 3,500) or to have drawn a random sample of members from this population, this was not practical due to the lack of a complete sampling frame. However, although the sampling frame for this study did not include every officer currently working in the school environment, it was believed to provide the best coverage of the population when compared to other alternatives. Additionally, in an effort to minimize this limitation, the entire sampling frame was surveyed.

Third, there was likely some degree of non-response error in the present study. Non-response error is the difference between the estimates produced when only some of the sampled units respond and when all the units respond (Dillman et al., 2014). That is,

not every officer in the sample responded to the survey, which could have resulted in non-response error if the responses of those that responded differed systematically from those that did not respond. In an effort to minimize this limitation, considerable attention was given to the design and deliver of the survey. Specifically, this study utilized a multi-modal approach to increase both the response rate and data quality. Additionally, the survey was designed with the respondent in mind, aiming for a quick and easy data collection process. Finally, various reminder notices were delivered to encourage participation from those who may have delayed responding after the initial request. Although possible, it is believed that these measures limited much, if not all, of the likelihood of non-response error.

Finally, it is likely that some degree of measurement error existed in the current study. Measurement error is the difference between the estimate obtained from the survey data and what the true value actually is of a given construct (Dillman et al., 2014). Although some measurement error will always likely exist, the design and delivery aspects of the survey mentioned above were also aimed at not only increasing response rates, but the quality of the data as well. Therefore, the mixed-modes approach, the usability of the data collection instrument, and the procedures associated with the survey itself were believed to result in quality data that ultimately minimized measurement error.

In addition to these limitations of the quantitative survey, there were also limitations associated with the qualitative interview data. First, because only 20 interviews were conducted, there is an issue of generalizability just as there was with the quantitative data as well. That is, this portion of the study likely suffers from low external validity and it is likely that the findings drawn from these interviews are only

representative of those who were surveyed. However, in conjunction with the quantitative findings, the limited generalizability is mitigated to some degree. Collecting qualitative data, in conjunction with quantitative data, allowed for each set of findings to be informed by the other. In many respects, the findings from each methodology produced mirroring results; however, the qualitative findings allowed for a greater context and interpretation of these findings.

Second, it is also possible that the officers who were interviewed as a part of this study are different than those who were not interviewed (similar to the issue of non-response with the survey data). Perhaps, officers who were interviewed were more counseling-oriented and those who were not selected for an interview were more law enforcement focused. This would result in a self-selection bias and provide findings and conclusions that were likely skewed. Although this limitation was possible in the current study, many steps were taken to limit this bias.

Almost 40% of the survey respondents agreed to be considered from a follow up-interview. This created a sampling frame to selected interview participants that was diverse in terms of both individual and contextual demographics. Additionally, a stratified random sample of 20 officers was taken from the more than 200 officers that agreed to be considered from a follow-up interview. That is, officers were stratified based on the service structure they worked in (i.e., SRO vs. ISD department), and then a random sample was taken from each of the strata. These strategies were believed to mitigate self-election and provide an unbiased sample of officers that were interviewed. As noted previously, 11 of the officers represented ISD police departments and nine were contracted SROs; officers represented districts that were rural, suburban, and urban, with

district enrollments ranging from 200 students to more than 100,000 students; a majority of the officers worked in middle and/or high school settings, however, other officers worked on elementary campuses; and six of the officers interviewed were female and fourteen of the officers were male.

Finally, issues related to internal validity and reliability of the data are also paramount in qualitative research. Qualitative research is often criticized for being subjective in nature; however, when the focus of the research is to describe or understand a phenomenon in detail, it is most appropriate. In this specific context, much of the subjectivity associated with qualitative research is mitigated because of the mix-methods approach. Although only 20 interviews were conducted, and there was no assessment of inter-rater reliability (as only one researcher did the coding of the themes), the overall research design allowed for the findings and conclusions to be considered collectively and across different methods. That is, the quantitative data could be informed by the qualitative data, and vice versa, which allowed for triangulation of the data to some degree. As noted, many of the findings in the quantitative survey were supported by the qualitative data; however, these data allowed for a more in-depth and complete understanding of the phenomenon under study. In conclusion, the overall design of this study was believed to minimize the above mentioned limitations and their impact on the findings and conclusions.

VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The general increase in juvenile crime as well as acts of mass violence that occurred in schools during the 1980s and 1990s resulted in policymakers and educators responding to ensure that schools would remain safe places for all children. In an effort to curb violence, drugs, and other crimes in schools, zero tolerance policies and the use of full-time law enforcement became two of the predominant strategies to address these issues (American Psychological Association, 2008; Brown, 2006; Martinez, 2009; Skiba & Rausch, 2006; Teske, 2011). However, despite decreases in school crime, victimization, and disorder that began in the late 1990s, the use of zero tolerance policies and law enforcement officers remains in place today in many schools. As the use of full-time law enforcement in schools continued to expand into the 2000s, researchers spent much of the last decade and a half identifying ways in which to implement police into the school environment effectively as well as better understand the vast array of duties and activities that these officers engage in while working in the school setting (Clark, 2011; Coon & Travis, 2012; Finn, Shively, McDevitt, Lassiter, & Rich, 2005; Kennedy, 2001; McDaniel, 2001). Despite these developments in school-based policing, little training or guidance has been developed to directly support the roles that these types of officers fill in a K-12 educational environment (Brown, 2006; McKenna & Pollock, 2014).

Further, the use of full-time law enforcement in schools has led to concern regarding the potential negative effects of officers on students, specifically how officers respond to student misconduct. An abundance of evidence over the last decade and a half has shown that school discipline has become more punitive and dependent on the legal system (Carmichael et al., 2005; Fabelo et al., 2011; Fowler et al., 2010; Fowler et al.,

2007; Morgan et al., 2014; Wolf, 2013). That is, research has shown that the increased use of law enforcement in schools has paralleled the development of a more punitive school discipline environment where the response to student misconduct is likely to be suspension, expulsion, a ticket, and/or an arrest. The overreliance on law enforcement officers in the school setting, including the use of legal responses to student misconduct, and an increased use of expulsion and out-of-school suspension have ultimately led to the development of what has been called the “school-to-prison pipeline” (American Civil Liberties Union, 2012; Fowler, 2011; Meiners, 2011; Wald & Losen, 2003). Although reform efforts have begun to focus on addressing the issue of the pipeline, the use of full-time police in schools remains a factor that researchers and policymakers alike agree needs more attention.

In an effort to better understand the roles that school-based law enforcement officers have, the training they receive to support these roles, and how they respond to student misconduct, it was necessary to situate this study within the larger context of policing. That is, throughout history, police have been seen as both public servants and as crime fighters (Crank, 2003; Donner, 1992; Kappeler, Sluder, & Alpert, 1984). However, these two predominant roles of the police are often times in conflict with one another leaving officers with a great deal of discretion in many situations as to what role(s) might emerge. Contradictory missions have likely lead to contradictory roles (public servant versus crime fighter) that can make decision making difficult in certain situations. This role conflict that is present in policing generally is perhaps even more pervasive in school-based policing considering the multitude of roles that school-based officers encounter. It is possible that this enhanced role conflict may be responsible for some of

the negative outcomes (e.g., the school-to-prison pipeline) that are being attributed to the use of police in schools. Therefore, the focus of this study was to better understand how the roles and training of school-based officers impact their responses to student misconduct in the school environment, and ultimately influence a certain piece of this pipeline.

The overall design of this study was believed to minimize the above mentioned limitations and their impact on the findings and conclusions; thus allowing this research to make a valuable contribution to the broader literature. Overall, this study aimed to influence policy, practice, and future research in regards to the roles and training of school-based officers as well as how these roles and training may impact their responses to student misconduct. Specifically, this research utilized a mixed-methods approach in an effort to take advantage of the benefits associated with each of these methodologies, while also attempting to address the limitations of each of these methodologies. The online questionnaire associated with the study was designed and delivered to 2,529 officers currently working in Texas schools using a mixed-mode approach in an effort to increase the response rate, limit potential bias, and reduce various forms of error associated with survey research. In total, 564 officers responded for a response rate of 22.3%.

From those officers who participated in the online quantitative questionnaire, a sample of 20 officers was solicited to participate in follow-up qualitative interviews. These qualitative interviews were used to reinforce, re-inform, and/or re-construct the larger issues associated with the use of full-time police in schools and specifically detail how they may or may not be impacting the broader discipline environment in schools.

This study found that officers have two predominant roles in the school setting – law enforcer and mentor/role model. However, it appears that officers have many other secondary roles that are dynamic and often changing depending on the needs of the campus, making it difficult to create a typology of officer roles. Additionally, officers reported receiving very little, if any, school-specific training to support their unique roles in the school setting. Rather, officers reported using on-the-job training as a way to fill gaps in their usually extensive law enforcement training in an effort to be more effective in the school setting. Finally, officers reported handling, for the most part, relatively minor incidents, and often using a counseling or school-based response. The use of legal responses was reported as being very rare.

Perhaps the most notable finding of this study is that officer roles and training, to some extent, have an impact on how they respond to student misconduct. Specifically, as an officer takes on more of a law enforcer role, the use of counseling and school-based responses increases, as does the use of legal means (i.e., arrest and ticketing). This again highlights a more encompassing law enforcer role than previous research implies. The law enforcer role seems to include a focus on resolving conflicts without an arrest or citation if at all possible. Additionally, as an officer takes on more of a mentor role, counseling responses increase (more so than with a law enforcer role) as do school-based responses. As for training, as an officer receives more traditional law enforcement training, the use of counseling responses decreases.

Given these findings, it is critical for school districts and law enforcement departments to establish clear roles that are tailored to the specific campus in which the officer will work and flexible to fit the given situations and officer will likely encounter.

This development of roles should include campus-level administrators. It is also vital that training for these officers be school-specific and mapped to their roles. Establishing clear roles and targeted training is fundamental to creating a school-based policing program that is effective, especially given the evidence from this study that supports roles and training influence how an officer responds to student misconduct. Providing clear roles (even if the list of roles is long and changes frequently) and training will ensure an officer responds to student misconduct in the most appropriate way. Future research should examine how officers balance competing roles, especially in terms of responding to student misconduct as well as how a standardized framework for integrating law enforcement officers into the school setting would streamline the establishment of roles and the appropriate training in an effort to support positive student outcomes.

Based upon these findings, as well as those of previous research in this area, several conclusions can be drawn that have larger implications for the overall discipline environment, including the school-to-prison pipeline. First, it is critical to consider the roles that officers are asked to fulfill and the training they are provided to support these roles as these likely prescribe a predominant response to student misconduct. For instance, identifying a law enforcer role as the officer's primary function and providing school-specific law enforcement training will reasonably increase the use of legal responses. Intuitively, this is what the officer has been asked to do given the law enforcer role. It is important to consider what the role(s) of the officer is, but also what the role actually entails. When establishing roles, districts and police departments must understand that the roles they select will determine what that officer does on campus, including how they will handle student misconduct.

Perhaps, a law enforcer role is what is needed, but it must be understood that this will likely result in more legal responses to student misconduct. However, an increased law enforcer role was also found to increase counseling and school-based responses as well. Considering the qualitative findings, one can assume that officers, as they do on the streets, attempt to use other less punitive responses before resorting to a legal response. Regardless, as an officer takes on more of a law enforcer role, they are more likely to use legal responses. However, perhaps, being a positive role model/mentor for students will be the officer's main function. It can be reasonably deduced based on the findings of this study that an increase in the use of counseling (more so than that of a law enforcer role) and school-based responses is likely. However, as noted, based on the findings of this study, it is likely that an officer will have a multitude of roles, and no one role will likely encapsulate all the officer does in the school setting.

Finally, in much of the prior research, the focus has been on quantifying the use of legal responses by officers in schools. That is, several studies (Dohrn, 2001; Theriot, 2009) have reported large number of arrests made or tickets given by officers who are working in schools in an attempt to show the impact officers are having on this more punitive discipline environment. However, this study found that a majority of responses to student misconduct involve some form of a counseling response, and the use of legal responses was rare and only used in the most serious circumstances. Further, counseling responses are often not captured in official data, and therefore cannot be considered when examining the impact officers are having on the larger discipline environment. We simply do not know how many counseling responses officers perform for every arrest. As one of the interviewees said, he counsels 40 times for every one arrest. We need to

capture all of the responses officers use, and not just the legal responses, to get a better picture of how they impact school discipline. Without knowing all of the incidents that officers deal with and all of the responses they use, the full picture is incomplete and we cannot adequately examine their impact on the school-to-prison pipeline. Also, it is important to know the type of incident or misconduct that occurred when considering the response used. As noted by some officers, legal responses are only being used for the most serious incidents, while other less punitive responses are more frequent and used for less serious incidents. Regardless, more detailed data is needed on all types of incidents that officers respond to and how they respond, especially those that involve counseling, to fully examine how officers are impacting the larger school discipline environment.

APPENDIX SECTION

Appendix A.

Online Questionnaire

EXAMINING THE USE OF FULL-TIME POLICE IN SCHOOLS: HOW ROLES AND TRAINING MAY IMPACT RESPONSES TO MISCONDUCT

INTRODUCTION

This study is being conducted to assess the use, training, and impact of commissioned law enforcement officers working in the schools. Specifically, we are interested in what actions and activities law enforcement officers like yourself engage in while working in schools, how you respond to issues of student misconduct, and the specific training you have received.

Because you are a commissioned law enforcement officer working in a school setting, it is vital that we hear directly from you in regards to the actions and activities you engage in. It is important that we capture and share this important information with other researchers and the general public as the role you serve is important to school safety and security.

Your participation in this research study is voluntary. All of your responses will be kept confidential, and no information that can identify you, your department, or the school(s) in which you work will be associated with your responses in any reports of these data. If you have any questions or comments about the survey please feel free to contact Joe McKenna, the Principal Investigator for this study, by email at jmm272@txstate.edu or by phone at 774-306-6177.

CONSENT FORM

IRB APPROVAL NUMBER: 2015F2626

Joe McKenna (jmm272@txstate.edu; 512-245-1938), a Texas State University researcher in the School of Criminal Justice, is leading a research study that assess the use, training, and impact of commissioned law enforcement officers working in schools. The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of the actions and activities that officers working in schools engage in, how they respond to student misconduct, and what training they have received.

Your Participation

You have been asked to participate in this study because you are a commissioned law enforcement officer currently working in schools on a daily basis. The research will consist of you completing this one time survey that will ask you to report whether or not you engage in certain actions and activities while working in the school, what you believe others think you do in the school, how you handle student misconduct, and what training you have received. This survey will be conducted solely online, and should not take more than 30 minutes. There are approximately 40 questions, some of which have several items. If you choose, at the end of this survey, you can indicate if you are interested in potentially being selected for a follow up interview. These follow up interviews will expand on topics covered in the survey and allow us to gain a greater understanding. The interviews will be conducted by phone or in-person, and will last between 60 and 90 minutes.

Risks and Benefits of the Study

Although there are no expected physical, psychological, social, legal, or other direct risks to participants, it is possible that there may be a quasi-political risk based on the broader contextual findings of this research. For example, the data on an aggregate level still allows for large-scale generalizations and themes to be derived such as “overly punitive discipline practices”, “largely enforcement-based officers”, or “a severe lack of specialized training” throughout Texas schools. The anticipated risk to you participating in this study is minimal; however, we believe there is some benefit to your participation. As a law enforcement officer serving a school district, your role in school safety is vital, and by collecting and sharing this information we hope to inform researchers as well as the general public about your activities. We hope that by sharing the information in both academic (e.g., research publications and conference presentations) and public (e.g., school districts and public policy groups) settings, that this information will allow others to have a better understanding of the vital roles officers have in school safety.

Protections

As mentioned, your participation in this survey is completely voluntary. You may choose not to answer a particular question and may stop participation in this research at any time. Your individual responses will not be shared with anyone other than the researchers and there will be no consequences for any answers that you provide. The research team will take steps to keep the information you share confidential. These steps include administering the survey online through a

secure web service that has all of the protections of the Texas State University Data Management Center and storing the data on a secure computer at Texas State University. The research team will keep this identifiable data secure for a period of at least five years.

Questions

This project, 2015F2626, was approved by the Texas State IRB on January 13, 2016. Pertinent questions or concerns about the research, research participants' rights, and/or research-related injuries to participants should be directed to the IRB chair, Dr. Jon Lasser (512-245-3413 - lasser@txstate.edu) and to Becky Northcut, Director, Research Integrity & Compliance (512-245-2314 - bnorthcut@txstate.edu).

I have read and considered the information presented in the consent form and at this time I wish to voluntarily participate in the research study.

I have read and considered the information presented in the consent form and at this time I wish **not** to voluntarily participate in the research study.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Screening Question

Are you currently a commissioned law enforcement officer in Texas assigned to work in a K-12 school (either as a contracted SRO or as part of an ISD police department) environment on a daily basis?

- a. Yes (if yes, start questionnaire)
- b. No (if no, route to end of questionnaire)

PART I: OFFICER ROLES

INSTRUCTIONS

The first set of questions in this survey focuses on the ACTUAL actions and activities you may or may not engage in while working in a school. A series of activities that you may or may not engage in while working in the school are presented below. For each action, indicate how often you engage in this activity. There will be some actions that you engage in frequently, while other you may never engage in.

1. During the past 12 months, on average, how often have you engaged in the following actions while working in the school?

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Once a Month	Once Every Two Weeks	Once a Week	Every Day
Crime prevention	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enforcement of law violations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enforcement of code of conduct violations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Investigation of criminal activity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Patrol the inside of the school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Patrol the outside of the school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Engage in a specialized police unit	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Traffic enforcement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Emergency management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. During the past 12 months, on average, how often have you engaged in the following actions while working in the school?

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Once a Month	Once Every Two Weeks	Once a Week	Every Day
Assist students or their families with law-related issues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide advice to students about their behavior	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide advice to students about problems they have at home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Talk with students in the hallways	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reach out to at-risk students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Build positive relationships with students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. During the past 12 months, on average, how often have you engaged in the following actions while working in the school?

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Once a Month	Once Every Two Weeks	Once a Week	Every Day
Teach classes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Give presentations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Utilize informal opportunities to teach students about behavior	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide informal counseling to students on juvenile law and the consequences of violating it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide in-service training to teachers/staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. During the past 12 months, on average, how often have you engaged in the following actions while working in the school?

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Once a Month	Once Every Two Weeks	Once a Week	Every Day
Provide emotional support to students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide positive encouragement to students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide basic necessities (clothing and school supplies) for students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide monetary assistance to students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Visit a student at home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provided a list of social services to students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Encourage parents to be more involved in their students life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

INSTRUCTIONS

The next set of questions in this survey focuses on your perceptions of how frequently OTHERS in the school environment (teachers, campus administrators, district administrators, and police administrators) think you should engage in certain actions. A series of activities that others may or may not think you should engage in while working in the school is presented below. For each action, indicate how frequently you believe OTHERS think you should engage in this activity. There will be some actions that you believe they think you should engage in frequently (i.e., every day); while others that you believe that they think you should never engage in. These responses may or may not differ from what you actually do in the school.

EXAMPLE: You may ACTUALLY spend a majority of your time informally counseling students about their behavior; however, you may believe that teachers and administrators in the school think you should do very little of this, and rather spend your time issuing citations or arresting students.

5. Considering your experiences with others in the school environment over the last 12 months, how frequently do you believe OTHERS working in the school (e.g., teachers, campus administrators, district administrators, police administrators) think you should engage in the following actions?

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Once a Month	Once Every Two Weeks	Once a Week	Every Day
Crime prevention	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enforcement of law violations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enforcement of code of conduct violations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Investigation of criminal activity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Patrol the inside of the school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Patrol the outside of the school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Engage in a specialized police unit	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Traffic enforcement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Emergency management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Considering your experiences with others in the school environment over the last 12 months, how frequently do you believe OTHERS working in the school (e.g., teachers, campus administrators, district administrators, police administrators) think you should engage in the following actions?

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Once a Month	Once Every Two Weeks	Once a Week	Every Day
Assist students or their families with law-related issues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide advice to students about their behavior	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide advice to students about problems they have at home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Talk with students in the hallways	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reach out to at-risk students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Build positive relationships with students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. Considering your experiences with others in the school environment over the last 12 months, how frequently do you believe OTHERS working in the school (e.g., teachers, campus administrators, district administrators, police administrators) think you should engage in the following actions?

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Once a Month	Once Every Two Weeks	Once a Week	Every Day
Teach classes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Give presentations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Utilize informal opportunities to teach students about behavior	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide informal counseling to students on juvenile law and the consequences of violating it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide in-service training to teachers/staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. Considering your experiences with others in the school environment over the last 12 months, how frequently do you believe OTHERS working in the school (e.g., teachers, campus administrators, district administrators, police administrators) think you should engage in the following actions?

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Once a Month	Once Every Two Weeks	Once a Week	Every Day
Provide emotional support to students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide positive encouragement to students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide basic necessities (clothing and school supplies) for students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide monetary assistance to students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Visit a student at home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provided a list of social services to students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Encourage parents to be more involved in their students life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

INSTRUCTIONS

The final question in this section of the survey focuses on who is involved in establishing your roles and responsibilities in the school environment. Several groups of individuals are presented below. For each group of individuals indicate how involved that group was in establishing your roles and responsibilities in the school environment. There may be some groups that are not at all involved in establishing your roles and responsibilities, and there may be others that are always involved.

9. To what degree is each involved in establishing your roles and responsibilities when working in the school environment?

	Not Involved	Rarely Involved	Sometimes Involved	Often Involved	Always Involved
Campus administrators (i.e., principal)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
District administrators (i.e., superintendent)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Campus staff (i.e., teachers and support staff)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Police administrators (i.e., police chief or other ranking officers)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
School board	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Individual officer discretion based on the context of the situation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

PART II: RESPONSES TO STUDENT MISCONDUCT

INSTRUCTIONS

The next set of questions in this survey focuses on the responses to student misconduct you use while working in a school. Below, there will be 15 descriptions of a misconduct incident at school and the student involved. Each description has the same basic structure, but the details of each will vary.

For each description you will be asked to indicate how likely you would be to use four different responses to the situation. The responses include 1) *some form of informal counseling*, 2) *some form of school-based punishment*, 3) *issuing a Class C citation/referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review*, or 4) *arresting the student*. Each of these responses will be considered separately for each description, meaning that you may think they are all extremely likely, you may think they are all extremely unlikely, or you may think some are extremely likely while others are somewhere in between. The four responses are defined as follows:

Informal counseling: talking with students to understand the root causes of their behavior, making students think about their actions and why it is wrong, using student mistakes as a learning opportunity for them, educating students on why their behavior is a problem, and/or using restorative justice approaches that involve bring the parents, offender, and victim together

School-based punishment: sending a student to a campus administrator, “writing-up” a student using the school referral system, sending a student to In-School Suspension (ISS), taking away a student’s free time or other valued activities (athletics, lunchtime, etc.), requiring a student to do school/community service, requiring a student to come to school during no scheduled hours (evenings or weekends), and punishing a student under a school zero tolerance policy

Issuing a class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review: issuing a legal citation or, because of SB 393, submitting a report to the local municipal court to see if a legal citation is warranted

Arresting the student: taking the individual into custody for their actions

10. You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a 15-year-old student who has been asked to leave class for being disruptive and has refused. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student does not respond and gets up and begins to walk away from you. To your knowledge, the student has been in trouble a few times before for minor misconduct.

Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of informal counseling?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of school-based punishment?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by arresting the student?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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11. You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a [insert student age] student [insert incident seriousness]. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student [insert level of cooperation]. To your knowledge, [insert student history].

Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of informal counseling?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of school-based punishment?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by arresting the student?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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12. You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a [insert student age] student [insert incident seriousness]. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student [insert level of cooperation]. To your knowledge, [insert student history].

Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of informal counseling?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of school-based punishment?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by arresting the student?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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13. You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a [insert student age] student [insert incident seriousness]. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student [insert level of cooperation]. To your knowledge, [insert student history].

Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of informal counseling?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of school-based punishment?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by arresting the student?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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14. You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a [insert student age] student [insert incident seriousness]. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student [insert level of cooperation]. To your knowledge, [insert student history].

Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of informal counseling?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of school-based punishment?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by arresting the student?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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15. You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a [insert student age] student [insert incident seriousness]. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student [insert level of cooperation]. To your knowledge, [insert student history].

Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of informal counseling?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of school-based punishment?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by arresting the student?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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16. You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a [insert student age] student [insert incident seriousness]. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student [insert level of cooperation]. To your knowledge, [insert student history].

Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of informal counseling?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of school-based punishment?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by arresting the student?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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17. You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a [insert student age] student [insert incident seriousness]. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student [insert level of cooperation]. To your knowledge, [insert student history].

Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of informal counseling?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of school-based punishment?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by arresting the student?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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18. You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a [insert student age] student [insert incident seriousness]. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student [insert level of cooperation]. To your knowledge, [insert student history].

Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of informal counseling?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of school-based punishment?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by arresting the student?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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19. You receive a call from a teacher at your campus about a [insert student age] student [insert incident seriousness]. You go to the classroom, locate the student, and ask for their name and if they would please come with you. The student [insert level of cooperation]. To your knowledge, [insert student history].

Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of informal counseling?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation using some form of school-based punishment?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by issuing a Class C citation or referring the case to the court for prosecutorial review?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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Given the situation presented above, how likely would you be to respond to this situation by arresting the student?

Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely
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PART III: OFFICER TRAINING

INSTRUCTIONS

The next set of questions in this survey focuses on the types and/or sources of training you have or have not receive in an effort to prepare you for working in the school environment. A series of different training types and/or sources is presented below. For each training type and/or source, indicate whether or not you have received it to date. There will be certain training types and/or sources for which you have received, and others that you have not.

20. Which of the following types and/or sources of training have you receive in an effort to prepare you for working in the school environment?

	Have received	Have not received to date
Traditional police academy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Experience from working in a municipal police department	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A formal FTO program at a municipal police department	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

21. Which of the following types and/or sources of training have you receive in an effort to prepare you for working in the school environment?

	Have received	Have not received to date
Communication and interpersonal skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Active shooter or active threat	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
How to address individuals with mental health issues (i.e., Crisis Intervention Training)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
K-9, Bomb squad, SWAT, or other specialized police unit	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Emergency management planning and drilling	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Presentation or training development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Community-Oriented Policing strategies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Crime prevention strategies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Investigation skills and strategies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Counseling and/or mentoring strategies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Drug identification/counseling	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Violence prevention of intervention	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

22. Which of the following types and/or sources of training have you receive in an effort to prepare you for working in the school environment?

	Have received	Have not received to date
A formal program that provided classroom-based instruction on specific law enforcement activities with in a school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A formal program that provided field training on specific law enforcement activities with in a school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
How to specifically deal with irate parents and students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Legal updates pertaining to law enforcement work in the school environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An in-depth understanding of applicable juvenile law	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An in-depth understanding of applicable Texas Education Code requirements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An in-depth understanding of applicable district/campus policies and procedures	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
School operation, environment, culture, and/or climate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Informal ride-along with a more experienced officers working in the school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Observing fellow officers to see how they conduct law enforcement activities in the school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

23. Are there any other types and/or sources of training that you have received or know of that help prepare officers for working in the school environment?

24. Do you feel the training you received prior to starting your assignment in the school environment was adequate?

a. Yes

b. No

25. Would a formal training program specifically for school-based law enforcement officers enhance your ability to do your job more effectively?

a. Yes

b. No

26. Do you feel that actual experience in the school environment is superior to any formal training program?

a. Yes

b. No

Part IV: School Demographics and Environment

INSTRUCTIONS

The next set of questions in this survey focuses on the school in which you work. The questions in this section will ask you to either select an answer from the choices given, type in your own answer, or check multiple answers that may apply.

27. Which of the following best describes the structure in which you serve the school district that you currently work for or with?

- a. I work for an Independent School District Police Department in which the district commissions its own officers
- b. I work for a local, county, or regional law enforcement agency and am contracted by the school district to serve as a school resource officer (SRO)
- c. I serve the school district on an as needed basis (I am not only campus unless called)
- d. I serve the school district under some other type of structure (please explain)

28. In your current assignment, are you assigned to one campus/school or more than one on a daily basis?

- a. I am assigned to one campus on a daily basis
- b. I serve in an administrative role and am not on a campus daily
- c. I am assigned to more than one campus on a daily basis (If so, how many?)

29. In your current assignment, which grade level(s) do you interact with most (select all that apply)?

- a. Elementary
- b. Middle/Junior High
- c. High School

30. What best describes the geographical area of the campus in which you work?

- a. Urban
- b. Suburban
- c. Rural
- d. Other (please specify) _____

31. Approximately what percentage of students in your school(s) gets free or reduced lunch?

- a. 0-25%
- b. 26-50%
- c. 51-75%
- d. 76% or greater

32. What is the approximate racial/ethnic breakdown of your student body?

Race/Ethnicity	Percentage
African American	
White	
Hispanic	
Asian	
Other	
Total	100%

33. During the past 12 months, how often did the following incidents occur in the campus/district in which you work?

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Once a Month	Once Every Two Weeks	Once a Week	Every Day
Student bullying/cyberbullying	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gang problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Physical attacks or fights	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Threats of physical attacks with weapons (e.g., gun)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Threats of physical attacks without weapons	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Robbery	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Theft/larceny	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Possession of firearm or explosive device	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Possession of knife or sharp object	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Possession or distribution of illegal drugs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sexual harassment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Vandalism	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hate Crimes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Intruders (armed or unarmed)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Part V: Respondent Demographics

INSTRUCTIONS

The final set of questions in the survey focuses on information about you and your experiences that may or may not impact the roles in which you engage and the ways in which you respond to student misconduct. The questions in this section will ask you to either select an answer from the choices given or type in your own answer.

34. How many years have you been in law enforcement (include time working in or with school districts as well as time working for local, county, regional, state, and/or federal law enforcement agencies)?

_____ Years

35. How many years have you served in a law enforcement capacity in any school environment?

_____ Years

36. How many years have you served in a law enforcement capacity for this school district (including all campuses and duties)?

_____ Years

37. What is your current rank?

- a. Patrol officer
- b. Supervisory officer

38. What is your sex?

- a. Male
- b. Female

39. What is your age?

_____ (years)

40. What is your race/ethnicity?

- a. Caucasian
- b. African American
- c. Hispanic
- d. Pacific Islander
- e. American Indian
- f. Asian
- g. Multi-racial
- h. Other (please specify) _____

Follow-Up Interviews

It is often difficult to fully capture and understand information in a survey due to the lack of actual human contact. In an effort to provide greater context to our findings derived from this study, we will be randomly selecting a group of officer (from those that are willing) to share additional information with us pertaining to the topics and areas covered in this survey. Please indicate below if you are willing to provide more valuable information related to our understanding of roles, responses to student misconduct, and training for officers working in the school environment. If so, you will also be asked to provide contact information to set up the interview.

Would you be willing to participate in a follow-up interview, either in-person or by phone, regarding the same topics and subject matter of this questionnaire?

- a. Yes (**will be a hyperlink to a separate survey where contact information will be entered**)
- b. No

If yes, please provide your name, department, e-mail address, and phone number so that the researchers may contact you to set up such an interview:

Name: _____

Department: _____

E-mail: _____

Phone number: _____

REVIEW PAGE

Your participation in this survey is almost complete!

Please take this time to go back and answer any questions that you may have left for the end by using the “Prev” button below.

If you are satisfied with the answers you provided, please click the “Next” button below.

SUBMISSION PAGE

We want to truly thank you for your time in completing this important survey. This survey is important as current officers working in schools are our only source of information on what they are doing and how they are responding to student misconduct. If you would like a copy of the results of this study or if you have any questions or concerns you would like to share with us, please do not hesitate to contact Joe McKenna by email at jmm272@txstate.edu or by phone at 512-245-1938.

Thank you again for your participation. Please click “Done” to complete this survey.

Appendix B.
Interview Protocol

1. Describe the structure and environment of the campuses in which you work.
 - a. Describe the area around your campus?
 - b. Generally, what is the environment of the campus like?
 - c. Generally, what are the students like on your campus?
 - d. Is there anything unique about your campus?

2. Describe the role(s) of SROs/SBLEs in the campuses in which you work.
 - a. Why do you think officers take on these particular roles in the school environment?
 - b. Do you believe officers should have these roles? Why or why not?
 - c. Are the roles of law enforcement officers different in the school environment as opposed to officers working the “streets”?

3. Describe what role(s) others (such as teachers, campus administrators, district administrators, and police administrators) think SROs/SBLEs have and/or should have in the campuses in which you work.
 - a. Why do you think these roles differ from what your actual role(s) is?
 - b. Why do you think the actual and expected role(s) from others is similar?

4. Explain the role you believe SROs/SBLEs should have on a campus.
 - a. Why do you think officers should have this role in the school environment?
 - b. How would your campus function if the law enforcement presence was removed?

5. What are the most common incidents that SROs/SBLEs working in the school environment encounter today?
- Why do you think these are the type of incidents they most commonly address?
 - Do you believe the law enforcement officers in schools should only handle criminal behavior? Why or why not?
6. Describe the range of responses to student misconduct that you most commonly employ.
- What types of responses do you use most frequently?
 - How do these responses to student misconduct vary by situation?
7. Explain how zero-tolerance policies and SB 393 have impacted the range of responses to student misconduct that you most commonly employ.
8. What would you describe as alternative ways of responding to student misconduct compared to the ones that currently exist in your campus (if you believe there should be alternatives)?
- Why do you think these alternatives are more appropriate ways of responding to student misconduct?
 - Why do you believe there are no alternative ways of responding to student misconduct?
9. Describe the training that you received prior to starting your career or assignment in school-based policing.
10. Describe the training that you received since being involved in school-based policing.
- Did you feel it was adequate in preparing you to work in a school (why/why not)?
 - What should be in the training for school-based law enforcement?

11. How has your training influenced the role(s) in which you have in the school environment (if at all)?

12. How has your training influenced your responses to student misconduct in the school environment (if at all)?

Appendix C.

Advance Letter

January 15, 2016

[First and Last Name]

[Address]

Dear [First and Last Name],


My name is Joe McKenna and I am a researcher from Texas State University in San Marcos, Texas. I am contacting you because I need your help conducting a research study that I believe will have some benefit to you. Specifically, I am leading a research study that assesses the use, training, and impact of commissioned law enforcement officers working in schools. The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of the actions and activities that officers working in schools engage in, how they respond to student misconduct, and what training they have received. I hope that by sharing the findings of our study in both academic and public settings that this information will allow others to have a better understanding of the vital roles officers have in school safety.

You have been asked to participate in this study because you are a commissioned law enforcement officer currently working in schools on a daily basis. If you agree to participate, the research will consist of you completing a one-time survey that will ask you to report whether or not you engage in certain actions and activities while working in the school, what you believe others think you should do in the school, how you handle student misconduct, and what training you have received. This survey will be conducted solely online, and should not take more than 30 minutes. If you choose, at the end of this survey, you can indicate if you are interested in potentially being selected for a follow up interview. These follow up interviews will expand on topics covered in the survey and allow us to gain a greater understanding. The interviews will be conducted by phone or in-person, and will last between 60 and 90 minutes.

The anticipated risk to you participating in this study is minimal; however, I believe there is some benefit to your participation. As a law enforcement officer serving a school district, your role in school safety is vital, and by collecting and sharing this information I hope to inform researchers as well as the general public about your activities. Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary, and you may choose not to answer a particular question or stop participation in this research at any time. Your individual responses will not be shared with anyone other than the researchers and there will be no consequences for any answers that you provide. The research team will take steps to keep the information you share confidential including administering the survey online through a secure web service that has all of the protections of the Texas State University Data Management Center and storing the data on a secure computer at Texas State University.

Next week you will be receiving a follow-up email with a link directly to the survey and your corresponding access code. If you have any questions about this research study, please contact me by telephone at 774-306-6177 or by email at jmm272@txstate.edu.

Many thanks,



Joe McKenna
Principal Investigator
School of Criminal Justice
Texas State University

Appendix D.

Follow-Up Email

Good morning [First and Last Name],

I contacted you last week via mail to request your assistance with a research study that I am leading. As a reminder, I am conducting a research study that assesses the use, training, and impact of commissioned law enforcement officers working in schools. The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of the actions and activities that officers working in schools engage in, how they respond to student misconduct, and what training they have received. By sharing the findings of our study in both academic and public settings that this information will allow others to have a better understanding of the vital roles officers have in school safety.

You have been asked to participate in this study because you are a commissioned law enforcement officer currently working in schools on a daily basis. This research will consist of you completing a one-time survey that will ask you to report whether or not you engage in certain actions and activities while working in the school, what you believe others think you should do in the school, how you handle student misconduct, and what training you have received. This survey will be conducted solely online, and should not take more than 30 minutes. If you choose, at the end of this survey, you can indicate if you are interested in potentially being selected for a follow up interview. These follow up interviews will expand on topics covered in the survey and allow us to gain a greater understanding. The interviews will be conducted by phone or in-person, and will last between 60 and 90 minutes.

Below is the link to the survey and the access code you need to enter the survey. Upon clicking on the link below, you will be provided more information about the study, including a consent form that you must read. If you agree to participate, you will then be taken directly to the survey.

[Survey link]

[Unique access code]

As a reminder, your participation in this survey is completely voluntary, and you may choose not to answer a particular question or stop participation in this research at any time. Your individual responses will not be shared with anyone other than the researchers and there will be no consequences for any answers that you provide. The research team will take steps to keep the information you share confidential including administering the survey online through a secure web service that has all of the protections of the Texas State University Data Management Center and storing the data on a secure computer at Texas State University.

If you have any questions about this research study, please contact me by telephone at 774-306-6177 or by email at jmm272@txstate.edu.

Joe McKenna
Principal Investigator
School of Criminal Justice
Texas State University

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- Public Safety Partnership and Community Policing Act (42 USC § 3796dd).
- Safe Schools Act of 1994 (20 USC §5961).
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- Texas Education Code 37.006
- Texas Education Code 37.108.
- Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act (H.R. 3355, Pub.L. 103–322).